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A STUDY OF SELECTED FACTORS ASSOCIATED WITH
FORMAL NORMATIVE INMATE BEHAVIOR AT THE
MARYLAND STATE CORRECTIONAL INSTITUTION

BY

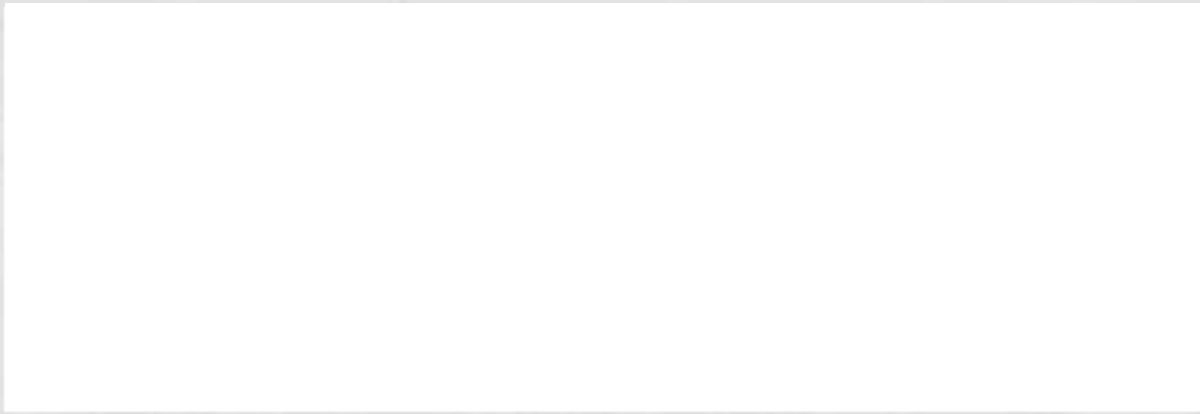
VIRGIL J. BROWN, JR.

A thesis submitted
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the
degree Doctor of Philosophy, Major in
Sociology, South Dakota
State University
1977

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A STUDY OF SELECTED FACTORS ASSOCIATED WITH
FORMAL NORMATIVE INMATE BEHAVIOR AT THE
MARYLAND STATE CORRECTIONAL INSTITUTION

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A STUDY OF SELECTED FACTORS ASSOCIATED WITH
FORMAL NORMATIVE INMATE BEHAVIOR AT THE
MARYLAND STATE CORRECTIONAL INSTITUTION

Abstract

VIRGIL J. BROWN, JR.

Under the supervision of Dr. Robert M. Dimit

This research was designed to answer the following question:

"What factors are associated with inmate deviations from formal rules and regulations within a correctional institution?"

The study had the following objectives: (1) the development of a theoretical model which would be capable of analyzing formal normative behavioral patterns of incarcerated individuals; (2) the development of instruments for measuring formal normative behavior and a set of related variables; (3) to establish the degree of association between selected variables and formal normative behavior of inmates; and (4) the development of an index for prediction of inmates propensity to conform to or deviate from institutional norms.

Utilizing a structural deterministic theoretical orientation, four classifications of independent structural variables were developed: (1) past personal variables--family cohesion, area of socialization, differential association, social class, and residential mobility; (2) present personality variables--age, marital status, race, education, and religiosity; (3) crime and sentence variables--type of crime, length of sentence, proportion of sentence completed, age at first

arrest, and recidivism; and (4) present social variables--visitations, job satisfaction, attitudes towards prison officials, and voluntary formal organizational participation.

A random sample of 110 inmates was selected from the total inmate population of the Maryland Correctional Institution at Hagerstown. A weighting system, using a panel of judges, provided scores for a set of prison violations. A stepwise least squares multi-variate technique was used to analyze the data.

The major findings were:

(1) A structural deterministic oriented model was developed integrating organizational, personality, role, and systems theory capable of analyzing inmate behavior.

(2) Instruments were located and constructed for measuring formal normative inmate behavior (inmate infraction coefficients) and the selected 19 independent variables.

(3) Of the 19 independent variables hypothesized in set relationship to formal normative inmate behavior, six were found to be statistically significant. These variables were: differential association, education, marital status, type of crime, length of sentence, and voluntary formal organizational participation.

(4) As a result of the stepwise least squares multi-variate analysis, an equation was developed for predicting formal normative inmate behavior.

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VJB

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter	Page
I. INTRODUCTION AND STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM	1
Introduction	1
Statement of the Problem	1
Objectives of the Study	1
Importance of the Problem	2
II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE	3
FORMAL NORMATIVE BEHAVIOR	3
PAST PERSONAL STRUCTURAL CHARACTERISTICS	6
Family Cohesion	6
Summary	11
Proposition I	12
Area of Socialization (Urban-Rural)	12
Summary	17
Proposition II	18
Differential Association	18
Summary	23
Proposition III	23
Social Class (Level of Living of Parents)	23
Summary	33
Proposition IV	33
Residential Mobility (Migration)	34
Summary	36
Proposition V	36
PRESENT PERSONAL STRUCTURAL CHARACTERISTICS	36
Age	36
Summary	38
Proposition VI	39
Marital Status	39
Summary	42
Proposition VII	43
Race	43
Summary	47
Proposition VIII	48
Education	48
Summary	50
Proposition IX	51

Chapter	Page
Social Class (Individual Present Class)	51
Proposition X	51
Religion	51
Summary	55
Proposition XI	55
CRIME AND SENTENCE STRUCTURAL CHARACTERISTICS	55
Type of Crime	55
Summary	57
Proposition XII	58
Length of Sentence	58
Summary	59
Proposition XIII	60
Proportion of Sentence Served	60
Summary	61
Proposition XIV	61
Age at First Arrest	62
Summary	62
Proposition XV	62
Previous Convictions (Recidivism)	63
Summary	64
Proposition XVI	64
PRESENT SOCIAL STRUCTURAL PATTERNS	64
Visitation	64
Summary	67
Proposition XVII	68
Job Satisfaction	68
Summary	70
Proposition XVIII	70
Attitudes (Towards Prison Administration and Guards)	70
Summary	72
Proposition XIX	72
Participation in Voluntary Formal Organization	72
Summary	76
Proposition XX	76
III. THEORETICAL MODEL	78
Orientation of Model	78
Parsons' Model	79
Merton's Model	81
Basic Conceptual Framework	83
The Link Between Social Structure and Personality Structure	87

Chapter	Page
Aggregates, Variables, and Parameters	89
Nominal Definitions of Variables	91
Deduction of Propositions	97
IV. RESEARCH DESIGN	99
Introduction	99
Sampling Procedure	99
The Interview Schedule and Records Examination	99
Operational Definitions of Variables	100
Dependent Variable--Formal Normative	
Inmate Behavior	100
Independent Variables	101
Family Cohesion	102
Area of Socialization	102
Differential Association	103
Social Class (Parents)	104
Residential Mobility (Migration)	104
Age	105
Marital Status	105
Race	105
Education	105
Social Class (Inmate's)	105
Religiosity	105
Type of Crime	107
Length of Sentence	107
Completed Portion of Sentence	107
Age at First Arrest	108
Recidivism	108
Visitations	108
Job Satisfaction	109
Attitudes Toward Prison Officials	109
Participation in Voluntary Formal Organizations	110
The Research Instruments	110
Formulation of Hypotheses	111
General Hypothesis	111
Sub-Hypotheses	111
Collection of Data	113
The Pretest	113
Administration of the Instruments	113
Statistical Technique of Analysis	114
V. STATISTICAL ANALYSIS OF DATA	116
Technique of Analysis	116
Measurement of Variables	116
Descriptive Statistics	117

Chapter	Page
Level of Significance	119
Statistical Hypothesis	119
Results of Multivariate Analysis	123
General Findings	123
Findings: Inferential Analysis of Sub-Hypotheses	126
Differential Association	126
Type of Crime	127
Educational Level	127
Marital Status	130
Length of Sentence	130
Voluntary Formal Organization Participation	133
Insignificant Findings	133
VI. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS	136
Summary	136
General Findings	138
Specific Findings	138
Differential Association	139
Type of Crime	140
Education	141
Length of Sentence	142
Marital Status	143
Voluntary Formal Organization Participation	143
Conclusions	144
Limitations of the Study	146
Implications for Further Study	147
BIBLIOGRAPHY	148
Books	149
Journals and Periodicals	155
Documents and Handbooks	161
Dissertations and Theses	161
Magazine Articles	162
APPENDIX	163
Staff Member Violation Questionnaire	164
Results of Staff Member Violation Questionnaire	167
Inmate Record Sheet	168
Interview Schedule	170

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
1. Measurements of Central Tendency and Dispersion for all Variables	118
2. Correlation Matrix of Independent and Dependent Variables	120
3. The 'Best' One-Variable Model Found by the Minimum R-Square Improvement Procedure Upon Inmate Infraction Coefficients	122
4. Regression Coefficients, F-Values, and Probability Levels for Nineteen Variable Model	124
5. Accumulated R^2 of Independent Variables	125
6. The Distribution of Inmate Infraction Coefficients and Differential Association	128
7. The Distribution of Inmate Infraction Coefficients and Type of Crime Committed	129
8. The Distribution of Inmate Infraction Coefficients and Education	131
9. The Distribution of Inmate Infraction Coefficients and Marital Status	132
10. The Distribution of Inmate Infraction Coefficients and Length of Sentence	134
11. The Distribution of Inmate Infraction Coefficients and Voluntary Formal Organization Participation	135

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION AND STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Introduction

The social processes which precipitate from the structure of correctional institutions have attracted the interest of many sociological scholars. The development of theories and research concerning prison adjustment and inmate behavior may be the most neglected area concerning penal phenomena.

Today many problems face correctional officers and administrators, an important one being the inmates' adjustment to incarceration. One aspect of prison adjustment seems to be the inmates' violations of prison rules and regulations. This dissertation will focus on inmate behavior concerning these rules and regulations.

Statement of the Problem

What factors are associated with inmate deviations from formal rules and regulations within a correctional institution?

Objectives of the Study

Using a structural and organizational theoretical orientation, the following are designated objectives of this study:

1. to develop a theoretical model which will be capable of explaining formal normative inmate behavior.
2. to develop instruments for measuring formal normative inmate behavior and a set of socio-psychological variables.

3. to determine the relative degree of association between a selected group of independent variables and inmate's formal normative behavioral patterns within the prison.
4. to create an index for possible prediction of inmate's propensity to conform to or deviate from institutional norms of the prison.

Importance of the Problem

Researching inmate behavior is important in predicting inmate behavior. Correction officials at every level will make decisions involving inmate behavior.¹ These decisions can be made more effectively if predictive, diagnostic, and treatment tools are developed.²

Such instruments may help in determining maladjustments to incarceration³ and developing rehabilitative programs for each inmate.⁴ Also, these tools may be used to predict success or failure of inmate paroles.

¹Daniel Glaser, "Testing Correctional Decisions", Journal of Criminal Law, Criminology, and Police Science, Vol. 45, No. 6, 1955, p. 679.

²L. M. Hanks, Jr., "Preliminaries for a Study of Problems of Discipline in Prisons", Journal of Criminal Law and Criminology, Vol. 30, 1939, p. 879.

³George J. Train, "Unrest in the Penitentiary", Journal of Criminal Law, Criminology, and Police Science, Vol. 44, No. 3, 1953, p. 277.

⁴Frank Loveland, "Classification in Prison Systems", in Paul W. Tappan (ed.) Contemporary Corrections, New York: McGraw-Hill Co., 1951, p. 104.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Formal Normative Behavior

Since the major concern of this dissertation is formal normative behavior, a discussion of the concept is necessary. This concept can be viewed as the conformities to or deviations from the norms of a system which can be formally sanctioned.

Edwards defines behavior as ". . .the manner of acting in a given situation".¹ Integrating "normative" into this definition centers on the concept of norms. Gibbs states that norms are:

. . .the shared expectations of a social group or society. The concept assumes a relationship between the perceptions of these shared expectations by members of the social group and the extent to which the norm influences behavior.²

Fantina and Reynolds define norms as ". . .the habitual standards of a group to which the individual members of the group tend to conform".³ Therefore, norms are rules, regulations, and standards which group members use to guide their behavior.

¹Henry P. Fairchild, Dictionary of Sociology and Related Sciences, Totowa, N.J.: Littlefield, Adams, and Co., 1966, p. 21.

²Gayle Johnson, et al., Encyclopedia of Sociology, Guilford, Conn.: Dushkin Publishing Co., 1974, p. 199.

³Edmond Fantina and George S. Reynolds, Contemporary Psychology: An Introduction, San Francisco, Calif.: W. H. Freeman and Co., 1975, p. 580.

Horton and Hunt describe three general types of norms: folkways, mores, and laws.⁴ Folkways are defined as ". . . simply the customary, normal, habitual ways a group does things. Shaking hands, eating with a knife and fork. . .".⁵ Folkways are sanctioned to bring about conformity.

Horton and Hunt define mores as "those strong ideas of right and wrong which require certain acts and forbid others".⁶ Here the norm is sanctioned more formally but not by legal means.

The norm concerning this dissertation falls under the category of laws and requires formal legal sanctions. Horton and Hunt define laws as mores that have been incorporated into the legal system of organizations or societies. Therefore, any violation of a formal written code would be a violation of a law and legally sanctioned. Formal normative behavior can, thus, be defined as the behavior centered around a set of laws governing various situations.

Two or more concepts should be discussed in considering formal normative behavior; conformity and deviance. Kiesler and Kiesler define conformity as "a change in behavior or belief toward a group as a result of real or imagined group pressure."⁷

⁴Paul B. Horton and Chester L. Hunt, Sociology, New York, N.Y.: McGraw-Hill, 1976, pp. 48-51.

⁵Ibid., p. 48.

⁶Ibid., p. 49.

⁷Ibid., p. 50.

Conformity, defined by Asch, is the "adherence of individuals to the normative behaviors and standards of the group to which they belong".⁸ Therefore, a conformer is an individual who accepts and obeys the norms of the organization of which he is a member. Deviance is the opposite of conformity. Wickman defined deviance as ". . .behavior that is contrary to the standards of conduct or social expectations of a given group or society".⁹ Thus, considering the formal normative behavioral system of a correctional institution, individuals may conform to, or deviate from, the written codes.

The following section of this dissertation will review selected variables found by researchers to be associated with the formal normative behavior of incarcerated individuals.

In the early 1960's, Coe designed a study to relate several variables to prison adjustment of inmates. Deviant behavior was one indicator of adjustment.¹⁰ Coe created four broad categories in which variables were included; (1) personal data, (2) early social data, (3) present (precommitment) data and (4) criminal data.¹¹

These four categories have been slightly modified to fit into the theoretical framework of this dissertation. They include: (1) past

⁸Gayle Johnson, et al., Encyclopedia of Sociology, Guilford, Conn.: Dushkin Publishing Co., 1974, p. 55.

⁹Ibid., p. 79.

¹⁰Rodney M. Coe, "Characteristics of Well Adjusted and Poorly Adjusted Inmates", Journal of Criminal Law, Criminology, and Police Science, Vol. 52, No. 2, 1961, p. 180.

¹¹Ibid.

personal structural characteristics, (2) present personal structural characteristics, (3) crime and sentence structural characteristics, and (4) present social structural characteristics.

PAST PERSONAL STRUCTURAL CHARACTERISTICS

The past structural characteristics are variables that have developed within the personality of the individual during the early years of socialization. These five variables will be later used in conjunction with the theoretical model.

Family Cohesion

Most sociological studies of the family and delinquency have dealt with the outward structure of the family, whether or not it is broken, how large it is, etc. Most psychiatric studies have dealt with the internal mechanisms of family relationships. To give a more integrated picture, these two types of theories will be taken together and regarded as one.¹²

Studies which have focused on the internal structure of the family have generally shown greater associations with delinquency than studies focusing on the outward structure. This led Nye to comment, on the basis of his extensive study of juvenile delinquency, that the structure "itself" does not cause delinquency.¹³

¹²The President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice. Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Crime, Washington, D.C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1967, pp. 189-193.

¹³Evan Nye, James Short, and Virgil Olson, "Socio-economical Status and Delinquent Behavior", American Journal of Sociology, Vol. 63, No. 4, 1958, pp. 381-389.

Probably most important in the causation of delinquency is the quality of the parent-child relations. The consistency, fairness and strictness of parental discipline are among the most important variables related to delinquent behavior.¹⁴ Peterson and Becker state:

If one endorses the common assumption that capacities for internal control are complexly but closely related to previously imposed external restraints, then parental discipline assumes focal significance as a factor in delinquency.¹⁵

In a study by Slocum and Stone, they reported fairness of discipline as being significantly associated with conforming behavior for boys and also for girls.¹⁶ Nye found that of the children in his study who considered their father's discipline "always fair", only 30 percent of the boys and 20 percent of the girls fell into the "most delinquent" category; while of those who felt their father's discipline was unfair, 55 percent of the boys and 44 percent of the girls fell into the "most delinquent" category. Nye also showed that a relationship existed for girls with regard to the strictness of the mother's discipline, with reported strictness being related to less delinquency.¹⁷

¹⁴President's Commission, 1967, op. cit., p. 191.

¹⁵Donald Peterson and Wesley Becker, "Family Interaction and Delinquency", in Herbert C. Quay, Juvenile Delinquency: Research and Theory, Princeton, N.J.: D. Van Nostrand, 1965, pp. 36-39.

¹⁶Walter Slocum and Carol Stone, "Family Culture Patterns and Delinquent-Type Behavior", Marriage and Family Living, Vol. 25, No. 2, 1963, pp. 202-208.

¹⁷F. Ivan Nye, Family Relationships and Delinquency, New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1958, pp. 14-98.

McCord and McCord concluded that consistent discipline by both parents, whether punitive or love oriented, significantly reduced delinquency.¹⁸

Andry reported a similar finding in his study of London delinquents,¹⁹ and Nye found a significant positive correlation between the parent's rejection of their child and the child's delinquency.²⁰

The interplay of affection and discipline in parent-child relationships has also been cited by Weinberg as most important in affecting the personality of the child and predisposing him to select delinquent associates and participate in delinquency.²¹

Implicit to these studies is the role of the family in the future of the child. Thrasher refers to family disorganization as one of the causes of delinquency.²² Cohen suggests that the major role of the family is its determination of the child's social class, which structures the child's socialization experience.²³

¹⁸William McCord and Joan McCord, Origins of Crime, New York: Columbia University Press, 1959, pp. 35-67.

¹⁹Robert G. Andry, "Faulty Paternal and Maternal-Child Relationships, Affection and Delinquency", British Journal of Delinquency, Vol. 8, No. 1, 1957, pp. 34-48.

²⁰Nye, op. cit., Family Relationships, pp. 1-119.

²¹S. Kirson Weinberg, "Sociological Processes and Factors in Juvenile Delinquency", in Joseph Roucek, Juvenile Delinquency, New York: Philosophical Library, 1958, pp. 113-132.

²²Frederic M. Thrasher, The Gang, Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1927, pp. 13-85.

²³Albert K. Cohen, Delinquent Boys: The Culture of the Gang, New York: The Free Press, 1955, pp. 2-121.

Like all institutions, the family is structured. It consists of accepted norms and procedures for attacking problems and getting things done.²⁴ The family structure differs from family to family, and from place to place. The structure of the family is based on these things: composition of family, forms of marriages, avoidances, cultural relativity and others. This structuring leads to clearly defined tasks that are expected of the family as an institution. It is through the efforts of the society in which a family exists that these functions are performed. The most commonly performed tasks of the family are: sexual regulation, affections, status, protection, and the economic function.²⁵

As a group, the family usually works together to fulfill its tasks. When disorganization becomes the pattern of the family, dysfunction is the result. The family patterns are broken down, norms are eroded, communication becomes almost obsolete, and the family no longer can function according to the norms of its society. Because of this disorganization, many times the family structure becomes such that it inhibits meaningful communication and relationships. As a result of this, much delinquency may arise.²⁶

Abrahamsen has presented a theoretical view of the connection between the family and crime or juvenile delinquency. According to him,

²⁴Horton and Hunt, op. cit., pp. 214-227.

²⁵Ibid.

²⁶Ibid.

all delinquents are emotionally disturbed and their disturbances result from tensions in the family.²⁷

Other sociologists see the family's main function as one of control: preventing the child, directly or indirectly, from participating in delinquent acts. Reiss and Nye have already been discussed in relation to this. Reckless developed his own theory of social and personal control. He pointed to social disorganization as the breakdown of social controls and a cause of delinquency. The absence of effective discipline was an indicator of family disorganization and another factor of social control failure.²⁸

Another aspect of parent-child and family relations associated with juvenile delinquency is the lack of parental affection. The Gluecks reported that all of the affectional patterns of the home, mother-child, father-child, and child-child, bore a highly significant relationship to juvenile delinquency. In the Gluecks study, the most important factor seemed to be that of the father's affection for the boy; 40.2 percent of the delinquents, but 80.7 percent of the controls had affectionate fathers.²⁹

²⁷David Abrahamsen, "Family Tension, Basic Cause of Criminal Behavior," Journal of Criminal Law, Criminology, and Police Science, Vol. 40, No. 3, 1960, pp. 330-343.

²⁸Walter C. Reckless, The Crime Problem, New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1961, pp. 217-221.

²⁹Sheldon Glueck and Elenor Glueck, Predicting Juvenile Delinquency and Crime, Harvard University Press, Cambridge, Mass., 1959, p. 58.

Coe, in studying behavior patterns of inmates, found a significant relationship between early home conditions and prison adjustment. Inmates coming from poor home conditions were less well adjusted than inmates coming from better home conditions.³⁰

Summary

The importance of cohesion within the family thus emerges as an important factor in relation to delinquency. The findings of a number of studies point to the significant differences between delinquent and nondelinquent groups in terms of cohesion within the family. Assuming that cohesion supports conventional rather than deviant behavior, it appears that a cohesive parent-child relationship promotes the internalization of conventional values and norms and therefore insulates a child against delinquent behavior.

Documentation of these previous studies consistently shows early family cohesion to be related to delinquency. If this relationship is valid regarding earlier years of the socialization process, it can be logically stated that later normative behavior will also be affected. Poor family cohesion is related to delinquency. Delinquency is a type of non-conforming behavior as is violation of formal prison codes. Therefore, family cohesion may be related to violation of formal prison codes.

³⁰ Rodney M. Coe, "Characteristics of Well Adjusted and Poorly Adjusted Inmates", Journal of Criminal Law, Criminology, and Police Science, Vol. 52, No. 2, 1961, p. 183.

Proposition I

Since family cohesiveness appears to be related to normative behavior, the following general proposition can be stated:

As family cohesion decreases, formal normative behavior will move toward non-conformity (deviant behavior).

Area of Socialization (Urban-Rural)

Bertrand feels the main difference between the urban and rural life styles is socialization. Morals, values, beliefs, ideas and attitudes are learned as the individual becomes socialized. Therefore, socialization is different in urban and rural sub-cultures.³¹

The difference between rural and urban characteristics and patterns have been the interests of sociology since the conception of the science. Primary and secondary groups have often been used as characteristics of urban and rural life styles. Primary groups are associated with rural living and secondary groups to urban living.

Tonnies developed the terms "Gemeinschaft" and "Gesellschaft". These two terms transfer roughly as "community" and "society". The gemeinschaft is a social system in which most relationships are personal or traditional, and often both. A good example is the feudal manor, a small community held together by a combination of personal relationships and status obligations. Small rural communities of this twentieth century might be considered a gemeinschaft social system.³²

³¹ Alvin L. Bertrand, Rural Sociology, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1958, p. 46.

³² Don Martindale, The Nature and Types of Sociological Theory, Boston, Mass.: Houghton-Mifflin Co., 1960, p. 83.

Tonnies relates that in *gesellschaft*, the society of tradition is replaced with the society of contract. In this society neither personal attachment nor traditional rights and duties are important. The *gesellschaft* flourishes in the modern metropolitan city.³³

Contrasting characteristics of relationships:

<u>Gesellschaft</u>	<u>Gemeinschaft</u>
Impersonal	Personal
Formal Contractual	Informal
Utilitarian	Traditional
Realistic "hard boiled"	Sentimental
Specialized	General ³⁴

Timasheff relates that Tonnies' distinction between *gemeinschaft* and *gesellschaft* provide the basis for MacIvers' contrast between community and associations. Community being the most inclusive social group and territorially rooted, and associations being organizations promoting a limited number of specific interests.³⁵

Durkheim defines solidarity as that condition within a group in which there is social cohesion plus cooperative collective action directed toward the achievement of group goals. Durkheim distinguishes between mechanical solidarity and organic solidarity.³⁶

³³Horton and Hunt, op. cit., p. 165.

³⁴Ibid.

³⁵Nicholas S. Timasheff, Sociological Theory, New York: Random House, 1967, p. 251.

³⁶Lewis A. Coser, Master of Sociological Thought, New York: Harcourt, Brace and Jovanovich Co., 1971, pp. 131-132.

Mechanical solidarity as defined by Durkheim is societal solidarity based upon a homogeneity of values and behavior, strong social constraints, and loyalty to tradition and kinship. The term applies to small, nonliterate societies characterized by a simple division of labor, very little specialization of function, only a few social roles, and very little tolerance of individuality.³⁷

Durkheim defines organic solidarity as a type of society typical of modern industrial society, in which unity is based on the interdependence of a very large number of highly specialized roles in a system involving a complex division of labor that requires the cooperation of almost all the groups and individuals of the society. In contrast to solidarity that is mechanical (that is based on homogeneity of values, beliefs and loyalties), this type of solidarity is similar to the unity of a biological organism in which highly specialized parts, or organs, must work together in coordination if the organism (or any of its parts) is to survive.³⁸

Redfield makes the distinction between sacred society and secular society.³⁹ Sacred society being a society in which many binding, generally accepted norms, unite the functional whole and prevail. There is also a maximum of social control. In such a society, resistance to change is usually quite high in comparison with the resistance of secular societies. A strongly sacred society may be characterized as

³⁷Ibid.

³⁸Ibid.

³⁹Martindale, op. cit., The Nature, 1960, p. 94.

one in which there is marked inability and/or unwillingness to respond to the new. Ideational society, folk society, rural society, community and gemeinschaft are equivalent to sacred society.⁴⁰

Redfield's secular society is a society in which few binding, generally accepted norms prevail. There is a minimum of social control. In such a society, resistance to change is usually quite low on comparison with the resistance of sacred societies. A strongly secular society may be characterized as one in which there is marked ability and/or willingness to respond to the new. Sensate society, urban society, gesellschaft, and contractual society are equivalent to secular society.⁴¹

Many contemporary criminologists discuss the impact of urbanization upon crime and consider it an important variable in analyzing crime rates. Boggs, in researching property crime rates, found property crimes significantly higher in cities than in rural areas. She maintains that an increase in urbanization leads to an increase in the rate of crime.⁴²

The President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice also found that crime rates are higher in larger cities than in smaller cities and higher in urban areas as opposed to rural areas.⁴³

⁴⁰Fairchild, op. cit., p. 301.

⁴¹Ibid.

⁴²Sarah L. Boggs, "Urban Crime Patterns", American Sociological Review, Vol. 30, No. 6, 1965, pp. 899-908.

⁴³President's Commission, 1967, op. cit., pp. 138-156.

Sutherland and Cressey, in analyzing statistics, seem to share the same findings previously mentioned with few exceptions. They state:

The extent to which the crime rate in urban areas exceeds the crime rate in rural areas is not the same under all conditions. In some rural areas the crime rate, especially for some types of offenses, is higher than the rate in urban areas. . .⁴⁴

For the United States as a whole, the rural states are slightly higher than urban rates for homicide, about equal for rape, about one-half as high for assault, and from about one-fourth to one-third for robbery, burglary, larceny and auto theft.⁴⁵

Johnson's analysis of the Federal Bureau of Investigation Crime Report of 1971 shows virtually the same findings as Sutherland and Cressey.⁴⁶ Discussing the community setting, Johnson logically sets forth an explanation for the relationship between the difference between rural and urban location and crime. He uses Tonnies' work as a basis of this explanation by stating:

. . .these differences among group members are conducive to the gesellschaft type of society which is subject to social forces associated with a higher rate of deviance than that usually found in the gemeinschaft society, which is held together by similarities among group members.⁴⁷

⁴⁴Edwin H. Sutherland and Donald R. Cressey, Criminology, New York: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1974, p. 177.

⁴⁵Ibid.

⁴⁶Elmer H. Johnson, Crime, Correction and Society, Homewood, Ill.: The Dorsey Co., 1974, p. 178.

⁴⁷Ibid.

Nettler, in her criminology text, adds other dimensions not mentioned. She discusses the popular explanation considering such variables as crowding, impersonality, and anonymity of urban relations generating crime.⁴⁸

Hanks' empirical investigation into discipline in prison seems to verify the previous discussion. His Wisconsin State Prison study of 200 inmates concluded that a prisoner receiving many disciplinary infractions, "...is more apt to come from an urban than a rural background".⁴⁹

Contrary to the discussion of the variable, the Coe study found a slight trend for rural inmates to adjust to the prison easier compared to urban inmates, but it was not statistically significant.⁵⁰

Summary

From the work of Tonnies, Durkheim and Redfield, it can be concluded that the socialization of individuals will be more personal, informal, traditional, and sentimental in a rural setting. The proper norms and roles will be internalized by the individual. Sanctions will be immediate with more primary group controls being applied. These characteristics should lead the individual, socialized in a rural setting, toward conformity. The characteristics of the urban setting

⁴⁸Gwynn Nettler, Explaining Crime, New York: McGraw-Hill, 1974, pp. 133-134.

⁴⁹L. M. Hanks, "Preliminary for a Study of Problems of Discipline in Prison", Journal of Criminal Law, Criminology, and Police Science, Vol. 30, 1939, p. 884.

⁵⁰Coe, 1961, op. cit., p. 181.

during the socialization process, (more impersonal, formal, utilitarian, realistic, secondary group controlled, delayed sanctioning) should create more deviancy in the individual.

Proposition II

These urban characteristics, coupled with anonymity, overcrowding, little personal attachment and the previously mentioned research lead to the following general proposition.

Area of socialization appears to be associated with formal normative behavior.

Differential Association

Concerning the socialization process and its effects on behavior, Sutherland offers a formula for describing social situations out of which criminals are produced or where education of the young is toward delinquency.⁵¹ The major thesis of Sutherland's "differential association" is that criminal behavior, as well as normal behavior, is learned in differential association with others. Criminality is the result of association with criminal sources. His theory consists of nine essential postulates. These postulates of criminality offer explanations of criminal and non-criminal behavior characteristics of individuals. They are the essence of Sutherland's theory.

1. Criminal behavior is learned.
2. Criminal behavior is learned in interaction with other persons in a process of communication.
3. The principle part of the learning of criminal behavior occurs within intimate personal groups.

⁵¹Bernice M. Moore, Juvenile Delinquency: Research Theory and Comment, Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1956, p. 45.

4. When criminal behavior is learned, the learning includes (a) techniques of committing the crime, which are sometimes very complicated, sometimes very simple; (b) the specific direction of motives, drives, rationalizations, and attitudes.
5. The specific direction of motives and drives is learned from definitions of the legal codes as favorable or unfavorable.
6. A person becomes delinquent because of an excess of definitions favorable to violation of the law over definitions unfavorable to violation of the law. "This is the principle of differential association. It refers to both criminal and anticriminal associations and has to do with counteracting forces. When persons become criminals, they do so because of contacts with criminal patterns. Any person inevitably assimilates the surrounding culture unless other patterns are in conflict. . ."
7. Differential associations may vary in frequency, duration, priority and intensity.
8. The process of learning criminal behavior by association with criminal and anticriminal patterns involves all of the mechanisms that are involved in any other learning.
9. While criminal behavior is an expression of general needs and values, it is not explained by these general needs and values, since noncriminal behavior is an expression of the same needs and values. (Here Sutherland points out that attempts to "explain criminal behavior by general drives and values, such as the happiness principle, striving for social status, the money motive, or frustration, have been and must continue to be futile, since they explain lawful behavior as completely as they explain criminal behavior".)⁵²

These postulates clearly reveal the integrative significance of differential association theory. The following multiplicity of variables and concepts seeking to explain criminal behavior are brought together through the sound relationship of the above propositions, constituting a valid socio-cultural theory of crime. Sutherland held that

⁵²Sutherland and Cressey, op. cit., pp. 75-77.

a criminal act occurs when the appropriate situation for it exists. His theory is integrative in that it "assumed that the many diverse factors and correlates of crime were important to the extent that they affected an individual's associations and learning experiences."⁵³

To Sutherland, crime and delinquency are rooted in and are expressions of social organization. He emphasized that all communities are organized both for criminal and anti-criminal behavior. Exposure, both in duration and strength, to violations of the law is the important factor as to whether one becomes delinquent or remains law abiding.

This theory has encouraged as much, if not more, continued research as any other criminological construct. Most of its major points remain valid. Efforts to disprove this theory have examined areas of crime considered not to have been learned in social interaction. Thus many researchers consider "compulsive crimes"--such as kleptomania and pyromania (fire setting)--to be exceptional to Sutherland's theory.⁵⁴

⁵³ Ibid.

⁵⁴ Donald R. Cressey, "The Differential Association Theory and Compulsive Crimes", Journal of Criminal Law, Criminology and Police Science, Vol. 45, No. 1, 1954, pp. 29-30.

Despite much criticism such as that of the Gluecks⁵⁵ and Glaser,⁵⁶ Sutherland's theory has initiated a host of studies such as Jeffery's⁵⁷ and Burgess and Akers.⁵⁸

One of the most outstanding empirical investigations based upon Sutherland's theory was developed by Short. Short feels the main point of Sutherland's work is the principle that a "person becomes delinquent because of an excess of definition favorable to violation of law over definition unfavorable to violation of law."⁵⁹ Short feels that the above statement is untestable because the terms "favorable to" "unfavorable to" violation of law can not be defined in any meaningful quantitative terms. However, Short does feel that Sutherland's statement of "differential association may vary in frequency, duration, priority and intensity" can be tested.⁶⁰ Specifically, Short tries to measure the amount and intensity of interaction with delinquent peers,

⁵⁵ Sheldon Glueck and Elenor Glueck, "Theory and Factors in Criminology: A Criticism of Differential Association", British Journal of Delinquency, Vol. 7, No. 1, 1956, pp. 92-109.

⁵⁶ Daniel Glaser, "Differential Association and Criminological Prediction", Social Problems, Vol. 8, No. 6, 1960, p. 13.

⁵⁷ C. R. Jeffery, "Criminal Behavior and Learning Theory," Journal of Criminal Law, Criminology and Police Science, Vol. 56, No. 3, 1965, pp. 294-300.

⁵⁸ Robert L. Burgess and Robert L. Akers, "A Differential Association--Reinforcement Theory of Criminal Behavior", Social Problems, Vol. 14, No. 2, pp. 128-147.

⁵⁹ James E. Short, Jr., "Differential Association and Delinquency", Social Problems, Vol. 4, No. 3, 1957, pp. 233-239.

⁶⁰ Ibid.

amount of exposure to crime in the community, and knowledge of associations with adult criminals.

Short developed instruments for measuring delinquency and differential association.⁶¹ Following the development of these instruments, he empirically tested relationships between delinquency and differential association.

One hundred twenty-six boys and fifty girls of a state training school in Washington were administered the questionnaire developed by Short with the help of the Sociological Laboratory of the State College of Washington. Because of the relationship of age to delinquent behavior only 16 and 17 year olds were used.⁶²

In the administration of the questionnaire, emphasis was placed on the subject's own feelings. Short was interested in reality as perceived by the respondents. The results were a consistent positive relationship between delinquent behavior and delinquent association with negative relationship. Some of the coefficients were high enough to give confidence in the theory. However, Short points out that the result can not be generalized to the population as a whole due to the assumptions which one would have to make regarding randomness of the

⁶¹Ibid.

⁶²James F. Short, Jr., "Differential Association with Delinquent Friends and Delinquent Behavior", Pacific Sociological Review, Vol. 1, No. 1, 1958, pp. 21-22.

sample. To generalize further would require studies of other populations with carefully controlled sampling procedures.⁶³

Another important finding was that differential association correlates higher to delinquent behavior among boys than girls. Although Short feels there are some limitations in the study, he feels strong support has been found for the theory of differential association.

Summary

Sutherland and Cressey's theoretical formulations, backed up by the empirical findings of Short, seem to indicate a relationship between differential association and deviant behavior.

Proposition III

The following proposition shall be stated as a possible research hypothesis for this study.

As differential association increases, formal normative behavior will be affected.

Social Class (Level of Living of Parents)

A host of literature is available discussing the effects of social class on delinquency and crime. Since the major topic of this section of the review of literature is the effect of the socialization process upon the individual, the social class of the family during the process is an important variable.

⁶³Ibid.

Cohen's Delinquent Boys: The Culture of the Gang is one of the most revealing theoretical formulations developed concerning juvenile delinquency.⁶⁴ Cohen constructs this theory on two "known facts": first, delinquent subculture is characterized by maliciousness, non-utilitarian, and negativism; and second, the concentration of that subculture among the male-working-class segment of the population. The principle in Cohen's theory may be stated briefly as follows:

1. The working-class boy faces a characteristic problem of adjustment which is qualitatively different from that of the middle-class boy.
2. The working-class boy's problem is one of status-frustration, the basis of which is systematically generated by his early exposure to the working-class pattern of socialization.
3. The working-class boy's socialization handicaps him for achievement in the middle-class status system.
4. Nevertheless, he is thrust into the competitive system where achievement is judged by middle-class standards of behavior and performance.
5. Ill-prepared and poorly motivated, the working-class boy is frustrated in his status aspiration by the agents of middle-class society.
6. The delinquent subculture represents a "solution" to the working-class boy's problems, for it enables him to "break clean" with the middle-class morality legitimizes hostility and aggression against the sources of his frustration.
7. Thus, the delinquent subculture is characterized by nonutilitarian, malicious, and negativistic values as an "attack on" the middle-class where their egos are most vulnerable. It expresses contempt for a way of life by making its opposite a criterion of status.⁶⁵

⁶⁴Cohen, 1955, op. cit., p. 42.

⁶⁵Ibid.

The working-class boy's problem centers around the boy's culture and social environment. He is not socialized in techniques of discipline and hard work and his behavior is oriented to immediate satisfaction rather than future goals. Thus, the working-class boy is not socialized to middle-class norms.

Neither the working-class boy nor his parents can ignore or deny the dominance of middle-class norms, for they comprise the code of the distinguished people who symbolize and represent the local and national communities with which children identify.⁶⁶ Thus, the working-class boy is drawn to the "American Dream" since he is confronted by the dominance and prestige of the middle-class values.

The reaction of the working-class boy to not obtaining the middle-class goals leads to the "form of an irrational, malicious, and unaccountable hostility to the enemy within the gates as well as without: the norms of respectable middle-class society."⁶⁷ In the working-class boy's daily encounters with the middle-class system, he suffers humiliation, shame, embarrassment, and rejection. Similarly, in the settlement houses, the working-class boy is exposed to the "critical or at the best condescending surveillance of the people who are foreigners to his community and who appraise him in terms of values which he does not share."⁶⁸ He might have to change his speech, habits, values to

⁶⁶Rose Giallombardo (ed.), Juvenile Delinquency, New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1966, p. 97.

⁶⁷Cohen, op. cit., p. 127.

⁶⁸Cohen, op. cit., p. 133.

suit these foreigners. The working-class boy finds that this is not the game he wants to play; thus, he turns to the streets to find acceptance.

Miller advances the concept of focal concerns to describe lower class values. The emphasis is upon a subcultural explanation of crime. Both major avenues of sociological explanation of criminal behavior--structural and subcultural--point to culture conflict as the source of crime. The two differ in how they evaluate this conflict. One subcultural explanation of crime notes that strata within a society (social classes) are marked off by different categories (income, education, jobs). As a result, these varying strata exhibit different amounts and style of crime; as well as different norms and interests. On the basis of this observation, Miller speaks of a lower-class culture.⁶⁹

Miller's thesis is that middle-class values are themselves lawful; whereas acquiring lower-class preferences automatically involves one in a greater risk of breaking the law against the more serious crimes.⁷⁰

He describes a segment of society, lower class, as having values and patterns of behavior resulting from a distinctive cultural system. He describes lower class values as 'focal concerns'. "The lower class way of life, in common with that of all distinctive cultural groups, is characterized by a set of focal concerns--areas or issues which command widespread and persistent attention and a high degree of

⁶⁹Nettler, op. cit., pp. 142-144.

⁷⁰Ibid.

emotional involvement".⁷¹ These "patterning of concerns" differ markedly from the middle-class culture. The lower class differs in its attention to a belief in six basic focal concerns: (1) trouble, (2) toughness, (3) smartness, (4) excitement, (5) fate, and (6) autonomy. Life is viewed as predetermined and beyond one's control, therefore 'making it' is trouble. As a result, lower class focal concerns emphasize the need to be tough, get all the excitement one can, be independent, and be able to outsmart those around you.⁷²

This theory of criminality adheres to a rigid cultural explanation. The values and norms of the upper stratas in society are considered lawful. Crime occurs largely among the lower class. Causation lies on the fact that the cultural patterns of the lower class are rejected by upper classes who define the law. The conflict theory of Vold compliments this theory.

Vold defines crime causation in terms of conflict. The group, or social class which arises as most dominant will impose its norms upon the minority. The norms of any group losing the conflict for power automatically become criminal.

. . .the whole political process of law making, law breaking, and law enforcement becomes a direct reflection of deep-seated and fundamental conflicts between interest groups and their more general struggles for the control of the police power of the state. Those who produce legislative

⁷¹Walter B. Miller, "Lower Class Culture as a Generating Milieu of Gang Delinquency", Journal of Social Issues, Vol. 14, No. 3, 1958, pp. 5-19.

⁷²Ibid.

majorities win control over the police power and dominate the policies that decide who is likely to be involved in violation of the law.⁷³

Vold's theory closely parallels Miller's view that the middle-class defines the law, while the lower class behaviors become criminal merely because they exist as normative in another class. Focal concerns point out the location of crime in this manner. Vold, however, is more concerned with developing a theory of causations, rather than pointing a finger. Crime occurs as a result of the more general sociological process defined in conflict theory. Vold elaborates upon this theory of crime causation in these terms.

The basic relationship between the individual and his group....if of genuine significance for criminological theory, and must be given due consideration. Those who reject the majority view and refuse to follow required behavior patterns are inevitably defined as, and treated as, criminals....Members of such a minority group do not accept the definition of themselves, or of their behavior, as criminal. Looking at their own group of like-thinking associates, they readily persuade themselves that their course of action has been acceptable and, from their point of view, entirely honorable. The more basic problem, therefore, is the conflict of group interests and the struggle for the control of power that is always present in the political organization of any society.⁷⁴

Thus, the theory of criminality accepts the premise that conflict is an inevitable process in any society. As a result, there will be many occasions when criminal behavior is a normal and natural response of people seeking to manifest and retain their way of life.

⁷³George B. Vold, Theoretical Criminology, New York: Oxford University Press, 1958, pp. 208-209.

⁷⁴Ibid.

Crime causation is located in the fact that these normal people merely find themselves in the minority as the result of losing the conflict for power. Although this theory compliments some sub-cultures theses on crime, it clearly stands along in its own right as an explanation of criminality.

Gold has suggested that there is at least a slight association between social class and delinquent behavior.⁷⁵ He also presented his own data to demonstrate such relationships. Gold believed that studies frequently exaggerate the relationship between class and delinquency because of the biases operating in police and court procedures.

Stanfield believes that low social status, erratic or lax discipline with delinquency by father, and frequent peer activity were all significantly related to juvenile delinquency.⁷⁶ He summarizes his theories as follows:

1. Erratic or lax discipline by father is more strongly associated with delinquency in low status than in higher status families.
2. Frequent peer activity is more strongly associated with delinquency in high status than in low status families.
3. Frequent peer activity is more strongly associated with delinquency among those boys where father's discipline is erratic or lax than where it is consistent.⁷⁷

Further, in examining the interaction of all three independent variables, it turns out that lower class boys with frequent peer activity who are

⁷⁵ Martin Gold, Status Forces in Delinquent Boys, New York: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1963.

⁷⁶ Robert Stanfield, "The Social Background of Delinquency", Journal of Social Classes, Vol. 14, No. 1, 1968, pp. 20-37.

⁷⁷ Ibid.

subjected to consistent discipline by the father can offset the influence toward delinquency of low status and high peer activity.

Palmore and Hammond also present interesting information of the interaction of variables.⁷⁸ Working with a sample of deprived children, they first demonstrate that delinquency was higher for blacks than whites, for boys than girls, and for those failing at school than for those succeeding.

Rodman presented a general theory of lower class deviance which attempts to coordinate the contrasting positions about lower class values.⁷⁹ He suggests that lower class individuals stretch their values and approve both lower and middle-class values. They have a wider range of values, but also a lower degree of commitment to any of the values in the ranges. As a consequence, they are more open to the possibility of acts that are defined as delinquent by the official representative of society. Thus, Rodman is noted for his stretch theory.

Yablonsky, in studying several violent gangs in New York City, suggested that gangs emerged spontaneously from the interaction of adolescents with personal problems.⁸⁰ According to Yablonsky, "the

⁷⁸F. C. Palmore and W. H. Hammond, "Persistent Criminals", Home Office Research Unit Report No. 3, London: H.M.S.O., 1964.

⁷⁹Hyman, Rodman, "Socio-economic Status and Delinquent Behavior", Journal of Research in Juvenile Delinquency, Vol. 8, No. 1, 1966, pp. 38-46.

⁸⁰Lewis Yablonsky, "The Delinquent Gang as a Group", Social Problems, Vol. 7, No. 1, 1969, pp. 108-117.

violent gang is primarily organized for emotional gratification" and the members band together.⁸¹

Ball and Matza explained that the development of neutralizing techniques, learned in an individual's family or social situation, and derived from a sense of injustice common to the lower class, sets the adolescent free from moral ties to conventional behavior.⁸²

Once the adolescent is in this uncommitted moral position, he may drift to delinquency. The formulation presented by Matza assumes that adolescents will vary in the degree to which they have been able to neutralize the conventional norms so as to be available for delinquent acts.⁸³ This may account for the differential participation in delinquent gangs and in delinquency which Yablonsky reported in his study. The potential delinquent may be in drift, and not subject to social control, but he need not then engage in delinquent behavior.

Brofenbrenner concluded that discipline in lower class families was more consistently physical, while in middle-class families it involved love withdrawal more consistently. He also notes that middle-class families tend to be more equalitarian and acceptant of their

⁸¹President's Commission, 1967, op. cit., p. 190.

⁸²Richard Ball, "Delinquency, Adolescence, and Society", Social Problems, Vol. 13, No. 1, 1965, pp. 59-66.

⁸³David Matza, "Techniques of Neutralization", American Sociological Review, Vol. 22, No. 6, 1957, pp. 664-670.

children, while lower class families are more interested in maintaining order and obedience.⁸⁴

These differences in child-rearing practices by social class, undoubtedly account for a significant amount of variance in delinquency rates between social classes. As a result, the family's role in the etiology of delinquency is not limited to its placement of individuals in the social class structure, but also involves the nature of social relationships within the family.⁸⁵ Reckless refers to an early empirical study of European cities. Bonger found the lower classes disproportionately involved in criminal activities.⁸⁶

Warner and Lunt, in examining data from "Yankee City", found a high-negative relationship between social class and criminality. They state:

The two upper classes accounted for less than three-fourths of one percent of those arrested; the two middle classes, for about ten percent; and the two lower classes for approximately ninety percent of the crime of the Yankee City.⁸⁷

Reiss and Rhodes, in examining official records of delinquents in Tennessee, analyzed the effects of social class on delinquency. Using a self-report questionnaire and two indicators of class

⁸⁴Urie Bronfenbrenner, "Socialization and Social Class Through Time and Space", in Macoby, Newcomb, and Hartley (eds.) Readings in Social Psychology, New York: Henry Holt Co., 1958, pp. 400-425.

⁸⁵President's Commission, 1967, op. cit., pp. 189-193.

⁸⁶Reckless, op. cit., p. 109.

⁸⁷W. L. Warner and Paul S. Lunt, The Social Life of a Modern Community, New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1941, pp. 375-376.

(occupation of the household head and status of the residential neighborhood) significantly more serious and frequent delinquency was found in the lower class.⁸⁸

The only findings associating social class with behavior of inmates were included in Coe's study of prison adjustment and Hanks study of prison discipline. Coe found the economic status of inmates' parents to be statistically related to prison adjustment. In this study, adjustment was measured looking at different indicators of normative behavior.⁸⁹

Hanks found a slight relationship between occupation and prison infraction. Hanks stated, "the difference is, however, not statistically reliable, though we may consider it as a suggestive difference between classes of occupation."⁹⁰

Summary

Considering the host of available theories and studies concerning social class and criminality a general proposition can be stated.

Proposition IV

An individual's social class appears to influence his normative behavior. The lower class individual will be less likely to conform to prison norms than the member of other classes.

⁸⁸ A. J. Reiss, Jr., and A. L. Rhodes, "The Distribution of Juvenile Delinquency in the Social Class Structure", American Sociological Review, Vol. 26, No. 5, 1961, pp. 720-732.

⁸⁹ Coe, 1961, op. cit., p. 183.

⁹⁰ Hanks, op. cit., p. 881.

Residential Mobility (Migration)

The basis for relating residential mobility to conformity of official prison norms was derived from the Coe study. Coe found that length of residence highly correlated (significant at .01 level) with prison adjustment. The longer the inmate had resided in a community before incarceration, the better adjustment the individual made to prison life; one indicator being prison infractions.⁹¹ Coe's findings infer that the more individuals move, the less they conform to prison rules.

Rose states that migration ". . .creates social problems by isolating individuals who migrate by reducing family and neighborhood controls over deviant behavior, by placing together people who had divergent sets of values".⁹²

Reckless perceives the phenomenon of migration as related to problems of alienation and rootlessness. He attributed this ". . .to the absence of a set of social controls".⁹³ The migrating individual develops personal problems and has not acquired a solid internalized normative system to solve these problems, thus creating frustration and anxiety.⁹⁴

⁹¹Coe, 1961, op. cit., p. 881.

⁹²Arnold M. Rose, Sociology: The Study of Human Relations, New York: Alfred Knopf Co., 1965, p. 583.

⁹³Walter Reckless, op. cit., 1967, p. 774.

⁹⁴Ibid.

Johnson states that the personality of a migrant individual probably developed from a different culture (or sub-culture), therefore ". . . cultural tensions are increased, and he is partially released from the norms in which he was previously socialized."⁹⁵

Thus, migration tends to develop a type of economic condition. Durkheim's concept of anomie means normlessness. McGee describes anomie as "a condition of normlessness due to lack of understanding, obsolescence, or irrelevance of conventional rules resulting in a weakness of social bonds with others".⁹⁶

In other words, as people move from place to place internalization of norms and roles may not develop properly. Also moving from one normative system to another may develop confusion and feelings of rootlessness. Cressey refers to a host of studies looking at immigrants and the differential crime rate.⁹⁷

Carpenter and Haenszel, studying a criminal group and control group in Buffalo, New York, found significantly more migration in the criminal group.⁹⁸ The Gluecks found that 34 percent of the delinquents

⁹⁵E. H. Johnson, op. cit., pp. 41-42.

⁹⁶Reese McGee, Basic Concepts in Society, Chicago, Ill.: The Dryden Press, 1973, p. 301.

⁹⁷Sutherland and Cressey, op. cit., pp. 147-149.

⁹⁸Niles Carpenter and William Haenszel, "Migration and Criminality in Buffalo", Social Force, Vol. 9, No. 2, 1930, pp. 254-255.

they studied lived at their present address less than one year compared to 15 percent of the nondelinquents.⁹⁹

Summary

Normative confusion, frustration, anxiety, and rootlessness may develop within individuals who, in their social past, have moved frequently. Those individuals who have resided in the same location for many years have been socialized to conform more to the norms and roles of others around them. If this is generally true, it would seem probable that this would affect their behavior while incarcerated. Therefore, the following proposition can be formed.

Proposition V

The more an individual has residentially migrated in his early life, the more the individual will deviate from formal institutional norms while incarcerated.

PRESENT PERSONAL STRUCTURAL CHARACTERISTICS

The present personal structural patterns are those patterns the individual possesses at the present, such as age, marital status, race, etc.

Age

Many studies have shown that as the aging process increases, individuals tend to resist change and conform more to norms. In reviewing the literature, most researchers indicated a significant

⁹⁹ Sheldon Glueck and Elenor Glueck, Unraveling Juvenile Delinquency, New York: Commonwealth Fund, 1950, p. 80.

relationship between the age of an individual and the individual's resultant normative behavior.

According to Wilkins, in his examination of empirical research concerning recidivism and age, ". . . it is the older offenders who are, criminal record for criminal record, far better risks than the younger offenders".¹⁰⁰

Moberg, using statements from Sutherland, Reckless, and other theorists, developed a 14-point scheme to explain age and its relationship to criminology.¹⁰¹ Moberg emphasizes such factors as strength of the psychological system, physical strength, recklessness versus caution, adventure versus non-adventure, etc. in outlining his scheme.¹⁰²

A study of 200 convicts in the Wisconsin State Prison was conducted by Hanks in 1936. Hanks compared a group of convicts with disciplinary problems to a group with very little or no disciplinary problems. A significant difference was found concerning the mean age of the two groups. The group with many disciplinary infractions was significantly lower in age.¹⁰³

Wolfgang, in researching offenders in criminal homicides in a Philadelphia prison, found a significant relationship (.01 level) between age and prison adjustment. The three indicators used to measure

¹⁰⁰Leslie T. Wilkins, Evaluation of Penal Measures, New York: Random House, 1969, p. 56.

¹⁰¹David O. Moberg, "Old Age and Crime", Journal of Criminal Law, Criminology, and Police Science, Vol. 43, No. 6, 1953, p. 773.

¹⁰²Ibid., p. 774.

¹⁰³Hanks, op. cit., p. 882.

adjustment were: (1) number and duration of jobs--job stability, (2) job dismissal for reason of misconduct, and (3) block reports (good or bad conduct). As one can see, most of these indices were centered on different aspects of normative behavior.¹⁰⁴

E. H. Johnson conducted a pilot study with inmates in a Canadian prison. He found a significant relationship between age and prisoner rule infraction.¹⁰⁵ Strauss and Sherwin state: "Typically, increasing age is associated with increasing cautiousness and insight into consequence of one's actions." Lebanon Correctional Institution in Ohio was the center of their empirical investigation into a 1968 riot. Their finding indicated a strong relationship between age and riot involvement. They concluded that younger inmates were significantly more likely to be involved in a riot than older inmates.¹⁰⁶

Summary

From the previously cited empirical studies concerning prison adjustment, rioting, recidivism, and disciplinary infraction, there seems to be a substantial relationship between age and normative

¹⁰⁴Marvin E. Wolfgang, "Quantitative Analysis of Adjustment of the Prison Community", Journal of Criminal Law, Criminology, and Police Science, Vol. 51, No. 1, 1961.

¹⁰⁵E. H. Johnson, "Age, Race and Recidivism as Factors Related to Prison Infractions: A Pilot Study", Canadian Journal of Corrections, Vol. 8, No. 1, 1966, pp. 268-283.

¹⁰⁶Alan C. Strauss and Robert Sherwin, "Inmate Rioters and Non-Rioters--A Comparative Study", American Journal of Corrections, Vol. 37, Nos. 3 and 4, 1975, p. 54.

behavior. The older the inmate, the more conformity to institutional norms; the younger the inmate the more deviant.

Proposition VI

In view of the aforementioned statistics and empirical research, the following general proposition shall be stated for possible use as a research hypothesis.

As the age of an individual increases, his normative behavior will move toward conformity.

Marital Status

Sherwin and Strauss perceive married men as being more stable and conforming in their behavior than single men. They state that: "In the United States, there appears to be a long-standing cultural belief that married men are somewhat more responsible creatures than single men".¹⁰⁷

Zemans and Cavan state that marriage structures one's personal life and fulfills many human needs, such as sexual expression, affection, emotional security, and so forth.¹⁰⁸ In looking at married inmates, the family is an ideal group to help him (the inmate) make the transition from confinement to freedom. They further state:

¹⁰⁷ Sherwin and Strauss, op. cit., p. 56.

¹⁰⁸ Eugene Zemans and Ruth S. Cavan, "Marital Relationships of Prisoners", Journal of Criminal Law, Criminology, and Police Science, Vol. 49, No. 2, 1959, pp. 133-144.

. . .Not all families are equally able to help prisoners in rehabilitating, although they may not meet personal needs to the satisfaction of the criminal. The parental family may have contributed to the development of the criminal behavior, and the criminal's spouse may be directly or indirectly involved. However, in many cases, especially among non-professional criminals, the family has potential rehabilitative values.¹⁰⁹

From this, one can conclude that married men may be more personally organized, more able to obey norms and fulfill roles than single men. Also, married men have a social unit to return to after sentence. Therefore, married men would be more susceptible to obeying norms while confined than single men.

Clemmer looks at marital status, previous to incarceration, as being positively associated with forming group relationships while incarcerated. He states, "It will be noted that inmates who have been married are grouped less frequently than men who have already been single".¹¹⁰ Clemmer then notes that the ungrouped inmates tend to commit less violations of prison norms than grouped inmates. However, the difference was slight.¹¹¹

Several empirical studies seem to indicate that a relationship exists between marital status of an individual and his normative behavior patterns. Sutherland and Cressey, in reviewing statistics concerning home and family, state:

¹⁰⁹Ibid.

¹¹⁰Donald Clemmer, The Prison Community, New York: Rinehart, Co., 1940, p. 121.

¹¹¹Ibid., p. 122.

The marital status of adult persons appears to have considerable significance in relation to crime. The rate of commitment of prisons and reformatories per 100,000 population of the same marital status is the lowest for married. . .¹¹²

Sutherland and Cressey also reviewed research that found married inmates more successful with paroles than unmarried inmates.¹¹³

Schnur's 1950 study of the conduct of prisoners and recidivism revealed a relationship between marital status and prison conduct. Looking at the number of times an inmate was cited for violation of prison rules, he found single men were significantly more troublesome.¹¹⁴

The Coe study found a highly significant relationship existing. He found only 37 percent of the well adjusted being single compared to 61 percent of the poorly adjusted. This relationship was significant at the .01 level.¹¹⁵

Hanks, in his study of discipline problems in prisons, found marital status to be significantly related to inmate discipline problems. He concluded that the inmate is statistically ". . . more apt to be single than married."¹¹⁶

¹¹²Sutherland and Cressey, op. cit., p. 217.

¹¹³Ibid.

¹¹⁴Alfred C. Schnur, "Prison Conduct and Recidivism", Journal of Criminal Law, Criminology, and Police Science, Vol. 40, No. 1, 1950, p. 41.

¹¹⁵Coe, 1961, op. cit., p. 183.

¹¹⁶Hanks, op. cit., p. 884.

Driscoll also found that the maladjusted inmates in his study contained a significantly larger number of single men than married men.¹¹⁷ Clemmer, in his study of these variables found only a slight relationship.¹¹⁸

In Wolfgang's study of the adjustment of convicted murderers to the prison community, no relationship was found. He attributed this to the fact that almost all of the members of his sample were given life sentences.¹¹⁹ However, Wolfgang, probing more into the marital variable, found a significant relationship between adjustment and those classified as "ever married" and "never married".¹²⁰ Sherwin and Strauss in their supervised study of rioters, found single men somewhat more likely to participate in riots than married men.¹²¹

Summary

From the preceeding logical deductions and empirical findings, it appears that marital status is related to normative behavior; therefore, the following proposition can be formulated for possible use as a research hypothesis.

¹¹⁷ Patrick Driscoll, "Factors Related to the Institutional Adjustment of Prison Inmates", Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, Vol. 47, No. 3, 1952, p. 595.

¹¹⁸ Clemmer, op. cit., p. 122.

¹¹⁹ Wolfgang, op. cit., 1961, p. 614.

¹²⁰ Ibid.

¹²¹ Sherwin and Strauss, op. cit., p. 56.

Proposition VII

Marital status influences normative behavior.

Race

Most all sociological evidence regarding race and crime reveal disproportionate statistics. This includes arrests, convictions, sentencing, and imprisonment. In analyzing the Uniform Crime Report and the National Prison Statistics, Reckless points out that "it is clear that the percent of Negro arrests and commitments is disproportionately high in comparison to the population."¹²²

Sutherland and Cressey state that the black arrest rates proportionately are four times that of whites, while the commitments ratio is six to one.¹²³ Wolfgang indicates similar findings. Blacks are arrested, in proportion to whites, three times to four times as frequent.¹²⁴

Forshund, in his Stamford, Connecticut study, found that among males over 16 years of age, blacks have a higher probability of convictions than whites. He concluded that this could indicate discrimination.¹²⁵ Ferdinand and Luchterhand claim police have differentially

¹²²Reckless, op. cit., p. 104.

¹²³Sutherland and Cressey, op. cit., p. 137.

¹²⁴Marvin Wolfgang, Crime and Race: Conceptions and Misconceptions, New York: Institute of Human Relations, 1964, pp. 31-35.

¹²⁵Morris A. Forshund, "Age, Occupation, and Conviction Rates of Whites and Negro Males: A Case Study", Rocky Mountain Social Science Journal, Vol. 4, No. 2, 1969, pp. 142-143.

treated and discriminated against blacks, and are more likely to arrest blacks than whites.¹²⁶

Davis, investigating judicial differential treatment, found that judge and jury often discriminate sentencing based on race. Blacks are often convicted on less evidence than whites, and often received more severe punishment.¹²⁷ Reid states that one-third of all prisoners in the United States are black with one-tenth of the total population being black. This shows a high disproportion of blacks in prison.¹²⁸

The National Prisoner Statistical Bulletin revealed a high disproportion of blacks being executed in the United States. The statistics seem to reveal a general difference in most all states, with the difference extremely high in southern states. Georgia and North Carolina have executed six and nine males, respectively, for robbery; all have been black.¹²⁹

Reid concluded that blacks are more often executed, less frequently receive commutation of death sentence, and are less frequently pardoned than whites.¹³⁰ She also states that, although there

¹²⁶Theodore N. Ferdinand and Elmer G. Luchterhand, "Inter-City Youth, the Police, Juvenile Courts, and Justice", Social Problems, Vol. 17, No. 2, 1970, pp. 510-527.

¹²⁷Kenneth C. Davis, Discretionary Justice: A Preliminary Inquiry, Urbana, Ill.: University of Illinois Press, 1971.

¹²⁸Sue T. Reid, Crime and Criminology, Hinsdale, Ill.: The Dryden Press, 1976, p. 64.

¹²⁹Bureau of Prisons, U. S. Department of Justice, "Capital Punishment, 1930-1970", National Prisoner Statistical Bulletin, No. 46, August, 1971, pp. 12-13.

¹³⁰Reid, op. cit., p. 504.

is no real statistical evidence, blacks are more frequently subjected to physical punishment in jails and prisons than whites.¹³¹ Wolfgang also found similar conclusions in his investigations of executions and commutations of death sentences.¹³²

Dollard and Johnson developed early explanations of race crime rates. Both attribute crime to a "caste" system existing in American society. Dollard, in 1937, stated the effects of a caste system produce discrimination which produces frustration which in turn produces the high crime rate of minority groups. The Negro builds up a great feeling of anger, and he releases this anger (displacement of emotions) generally against his own kind.¹³³

Johnson, in 1941, developed a theory of explanation regarding disproportionate rates of crime. The "caste experience" of the American black is the major thesis of his theory. The blacks exist in a caste within the American system of stratification. Locked into a caste system creates different attitudes and behavior.¹³⁴

He further explains that the caste system prevents the development of "stable family relations, stable economic organization and

¹³¹Ibid., p. 197.

¹³²Marvin Wolfgang, et al., "Comparison of the Executed and Commuted Among Admissions to Death Row", Journal of Criminal Law, Criminology and Police Science, Vol. 53, No. 3, 1962, pp. 301-311.

¹³³John Dollard, Caste and Class in a Southern Town, New York: Yale University Press, 1937.

¹³⁴Guy B. Johnson, "The Negro and Crime", The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, Vol. 271, September, 1941, pp. 93-104.

stable community life".¹³⁵ Also, because of this system, the black develops ". . .lack of self-respect, lack of self-confidence, a distaste for hard work, a habit of dependence upon white friends, lack of regard of property of others, a feeling that 'the white folks owe us a living', a distrust of the white man's law, and a tendency to 'let tomorrow take care of itself'".¹³⁶ Johnson concludes that "caste" leads to personal and social disorganization and Negroes are characterized by higher crime rates.

Reckless indicates that an individual's race is still influential in determining living conditions in America. Reckless states, "there are differences in health, education, employment, recreation, marital status, and a great many other areas of life".¹³⁷ These differences, Reckless infers, lead to differential rates of crime.

Sherwin and Strauss, in their study of riots, convey that "some blacks believe that the United States is a racist society and by its discrimination practices has nullified any allegiance to the 'system' and its rules by blacks."¹³⁸ Other theories in which race as a

¹³⁵Ibid., pp. 93-94.

¹³⁶Ibid.

¹³⁷Reckless, op. cit., pp. 103-104.

¹³⁸Sherwin and Strauss, op. cit., p. 35.

variable has been incorporated into are sub-cultural theories,¹³⁹ cultural conflict theories¹⁴⁰ and relative deprivation theories.¹⁴¹

Sherwin and Strauss, in their empirical investigation of riots found a relationship between race and participation in riots. Significantly more blacks participated in riots than whites.¹⁴² Wolfgang found a slight relationship investigating race and prison adjustment, but it was not statistically significant.¹⁴³ However, Coe found a high significant statistical relationship, regarding race and prison adjustment. Significantly more blacks than whites had adjustment problems.¹⁴⁴ It may be noted that Wolfgang's study looked at only convicted murderers; Coe's study involved convictions from a variety of offenses.

Summary

Studies have shown that blacks are somewhat differently treated in procedures of arrest, conviction, and sentencing. A few studies of race and prison adjustment have shown a relationship existing. Therefore, there would seem to be more problems of obeying prison norms for blacks than whites.

¹³⁹E. C. Banfield, The Unheavenly City, Boston, Mass.: Little, Brown and Co., 1968.

¹⁴⁰Thorstein Sellin, Cultural Conflict and Crime, New York: Social Science Research Council, Bulletin No. 41, 1938.

¹⁴¹W. G. Runciman, Relative Deprivation and Social Injustice, London: Routledge, Kegan Paul Co., 1966.

¹⁴²Sherwin and Strauss, op. cit., p. 35.

¹⁴³Wolfgang, 1961, op. cit., p. 684.

¹⁴⁴Coe, 1961, op. cit., p. 183.

Proposition VIII

In view of the previously mentioned theories and research, the following proposition can be formulated.

Race seems to influence normative behavior.

Education

Education plays a major role in preparing children for adult roles. The behavior of the roles and their attached norms are transmitted to the children by the educational institution. Cohen has indicated that delinquency and crimes are related to education (the school) in the same manner as they are to the family; that is, the activities of both have effects on the child's behavior patterns.¹⁴⁵

Concerning formal education and its effects on crime, Johnson relates: "Of the extrafamily agencies, the school has the closest contact with children over the longest period of time. Because education has assumed the largest share of the responsibility of inculcating a sense of civic responsibility, it is a means of social control."¹⁴⁶ Johnson further discusses the work of Kvaraceus who examined school dropouts. Dropouts show the following characteristics: lack of motivation, low family socioeconomic status, poor school performance,

¹⁴⁵ Albert K. Cohen, "The Schools and Juvenile Delinquency", 84th Congress Sub-Committee to Investigate Juvenile Delinquency, Education and Juvenile Delinquency, Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1956, pp. 50-60.

¹⁴⁶ E. H. Johnson, 1974, op. cit., p. 109.

emotional instability, disinterest in subjects, broken homes, feelings of not belonging, etc.¹⁴⁷

Expanding these characteristics, many experts feel the school is failing to reach many students. Students drop out, not completing their formal education, and crime may take place. Stinchombe blasts out at the failure of our schools. He states that schools do not adequately prepare young people for adult roles. Those who don't achieve are marked and personal worth and self-respect of many youth are marred. Stinchombe indicates that this state of schools may be criminogenic.¹⁴⁸

Merrill conducted an experiment in which he observed a low level of education among a group of delinquents in comparison to a control group. During a longitudinal study of five years, there was a significant difference in dropout rates in the two groups, the control group mostly completing their education.¹⁴⁹

Sutherland and Cressey, in analyzing census statistics, states: "On the basis of inadequate statistics, which do not include white-collar crimes, it appears that crime decreases with the amount of formal education."¹⁵⁰ Using the median years of education, Sutherland

¹⁴⁷ Ibid., p. 110.

¹⁴⁸ A. L. Stinchombe, Rebellion in a High School, Chicago, Ill.: Quadrangle Books, 1964.

¹⁴⁹ M. A. Merrill, Problems of Child Delinquency, Boston, Mass.: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1947, pp. 101-104.

¹⁵⁰ Sutherland and Cressey, op. cit., p. 237.

and Cressey found that individuals in prison had 8.6 years of formal education compared to 10.6 years of the general population.¹⁵¹

On the basis of the preceeding information, it would seem logical that as an individual's education increases, the probability of committing a crime decreases. It would also seem logical to state that inmates with more education would tend more to follow official prison norms. However, empirical research seems to indicate that this relationship is inconclusive.

Clemmer hypothesized that an inmate with a higher level of education will adjust to prison life better than an inmate with lower levels of education.¹⁵² In empirically testing this hypothesis, Coe found only a slight relationship, but it was not statistically significant.¹⁵³ Coe, in a later study found again no significant relationship existing.¹⁵⁴

Summary

Although the evidence is inconclusive that the theory is sound regarding education and normative behavior, the following proposition will be stated.

¹⁵¹Ibid.

¹⁵²Rodney M. Coe, "Relationship of Scores and Education to Adjustment", Journal of Criminal Law, Criminology, and Police Science, Vol. 50, No. 5, 1960, p. 460.

¹⁵³Ibid., p. 461.

¹⁵⁴Coe, 1961, op. cit., p. 182.

Proposition IX

Formal education appears to influence normative behavior of inmates.

Social Class (Individual Present Class)

In an early discussion concerning past personal structural characteristics, the social class of the family was reviewed. A proposition covering this social class and behavior was developed. On the basis that this variable (past structural) would affect the individual's behavior, it would seem logical that the individual present class status would also affect his behavior.

In the Coe study, both variables were used for correlation with prison adjustment; the inmates' family economic status and the inmates occupational status.¹⁵⁵ Coe found a high significant relationship between both social class variables and adjustment. The relationship concerning the inmates' present occupational status was stronger.

Proposition X

Considering the earlier review of social class and the findings of the Coe study, the following proposition can be developed.

The individual's formal normative behavior will be affected by his present class (occupational) status.

Religion

In considering this problem, one must first examine the element of religion itself. Durkheim, writing in Elementary Forms of Religious Life, stated: "...it can be said that nearly all the great social

¹⁵⁵Coe, 1961, op. cit., p. 183.

institutions have been born in religion".¹⁵⁶ He regards religion as being almost synonymous with society. The very basis of religion, in Durkheim's view, is the society in which it is found.

If religion has given birth to all that is essential in society, it is because the ideal of society is the soul of religion. Religious forces are therefore human forces.¹⁵⁷

Durkheim sees morality as a reflection of the social conditions, the duties of the individual toward himself are therefore duties toward society. All moral behavior conforms to pre-established roles. In this view, therefore, to conduct oneself morally is to abide by the mores of the social system of which he is a part.¹⁵⁸

He regards God as a mythicization of society. It is society, through institutions such as religion, the family and tradition, which possess the authority and power to compel compliance. Compliance in moral areas is gained by giving the individual what Durkheim refers to as a sense of "ought", a compulsion from within to abide by behavior codes such as those regulating sexual conduct.¹⁵⁹

Wilson states that religion produces within individuals a support of reciprocal expectation and obligation wherever an enduring

¹⁵⁶ Emile Durkheim, "Religion and Society", Theories of Society, Talcott Parsons (ed.), Vol. 1, New York: The Free Press of Glencoe Inc., 1961, p. 678.

¹⁵⁷ Ibid.

¹⁵⁸ Robert A. Nisbet, (ed.), Emile Durkheim, Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1965, p. 41.

¹⁵⁹ Ibid., p. 40.

system of relationships is built. Religion is built into the roles of individuals "channeling role performance in accord with legitimate expectation, thereby restricting the scope of idiosyncratic conduct".¹⁶⁰

Rose, in viewing the impact of religion upon the individual, states:

The normal course of life brings frustration, and the individual can tolerate only so much frustration. Faith, while it is more subject controllable than the external frustrating world, can ease frustration by providing subjective rewards as subjective convictions, that one 'understands' that 'good' will ultimately triumph, and that there is future happiness in religious life. Religion thus can work against fear, guilt, and misery in the individual.¹⁶¹

Fitzpatric states that religion is a personal experience giving the individual self-discipline, producing social control, and bringing out ingroup solidarity.¹⁶² The Webbs also see religion producing social control within the individual producing adherence to social norms.¹⁶³ The Gluecks, studying 500 reformatory inmates, found eight percent

¹⁶⁰ Everett K. Wilson, Sociology: Rules, Roles and Relationships, Homewood, Ill.: The Dorsey Press, 1966, p. 433.

¹⁶¹ Rose, op. cit., p. 276.

¹⁶² Joseph P. Fitzpatric, "The Role of Religion in Programs for the Prevention and Correction of Crime and Delinquents", in President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, Task Force Reports: Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Crime, Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1967, pp. 317-330.

¹⁶³ Robert Webb and Murial Webb, "How Churches Can Help in Prevention and Treatment of Juvenile Delinquency", Federal Probations, Vol. 21, No. 1, 1957, p. 22.

attending church regularly before sentencing with 88 percent having irregular attendance.¹⁶⁴

Rhodes and Reiss, in studying thousands of high school students from Tennessee, found delinquency rates twice as high among boys with no religious preference in comparison to boys with a religious preference.¹⁶⁵ McCann states that religion has no effect on producing inner conviction within the individual and is unlikely to bring about conformity in most situations.¹⁶⁶

Many sociologists have examined the effect of religion on sexual norms. Reiss has pointed out that the major religions of the world still condemn premarital copulation and the more religiously devout are more conservative sexually. His study disclosed that despite the liberal attitudes currently being expressed, the influence of religion can still be seen in the strong negative feelings expressed in his study toward coitus without love or affection.¹⁶⁷ Heltsey and Clayton, in separate studies, found that religious beliefs exert a

¹⁶⁴Sheldon Glueck and Elenor Glueck, 500 Criminal Careers, New York: Alfred Knopf Co., 1930, pp. 131-132.

¹⁶⁵Albert L. Rhodes and Albert J. Reiss, Jr., "The Religious Factor and Delinquent Behavior", Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency, Vol. 7, No. 1, 1970, pp. 83-98.

¹⁶⁶Richard V. McCann, "The Self-Image and Delinquency: Some Implications for Religion", Federal Probation, Vol. 20, No. 1, 1956, p. 23.

¹⁶⁷Ira Reiss, Premarital Sexual Standards in America, Glencoe, Ill.: The Free Press, 1960, pp. 162-164.

great influence upon the sexual behavior and attitudes of the students they samples.^{168, 169}

Summary

From the classical views of Durkheim to the thoughts of contemporary sociologists, such as Wilson and Rose, religion seems to have a strong impact on individual behavior. Also, the research into religion and deviant behavior have tended to support these thoughts. Therefore, the following proposition can be formulated.

Proposition XI

Religion seems to influence behavior.

CRIME AND SENTENCE STRUCTURAL CHARACTERISTICS

These characteristics are the variables that operate on the individual from the perspective of the crime committed, the conviction, and variables associated with the sentence.

Type of Crime

Many criminologists agree that most crimes of violence occur in passionate outbursts resulting many times in murder. It thus seems logical that most murders, rapes and assaults are not criminally

¹⁶⁸ Mary E. Heltsey and Carlfred B. Broderick, "Religiosity and Premarital Sexual Permissiveness: Re-examination of Reiss' Traditionalism, Marriage and Family Living, Vol. 31, No. 3, 1969, pp. 441-443.

¹⁶⁹ Richard R. Clayton, "Religious Orthodoxy and Premarital Sex", Social Forces, Vol. 47, No. 1, 1968, pp. 469-474.

learned, whereas robbery, larceny, burglary, and other crimes can be learned. Therefore, it seems logical that incarcerated individuals committed for violent crimes conform to most laws.

Waldo, in examining "criminality levels" of incarcerated murderers and non-murderers, found that convicted murderers are less likely to violate prison rules and regulations than non-murderers. In all four categories of murderers, the relationship held at high levels of significance. He also found that significantly fewer murderers had no previous criminal record.¹⁷⁰ Sheaver and Barbash found that inmates convicted of more violent offenses--sex offenses, assaults and murders¹⁷¹--had the best histories of prison adjustment in work histories and job stability.

Coe, in examining this variable, found that ". . .well adjusted inmates committed offenses of theft and stole less often than the poorly adjusted group and more frequently were involved in offenses of violence and emotion". This relationship was significant at the .01 level.¹⁷²

Hanks classified crimes in four categories: offenses against chastity, public policy, person and property. Inmates committing

¹⁷⁰Gordon F. Waldo, "The Criminality Level of Incarcerated Murderers and Non-Murderers", Journal of Criminal Law, Criminology and Police Science, Vol. 61, No. 1, 1970, p. 69.

¹⁷¹A. Sheaver and B. Barbash, "Occupational Adjustment and Crime", Occupations, Vol. 29, No. 1, 1950, p. 114.

¹⁷²Coe, 1961, op. cit., p. 183.

crimes against property violated prison rules significantly more than inmates convicted of offenses in the three other categories.¹⁷³

Schnur also found a relationship between these variables. However, inmates convicted of crimes of violence had the worst conduct record.¹⁷⁴ This can be explained by the fact that Schnur did not control or standardize other variables; for example, length of sentence. Those inmates with longer sentences were inmates classified as violent crime offenders. Schnur counted all prison violations over the entire sentence and did not create a coefficient of deviations to standardize for this factor. Schnur himself recognizes this problem.¹⁷⁵

In the Sherwin and Strauss study of rioters and non-rioters, no significant relationship was found in considering this variable.¹⁷⁶

Summary

Many inmates are incarcerated because of crimes of emotion, murder, assault, and rape; many inmates for theft, and a variety of other crimes. The studies mentioned have found that inmates convicted of violent crimes adjust better and have fewer prison infractions than inmates incarcerated for other crimes. It also seems logical that these inmates (violent offenders) may not have been socialized to break

¹⁷³Hanks, op. cit., p. 881.

¹⁷⁴Schnur, op. cit., p. 40.

¹⁷⁵Ibid., p. 41.

¹⁷⁶Sherwin and Strauss, op. cit., p. 56.

rules, other than the rules broken in times of passionate outbursts.

Thus, the following proposition can be formulated.

Proposition XII

Inmates convicted of violent crimes will have less violation of formal institutional norms while incarcerated than inmates convicted of non-violent crimes.

Length of Sentence

It would seem logical that inmates with longer sentences would be affected by two factors concerning their formal normative behavior while incarcerated. First, most inmates convicted of violent crimes would tend to have longer sentences and hold a low level of criminality. Inmates with shorter sentences and convicted of non-violent crimes would tend to be socialized into violations of formal norms. In other words, as previously mentioned in developing Proposition XII, non-violent criminals are more associated with deviation from norms.¹⁷⁷ Therefore, those inmates with longer sentences should violate institutional norms less than those with shorter sentences. However, criminals classified as "habitual criminals" are given longer sentences.

The second factor is centered on the concept of "good time". It seems logical that inmates with longer sentences will gain more good time and reduce their sentences by exhibiting good behavior. Inmates with shorter sentences may not feel they can gain enough good time to affect their shorter sentences.

¹⁷⁷Waldo, op. cit., p. 61.

The sketchy evidence concerning this logical argument is mixed. Coe's findings support this argument. Inmates with longer sentences were significantly (.05 level) better adjusted to the prison environment than inmates with shorter sentences.¹⁷⁸

Hanks found no significant difference between the discipline group and control group of incarcerated individuals and length of sentence.¹⁷⁹

Sherwin and Strauss also found no relationships existing concerning this variable in their study of rioters and non-rioters.¹⁸⁰

Morello found that when the length of incarceration increased no significant trend occurred for non-white inmates in prison adjustment. However, with white inmates, as length of incarceration increased there was a significant trend toward becoming less well-adjusted.¹⁸¹

Summary

Only four studies were found concerning this variable. One study found a relationship, as length of sentences increase, infractions decrease. Two studies found no relationship, and one found as length of sentence increased, infractions increased. The logic presented seems to support the inverse relationship stated. However, from this sketchy information the following proposition can be stated.

¹⁷⁸Coe, 1961, op. cit., p. 183.

¹⁷⁹Hanks, op. cit., p. 882.

¹⁸⁰Sherwin and Strauss, op. cit., p. 56.

¹⁸¹A. Morello, A Study of the Adjustment of Prison Inmates to Incarceration, Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Temple University, 1950, p. 23.

Proposition XIII

The length of sentence of an inmate seems to influence infractions of formal institutional norms.

Proportion of Sentence Served

Wheeler, in his study of prison organization, examined inmate conformity to conventional norms. A U-shaped curve was developed in which conformity was higher at the beginning and at the end of the incarceration period than in the middle. This was explained as reflecting progressive change from outsider to fellow inmate reference groups until the last stages of incarceration, when reference is re-directed to outside persons.¹⁸²

Glasser measured inmates' attitudes in five federal prisons and compared them at various stages of sentence completion, after their first week in prison, after six months, between the first and last year of expected confinement, and within three months of release.¹⁸³

When responses to the question, "Do you think your sentence was fair?" were plotted over time, the inmates interviewed within a week of their admission to prison felt that their sentence was fair. However, there was a significant increase in the proportion calling their sentence unfair as one moved from those interviewed in their first four

¹⁸²Stanton Wheeler, Social Organization in a Correctional Community, Unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation, University of Washington, 1958, p. 387.

¹⁸³Daniel Glasser and John R. Stratton, "Measuring Inmate Change in Prison", The Prison: Studies in Institutional Organization and Change, Donald R. Cressey (ed.), New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Co., 1961, p. 389.

days in prison to those interviewed in their fifth, sixth or seventh day. Little further change in this attitude was indicated during the first six months of incarceration, but the proportion calling their sentence fair dropped to 36 percent by the middle of the sentence. Yet, the proportion of inmates interviewed within 90 days of release who described their sentence as fair was 70 percent.¹⁸⁴

The resulting profits of Glassers' study is similar to Wheeler's U-shaped curve. It suggests that inmates focus on inmate reference groups very rapidly at first, and continuously during most of their incarceration, but as release time approaches, most of them assume the perspective of non-prison reference groups.

From this information it seems logical that the proportion of the sentence completed affects inmate behavior. Also, as the inmate approaches the time of release, it can be logical to assume that he does not want to violate any prison regulations that would endanger the good time he has accumulated.

Summary

No empirical studies could be found to develop a proposition concerning this variable. However, based on findings of Wheeler and Glasser the following proposition can be formulated.

Proposition XIV

The proportion of an inmates sentence served will influence conformity to or deviation from formal institutional norms.

¹⁸⁴Ibid.

Age at First Arrest

Three studies indicate that youths who are arrested at an early age have problems with the formal normative order of correctional institutions. Zink, in examining "trouble-makers and non-trouble-makers" found a significant relationship between age at first arrest and rule infractions. Those inmates first arrested at an earlier age more frequently violated formal rules than inmates whose first arrest were later in life.¹⁸⁵ Coe reported that well adjusted inmates tended to be older at the time of first arrest and poorly adjusted inmates younger. This relationship was significant at the .01 level.¹⁸⁶ Schnur also found a significant relationship concerning these variables. He states, "the older a man is when he comes to the Wisconsin State Prison, the less likely he is to misbehave in prison. . ."¹⁸⁷ The literature surveyed did not attempt to explain this phenomena.

Summary

Based on the findings of the three studies mentioned, the following proposition can be stated.

Proposition XV

The earlier the age of arrest of an inmate, the more the inmate will violate formal institutional norms.

¹⁸⁵Theodore Zink, An Investigation of Characterologic and/or Environmental Differences Between Troublemakers and Non-Troublemakers in a Prison, Unpublished Thesis, University of Delaware, 1956.

¹⁸⁶Coe, 1961, op. cit., p. 182.

¹⁸⁷Schnur, op. cit., p. 40.

Previous Convictions (Recidivism)

It would seem logical that an inmate who was released many times from incarceration and returned to prison would be more of a behavior problem than those inmates with a low recidivism rate. If they continue to disobey norms in society, it would be logical to assume they would violate prison norms more than other inmates.

Wolfgang takes a different view of this association stating, "We may assume that a prior experience of incarceration aids an inmate to adjust to his instant imprisonment".¹⁸⁸ Wolfgang states the inmate has prior experience in adapting to the prison routine of working, sleeping, eating, being idle, etc. Wolfgang confirmed this hypothesis, as previous penal experience increases, inmate adjustment increases.¹⁸⁹

Cason and Pescor, in investigating federal offenders, found the following relationship. Recidivists showed significantly more anti-social activity, offenses against property in prison, poor dormitory adjustment, reported insolence and violation of institutional norms than non-recidivists.¹⁹⁰ These results are the direct opposite of Wolfgang's findings and partially agree with previous logic. However, this study examined only psychopathic offenders.

¹⁸⁸Wolfgang, 1960, op. cit., p. 816.

¹⁸⁹Ibid.

¹⁹⁰Hulsey Cason and M. J. Pescor, "A Comparative Study of Recidivists and Non-Recidivists Among Psychopathic Federal Offenders", Journal of Criminal Law, Criminology, and Police Science, Vol. 37, No. 3, 1946, p. 236-237.

Hanks found a slight relationship concerning the variables; as previous convictions increase, inmate prison infraction increases.¹⁹¹ However, this relationship was not statistically significant. Coe, like Hanks, found a slight association. This relationship was also not statistically significant.¹⁹²

Summary

Since the data are incongruent, the following proposition will be formed for possible testing to see if there is a relationship and in what direction.

Proposition XVI

There appears to be a relationship between recidivism and formal normative behavior.

PRESENT SOCIAL STRUCTURAL PATTERNS

The last category of characteristics concerns variables located in the present social structure in which the inmates interact.

Visitation

For many years, sociologists have examined closely primary group relationships. These face-to-face relationships are important to the psychological make-up of the individual. Biderman states that group ties are very important to the individual. In investigating

¹⁹¹Hanks, op. cit., p. 883.

¹⁹²Coe, 1961, op. cit., p. 182.

Korean prisoners of war, he found that "systematic attacks on group ties" were more powerful than physical force in "breaking down" the individual.¹⁹³ Prisoners were isolated, shifted from cell to cell, the correspondence stopped, thus cutting off the prisoners' links to his homeland, family, friends, etc. Therefore, it seems logical to assume that visits to inmates are very important to them psychologically.

Teeters, qualitatively analyzed the role of prison visits and classified three types of prison visits, relatives and friends, the professional and the lay person. He states, concerning the first type of visit, that "they bring him news from home. They pitifully try to bridge the gap between the free community he once knew and his lonely spirits temporarily enmeshed in problems they can know so very superficially."¹⁹⁴

The second visitor, the professional, represents various community organizations of humanitarian purposes. Where the family ties are weak these visitors can play an important part in keeping the inmate in touch with the outside world.

The lay visitor is one who is not associated with any organization but is ". . . motivated by strong desires to be of service to the

¹⁹³ Albert D. Biderman, "Social-Psychological Needs and 'Involuntary' Behaviors as Illustrated by Compliance in Interrogation", Sociometry, Vol. 23, No. 2, 1960, pp. 120-147.

¹⁹⁴ Negley K. Teeters, "The Role of Prison Visiting in the Penal Program", Journal of Criminal Law, Criminology and Police Science, Vol. 53, No. 3, 1962, p. 342.

unfortunate".¹⁹⁵ Here, too, where family ties are not strong, the inmate can benefit from such visits. Teeter concludes that visits are very important to the inmate for moral purposes, and can be a relief from the anxiety and frustration of prison life.

Zemans and Cavan state that visitation of family members are important to the inmates. Interviews with professional workers serve three purposes for visits: "reduce tensions, stabilize families, and boost the prisoners morale".¹⁹⁶ In investigation conjugal visits in the Mississippi penitentiary, Hooper examined qualitatively case studies of many inmates. The case studies inferred that the visits produced conformity to institutional codes.¹⁹⁷

The only research found correlating these variables was that of Lembo. In his study of a Florida correctional institution, he compared prison rule infractions of inmates who received "personal contact from the outside community to those inmates who did not receive such contacts".¹⁹⁸ A hypothesis was formed that there will be a relationship between the number of disciplinary infractions committed and the frequency of personal contacts received from members outside the prison

¹⁹⁵ Ibid., p. 488.

¹⁹⁶ Zemans and Cavan, op. cit., p. 137.

¹⁹⁷ Columbus B. Hooper, "The Conjugal Visit at the Mississippi State Penitentiary", Journal of Criminal Law, Criminology, and Police Science, Vol. 53, No. 3, 1962, p. 342.

¹⁹⁸ James J. Lembo, "Research Notes: The Relationship of Institutional Disciplinary Infractions and the Inmate's Personal Contact with the Outside Community", The International Journal of Criminology, Vol. 7, No. 1, 1969, p. 50.

community. It was significant at the .10 level. Since the statistical significance of his study was greater than the .05 level, he proceeded to investigate members of his sample qualitatively, "with the aim of exploring their feeling toward visiting, and whether it served as a motivation to avoid misconduct reports while incarcerated".¹⁹⁹

In unstructured interviews, he found three reasons for good conduct. These reasons were: (1) to accumulate good time, (2) to appear a favorable parole risk, and (3) to continue eligibility for visiting privileges. Visiting privileges was the number one reason among married men. However, it was found that married men who had irregular visits committed more disciplinary infractions.²⁰⁰

Lembo concludes that, "either the effect of these visits or their aspirations, became a major contributing factor in influencing the inmates behavior. The interviews also reflected the possibility that the men who were older, married and serving a longer sentence tended to adhere more closely to institutional regulations".²⁰¹

Summary

Most of the research concerning visitations and inmate behavior are case studies. From these examinations, it seems the visitations are related to prisoner moral and adjustment, thus affecting behavior. Although the quantitative study mentioned was not significant at the

¹⁹⁹ Ibid., p. 51.

²⁰⁰ Ibid., p. 53.

²⁰¹ Ibid.

.05 level, the following qualitative analysis seemed to support the relationship. On the basis of the logic given and these studies, the following proposition will be stated.

Proposition XVII

As the frequency of inmate visitation increases, the formal normative behavior of the inmate will move toward conformity.

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction has been the center of much research in complexed organization, however, very little has centered on inmate job satisfaction. Most of the studies outside of the correctional institution have discussed the dependent variable aspects of job satisfaction.

A few studies have focused on satisfaction as an independent variable. Champion states that ". . . a happy employee is a more productive one".²⁰² Champion cites Myers as stating, "a challenging job is one which allows a feeling of achievement, responsibility, growth, advancement, enjoyment of work itself, and earnest recognition".²⁰³ One must keep in mind, that these statements concern organizational job satisfaction of non-prison environments.

In reviewing criminologist and penologist views of this relationship, Taft has stated that "idleness" contributes to crime, prevails in most correctional institutions where serious riots have

²⁰²Dean J. Champion, The Sociology of Organizations, New York: McGraw-Hill Co., 1975, p. 115.

²⁰³Ibid., p. 205.

occurred and complicates disciplinary problems, therefore, "prisoners need work".²⁰⁴

Johnson has also stated that ". . .the most difficult prison to administer is the one in which prisoners languish in idleness. Absence of work leads to moral and physical degradation and ocrrupts institutional order".²⁰⁵ Most prisons have intitities in which the inmates work, prison industries, physical plants and maintenance, farms, clerical, vocational training, etc.

Fox has stated that rehabilitation in correctional institutions has a contribution to make, ". . .but it must be used as a vehicle to accomplish other objectives, such as work habits, feelings achieved that leads to self-respect, and self-discipline it takes to acquire skills as well as the skills themselves".²⁰⁶

Thus, the satisfaction an inmate acquires from his prison job seems logically important. Prison labor can be a punitive device. Johnson states "it strengthens an inmate's resentment against prison and officials".²⁰⁷ If satisfaction is gained the inmate sees meaning in his work, gain a feeling of achievement, and gains self-respect. If the job is not satisfying, the self-factors may be affected.

²⁰⁴Donald R. Taft, Criminology, 3rd Ed., New York: The Macmillan Co., 1956, p. 527.

²⁰⁵E. H. Johnson, op. cit., p. 448.

²⁰⁶Vernon Fox, Introduction to Corrections, Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall Co., 1972, p. 66.

²⁰⁷E. H. Johnson, op. cit., p. 448.

Reid also states that if ". . .the inmate sees that his job is not usually important to society, but to the maintenance of the prison, and he may therefore see his job as a form of punishment".²⁰⁸

Summary

Therefore, if an inmate is not satisfied with his job within the institution, his attitudes will reflect resentment against the prison, he will have feelings of low achievement and low self-respect, all of which will affect his behavior. From the logic previously presented and statements from sociologists, criminologists and penologists, the following proposition can be submitted for empirical testing.

Proposition XVIII

An inmate's perception of job satisfaction will influence his formal normative behavior.

Attitudes (Towards Prison Administration and Guards)

Attitudes have been the center of many theoretical and empirical studies from Spencer²⁰⁹ to Thomas and Znanieck²¹⁰ to contemporary social scientists.²¹¹ Alport and Murchison define an attitude as

²⁰⁸Reid, op. cit., p. 581.

²⁰⁹G. W. Alport, "Attitudes in the History of Social Psychology", Attitudes, Marie Jahoda and Neil Warren, (ed.) Baltimore, Md.: Penguin Books, Inc., 1966, p. 16.

²¹⁰Ibid., p. 19.

²¹¹T. M. Newcomb, "On the Definition of Attitudes", Attitudes, Marie Jahoda and Neil Warren (ed.), Baltimore, Md.: Penguin Books, Inc., 1966, pp. 22-24.

". . .an enduring organization of motivational, emotional, perceptual, and cognitive processes with respect to some aspects of the individual's world".²¹²

DeFleur and Westie tie in the concepts of salience into attitudinal study; "salience can be defined as the readiness of an individual to translate his (previous expressed verbal) attitude into overt action in relation to the attitude object".²¹³

Therefore, an attitude is a covert or overt tendency to act. Action is behavior. Thus, one could logically assume that attitudes are related to behavior. If an individual has a negative attitude towards a set of objects, set of individuals, or social system his behavior might reflect this attitude. Not always, however, are the two congruent.

From this, one may logically see inmates in a correctional system having attitudes that will affect their behavior. Therefore, if an inmate has developed a negative attitude towards administration and guards in a prison, this negative attitude may develop negative behavior and the inmate may strike out against the system. This may manifest itself in deviation of the prison's formal normative order and the inmate may have accrued many violations of official prison norms.

²¹²Ibid., p. 23.

²¹³M. L. DeFleur and F. R. Westie, "Verbal Attitudes and Overt Acts", Attitudes, Marie Jahoda and Neil Warren, (ed.), Baltimore, Md.: Penguin Books, Inc., 1966, p. 213.

In viewing attitudes of prisoners, Fox states that "authority is seen as aggressive and sometimes sadistic". Prisons thus seem to develop an attitude against authority and constant supervision in prisons reinforce this concept. "Consequently, the attitude toward authority by the prison inmate is one of resentment".²¹⁴

Summary

Contemporary prisoner attitudes, in conjunction with formal normative behavior, was not found in the literature. However, based on the logic presented, the following proposition is formulated.

Proposition XIX

Inmate attitudes toward administrators and guards seems to be related to formal normative behavior.

Participation in Voluntary Formal Organization

The concept of socialization implies group membership with roles and norms developing. The concept of "resocialization" centers on changes in group membership and changes in roles and norms. Concerning the resocialization approach use in prisons, Wolfgang et al. state that:

Many findings in the social origins of individual behavior suggest that the problem of re-shaping the anti-social attitudes and values of offenders is related to the possibility of altering the patterns of group membership which they bring with them into the prison. The prison community, therefore, must provide opportunities for altering the group memberships and reversing the social-

²¹⁴Fox, op. cit., pp. 201-202.

ization process which contributed to the criminal behavior of those incarcerated in it.²¹⁵

Coulter and Korpi collected data from 178 prisons in an attempt to determine the effect of resocialization programs upon the inmates. They found that resocialization is being attempted through religious activities, academic or vocation education programs, correspondence courses, recreational and social education programs.²¹⁶

Their study shows that 95 percent of the prisons have chaplains, hold religious services, or have religion counseling available. Concerning education, 82 percent of the prisons examined had programs.²¹⁷ Correspondence, or cell-study, courses were found in 56 percent of the prisons.

There seems to be a general recognition of the value of physical development, use of leisure (constructive) team work (cooperation) in most prisons. A full-time or part-time recreational director was found in 84 percent of the prisons.

The concept of social education was also brought forth in the Coulter and Korpi article.

Social education is less standardized than any of the older programs mentioned above. In general, it is designed to acquaint the inmate with his government, with society's industrial organization, with American family life ideals, and with other phases of the social order,

²¹⁵ Marvin Wolfgang, Leonard Savits and Norman Johnston, The Sociology of Punishment and Corrections, 1970, p. 499.

²¹⁶ Charles W. Coulter and Orvo E. Korpi, "Rehabilitation Programs in American Prisons and Correctional Institutions", Journal of Criminal Law, Criminology, and Police Science, Vol. 44, No. 5, 1954, p. 611.

²¹⁷ Ibid., pp. 613-614.

of which on release, he will again become an integral part. All available community facilities are used to help in this work, from lectures and discussions to cooperative programs within the prison.²¹⁸

Thus, the major goal of these programs is to supply the inmate new living patterns which are socially acceptable.

Shihadeh and Nedd, in further evaluating the resocialization aspects of prisons, developed a study of a federal penitentiary in Canada. The purpose of the study was to examine the attitudes of inmates toward certain incentive programs. The community was divided into two groups based on a more or less favorable attitude toward incentive programs. It was found that religious programs, counseling programs and inmate membership of residential unit management committee had significantly more favorable evaluation of the incentive programs than non-participants.²¹⁹

Both group and individual counseling are devices used to produce better adjusted inmates and lower rates of prison infractions. Fenton, in his study, found significantly fewer disciplinary actions among inmates who were involved in group counseling.²²⁰ Persons also found fewer misconduct reports among inmates in both individual and group counseling programs than those inmates not involved in counseling

²¹⁸ Ibid., p. 615.

²¹⁹ Emile Shihadeh and Albert N. B. Nedd, "Inmate Evaluation of a Penitentiary Incentive Program", Canadian Journal of Criminology, Vol. 15, No. 2, 1973, pp. 228-229.

²²⁰ N. Fenton, "Group Counseling in Correctional Practice," Canadian Journal of Correction, Vol. 2, No. 2, 1960, pp. 229-230.

programs.²²¹ Fox found a significant relationship between group counseling and prison adjustment.²²²

The research of Andrews and Young supported the preceeding studies in examining the effects of group counseling. Inmates in group counseling programs had significantly fewer misconduct reports than those not in programs.²²³

Concerning leisure-time and recreation, very little research has been constructed. However, as early as 1934, in an editorial by Andrew Bruce, President of the American Institute of Criminal Law and Criminality, he discussed "Prison Discipline and Prison Athletics". Bruce emphasized the importance that such a program would furnish a partial solution to discipline problems. Bruce stated that "If the men had been allowed to wander around at large they would have been up to all kinds of mischief." He stated that after organized recreation was initiated at the Joliet, Illinois, prison, noticeable discipline infraction decreased.²²⁴

²²¹R. W. Persons, "Psychotherapy and Behavioral Change in Delinquents Following Psychotherapy", Journal of Clinical Psychology, Vol. 22, No. 3, 1966, pp. 337-340.

²²²Vernon Fox, "The Effect of Counseling on Adjustment in Prison", Social Forces, Vol. 33, No. 2, 1954, pp. 285-289.

²²³D. A. Andrews and J. G. Young, "Short-Term Structured Group Counseling and Prison Adjustment", Canadian Journal of Correction, Vol. 85, No. 1, 1974, p. 5-13.

²²⁴Andrew A. Bruce, "Prison Discipline and Prison Athletics", Journal of Criminal Law and Criminology, Vol. 25, 1939, pp. 527-529.

Finally, Sachs, in researching prison troublemakers, reported that inmates with repeated prison infractions (resistors) had less interest in constructive leisure-time activities than non-resistors.²²⁵

Summary

Prisons, in general, offer a wide range of so-called rehabilitative programs. In most cases, the option of participating in such programs is left to the discretion of the inmate. These programs range in nature from education, vocation and recreational activities, to group counseling and psychotherapy. It is hoped that participation in these programs will cause a departure from the traditional socialization patterns of the inmates.

In order to form a master blueprint for the ideal combination or mix of rehabilitative programs within prison, it must first be clearly established that these programs do work. If we assume that re-socialization of inmates is the primary objective of penal institutions, then we must further more assume that the offering of rehabilitative programs by these institutions is an attempt at achieving this objective.

Proposition XX

Inmate participation in voluntary formal organizations seems to be related to formal normative inmate behavior.

²²⁵Jerome G. Sachs, Troublemaking in Prison, Washington, D. C.: Catholic University, 1942, pp. 126-130.

To understand the relationships exhibited in this chapter, a structural deterministic orientation will be used in the following theoretical framework.

CHAPTER III

THEORETICAL MODEL

Orientation of Model

The foundation of the theoretical model of this dissertation will center on a structural-deterministic orientation. The deterministic viewpoint states that an individual's behavior is not to any significant extent determined by his own inventiveness and ingenuity. His genetic character, however, can play a limited role. Pittenger, Hockett, and Danehy, state:

The major determinants are held to be the behavioral patterns transmitted to the individual by enculturation from those around him in the same community. Individual inventiveness is not denied, but is regarded as a matter of recombination of separately acquired cultural patterns.¹

The basic assumption of the structural orientation is that external social factors affect the behavior of individuals. Labovitz and Hagedorn conceive structure as, ". . . a set of factors, characteristics, dimensions, or variables that exist in society independent of individuals, and that are imputed to constrain them to behave and think in particular ways."² In other words, individuals interacting and

¹Robert Pittenger, Charles F. Hockett, and John J. Danehy, "Verbal Interaction: Some Findings from Microscopic Interview Analysis", in Communication: Concepts and Processes, (ed.) Joseph A. DeVito, New York: Prentice-Hall Co., 1976, p. 85.

²Sanford Labovitz and Robert Hagedorn, An Introduction to Sociological Orientation, New York: Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1973, p. 4.

being influenced by the same structural elements or forces will exhibit similar behavior patterns.

Labovitz and Hagedorn discuss four related dimensions of the structural approach: ecological, network of independent positions, group structures, and normative structures.³ These various dimensions will be integrated into this model later in this chapter.

Parsons' Model

Parsons' contribution to the structural model made a great impact on sociological thought from the late 1930's to the present. Parsons seems to infer the dominance of social and cultural structure upon the individual (personality). Turner, in interpreting Parsons, states that ". . . cultural patterns figure prominently in the analysis in that they were seen as underlying both the normative structure and the social system and the need disposition and decisionmaking process of the personality system".⁴ In other words, predetermined cultural patterns influence social systems which are composed of personality systems which are in turn influenced and behave in predictable ways.

Turner further supports this by discussing Parsons' concept of institutionalization. Parsons defines this concept as:

. . . the relatively stable patterns of interaction among actors in states. Such patterns are normatively regulated and infused with cultural patterns. This infusing of values can occur in two ways. First, norms regulating role

³Ibid., pp. 4-5.

⁴Jonathan H. Turner, The Structure of Sociological Theory, Homewood, Ill.: The Dorsey Press, 1974, p. 33.

behavior can reflect the general values and beliefs of culture. Second, cultural values and other patterns can become internalized in the personality system, and, hence, affect that system's need structure, which in turn, determines an actor's willingness to enact roles in the social system.⁵

Concerning systems, Parsons discusses four types: social systems, cultural systems, personality systems, and behavior organisms.⁶

The cultural system represents patterns, developed through social evolution, which serve as a model by which groups, organizations, and societies develop social structures. A social system is the linking together of the personality systems and behavioral organisms which fulfill survival needs. Parsons writes:

. . .that social systems are organized with primary references to the articulation of social relationships, cultural systems are organized around characteristics of complex symbolic meaning--the particular cluster of systems they employ, and the conditions of their utilization, maintenance, and change as parts of action systems.⁷

As a result of the development and maintenance of the social systems the biological organism is maintained. The personality system represents the internalization of the cultural structure by the behavioral organism which maps out behavior within the social systems in which it becomes a member. As a result of the dynamic interchange of culture, society and personality, survival needs are met by the behavioral organism. Thus, Parsons states:

⁵Ibid., p. 35.

⁶Talcott Parsons, The System of Modern Societies, Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall Co., 1971, p. 4.

⁷Ibid., p. 5.

. . .the personality system is the primary agency of action processes, hence the implementation of cultural principles and requirements. On the level of reward in the motivational sense, the optimization of gratification or satisfaction to personalities is the primary goal of action.⁸

Parsons further integrates the personality system with the social and cultural systems. He states that the:

. . .constitution of the individual comprises a general 'orientation' which develops into specific anatomical structures, physiological mechanisms, and behavioral patterning as it interacts with environmental factors during the life of the organism.⁹

Therefore, Parsons seems to be theorizing that the behavior of individuals (personalities) are learned by interacting with various social systems during the life of the social actor. Socialization would, thus, be the process by which the personality is developed and modified as it interacts with the various systems within the social environment.

Merton's Model

Merton exhibited a structuralistic orientation in his early article "Social Structure and Anomie". Here he examined the cultural and social sources of deviant behavior. Martindale states: "His aim more specifically was to examine the manner in which social structures exert a definite pressure upon certain persons in a society to engage in nonconformist rather than conformist conduct".¹⁰

⁸ Ibid.

⁹ Ibid., p. 6.

¹⁰ Don Martindale, The Nature and Types of Sociological Theory, Boston, Mass.: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1960, p. 475.

Merton, applying Durkheim's ideas to the explanation of deviant behavior, developed the following hypothesis: "A state of anomie (normlessness) is produced whenever there is a discrepancy between the goals of human action and the societally structured legitimate means of achieving them".¹¹

In other words, the pattern of social arrangements produce goals and means. According to Nettler:

It is the 'structure' of a society, which includes some elements of its culture, that builds desires and assigns opportunities for their satisfaction. This structural explanation sees illegal behavior as resulting from goals, particularly materialistic goals, held to be desirable and possible for all, that motivate behavior in all societal context that provides only limited legal channels of achievement.¹²

Therefore, Merton conceives behavior, in this case, deviant behavior, as being generated by the social structure. Many sociologists developed theories centered on Merton's conceptualizations. Cloward and Ohlin's "delinquency and opportunity"¹³ theory, Cohen's delinquent sub-cultural theories,¹⁴ and Miller's theory of "focal concerns"¹⁵ were all generated by Merton's work.

¹¹Gwynn Nettler, Explaining Crime, New York: McGraw-Hill Co., 1974, p. 157.

¹²Ibid.

¹³R. A. Cloward and L. E. Ohlin, Delinquency and Opportunity, New York: The Free Press, 1960.

¹⁴Albert K. Cohen, Delinquent Boys: The Culture of the Gang, Glencoe, Ill.: The Free Press, 1955.

¹⁵Walter B. Miller, "Lower Class Culture as a Generating Milieu of Gang Delinquency", Journal of Social Issues, Vol. 14, No. 3, 1958, pp. 5-19.

Basic Conceptual Framework

Within the Parsonian model, four systems of actions were developed. Parson formulates the relationship between the cultural system, social system, and personality system by integrating the process of institutionalization into the scheme.

The cultural system, which is composed of value orientations, determines social systems, composed of role expectations, which determines need dispositions of the personality system, thus, determining the actor's willingness to enacted roles in the social systems.¹⁶ The concept of role, therefore, links the actor to the structure of the social system.

Parsons states that the concept of socialization is primarily used in referring to the process of child development, but he extends the concept to include, ". . .the learning of each orientation of functional significance to the operation of a system of complementary role-expectations."¹⁷ This includes childhood and adulthood and continues through the lifetime of the actor.

Bertrand discusses the concept of social organization, a term used to fill the conceptual gap between society and culture. He defines society as, ". . .a group of people sufficiently organized to carry out

¹⁶Mark Abrahamson, Functionalism, Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1978, p. 34.

¹⁷Talcott Parsons, The Social System, Glencoe, Ill.: The Free Press, 1951, p. 207.

the conditions for living together harmoniously".¹⁸ He defines culture as, "...a body of transmittable patterns for living or normative standards for behavior".¹⁹ Because these definitions fail to account for discrepancies between ideal and real patterns of behavior, the concept of social organization was introduced. Bertrand defines social organization as an organized network of social interaction. Bertrand writes:

However, it is always understood that any network of interaction is relevant in terms of given social structural unit. For example, when used in a generic sense, social organization refers to the totality of activity within a greater society, such as a nation. When used in a specific sense, this term relates to the interaction patterns found in one or another of the various subunits, such as families, corporations or communities that constitute a total society.²⁰

Bertrand further integrates into his "general systems and role theory perspective," five basic structural elements of social systems. He recognizes three basic elements as the supportive elements in all systems: norms, roles, and status-positions. Two more elements, situations and stations, are relevant in complex systems.²¹ Thus, these five elements, through social organization link the social actors to the structures of social systems.

¹⁸Alvin L. Bertrand, Social Organization: A General Systems and Role Theory Perspective, Philadelphia, Pa.: F. A. Davis, Co., 1972, p. 2.

¹⁹Ibid.

²⁰Ibid.

²¹Ibid., p. 34.

Within Bertrand's perspective, norms are the smallest unit of social structure. Roles are sets of norms. Status-positions are sets of roles. Situses are sets of status-positions, and stations are sets of situses. Thus, all of what the individual "is" at the present moment can be defined as his station. Within this station, the social actor has all of his behavior patterns. Patterns to use representing his situses, status-positions and roles.

Thus, all the structural elements are internalized into the social actor from birth. The infant acquires a station at a young age. Stations "die off" and are replaced by new stations. This process continues throughout life with each past station being a foundation to support each new station as it develops. Therefore, the individual's personality is the sum total of all stations acquired throughout life. The personality also includes all unique experiences internalized and to some extent biological characteristics. All these past stations combine with the present station and all unique experiences to give the individual sets of values, attitudes, and goals which guide behavior.

From birth, individuals are acted upon by the various systems within the social environment. Norms, roles, status-positions, situses and stations are learned and internalized by the individual and are components of the personality. Thus, these norms, roles, etc., are internalized from various social systems and their accompanying institutions.

In brief summation, through the socialization process, organizational patterns and experiences related to these patterns become part

of the individual. After birth and throughout life, the individual comes into contact with the culture or sub-culture through experiences in various groups. These outer patterns containing norms, roles, positions, and situations, become part of the individual. The totality of these structural elements integrate to become the individual's station.

As the individual ages and undergoes interaction from various other groups and their structures, the stations change. Each station further develops based upon experiences internalized from previous stations. Thus, the personality of an individual, at any point in time, is the totality of all previous stations and all previous unique experiences internalized. This would include all cultural and sub-cultural phenomena acting through the group experiences. Thus, the individual's personality structure is the sum total of all experiences internalized from outer social structures throughout the life span of the individual.

Thus, the personality is composed of all norms, roles, positions, situations, stations, and unique experiences located in the outer structures of the various elements of the society. All these groups can be seen as systems or organizations acting upon and developing the personality. The behavior emitted by the individual, therefore, relies upon the structure of the personality, which, as seen, is determined by outer structures of various systems within the social structure. Thus, the behavior of the individual could be predicted if various aspects of the structures affecting the individual could be known.

The Link Between Social Structure and Personality Structure

Cohen discusses two levels of explanation, the psychological and the sociological.²² The first level, psychological, attempts to explain behavior in ". . .reference to something about the actor--the structure of his personality, his perspectives, values, goals, interests, temperament, needs, and drives. . ." ²³ In other words, the question here is: "How did they get that way?" Cohen writes, ". . .the independent variable becomes some background event or circumstance, or pattern of event or circumstance, that according to theory, should produce such a personality".²⁴ These explanations are also concerned with the question: "How do we account for the difference in behavior between this person and that, or this person today and the same person tomorrow".²⁵

Another set of questions may also be asked. These questions are concerned with the second level of explanation, the sociological. Cohen writes: "Actions are not only events in the biographies of individuals--things that individuals do; they are also events located somewhere in a social system or structure--in a family, a neighborhood, . . ." ²⁶

²² Albert K. Cohen, Deviance and Control, Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1966, pp. 41-47.

²³ Ibid., p. 41.

²⁴ Ibid., p. 43.

²⁵ Ibid., p. 45.

²⁶ Ibid.

In this dissertation, psychological factors of inmate personalities will be investigated. The personal characteristics or variables will be integrated into an aggregate and seen as parameters of inmate behavior. These personal characteristics will also be viewed as the results of past and present social systems (structures) imposed upon the inmates. Cohen, in bringing the two levels of explanation together, states:

. . .whatever the properties of the culture or social structure to which we attribute the pattern of deviance, these properties determine the behavior of the members of the system through their impacts upon their personalities, the situation in which they operate, the conjunctions of personality and situation, and the interaction processes between them. In other words, psychological inquiry is concerned with identifying variables and processes involved in the motivation of deviance and conformity, and with constructing exact theories about their interrelationships. Sociological theory is concerned with identifying the variables and processes in the larger social system that in turn shape those that are involved in motivation, and that determine their distribution within the system.²⁷

Concerning crime in general, Nettler seems to be conveying the same thoughts about these two levels of investigation. Nettler writes: "One is psychological: Why did he do it? The other is sociological: Why have crime rates for our society increased or decreased?"²⁸ She backs up Cohen's thoughts in stating that, ". . .sociological explanations refer to the psychology of individuals taken collectively".²⁹ She clarifies this, however, stating that this may not always be the case.

²⁷Ibid., p. 47.

²⁸Nettler, op. cit., p. 136.

²⁹Ibid., p. 137.

"It is possible to explain the actions of aggregates without reference to the actions of their individual components."³⁰ However, the psychological variables taken in aggregate sociological form will be used in this dissertation.

Aggregates, Variables, and Parameters

The behavior occurring within a population or aggregate by the personalities composing the population manifests itself in various quantitative parameters. One of the major areas of sociological investigation is to scientifically analyze such parameters. Any type of behavior of an aggregate can be viewed as a variable. Variable (Y), the behavior, can be viewed as a dependent variable and various other phenomenon within the aggregate can be viewed as independent variables ($X_1, X_2, X_3, \dots, X_N$) and through various means become associated as causal factors of the dependent variable (behavior). Such behavior could, thus, be predicted if the independent variables could be operationalized and measured. These statements can be integrated with the conceptual framework developed in the previous sections of this chapter.

Each individual within an aggregate relies upon his personality before emitting behavior. This can occur unconsciously or consciously. Individuals with similar patterns existing within their personalities will behave in similar ways. Thus, individuals with similar stations composed of similar status-positions, etc., will behave in the same manner. For example, juveniles within an aggregate with similar "low"

³⁰ Ibid.

amounts of family cohesion, which developed from their positions within the family and incorporated into their personalities, may have similar "high" amounts of delinquency. Delinquency, the behavior emitted, is the dependent variable, and family cohesion, experiences and patterns within the personality of subjects in the aggregate, is the independent variable. In other words, delinquent behavior could be partially explained by family cohesion.

Delinquent behavior could also be explained by more than one common variable located in the aggregate of personalities. An "additive" model could explain such a relationship.³¹ In other words, delinquency (Y) can be the function of family cohesion (X_1) and other variables (X_2 , X_3 , X_4 , . . . X_N). This same model can be applied to the problem generated by this dissertation.

Within a prison or correctional institution inmates are contained. Therefore, the containment of the individual or inmate is controlled. Why then does inner containment vary within the prison? The behavior of inmates in conjunction with conforming or non-conforming to formal prison codes is the major concern of this dissertation.

In applying the previous framework, information concerning a set of 20 psychological independent variables, past and present, will be investigated within a prison population. These variables will be related to the dependent variable; the formal normative behavior of each inmate. The aggregate results (sociological) will be in parametric

³¹Sanford Labovitz and Robert Hagedorn, An Introduction to Social Science Research, 2nd Ed., New York: McGraw-Hill, 1976, p. 17.

form showing a relationship between the set of independent variables and the dependent variable. A section of nominal definitions of these variables and the final propositions derived will follow.

Nominal Definitions of Variables

Dependent Variable

Formal normative inmate behavior. This variable was defined earlier in the review of literature as the conformity or non-conformity of individuals to the formal codes--rules and regulations--of the correctional institution.

Independent Variables

Past personal structural characteristics. These are those factors internalized within the individual which were developed from past experiences (stations) with the social structure. Five such factors or variables will therefore be nominally defined.

Family Cohesion

A family, according to Goode, is a ". . .set of persons related to each other by blood, marriage, or adoption who constitute a social system".³² Cohesion is defined as the extent to which members of any group cooperate. The Gluecks define family cohesion as ". . .the integration and companionship of the family."³³

³²Gayle Johnson, et al., Encyclopedia of Sociology, Guilford, Conn.: Duskin Press, 1974, p. 107.

³³Sheldon Glueck and Elenor Glueck, Predicting Juvenile Delinquence and Crime, Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1959.

Area of Socialization (Rural-Urban)

Socialization refers to the "process by which one internalizes the norms of his groups so that a distinct self emerges unique to the individual."³⁴ Thus, in what area did this process take place--in a rural or urban setting? Tonnies characteristics of the classical "Gemeinschaft-Gesellschaft" dicotomy will be used to define rural and urban. Rural will be defined as the area in which social relationships are personal, informal, traditional, sentimental, and general. Urban will be defined as the area in which social relationships are more impersonal, formal, utilitarian, realistic, and specialized.³⁵

Differential Association

Sutherland refers to differential association as the social process in which ". . .an excess of definitions favorable to violation of law over definitions unfavorable to violation of law."³⁶ Concerning the individual, this will vary in intensity, frequency, and duration.

Social Class (Parents)

Before defining this variable, the concept of stratification system should be defined. Inkeles writes:

When we speak of the stratification system in any society, we refer to the nature of its hierarchies of possession and status, the bases for assignment to positions in these hierarchies, and among groups within each hierarchy.³⁷

³⁵ Ibid., p. 166.

³⁶ Edwin H. Sutherland and David B. Cressey, Criminology, 8th Ed., Philadelphia, Pa.: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1970, p. 75.

³⁷ Inkeles, op. cit., p. 83.

A social class exists as a result of stratification and can be defined as a grouping or stratum of individuals with similar positions within the stratification system of the society.

Physical Mobility

Physical mobility (migration) can simply be defined as the movement of an individual or family from one location to another.

Present Personal Structural Characteristics

This can be defined as those factors internalized within the individual personality developing from present situations. Six such factors or variables will therefore be nominally defined.

Age

Age is defined as the total number of years the individual has lived.

Marital Status

Marital status is defined as the present situation of the individual concerning marriage: married, single, divorced, widowed.

Race

Race is defined as the biological classification of human beings. However, there seems to be somewhat a shift from the biological description to a cultural description.

Education

Education is defined by Cole and Cox as ". . .a process of

directed learning."³⁸ This basic process generally takes place in the formal organization of the school.

Social Class (Personal)

This concept was defined earlier in the past personal variable category.

Religiosity

First, religion must be defined. Religion is a "system of communally experienced beliefs and practices oriented toward some supernatural realm."³⁹ Therefore, religiosity, would be the amount of feelings toward religion an individual or group would possess.

The third set of factors or variables as associated with Characteristics of the Crime and Sentence imposed on the individual. Five such variables will be nominally defined.

Type of Crime

Fox defines this as the ". . . kinds of criminal behavior," which is defined by state, local, and federal governments and law enforcement agencies.⁴⁰ A host of different classifications has emerged in the literature.

³⁸William E. Cole and Roy L. Cox, Social Foundation of Education, New York: American Book Co., 1968, p. 5.

³⁹Gayle Johnson, et al., Encyclopedia of Sociology, Guilford, Conn.: Duskin Publishing Co., 1974.

⁴⁰Vernon Fox, Introduction to Corrections, Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1972, p. 24.

Length of Sentence

Length of sentence is defined as the number of years the inmate was to be incarcerated. This was declared by the courts and concerns the present crime or set of crimes he was found guilty of violating.

Completed Portion of Sentence

The completed portion of sentence is defined as the percentage of the present sentence which has been completed.

Age at First Arrest

Age at first arrest is defined as the age of the inmate when his first arrest occurred.

Recidivism

Recidivism is defined as the repetition of criminal acts, and re-incarceration of the individual.⁴¹

The final set of factors represent the effect of the Present Structure of the Prison Environment upon the inmate. Four variables will be nominally defined concerning this category.

Visitations

Visitations is defined as the face-to-face interaction with individuals who reside outside the institution. In most correctional

⁴¹Ibid., p. 73.

institutions, an approved list of visitors is composed for each inmate. Approved time periods for visitations are also scheduled.⁴²

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is defined as the morale or feeling of being pleased by the work supervisors and work assignments.⁴³ In the present study, this would apply to the inmates' work assignments within the institution.

Attitudes Towards Prison Officials

An attitude, according to Triandis, is a:

. . . mental and neural state of readiness, organized through experience, exerting a directive or dynamic influence upon the individuals response to all objects and situations with which it is related.⁴⁴

Therefore, the objects and situation concerning this definition will be the administrators, guards, and other non-incarcerated employees of the correctional institution. This attitude is the mental state of the inmates concerning these individuals.

Participation in Voluntary Formal Organizations

Within the correctional institution there are many institutionally sanctioned organizations in which the inmate may participate. Organizations provided are recreational, educational, counseling,

⁴² Ibid., pp. 159-160.

⁴³ Delbert C. Miller, Handbook of Research Design and Social Measurement, 2nd Ed., New York: David McKay Co., 1970, p. 231.

⁴⁴ Harry C. Triandis, Attitude and Attitude Change, New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1971, p. 2.

religious, etc. In most cases, participation in these services are voluntary for each inmate. Thus, this variable can be defined as the amount of participation of the inmate in such groups.

Deduction of Propositions

From the previously described theoretical framework and definitions, the following propositions can be deduced.

1. The complete set of independent variables will be associated with formal normative inmate behavior.
 - (A). Family cohesion will be negatively associated with formal normative inmate behavior.
 - (B). Area of socialization will be associated with formal normative inmate behavior. Inmates from urban areas will deviate more than inmates from rural areas.
 - (C). Differential association will be negatively associated with formal normative inmate behavior.
 - (D). Social class of parents will be negatively associated with formal normative inmate behavior.
 - (E). Physical mobility will be positively associated with formal normative inmate behavior.
 - (F). Age will be negatively associated with formal normative inmate behavior.
 - (G). Marital status will be associated with formal normative inmate behavior. Unmarried inmates will deviate more than married inmates.
 - (H). Race will be associated with formal normative inmate behavior. Black inmates will deviate more than white inmates.
 - (I). Education will be negatively associated with formal normative inmate behavior.
 - (J). Religiousity will be negatively associated with formal normative inmate behavior.

- (K). Social class of inmate will be negatively associated with formal normative inmate behavior.
- (L). Type of crime will be associated with formal normative inmate behavior. Inmates incarcerated for crimes against property will deviate more than inmates incarcerated for crimes against person.
- (M). Length of sentence will be negatively associated with formal normative inmate behavior.
- (N). Completed portion of sentence will be negatively associated with formal normative inmate behavior.
- (O). Age at first arrest will be negatively associated with formal normative inmate behavior.
- (P). Recidivism will be positively associated with formal normative inmate behavior.
- (Q). Visitations will be negatively associated with formal normative inmate behavior.
- (R). Job satisfaction will be negatively associated with formal normative inmate behavior.
- (S). Attitudes toward prison officials will be negatively associated with formal normative inmate behavior.
- (T). Participation in voluntary formal organizations will be negatively associated with formal normative inmate behavior.

CHAPTER IV

RESEARCH DESIGN

Introduction

This dissertation centers on the inmate personality structures and normative behavior at the Maryland Correctional Institute four miles west of Hagerstown. The prison, during 1976, had an average monthly population of approximately 1,000 inmates.

To investigate the variables in this study, an interview schedule and review of prisoner records, based upon a structural theoretical orientation, was administered to a sample of 110 inmates.

Sampling Procedure

The Maryland Correctional Institution maintains records on each of its inmates within a central computer. A simple random sample of 110 inmates from an estimates population of 1,000 inmates at the institution was accumulated.

The Interview Schedule and Records Examination

References to theories and research from the two previous chapters indicated that certain socio-psychological factors might have significant association with formal normative inmate behavior. These factors were treated as independent variables.

Two instruments were used in this design: an interview schedule with each inmate and a tabulation of factors located in the prison files of each inmate. Several of the variables were located on

both instruments. This procedure was useful in checking on the accuracy of the interview schedule. The information collected from the inmates files was matched with the information taken directly from the interview with the inmate. Data on all 21 variables were thus collected and tabulated.

Operational Definitions of Variables

Based on the three previous chapters, the following are operational definitions appropriate to this study. The definition of the independent variables appears in sub-classifications congruent with the classification discussed in previous chapters.

Dependent Variable

Formal Normative Inmate Behavior. The indicator representing this variable was constructed from violations of inmate codes (rules and regulations) established by the institution.

Three objectives were set forth to derive a more meaningful measurement of this variable: (1) to control for Wheeler's U-shaped curve¹ previously mentioned, (2) to weight each violation, and (3) to measure violations over a longer period of time.

To control for the U-shaped curve, the first and last month of incarceration were not examined. The weight of each violation was calculated by distributing a questionnaire with 46 institutional rules

¹Stanton Wheeler, "Social Organization in a Correctional Community", Unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation, University of Washington, 1958, p. 387.

to 12 prison staff members who participated on the discipline board at various times. Each official from this panel of judges rated each violation between one and five, concerning the severity of a violation of the rule. A mean for each violation was thus calculated (see Appendix for questionnaire and calculated means).

Violations over the last 24 months, multiplied by the severity mean, were calculated. This quantity was then divided by 24 to standardize each score. An inmate infraction coefficient per month was thus developed. In cases where the inmate had served less than 24 months, the number of months served, minus one, was used.

Violations are given for a variety of infractions listed in the Maryland Divisions of Corrections handbook.² Fox also discusses prison rules and regulations that are used in most institutions.³

Independent Variables

Past Personality Structural Characteristics. This subclassification of variables can be defined as those traits developed in the early social life of the inmate.⁴ The following are five operational definitions concerning this category.

²A General Information and Guidance Handbook for Inmates, Maryland Division of Corrections, February, 1975, pp. 17-28.

³Vernon Fox, Introduction to Corrections, Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall Co., 1972, pp. 160-161.

⁴Rodney M. Coe, "Characteristics of Well Adjusted and Poorly Adjusted Inmates," Journal of Criminal Law, Criminology, and Police Science, Vol. 52, No. 2, 1961, p. 180.

Family Cohesion

Within Gluecks' discussion of socialization and the family, five factors were discussed: father's discipline and affection, mother's supervision and affection, and integration-companionship.⁵ A 23 item index was developed focusing on these five factors. The 23 questions were constructed in multiple choice form. Each question had five choices: A through E. The questions were designed with the A's representing extreme cohesion, and the E's representing lack of cohesion. Each item was quantified five through one, respectively.

Area of Socialization

In Hank's study of discipline in prison, he asked the inmates if they were reared in a city of 5,000 or less.⁶ Those answering "yes" were labeled rural; those answering "no" were labeled urban. In Coe's study, he simply asked a subjective question concerning the area in which they were reared.⁷

This variable was measured by asking the respondents questions which were adapted in correspondence to the following U. S. Government Bureau of Census data:

⁵ Sheldon Glueck and Elenor Glueck, Predicting Juvenile Delinquency and Crime, Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1958, p. 58.

⁶ L. M. Hanks, Jr., "Preliminary for a Study of Problems of Discipline in Prisons", Journal of Criminal Law, Criminology, and Police Science, Vol. 30, 1939, p. 884.

⁷ Coe, 1961, op. cit., pp. 180-181.

Rural area--population of less than 2,500
Urban area--incorporated area of 2,500 or more
City--population of 25,000 or more
Standard Metropolitan Statistical area--50,000 or more.⁸

Two other questions were introduced: "How many miles did you live from a city with a population over 25,000?" Also, to obtain a subjective viewpoint, the respondents were asked: "Do you feel you were reared in a country or city setting?"

Differential Association

A measuring instrument developed by Short was slightly modified to measure differential association.⁹ A nine question scale was used. Each question was answered with a set of four or five appropriate (Likert type) responses.

A "specific differential association" score was obtained by adding the responses to the first four questions. The scores ranged from four to sixteen, with the lower the number, the more differential association. "Generalized differential" scores were obtained by adding scores of the last five questions. A "total differential association" score for each subject was determined by adding together the specific and general score. The lower the value, the higher the degree of differential association.¹⁰

⁸ County and City Data Book: A Statistical Abstract Supplement, Washington, D. C., Bureau of Census, U. S. Government Printing Office, 1967, p. 13.

⁹ Rose Giallombardo, (ed.) Juvenile Delinquency, New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1966, p. 99.

¹⁰ Ibid.

Social Class (Parents)

The Ellis, Lane, and Oleson index of social class position was used to operationalize this variable.¹¹ Both objective and subjective measurements were used. Quantification of the instrument was calculated by adding objective and subjective quantities together. Classification will be as follows: non-lower class, 12 through 6, and lower class, 5 through 2.

Residential Mobility (Migration)

Each inmate was asked to determine the number of times his parents moved before he was incarcerated. If the inmate left home, he was asked to determine the number of moves he made after leaving home. Also, if he was married, he was asked to determine the number of moves during the marriage. Mobility was based on a summation of all three categories.

Present Personality Structural Characteristic. This sub-classification of variables can be defined as those traits possessed by the inmate at the present moment, disregarding earlier personality traits.¹² The following set includes six operational definitions.

¹¹Robert A. Ellis, Clayton Lane, and Virginia Oleson, "The Index of Class Position: An Improved Intercommunity Measurement of Stratification", American Sociological Review, Vol. 20, No. 2, 1963, pp. 271-277.

¹²Coe, 1961, op. cit., p. 180.

Age

Each inmate was asked to indicate his age. Age was regarded as the number of years lived, as of the nearest birthday. This variable was also taken from the inmate's records to check for accuracy.

Marital Status

Each inmate was asked to indicate his present status concerning marriage. Two nominal classifications were used: married and not married. This variable was also taken from the inmate's records.

Race

Race was determined by the inmate's records. Two nominal classifications were used to define this variable: white and non-white.

Education

Each inmate was asked to indicate the last grade of school he completed. This variable was also checked by examining the inmate's records.

Social Class (Inmate's)

This variable was operationally defined as was the variable social class of the parents. The Ellis, Lane and Oleson index of social class position was used.¹³

Religiosity

The measuring device used to operationally define this variable

¹³Ellis, Lane and Oleson, op. cit., pp. 271-277.

was derived from research developed by Yinger.¹⁴ Several other pertinent questions were added. Each respondent was asked to respond to 21 (Likert type) questions. The responses from each inmate were then recorded by using a six-point scale and weighted as follows, depending upon the direction of the question.

<u>STA</u>	<u>MA</u>	<u>SLA</u>	<u>SLD</u>	<u>MD</u>	<u>STD</u>
Strongly Agree	Moderately Agree	Slightly Agree	Slightly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Strongly Disagree
6	5	4	3	2	1
or					
1	2	3	4	5	6

A card with each response written on it was shown to each inmate. The numbers, however, were not included on this card. The higher the value, the more religious the respondent.

Characteristics of the Crime and Sentence. This sub-classification of variables was defined as those characteristics internalized by the inmate concerning the crimes prosecuted and incarcerated for, and the sentence imposed by the courts.¹⁵ Five such operational definitions follow.

¹⁴J. M. Yinger, Sociology Looks at Religion, New York: Macmillan Co., 1968.

¹⁵Coe, 1961, op. cit., p. 180.

Type of Crime

There are many different classifications of crime. Reckless discussed the Federal Uniform Crime Reports classification of crime.¹⁶ Twenty-nine different types are listed. This list was used when the inmate's records were checked. After the crime concerning the present sentence was located, it was then determined whether the crime was committed against property or against person.

Length of Sentence

This variable was operationally defined by the number of years the inmate was given upon being found guilty of the present crime by the courts. This was taken from the records of each inmate. If the inmate was serving a life term, the age when the inmate was sentenced was subtracted from a normal life expectancy of males. The normal life expectancy is 70 years of age.

Completed Portion of Sentence

This variable was calculated by the ratio of the number of months served on the present sentence divided by the number of months of the sentence. This quantification takes the form of a ratio from .0000 to 1.0000. This was calculated from information taken from the inmate's records.

¹⁶Walter Reckless, The Crime Problem, 4th Ed., New York: Appleton, Century and Crofts, Co., 1967, pp. 79-80.

Age at First Arrest

Each respondent was asked to indicate the age when he was first arrested. This variable was also checked against the inmate's records.

Recidivism

This variable is defined as the repetition of crime and incarceration. This was calculated as the number of times the inmate had been found guilty and sentenced. This variable was taken from the inmate's records.

Present Social Structural Characteristics. This sub-classification of variables can be defined as the present social systems within the correctional institution which affect the inmate. Four such systems were operationally defined. These systems concern visitation, the inmate's job, interaction groups with officials, and voluntary associations.

Visitations

Each inmate was asked to convey the number and names of relatives and friends with whom he visits. He was also asked to total the number of hours spent with each one during the span of a month. All visitors must register for each inmate visit and the time spent is logged by the prison officials. This was also taken from the inmate records and checked for accuracy with the response of the inmates. The value determined was computed as the number of hours of visitation per month.

Job Satisfaction

This variable was measured by using 15 selected questions from the "Science Research Associates Employee Inventory".¹⁷ This was primarily designed to measure attitudes toward the work environment. The 15 questions (Likert type) were selected and slightly modified to fit into a correctional institution atmosphere.

Each inmate was asked to respond to the 15 questions. The responses selected were exactly like the responses mentioned earlier in this section when religiosity was defined: strongly agree, moderately disagree, and strongly disagree. Also, the same procedures, using cards with the responses written out was utilized.

Attitudes Toward Prison Officials

According to English and English, an attitude is "an enduring learned predisposition to behave in a consistent way toward a given class of objects".¹⁸ The objects in this case were the prison staff including: administrators, correctional officers, educators, counselors, social workers, recreationists, and other staff members. To measure this attitude, several questions were taken from Gaasholt's

¹⁷Robert K. Burns, L. L. Thurstone, David G. Moore, Melony Baehr, "Index: Science Research Associates Employee Inventory", Handbook of Research Design and Social Measurement, 2nd Ed., Delbert C. Miller, New York: David McKay Co., 1970, pp. 253-259.

¹⁸H. English and A. English, A Comprehensive Dictionary of Psychological and Psychoanalytical Terms: A Guide to Usage, New York: David McKay Co., 1958, p. 50.

questionnaire measuring prisoner attitudes in an Oregon correctional institution.¹⁹

Inmates were asked to respond to 13 questions. The responses were in Likert form as were the response to religiosity and job satisfaction which have previously been discussed. Some of the questions from the Gaasholt questionnaire were slightly modified.

Participation in Voluntary Formal Organizations

Formal organizations recognized at the correctional institutions are hobby groups, recreational groups, religious groups, therapy groups, educational groups, junior chambers of commerce, etc. Each inmate was asked to convey to the interviewer all formal groups in which is is a member. These organizations were shown to him on a card. He was then asked to estimate the number of hours a week he participated in each group. This amount of participation in each group was then added. This variable was also cross-checked with information taken from the inmate's records.

The Research Instruments

Two instruments were used to measure the variables of this study. A survey of the inmate records was used to collect and formulate certain variables. The rest of the variables were acquired through a structured interview schedule with the use of the previously mentioned

¹⁹Oystein Gaasholt, "Dissatisfaction Among Prison Inmates: A Political Perspective", Unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation, University of Oregon, December, 1974, pp. 168-171.

standardized scales and measuring devices created by the writer of this dissertation. These two instruments are located in the Appendix.

Formulation of Hypotheses

Based upon all previous statements made in the theoretical and design sections of this dissertation, the following research hypotheses were formulated.

General Hypothesis

Significant relationships will be found to exist between the selected set of variables and inmate infraction coefficients.

Sub-Hypotheses

A. A significant negative relationship will be found to exist between family cohesion and inmate infraction coefficients.

B. A significant relationship will be found to exist between area of socialization and inmate infraction coefficients. Inmates from urban areas will deviate significantly more than rural inmates.

C. A significant negative relationship will be found to exist between differential association and inmate infraction coefficients.

D. A significant negative relationship will be found to exist between social class of parents and the number of inmate infraction coefficients.

E. A significant positive relationship will be found to exist between physical mobility and inmate infraction coefficients.

F. A significant negative relationship will be found to exist between age and inmate infraction coefficients.

G. A significant relationship will be found to exist between marital status and inmate infraction coefficients. Non-married inmates will deviate significantly more than married inmates.

H. A significant relationship will be found to exist between race and inmate infraction coefficients. Black inmates will deviate significantly more than white inmates.

I. A significant negative relationship will be found to exist between the level of education and inmate infraction coefficients.

J. A significant negative relationship will be found to exist between religiosity and inmate infraction coefficients.

K. A significant negative relationship will be found to exist between the social class of the inmate and inmate infraction coefficients.

L. A significant relationship will be found to exist between type of crime and inmate infraction coefficients. Property violations will deviate significantly more than those incarcerated for crimes against person.

M. A significant negative relationship will be found to exist between length of sentence and inmate infraction coefficients.

N. A significant negative relationship will be found to exist between completed portion of sentence and inmate infraction coefficients.

O. A significant negative relationship will be found to exist between age at first arrest and inmate infraction coefficients.

P. A significant positive relationship will be found to exist between recidivism and inmate infraction coefficients.

Q. A significant negative relationship will be found to exist between visitations and inmate infraction coefficients.

R. A significant negative relationship will be found to exist between job satisfaction and inmate infraction coefficients.

S. A significant negative relationship will be found to exist between attitudes toward prison officials and inmate infraction coefficients.

T. A significant negative relationship will be found to exist between participation in voluntary formal organizations and inmate infraction coefficients.

Collection of Data

The Pretest. The schedule interview was administered during the last weeks of February of 1977 to a sample of 20 inmates at the Maryland Correctional Institution at Hagerstown. The purpose of this pretest was to determine possible weakness in the measuring instrument. A few questions on the instrument were reworded due to the ambiguity of some of the questions.

Administration of the Instruments. Before collecting the data, a training session was held for interviewers. These sessions included administering the schedule interview to non-sample members. The interview team was composed of the writer of this dissertation, and two senior sociology students. The author collected all the necessary information from the files of the inmates within the sample. Each of the two students were assigned to interview inmates. The data were

collected during the day within a two week span. The interviews took place on the grounds of the institution. Since the data were collected in a relatively short time period, the mortality rate of the sample was held to a bare minimum.

As mentioned earlier, many of the variables were collected from the interview schedule and the files of the inmate. The instruments were checked to find inaccuracies in the various inmate responses to the schedule interview. A final draft of the instrument can be found in the Appendix.

Statistical Technique of Analysis

A step-wise least squares linear multivariate regression technique will be used to analyze the data. The model which served as the basis of the statistical design set forth in this dissertation is summarized as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}
 Y = & A + B_1X_{i1} + B_2X_{i2} + B_3X_{i3} + B_4X_{i4} + B_5X_{i5} + B_6X_{i6} + B_7X_{i7} + \\
 & B_8X_{i8} + B_9X_{i9} + B_{10}X_{i10} + B_{11}X_{i11} + B_{12}X_{i12} + B_{13}X_{i13} + \\
 & B_{14}X_{i14} + B_{15}X_{i15} + B_{16}X_{i16} + B_{17}X_{i17} + B_{18}X_{i18} + B_{19}X_{i19} + \\
 & B_{20}X_{i20} + \mu_1.
 \end{aligned}$$

Interpretation

$i = i$ th observation $X =$ variable in question (independent)

$Y =$ dependent variable $A = Y$ intercept

$B_1 - B_{20} =$ partial regression coefficients

$\mu =$ random variance

The following assumptions are inherent in the linear multiple regression model:

- 1) The independent variables are fixed or non-stochastic.
- 2) Significant linear dependence relationships may exist between any two of the independent variables, but their correlation must not be perfect.
- 3) The disturbances, μ_i , have identical distributions which are normal, with $E(\mu_i) = 0$.
- 4) The variance of the regression is constant and is identical with the variance of μ_i .
- 5) The disturbances are independent.
- 6) The number of observations in the sample exceeds the number of regression coefficients to be estimated. This is to insure that there are enough degrees of freedom present to perform the estimation.²⁰

²⁰Yu Lun Chou, Statistical Analysis, New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1975, p. 623.

CHAPTER V

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS OF DATA

Technique of Analysis

As mentioned in the previous chapter, a least squares linear multivariate regression model was utilized to analyze the effect of the 20 selected independent variables upon the dependent variable; formal normative inmate behavior (inmate infractions coefficient).

This statistical technique yielded, in a rank order display, and through the use of the stepwise program, the independent variables and their association with the dependent variable. The total accountable variability of the independent variables upon the dependent variable and a matrix of the partial correlations of all variables were also displayed through this technique.

The model was reduced to 19 independent variables when it was determined that the social class of the inmate could not be calculated. Many of the inmates within the institution were arrested and incarcerated at an early age and had not developed a class position aside from the social class of their parents. Other inmates in the study showed no intergenerational social class change from the social class of their parents.

Measurement of Variables

Fourteen of the independent variables were measured interally and five variables were measured nominally and introduced as "dummy" variables. Dummy variables are defined as those variables which cannot

be measured numerically. Each dummy variable was assigned numerals for the purpose of classification.

According to Dutta, the use of dummy variables ". . .has been widely adopted, and the result is the straightforward inclusion of qualitative variables in regression models."¹ A value of one or zero was assigned to the two attributes of such variables.

In this dissertation, area of socialization, type of crime, race, marital status, and social class are considered "dummy" variables. The two attributes of area of socialization, rural and urban, were assigned zero and one, respectively. The two attributes of type of crime, crimes against person and crimes against property, were assigned zero and one, respectively. The two attributes of race, white and non-white, were assigned zero and one, respectively. The two attributes of marital status, married and not married, were assigned zero and one, respectively. Divorced inmates were considered not married. The two attributes of social class, lower class and non-lower class, were assigned one and zero, respectively.

Descriptive Statistics

Measurements of central tendency and dispersion were calculated for the dependent variable and all 19 independent variables. Table 1 displays these calculations.

¹M. Dutta, Econometric Methods, West Chicago, Ill.: South Western Publishing Co., 1975, p. 159.

TABLE 1
MEASUREMENTS OF CENTRAL TENDENCY AND DISPERSION
FOR ALL VARIABLES

Variables		Means	Standard Deviation
Y	Inmate Infractions	0.919	1.299
X1	Family Cohesion	86.234	18.770
X2	Area of Socialization	0.766	0.425
X3	Differential Association	22.882	7.559
X4	Parents Social Class	0.551	0.499
X5	Physical Mobility	10.879	7.692
X6	Age	24.551	5.109
X7	Marital Status	0.262	0.442
X8	Race	0.710	0.456
X9	Education	9.626	2.238
X10	Religiosity	83.514	25.218
X11	Type of Crime	0.542	0.501
X12	Length of Sentence	18.673	12.706
X13	Completed Portion of Sentence	0.261	0.201
X14	Age at First Arrest	17.197	3.886
X15	Recidivism	3.664	2.737
X16	Visitations	2.812	2.684
X17	Job Satisfaction	54.682	18.032
X18	Attitudes Towards Prison Officials	31.869	14.677
X19	Voluntary Formal Organization Participation	16.654	12.236

The correlation matrix of partial coefficients for all 20 variables in the study is shown in Table 2. In analyzing this matrix, multi-collinearity did not seem to create any severe problem.

After the regression coefficients for all variables were calculated, the best one variable model was found (see Table 3). An iterative process was then utilized to reduce the number of explanatory variables in the original relationship. The best two variable model, three variable model, four variable model, etc. were then calculated.

The significance of each following relationship was tested by F values. A significance level of .10 was determined for each variable and by the iterative procedure all variables with F values not significant at the .10 level were dropped from the relationship. Those remaining were determined to be significant.

Level of Significance

Due to the fact that this is a pilot study, a .10 level of significance was chosen. In searching the literature, it was found that researchers had never attempted to analyze such data with regression techniques. In choosing the .10 level of significance, a probability level of $P = .10$ of rejecting the null hypothesis when it was in fact true was established.²

Statistical Hypothesis

The statistical null hypothesis developed by the research of this dissertation was: "There will be no significant relationship

²James Skipper, "The Sacredness of the .05 Level," The American Sociologist, Vol. 2, No. 1, 1967, pp. 16-18.

TABLE 2
CORRELATION MATRIX OF INDEPENDENT AND DEPENDENT VARIABLES

	Y	X1	X2	X3	X4	X5	X6	X7	X8	X9
Y Prison Inf.										
X1 Fam. Coh.	-0.449									
X2 Area of Soc.	0.304	-0.231								
X3 Dif. Assn.	-0.689	0.499	-0.497							
X4 Soc. Class	-0.428	0.444	-0.364	0.545						
X5 Phys. Mob.	0.169	-0.493	0.060	-0.228	-0.313					
X6 Age	-0.264	0.082	-0.244	0.167	0.075	0.031				
X7 Mar. Status	-0.341	0.203	-0.123	0.169	0.023	-0.126	0.608			
X8 Race	0.694	0.033	0.377	-0.143	-0.203	-0.158	-0.279	-0.688		
X9 Education	-0.408	0.206	-0.062	0.294	0.261	-0.279	0.042	0.123	0.114	
X10 Religiosity	-0.307	0.240	-0.232	0.320	0.145	-0.137	0.223	0.219	0.031	0.181
X11 Type of Cm.	-0.502	0.278	-0.108	0.379	0.227	-0.100	0.095	0.205	0.115	0.106
X12 Lgh. of Sen.	-0.286	0.058	0.081	0.102	0.062	-0.029	0.266	0.311	0.079	-0.159
X13 Com. P. of S.	0.288	-0.149	-0.028	-0.175	-0.090	0.217	0.153	-0.211	-0.137	-0.112
X14 Age at 1st A.	-0.346	0.224	-0.246	0.336	0.269	-0.186	0.383	0.332	-0.185	0.260
X15 Recidivism	0.118	-0.029	0.061	-0.126	-0.221	0.001	0.281	0.175	0.034	0.003
X16 Visitations	-0.361	0.261	-0.239	0.295	0.292	-0.204	0.163	0.294	-0.048	0.206
X17 Job. Satis.	-0.394	0.383	-0.301	0.459	0.216	-0.053	0.205	0.177	-0.089	0.157
X18 Att. T. Offl.	-0.183	0.237	-0.177	0.351	0.130	-0.148	-0.076	-0.102	-0.035	0.107
X19 Vol. F. C. P.	-0.540	0.354	-0.251	0.527	0.350	-0.250	0.114	0.097	-0.116	0.366

TABLE 2 --Continued

	X10	X11	X12	X13	X14	X15	X16	X17	X18	X19
Y Prison Inf.										
X1 Fam. Coh.										
X2 Area of Soc.										
X3 Dif. Assn.										
X4 Soc. Class										
X5 Phys. Mob.										
X6 Age										
X7 Mar. Status										
X8 Race										
X9 Education										
X10 Religiosity										
X11 Type of Cm.	0.159									
X12 Lgth. of Sen.	0.050	0.441								
X13 Com. P. of S.	-0.160	-0.336	-0.437							
X14 Age at 1st A.	0.241	0.211	0.014	-0.064						
X15 Recidivism	0.043	-0.327	-0.110	0.072	-0.373					
X16 Visitations	0.164	0.355	0.175	-0.134	0.444	-0.267				
X17 Job. Satis.	0.322	0.219	0.071	-0.044	0.238	-0.090	0.191			
X18 Att. T. Offl.	0.262	0.129	-0.048	-0.037	0.125	-0.160	0.149	0.507		
X19 Vol. F. O. P.	0.362	0.343	0.103	-0.163	0.271	-0.179	0.227	0.478	0.323	

TABLE 3

THE 'BEST' ONE-VARIABLE MODEL FOUND BY THE
MINIMUM R-SQUARE IMPROVEMENT PROCEDURE UPON
INMATE INFRACTION COEFFICIENTS

Independent Variables	Variable No.	R-Square
Differential Association	X3	.476
Vol. Form. Org. Part.	X19	.292
Type of Crime	X11	.252
Family Cohesion	X1	.202
Social Class	X4	.184
Education	X9	.167
Job Satisfaction	X17	.155
Visitations	X16	.131
Age at First Arrest	X14	.119
Marital Status	X7	.117
Religiosity	X10	.094
Socialization Area	X2	.093
Comp. Port. of Sentence	X13	.083
Length of Sentence	X12	.082
Age	X6	.070
Attitudes T. Officials	X18	.034
Physical Mobility	X5	.029
Recidivism	X15	.014
Race	X8	.009

between the set of independent variables and formal normative inmate behavior (prison infraction coefficients).³

Results of Multivariate Analysis

The review of literature indicated possible significance of the chosen 19 independent variables. As a result of the forward stepwise procedures, all 19 independent variables produced an R^2 of .670 upon the dependent variable with an F value of 9.306 at the 0.001 probability level of significance. This was calculated by the best 19 variable model found by the maximum R^2 improvement procedure.⁴

General Findings

As mentioned, a set of 19 independent variables was introduced within the regression equation. Table 4 displays regression coefficients, F values, and probability levels for all independent variables in relation to the dependent variable (inmate infraction coefficients). This table also displays the A value, F value, and probability value for the total 19 independent variable model upon the dependent variable.

However, through the stepwise procedure of the multiple regression analysis, the variables were ranked in final form concerning the iterative process. This form follows on page 125.

³The variable set includes X1 through X19, as specified earlier in this dissertation. (See page 118.)

⁴See regression techniques discussed in Chapter IV (page 114).

TABLE 4

REGRESSION COEFFICIENTS, F-VALUES, AND PROBABILITY
LEVELS FOR NINETEEN VARIABLE MODEL

Independent Variables	Inmate Infraction Coefficients (Dependent Variable)		
	Regression Coefficients	F-Values	Level of Sign.
X1 Fam. Cohesion	-0.009	2.417	0.1197
X2 Area of Soc.	-0.084	0.089	0.7635
X3 Diff. Assn.	-0.070	125.070	0.0001*
X4 Soc. Class	-0.056	0.051	0.8169
X5 Phys. Mob.	-0.021	1.348	0.2472
X6 Age	-0.007	0.164	0.6890
X7 Mar. Status	-0.265	7.843	0.0064*
X8 Race	0.156	0.690	0.5865
X9 Education	-0.131	12.331	0.0002*
X10 Religiosity	-0.001	0.049	0.8194
X11 T. of Crime	-0.400	17.785	0.0002*
X12 Lgth. of Sen.	-0.013	3.860	0.0497*
X13 C. Prop. of S.	0.358	0.346	0.5648
X14 Age 1st Arr.	-0.003	0.007	0.9316
X15 Recidivism	-0.007	0.018	0.8902
X16 Visitations	-0.021	0.327	0.5758
X17 Job Satis.	-0.001	0.028	0.8619
X18 Att. T. Off.	0.005	0.582	0.5462
X19 V. F. O. Part.	-0.014	3.284	0.0698*
Total Model	A = 5.666	9.306	0.0001

*Significant Variables

TABLE 5
ACCUMULATED R^2 OF INDEPENDENT VARIABLES

Variable Number (Rank)	Variable	R^2 (Accumulated)
1.)	Differential Association	.476
2.)	Type of Crime	.543
3.)	Education	.590
4.)	Marital Status	.620
5.)	Length of Sentence	.635
6.)	Vol. Form. Org. Participation	.647
<hr/>		
7.)	Physical Mobility	.657
8.)	Family Cohesion	.661
9.)	Race	.664
10.)	Attitudes T. Officials	.666
11.)	Comp. Port. of Sentence	.667
12.)	Visitations	.6686
13.)	Age	.6693
14.)	Socialization Area	.6696
15.)	Social Class	.6698
16.)	Religiosity	.6700
17.)	Job Satisfaction	.6701
18.)	Recidivism	.6702
19.)	Age at First Arrest	.6703
<hr/>		
R^2 all independent variables - .670		
R^2 six variables - .647		

Through the iterative process imposed on the equation, the total significant variables at the .10 level were reduced to six having an R^2 of .647. The F value of these six variables was 9.306 which was significant at the 0.0001 probability level. All other variables were not significant at the .10 level.

Because the variability of the 19 independent variables was not significant, the general null hypothesis was accepted. The null sub-hypotheses regarding ranked variables 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6 were rejected and the null hypotheses for the remaining variables failed to be rejected.⁵

Through the stepwise or iterative process, the equation yielding an R^2 of .647 is stated as:

$$Y = 5.666 - .070(X_3) - .400(X_{11}) - .131(X_9) - .265(X_7) \\ - .013(X_{12}) - .014(X_{19})$$

Findings: Inferential Analysis of Sub-Hypotheses

Differential Association

As a result of the inferential statistical analysis, differential association, as an independent variable, occupied the first position in the array. The R^2 produced by this variable was .476 and significant at the 0.0001 level. The null sub-hypothesis was rejected and the relationship accepted.

⁵See Table 4 for significance of each sub-hypothesis.

The relationship, as predicted earlier, was negative. Therefore, as the association moves more toward non-criminal orientations, the inmate infraction coefficient decreases. As the association moves towards criminal orientations, the inmate infraction coefficient increases.⁶

Type of Crime

This variable was displayed in position two of the statistical array. The R^2 was increased by type of crime being introduced into the equation. Combined with the first variable, the R^2 produced was .543 and was significant at the 0.0004 level. The null sub-hypothesis was rejected and the relationship accepted concerning type of crime.

The relationship was negative as predicted. Inmates who were incarcerated for crimes against person tended to have lower inmate infraction coefficients, whereas inmates incarcerated for crimes against property tended to have higher inmate infraction coefficients.⁷

Educational Level

As a result of the stepwise regression analysis, the independent variable education appeared in the third position of the ranked analysis. The R^2 produced by this variable entering the equation increased to .592. This variable's contribution to the explanation of the variance in inmate infraction coefficients was significant at the 0.0001 level.

⁶See Table 6.

⁷See Table 7.

TABLE 6

THE DISTRIBUTION OF INMATE INFRACTION COEFFICIENTS
AND DIFFERENTIAL ASSOCIATION

Inmate Infraction Coefficients	Differential Association					Totals
	9-14	15-20	21-26	27-32	33-38	
3.50 & Over	6	3	0	0	0	9
3.00 - 3.49	2	1	0	0	0	3
2.50 - 2.99	3	1	0	0	0	4
2.00 - 2.49	2	1	0	0	0	3
1.50 - 1.99	0	2	1	0	0	3
1.00 - 1.49	2	1	4	0	0	7
0.50 - 0.99	1	8	8	1	0	18
0.00 - 0.49	2	8	16	21	13	60
Totals	18	25	29	22	13	107*

*One hundred and ten inmates were randomly selected for interviews. However, three inmates refused to be interviewed.

TABLE 7

THE DISTRIBUTION OF INMATE INFRACTION COEFFICIENTS
AND TYPE OF CRIME COMMITTED

Inmate Infraction Coefficients	Type of Crime		Totals
	Crimes Against Property	Crimes Against Persons	
3.50 & Over	9	0	9
3.00 - 3.49	3	0	3
2.50 - 2.99	3	1	4
2.00 - 2.49	3	0	3
1.50 - 1.99	1	2	3
1.00 - 1.49	5	2	7
0.50 - 0.99	10	8	18
0.00 - 0.49	15	45	60
Totals	49	58	107

The relationship was again negative as predicted in the theoretical deductions. The null sub-hypothesis can be rejected and the relationship between education and inmate infractions accepted. As education increases, the inmate infraction coefficient decreases.⁸

Marital Status

The independent variable, which was ranked fourth in the array, was marital status. The introduction of this variable into the equation pushed the total R^2 to .620. The marital status regression coefficient was negative, as was the first three variables. It was also significant at the 0.006 level. The null sub-hypothesis was rejected and the relationship between this variable and prison infractions deemed significant.

The relationship, again as predicted, states that the married inmates have significantly lower inmate infraction coefficients than the non-married inmates.⁹

Length of Sentence

The variable, length of sentence, appeared in the fifth position of the array of independent variables. This variable, along with the aforementioned four variables, increased the R^2 to .635 in explaining the variance in the dependent variable. This relationship was found to be significant at the 0.049 level. The null sub-hypothesis was rejected and the relationship accepted.

⁸See Table 8.

⁹See Table 9.

TABLE 8
THE DISTRIBUTION OF INMATE INFRACTION COEFFICIENTS
AND EDUCATION

Inmate Infraction Coefficients	Education					Totals
	3-4	5-6	7-8	9-10	11 & Over	
3.50 & Over	2	0	2	4	1	9
3.00 - 3.49	0	0	3	0	0	3
2.50 - 2.99	0	1	1	0	2	4
2.00 - 2.49	0	0	1	1	1	3
1.50 - 1.99	0	1	2	0	0	3
1.00 - 1.49	0	2	1	4	0	7
0.50 - 0.99	0	0	5	7	6	18
0.00 - 0.49	0	2	10	13	35	60
Totals	2	6	25	29	45	107

TABLE 9

THE DISTRIBUTION OF INMATE INFRACTION COEFFICIENTS
AND MARITAL STATUS

Inmate Infraction Coefficients	Marital Status		Totals
	Not Married	Married	
3.50 & Over	9	0	9
3.00 - 3.49	3	0	3
2.50 - 2.99	4	0	4
2.00 - 2.49	3	0	3
1.50 - 1.99	3	0	3
1.00 - 1.49	5	2	7
0.50 - 0.99	16	2	18
0.00 - 0.49	36	24	60
Totals	79	28	107

The value, as predicted by earlier deductions, was negative. The relationship states that the longer the sentence of the inmates, the lower the inmate infraction coefficients and the shorter the sentence, the higher the inmate infraction coefficients.¹⁰

Voluntary Formal Organization Participation

In the final display of variables, voluntary formal organization participation appeared in the sixth position. This variable increased the variance of the dependent variable to an R^2 of .647. This was significant at the 0.069 level. The null sub-hypothesis was rejected and the negative relationship between the variables accepted. As participation in voluntary formal organizations increase, the inmate infraction coefficients decrease.¹¹

Insignificant Findings

As a result of the regression analysis, the null sub-hypotheses concerning the remaining variables, physical mobility, family cohesion, race, attitudes towards prison officials, completed portion of sentence, visitations, age, area of socialization, social class, religiosity, job satisfaction, recidivism, and age at first arrest, were accepted and no significant relationships found.

¹⁰See Table 10.

¹¹See Table 11.

TABLE 10
THE DISTRIBUTION OF INMATE INFRACTION COEFFICIENTS
AND LENGTH OF SENTENCE

Inmate Infraction Coefficients	Length of Sentence in Years					Totals
	2-12	13-23	24-34	35-45	46-56	
3.50 & Over	8	1	0	0	0	9
3.00 - 3.49	2	0	1	0	0	3
2.50 - 2.99	2	1	1	0	0	4
2.00 - 2.49	1	2	0	0	0	3
1.50 - 1.99	1	1	0	0	1	3
1.00 - 1.49	5	1	1	0	0	7
0.50 - 0.99	5	11	2	0	0	18
0.00 - 0.49	18	24	7	3	8	60
Totals	42	41	12	3	9	107

TABLE 11

THE DISTRIBUTION OF INMATE INFRACTION COEFFICIENTS
AND VOLUNTARY FORMAL ORGANIZATION PARTICIPATION

Inmate Infraction Coefficients	Voluntary Formal Organization Participation					Totals
	0-8	9-17	18-26	27-35	36-44	
3.50 & Over	7	2	0	0	0	9
3.00 - 3.49	3	0	0	0	0	3
2.50 - 2.99	4	0	0	0	0	4
2.00 - 2.49	3	0	0	0	0	3
1.50 - 1.99	1	1	1	0	0	3
1.00 - 1.49	5	2	0	0	0	7
0.50 - 0.99	5	5	4	3	1	18
0.00 - 0.49	7	13	19	13	8	60
Totals	35	23	24	16	9	107

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Summary

Concerning the central problem of this study, "What are the factors associated with formal normative inmate behavior?" two theoretical and three empirical objectives have been integrated into this research.

One of the theoretical objectives was to develop a multifactor approach to formal normative inmate behavior. In all, 19 independent variables were researched and deduced to have a relationship with the dependent variable. These 19 variables were broken down into four sets of variables: (1) past personal structural characteristics, (2) present structural characteristics, (3) structural characteristics precipitating from the crime and sentencing, and (4) present social structural characteristics.

The second theoretical objective was to create a theoretical model for the inclusion of the variable relationships. A structural deterministic orientation was thus developed.

Since most of the previous studies implemented control group approached to this problem (inmates who conform and inmates who deviate), the first empirical objective was to develop a simple random sample to represent all inmates within the population, not just those who deviate and those who conform to prison regulations. This objective has been accomplished. A simple random sample of 110 inmates was

generated in which 107 were interviewed. Three inmates refused the interview.

The second empirical objective was to derive a more meaningful measurement of formal normative inmate behavior. Three sub-objectives were initiated here. Wheeler's U-shape curve was controlled, a longer period of time was examined, and the violations were weighted. The results of this measurement were entitled inmate infraction coefficients.

The final empirical objective was to apply stronger statistical techniques to the problem than previously applied in past studies. A stepwise lineal multiple regression technique was applied. No other study examined had attempted such analysis.

After applying the regression model, inmate infraction coefficients were significantly influenced by six of the 19 independent variables: differential association, type of crime, education, length of sentence, marital status, and voluntary formal organization participation.

Structural deterministic theoretical orientation was supported by all the significant findings of the study and also served as a guideline for the research. Of the six significant relationships found, at least one was located in each of the structural characteristic areas.

Differential association, which explained the greatest amount of variance, was located in the past personal structural characteristic area. Two variables were located in the present personal characteristic area: education and marital status. Two variables were also located

in the crime and sentence structural characteristic area: type of crime and length of sentence. And, one variable, voluntary formal organization participation, was located in the present social structural characteristic area.

General Findings

The results of the stepwise linear multivariate analysis was capable of statistically explaining 67.0 percent of the variability of the inmate infraction coefficients, the dependent variable. Thus, the general null hypothesis concerning the proposed 19 independent variable set association was accepted and no significant relationship declared.

However, the null hypothesis concerning a six variable association was rejected and a relationship between this model and the dependent variable declared. These variables, differential association, type of crime, education, length of sentence, marital status, and voluntary formal organization participation, explained 64.7 percent of the variance of the inmate infraction coefficients. These variables and also the 13 variables which were found to have no significant relationships with inmate infraction coefficients will be discussed in the following section of this chapter.

Specific Findings

This section will present findings concerning each significant independent variable's association with formal normative inmate behavior (inmate infraction coefficients), the dependent variable.

Differential Association

From the review of literature based on Sutherland's theory, it was proposed that differential association would significantly influence formal normative inmate behavior.

This hypothesis was validated by the statistical analysis. Differential association was located first in the array and explained 47.6 percent of the variance in inmate infractions. As inmate differential association increases (which is measured negatively), inmate infraction coefficients increase.

This variable was included in the past personal structural characteristic area and it can be concluded that those differentially structured systems (gangs, criminal cliques, etc.) in which the individual interacted during the early socialization process had a definite impact upon his internalized patterns. Thus, those individuals who learned to break rules and regulations on the outside of the correctional institutions continued this pattern within the correctional institution, therefore, supporting the structural deterministic theoretical orientation. This finding also supports Sutherland's first six postulates that behavior, whether good or bad, is learned.

Short's measuring instrument of differential association, based upon Sutherland's sixth and seventh postulates concerning "bad company," has now been tested within a correctional institution. It may be noted that none of the studies previously researched applied this variable, concerning inmate behavior, in a statistical analysis.

Type of Crime

Based on the review of literature, it was deduced that the type of crime concerning conviction and sentencing, would be related to formal normative inmate behavior. Four studies concerning these variables had found a significant relationship.

In the present study, type of crime was found to be highly significant and was located second in the statistical array of variables. This supported the proposition developed by the review of literature concerning the four previous studies. Inmates incarcerated for crimes against property have significantly higher infraction coefficients than inmates incarcerated for crimes against person. This could possibly be explained by the following reasoning. Most crimes of violence (sex offenses, murders, assaults, etc.), occur in passionate outbursts. Most of these offenses are therefore not criminally learned. Thus, those individuals incarcerated for crimes against person would not likely violate institutional rules.

Structural deterministic orientation seems to be supported by this relationship. For those inmates incarcerated for crimes against person, the structural elements which surrounded them at the moment of the crime may have triggered the impassionate outbursts. It may be noted that less than two percent of these violations researched were found guilty of planning out the crime.

Those found guilty and incarcerated for crimes against property were found guilty of planning out and committing the crime. Therefore, the structural elements imposed upon these individuals are almost

virtually associated with other circumstances, rather than impassionate outbursts.

Education

Within the review of literature, the constructed rationale of theorists and the empirical research concerning the effects of education upon behavior views the school as a means of social control. Empirical research taken place outside of the prison found a relationship between education and deviant behavior. However, when applied to the prison setting the relationship was inconclusive.

In the present study, education was found to be highly significant in relationship to formal normative inmate behavior. This variable was located third in the final array of related variables. One can conclude that as inmate education increases, inmate infraction coefficients decrease.

Education was included in the present personal structural category of variables. The structural deterministic theoretical orientation seemed to be supported. The school is a social system producing social control. Those advancing in education will internalize patterns concerning personal control. Those who do not, will lack such control. Also, those who drop out lack motivation, status, feelings of not belonging, etc., which will affect their behavior. Thus, the school as an organization (system) has a structural affect upon the individuals.

Length of Sentence

Within the review of literature, two factors were discussed relating this variable to formal normative inmate behavior: criminality level and good time. Inmates with shorter sentence would tend to have higher amounts of criminality than inmates with longer sentences, with the exception of habitual criminals. Also, the longer sentenced inmates would benefit more in regards to obtaining good time. Therefore, it was deduced that length of sentence would be significantly associated with inmate behavior.

Only four studies had empirically examined this relationship. Only one reported significant findings. However, two of the studies seemed to have slight methodological problems and the third examined only rioters and non-rioters.

The research of this present study found length of sentence to be highly significant in association with inmate behavior; the longer the sentence, the lower the inmate infraction coefficients.

This variable was the second significant variable located in the area of structural characteristics of the crime and sentence and tends to be supported by the structural deterministic theoretical orientation. Such systems as the courts and the correctional institution, concerning the inmate's knowledge of the length of time he has to serve, has been incorporated into his personality system (status positions, roles, norms, etc.) and consequently affected his behavior.

Marital Status

The review of literature indicated that marital status had a significant effect upon formal normative inmate behavior. Eight studies were found concerning deviant behavior and normative behavior, seven of which involved inmates or paroled individuals. Seven studies found strong relationships, one found a slight relationship.

In the present study, marital status was found to be highly significant in association with inmate behavior. This variable was located fifth in the statistical array of variables supporting the deductions developed by the review of literature. Married inmates have significantly lower infraction coefficients than single inmates.

This variable, which was located in the present personal structural characteristic area, supports and is in line with the structural deterministic theoretical orientation. Marriage and the family setting are systems, which tend to structure one's personal life, fulfilling many human needs: sexual expression, affection, emotional security, etc. Therefore, married inmates tend to be more personally organized and more able to obey rules and regulations and fulfill roles more than single inmates.

Voluntary Formal Organization Participation

Within the review of literature, several studies were analyzed concerning various aspects of this variable. Not one study was found examining all the factors concerning this variable; that is, all types of formal group participation and their effect upon inmate behavior.

Therefore, studies concerning each type of formal group (academic, vocational, correspondence, recreational, religious, therapeutic, etc.) were analyzed. It was deduced from these studies that voluntary formal organization participation would be significantly related to inmate behavior.

The research of the present study found voluntary formal organization participation significantly associated with inmate behavior. The more hours the inmate participated in formal organizations, the lower the inmate infraction coefficient. This variable was the sixth variable located in the statistical array and the final variable of the 19 independent variables to reach the .10 significance level. This variable was the only variable of four to be found significant from the present social structural characteristic area.

The concept of resocialization, which is the main goal of formal group participation in prisons, centers on changing group membership and changing roles and norms. Therefore, each formal group is a system and the more the inmate participates within the system, the more the personality, with its accompanying roles, norms, etc., will be affected. Thus, anti-social behavior may be affected. This seems to support and is line with structural deterministic theoretical orientation.

Conclusions

Several conclusions can be drawn from the research presented in this dissertation. First, and probably the most important of the conclusions is the more differentially associated the inmate, the more the

inmate will violate formal rules and regulations of the correctional institution. In other words, the more deviant the inmate was on the outside of the institution, the more deviant he will be within the institution.

Secondly, the less educated the inmate, the more he will violate the aforementioned rules and regulations. The more educated the inmate, the less likely he will be to violate the prison rules and regulations.

Third, unmarried inmates violate these rules and regulations more often than married inmates and fourth, inmates who are property offenders violate the rules and regulations more often than inmates sentenced for violations against persons.

Fifth, the shorter the inmate's present sentence, the more propensity there will be for him to violate these prison rules. The longer the inmate's present sentence, the less likely he will be to violate these rules.

Finally, the inmates who spend more time participating in voluntary formal organizations will be less likely to violate these institutional norms than inmates who spend little time participating in these organizations.

Contrary to the expectations of this writer, infraction rates for black inmates did not differ from those for the white inmates. Also, non-lower class inmates were just as likely to violate these rules as lower class inmates.

Limitations of the Study

A question of the validity and reliability of the measuring instruments for several variables may be raised regarding this study. The instruments measuring the past personal structural characteristics could present problems such as loss of memory, repression, suppression, or deceit. However, in checking the inmate responses to information located in the files, very few "outright lies" were detected.

The scale measuring family cohesion presented a problem. A few inmates had several fathers. A few had no father in the home. However, when this did occur, the inmate was to respond to the general feelings of the question regarding the entire family. Only three of the 107 inmates interviewed were reared in more than one foster home or institution. These factors could, however, affect the reliability of the instrument. Also, the words love, affection, discipline, neglect, and supervision seem to have different meanings to the criminal personality.

The subjective measurement section of the Ellis Social Class Scale confused several inmates and they could not respond accurately in regards to where they felt their parents "belonged" in the stratification system. Also, the measurement of physical mobility did not differentiate movements within and between communities.

Religiosity seemed to be the more unreliable and non-valid of the measuring instruments. Due to the fact that the prison population has many different religious cults, different problems arose regarding definitions and beliefs such as questions concerning good and evil, the here-after, divine plans, and the church.

The chosen level of the study could be viewed as a weakness. The .10 level of significance was used. However, of the six variables found to be significant, all were within the .05 level except one, which was significant at the .06 level.

Implications for Further Study

If follow-up studies are to be conducted, the measuring instruments discussed in the limitations section of this study should be reviewed.

The voluntary formal organization participation variable could be divided into participation in each of the sub-groups to find the effect of each group's participation on inmate behavior. The sub-groups are academic, vocational, religious, recreational, and therapeutic.

Tests for reliability should be calculated for family cohesion and religiosity and the measurement of physical mobility could also be altered to seek the amount of movement within and outside of the community. Also, an objective scale should be used to measure social class.

The significance level could be lowered to the .05 level. Also, a path analysis could be statistically applied to the variables located in the four major areas: past personal structural characteristics, present personal structural characteristics, crime and sentence structural characteristics, and present social structural characteristics. Finally, a search for other factors that may have an effect upon formal normative inmate behavior should be reviewed.

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APPENDIX

STAFF MEMBER VIOLATION QUESTIONNAIRE

Directions:

Rank each of the following prison rule violations from one to five based on the severity of the violation.

- _____ (1) Disobeying any lawful order of the Warden, Assistant Warden, or any official of the institution or any prison rule or regulation.
- _____ (2) Disrespect by word or gesture to any officer or employee of the institution, or to any person visiting the institution.
- _____ (3) Swearing, cursing, or the use of any other vulgar, abusive, insolent, threatening language toward any other inmate or officer.
- _____ (4) Assault; assault and battery.
- _____ (5A) Assault by threatening to do bodily harm, with or without weapons.
- _____ (5B) General fighting.
- _____ (6A) Sexual acts with consent; including but not limited to sodomy, perverted practice, rape.
- _____ (6B) Sexual acts without consent; including but not limited to sodomy, perverted practice, rape.
- _____ (7) Willful destruction, alteration, tampering, defacing, or misuse of institutional property or equipment, materials, tools or machinery.
- _____ (8) Inciting, creating, participating, committing, or being involved in any manner, in a mutinous act, riot, or a disturbance, whether major or minor.
- _____ (9) The use or consumption of intoxicants (alcoholic or drug) not prescribed by institutional physicians or psychiatrists.
 - a. "Intoxicant" shall include fermented juices, jimson weed, and any other substance having the effect of an intoxicant.
- _____ (10) Possession of the intoxicants referred to in No. 9 above.
- _____ (11) Being intoxicated or under the influence of the intoxicants referred to in no. 9 above.

- _____ (12) The use or possession, without permission, of any drug or narcotic or substance defined as a controlled dangerous substance in Article 27 of the Annotated Code of Maryland, and the possession of any paraphernalia used to administer the same as defined by the stated law. This shall include, but is not limited to, marijuana, barbiturates, heroin, and amphetamines.
- _____ (13) The use or possession of drug or medication without prescription and authorization of institutional medical personnel.
- _____ (14) Obtaining or attempting to obtain unauthorized medication.
- _____ (15) Hoarding or accumulating (saving up) authorized medication.
- _____ (16) Refusing to give a urine specimen, or breathalyzer (alcolyzer) test when requested to do so by a correctional officer or any other duly authorized employee of the Division.
- _____ (17) Stealing, receiving or giving away unauthorized food or medication.
- _____ (18) Possession of unauthorized food.
- _____ (19) Making or possessing weapons and contraband.
- _____ (20) Refusal to work or carry out institutional assignment.
- _____ (21A) Carelessness or negligence in carrying out assignment or work.
- _____ (21B) Carelessness or negligence in carrying out assignment or work which causes injury to inmate or institutional employee.
- _____ (22) Unexcused lateness or absence from work or assignment.
- _____ (23) Escape, or attempted escape.
- _____ (24) Aiding, or inducing another inmate to escape.
- _____ (25) Leaving cell or place of assignment without permission.
- _____ (26) Out of bounds, or being in an area without authorization.
- _____ (27) Possession of U.S. currency (coin or paper) without authorization.

- _____ (28) Gambling of any kind.
- _____ (29) Possession of gambling articles or papers.
- _____ (30) The possession of, and the passing or receiving of contraband from another inmate, visitor and/or employee regardless of the place or occurrence whether it be in the housing area, work area or visiting room. (Contraband is any article which you, as an inmate, are not authorized to have in your possession by the institution in which you are housed.)
- _____ (31) Stealing of property, from another inmate, the institution, an institutional employee, or a visitor.
- _____ (32) Unauthorized possession of stolen property.
- _____ (33) Forgery or alteration of an institutional pass, money voucher, or any other paper or letter of another inmate.
- _____ (34) Possession of forged or altered pass money voucher, or letter or other paper of another inmate or institution.
- _____ (35) Giving false information to a correctional officer or to the Adjustment Team.
- _____ (36) Fraudulent request of any type, i.e., check requests, commissary order, etc. to circumvent (get around) established rules, regulations, and procedures for same.
- _____ (37) Making unauthorized telephone calls from your place of work to persons outside the institution and/or within the institution.
- _____ (38) Refusal to have and/or to keep your person or cell clean and neat.
- _____ (39) Resisting or interfering with an officer, or any other employee, in the performance of his or her duties.
- _____ (40) Any act of an inmate which tends to aid or abet others in the commission of any institutional offense.
- _____ (41) Being an accessory before or after the fact to any violation of any institution rule or general rule.
- _____ (42) Conspiracy (agreeing with another person) to violate institutional rules or offenses.
- _____ (43) Warning tickets (on the spot or matter of record).

RESULTS OF STAFF MEMBER VIOLATION QUESTIONNAIRE

<u>No.</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>No.</u>	<u>Mean</u>
1	3.167	21B	3.500
2	3.333	22	2.333
3	3.500	23	5.000
4	5.000	24	4.666
5A	4.500	25	2.833
5B	3.500	26	2.333
6A	3.167	27	3.333
6B	5.000	28	2.500
7	3.500	29	2.333
8	4.666	30	4.666
9	3.500	31	4.167
10	3.500	32	3.500
11	3.500	33	3.167
12	4.666	34	3.167
13	4.666	35	3.000
14	3.666	36	3.167
15	3.333	37	3.333
16	3.500	38	2.333
17	3.500	39	3.500
18	2.333	40	2.500
19	4.666	41	2.500
20	3.333	42	2.667
21A	2.000	43	1.000

INMATE RECORD SHEET

- (1.) Inmate's name _____
- (2.) Inmate's number _____
- (3.) Date of Birth _____; Age _____
- (4.) Marital Status: Married _____ Single _____
 Divorced _____ Widowed _____
- (5.) Race: Black _____ White _____ Other _____
- (6.) Education (List last semester of grade completed) _____
- (7.) Type of crime or crimes for present sentence: _____

Property _____ Person _____

- (8.) Length of present sentence: Years _____ Months _____

(If sentence is life subtract the age when incarcerated for
 the present sentence from 70.)

- (9.) Completed Portion of Sentence, List the number of:

Years _____ Months _____ completed on present sentence.

Formula: $\frac{\text{yrs. served}}{\text{Present sent.}} = \text{Ratio } \underline{\hspace{2cm}}$

- (10.) What was the age of inmate at first arrest? _____

- (11.) How many times has inmate been arrested? _____

- (12.) Visitation list and hours visited during last 24 months or
 during incarceration period if less than 24 months.

Total hours spent visiting _____

$\frac{\text{Hours visited}}{\text{months}} =$

- (13.) List the formal groups within the prison and the number of hours a week the inmate participates in each one.

<u>Names</u>	<u>Hours</u>
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____

Total numbers inmate participates _____

- (14.) Prison Infractions. Directions: Take each infraction ticket given over the last 24 months. If inmate has not been incarcerated for 24 months omit first month. Score infraction using violation mean questionnaire.

Formula: $\frac{\sum \text{infraction} \times \text{means}}{\text{months}}$

Infraction Coefficient _____

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

Date _____

Interviewer's Name _____

Time Interview Began _____; Time Ended _____

(I.) Inmate's name _____

(II.) Inmate's number _____

(III.) Family Cohesion

Directions:

Ask each inmate to respond to the following multiple choice questions. Use the first twenty-three cards to show respondent each question. Also read each question at the same time you are showing the respondent the card. Write the appropriate response chosen in the second blank.

- ___ 1. a) My parents did not quarrel.
b) My parents seldom quarreled.
c) My parents quarreled sometimes.
d) My parents quarreled often.
e) My parents quarreled all of the time.
- ___ 2. a) I feel that my parents showed love for each other all of the time.
b) My parents showed love for each other often.
c) My parents showed love for each other sometimes.
d) My parents seldom showed love for each other.
e) I feel that my parents did not love each other.
- ___ 3. a) My parents were always interested in my outside activities.
b) My parents were interested in my outside activities most of the time.
c) My parents were sometimes interested in my outside activities.
d) My parents were seldom interested in my outside activities.
e) My parents were not interested in my outside activities.

4. a) My parents were always willing to spend extra time with me.
b) My parents spent extra time with me often.
c) My parents spent extra time with me sometimes.
d) My parents spent very little extra time with me.
e) My parents never spent any extra time with me.
5. a) My parents always showed love and respect for me.
b) My parents showed love and respect for me most of the time.
c) My parents showed love and respect for me only sometimes.
d) My parents seldom showed any love or respect for me.
e) My parents never showed love or respect for me.
6. a) My parents and I could talk openly and freely about any subject any time.
b) My parents and I talked openly and freely most of the time.
c) My parents and I talked openly and freely sometimes.
d) My parents and I seldom talked openly and freely.
e) My parents never talked openly and freely with me.
7. a) My parents never neglected me.
b) My parents seldom neglected me.
c) My parents neglected me sometimes.
d) My parents neglected me most of the time.
e) My parents always neglected me.
8. a) I spent most of my time at home in the presence of my parents.
b) I spent much of my time at home with my parents.
c) I sometimes spent time with my parents at home.
d) I seldom spent any of my time at home in the presence of my parents.
e) I never spent any of my time at home in the presence of my parents.
9. a) My parents were always willing to give up things for me.
b) My parents were willing to give up things for me often.
c) My parents gave up things for me sometimes.
d) My parents seldom gave up things for me.
e) My parents never gave up things for me.
10. a) I feel that my parents always loved me.
b) My parents loved me only when it was convenient.
c) My parents loved me only sometimes.
d) My parents seldom loved me.
e) I feel that my parents did not love me at all.

- ___ 11. a) I lived in a very democratic home.
b) My parents were usually democratic in their actions.
c) My parents were sometimes democratic in their actions.
d) My parents were seldom democratic in their actions.
e) My parents were never democratic in their actions.
- ___ 12. a) My parents and I always talked things over rather than argue about them.
b) My parents and I talked things over most of the time.
c) My parents and I talked things over sometimes.
d) My parents and I seldom talked things over.
e) My parents and I argued all of the time, and we never talked things over.
- ___ 13. a) I had a very happy home living situation.
b) My home life was happy most of the time.
c) My home life was happy only sometimes.
d) My home life was seldom happy.
e) I lived in a very miserable, unhappy home situation.
- ___ 14. a) My family was very close.
b) My family was close most of the time.
c) My family was close only when it was convenient.
d) My family was seldom close.
e) I did not live in a close family relationship.
- ___ 15. a) I feel that my parents disciplined me fairly.
b) My parents were usually fair in their disciplining.
c) I feel that my parents were fair in discipline only sometimes.
d) My parents were seldom fair in their disciplining.
e) My parents were never fair in their disciplining actions.
- ___ 16. a) My parents always listened to me when I had a problem.
b) My parents listened to me most of the time when I had a problem.
c) My parents listened to me sometimes when I had a problem.
d) My parents seldom listened to me when I had a problem.
e) My parents never listened to me when I had a problem.
- ___ 17. a) I feel my parents always helped me no matter what the situation was.
b) My parents helped me in most situations.
c) My parents helped me only in situations convenient to them.
d) Neither of my parents spent much time with me.
e) My parents never spent any time with me.

- ___ 18. a) As a family, my parents and I did things together.
b) My family and I did things together most of the time.
c) We did things together only sometimes.
d) My family and I seldom did anything together.
e) As a family, my parents and I never did anything together.
- ___ 19. a) I feel that my parents always cared about what I was doing.
b) My parents usually cared about what I was doing.
c) My parents cared about what I did only when it might reflect upon them.
d) My parents seldom cared about anything I did.
e) My parents did not care about what I did.
- ___ 20. a) Even if I had the chance, I would never have wanted to run away from home.
b) I would seldom consider running away from home.
c) I would sometimes liked to have run away from home.
d) I considered running away from home most of the time.
e) If I could have I would have run away from home and never come back.
- ___ 21. a) I loved my parents.
b) I loved my parents most of the time.
c) I loved my parents only when they did things for us.
d) I did not love my parents very much.
e) I did not love my parents at all.
- ___ 22. a) My parents respected my opinion and I respected their's even if we disagreed.
b) We respected each others opinions most of the time.
c) We respected each others opinions sometimes.
d) My parents seldom respected my opinion, and I seldom respected their's.
e) My parents never respected my opinion, and I never respected their's.
- ___ 23. a) I never knowingly or willingly did anything to hurt my parents.
b) I seldom did anything to hurt my parents.
c) I sometimes willingly and knowingly hurt my parents.
d) I often did things to hurt my parents.
e) I enjoyed hurting my parents, and did hurt them every chance I got.

(IV.) Socialization Area

Directions:

Ask each inmate the following questions, and check the appropriate response.

(A.) Where were you reared?

_____ 1. In a city

_____ 2. Near a city

_____ 3. In the country

(B.) If you were reared in or near a city, what was its approximate population. _____

(C.) If you were reared near a city that has a population of 25,000 or more, how many miles from that city did you live? _____

(D.) Do you feel you are country oriented or city oriented?
country _____; city _____

(V.) Differential Associations

Directions:

Ask the inmate to reflect into his past experiences as a teenager and young adult. Show card 24 for the responses to questions 1 through 4, 6 and 7; card 25 for question 5; and card 26 for questions 8 and 9. Check the appropriate response for each question. Do not mark in blank at left of the questions. Emphasize underlined words.

Tab.	Specific	General	Total
	_____	_____	_____

- _____ 1. Think of the friends you had been associated with most often as a teenager and young adult. Were any of them juvenile delinquents?

most were _____
2

several were _____
2

very few were _____
3

none were _____
4

- _____ 2. Think of the friends you have known for the longest time as a youngster. Were any of them juvenile delinquents?

most were _____
1

several were _____
2

very few were _____
3

none were _____
4

- _____ 3. Think back to the first friends you can remember. Were any of them juvenile delinquents at the time you first knew them?

most were _____
1

several were _____
2

very few were _____
3

none were _____
4

- _____ 4. Had any of your best friends as a teenager been juvenile delinquents while they were your best friends?

most were _____
1

several were _____
2

very few were _____
3

none were _____
4

- _____ 5. Was there much crime or delinquency committed by young people (in their teens or below) in the communities in

which you grew up?

a lot 1

a frequent amount 2

occasional amount 3

very little 4

- _____ 6. Have any of your past friends outside the institution been juvenile delinquents or criminals?

most were 1

several were 2

very few were 3

none were 4

- _____ 7. Have any of your present friends outside of the institution been juvenile delinquents or criminals?

most were 1

several were 2

very few were 3

none were 4

- _____ 8. Do you know any adult criminals outside the institution?

a lot 1

quite a few 2

not very many 3

only a few 4

don't know any 5

- _____ 9. How well have you known these criminals?

very well 1

fairly well 2

not very well 3

only knew their name 4

didn't even know their names 5

(VI.) Social Class of Parents

Directions:

Read the inmate the following questions.

(A.) An American social scientist has made a study of the United States which indicated that in this country there are four major social classes; the middle, the lower, the working and the upper classes. In which social class would you say your parents belonged? (circle the one chosen)

1. middle 2. lower 3. working 4. upper

(B.) If your answer was the middle, then: Would you say your parents belonged to the upper-middle, middle-middle, or lower middle social class? (circle the one chosen)

1. upper-middle 2. middle-middle 3. lower-middle

(C.) What was the occupation of the person who supported your household? (write the occupation in the following blank) _____

***Scoring: one to six on the occupation. _____

upper -6, upper middle -5, middle middle -4,

lower middle -3, working -2, lower -1. OBJ.

(calculate the subjective scores of inmate)

Final scoring: UC 12; UM 10,11; MM 9,8; LM 7,6;

UL 5,4; LL 3,2.

lower _____, non-lower _____

(VII.) Migration

Directions:

Ask the inmate to "reflect back as far as you can remember."

How many times did your parents move? _____

How many times did you move after leaving home? _____

How many times have you moved since being incarcerated (this means between prisons or jails)? _____

If you have been married how many times have you moved before incarceration took place? _____

Tab. total times moved _____

(VIII.) What is your age? _____ Date of Birth _____

(IX.) What is your present marital status? (check one)

Married _____ Single _____

Divorced _____ Widowed _____

(X.) What was the last grade you completed? Ask the inmate in what semester did he drop out of school?

Years of school completed _____

Dropped: First semester _____ Second _____

Have you any education such as training school or technical schools? (list the name of the school)

How many years did you attend (Semesters) _____

Tab. (total years) _____

(XI.) Religiosity

Directions:

Ask the inmates to respond to the following questions. Show

them the six responses on card number 30. Circle the appropriate response.

1. I believe in attending church services regularly.

STA	MA	SLA	SLDIS	MDIS	STDIS
6	5	4	3	2	1

2. Religious convictions help one produce a home that is harmonious and stable.

STA	MA	SLA	SLDIS	MDIS	STDIS
6	5	4	3	2	1

3. I believe in God.

STA	MA	SLA	SLDIS	MDIS	STDIS
6	5	4	3	2	1

4. I would prefer a mate who has religious beliefs.

STA	MA	SLA	SLDIS	MDIS	STDIS
6	5	4	3	2	1

5. Parents who do not provide religious training for their children are not fulfilling their responsibilities.

STA	MA	SLA	SLDIS	MDIS	STDIS
6	5	4	3	2	1

6. I believe in the existence of a Supreme Being that controls the fate of mankind.

STA	MA	SLA	SLDIS	MDIS	STDIS
6	5	4	3	2	1

7. The breakdown of organized religion is a major problem in our society today.

STA	MA	SLA	SLDIS	MDIS	STDIS
6	5	4	3	2	1

8. My religious faith has helped me understand the difference between right and wrong.

STA	MA	SLA	SLDIS	MDIS	STDIS
6	5	4	3	2	1

9. I believe that there is a physical Hell where men are punished after death.

STA	MA	SLA	SLDIS	MDIS	STDIS
6	5	4	3	2	1

10. I believe that there is a supernatural being, the Devil, who continually tries to lead men toward sin.

STA	MA	SLA	SLDIS	MDIS	STDIS
6	5	4	3	2	1

11. To me the most important task of the church is the saving of souls.

STA	MA	SLA	SLDIS	MDIS	STDIS
6	5	4	3	2	1

12. I believe that there is a life after death.

STA	MA	SLA	SLDIS	MDIS	STDIS
6	5	4	3	2	1

13. I believe that there is a Divine plan and purpose for every living person and thing.

STA	MA	SLA	SLDIS	MDIS	STDIS
6	5	4	3	2	1

14. The only benefit one receives from prayer is psychological.

STA	MA	SLA	SLDIS	MDIS	STDIS
1	2	3	4	5	6

15. I have a duty to help those who are confused about religion.

STA	MA	SLA	SLDIS	MDIS	STDIS
6	5	4	3	2	1

16. Even though it may create some unpleasant situations, it is important to help people become enlightened about religion.

STA	MA	SLA	SLDIS	MDIS	STDIS
6	5	4	3	2	1

17. It doesn't really matter what an individual believes about religion as long as he is happy with it.

STA	MA	SLA	SLDIS	MDIS	STDIS
6	5	4	3	2	1

18. My ideas about religion are the most important parts of my philosophy of life.

STA	MA	SLA	SLDIS	MDIS	STDIS
6	5	4	3	2	1

19. I find that my ideas on religion have a considerable influence on my views in other areas.

STA	MA	SLA	SLDIS	MDIS	STDIS
6	5	4	3	2	1

20. Believing as I do about religion is very important to being the kind of person I want to be.

STA	MA	SLA	SLDIS	MDIS	STDIS
6	5	4	3	2	1

21. I very often think about matters relating to religion.

STA	MA	SLA	SLDIS	MDIS	STDIS
6	5	4	3	2	1

(XV.) Job Satisfaction

Directions:

Show card No. 30 (Strongly Agree to Strongly Disagree) to inmates. Then ask these fifteen questions and circle the inmate's response to each question. Do not write in blank

next to the question.

Tab. _____

- _____ 1. The boss (employee of institution) on your job gives you credit and praise for work well done.

STA	MA	SLA	SLDIS	MDIS	STDIS
6	5	4	3	2	1

- _____ 2. Your boss is too interested in his own success to care about the needs of inmate workers.

STA	MA	SLA	SLDIS	MDIS	STDIS
1	2	3	4	5	6

- _____ 3. If you have a complaint about your job to make, you feel free to talk to someone up the line.

STA	MA	SLA	SLDIS	MDIS	STDIS
6	5	4	3	2	1

- _____ 4. Your boss sees that employees are properly trained for their jobs.

STA	MA	SLA	SLDIS	MDIS	STDIS
6	5	4	3	2	1

- _____ 5. Your boss sees that you have the things you need to do your job.

STA	MA	SLA	SLDIS	MDIS	STDIS
6	5	4	3	2	1

- _____ 6. Your boss encourages you to make suggestions for job improvement.

STA	MA	SLA	SLDIS	MDIS	STDIS
6	5	4	3	2	1

- _____ 7. Compared to other jobs here, your job gets very little attention from administrators.

STA	MA	SLA	SLDIS	MDIS	STDIS
1	2	3	4	5	6

- _____ 8. Sometimes you feel that your job counts very little in the institution.

STA	MA	SLA	SLDIS	MDIS	STDIS
1	2	3	4	5	6

- _____ 9. You have little opportunity to use your abilities in this institution.

STA	MA	SLA	SLDIS	MDIS	STDIS
1	2	3	4	5	6

- _____ 10. The institution expects too much work from you.

STA	MA	SLA	SLDIS	MDIS	STDIS
1	2	3	4	5	6

- _____ 11. Poor working conditions keep you from doing your best in your work.

STA	MA	SLA	SLDIS	MDIS	STDIS
1	2	3	4	5	6

- _____ 12. Your boss has always been fair in his dealings with you.

STA	MA	SLA	SLDIS	MDIS	STDIS
6	5	4	3	2	1

- _____ 13. Your boss lets you know exactly what is expected of you.

STA	MA	SLA	SLDIS	MDIS	STDIS
6	5	4	3	2	1

- _____ 14. You can learn a great deal on your present job.

STA	MA	SLA	SLDIS	MDIS	STDIS
6	5	4	3	2	1

_____ 15. Your job is often dull and monotonous.

STA	MA	SLA	SLDIS	MDIS	STDIS
1	2	3	4	5	6

(XVI.) Attitudes Towards Prison Officials

Directions:

Show card No. 30 (Strongly Agree to Strongly Disagree) to inmates. Then ask these thirteen questions and circle the inmate's response to each question. Do not write in blank next to the question.

Tab. _____

_____ 1. The counselors you have had contact with do a good job of helping people.

STA	MA	SLA	SLDIS	MDIS	STDIS
6	5	4	3	2	1

_____ 2. The parole officers you have had contact with do a good job of helping people.

STA	MA	SLA	SLDIS	MDIS	STDIS
6	5	4	3	2	1

_____ 3. Generally speaking, social workers you know do a good job of helping people in trouble.

STA	MA	SLA	SLDIS	MDIS	STDIS
6	5	4	3	2	1

_____ 4. The people who run this correctional institution are trying to do a good job and usually know what they are doing.

STA	MA	SLA	SLDIS	MDIS	STDIS
6	5	4	3	2	1

5. While you are here, you are given a chance to get your life straightened out.

STA	MA	SLA	SLDIS	MDIS	STDIS
6	5	4	3	2	1

6. The parole board usually does a fair job.

STA	MA	SLA	SLDIS	MDIS	STDIS
6	5	4	3	2	1

7. You feel the penal system in this state is on the right track.

STA	MA	SLA	SLDIS	MDIS	STDIS
6	5	4	3	2	1

8. The prison psychologists and psychiatrists really try to help people with their problems.

STA	MA	SLA	SLDIS	MDIS	STDIS
6	5	4	3	2	1

9. You associate with the correctional officers as little as possible.

STA	MA	SLA	SLDIS	MDIS	STDIS
1	2	3	4	5	6

10. I really like and trust some of the correctional officers.

STA	MA	SLA	SLDIS	MDIS	STDIS
6	5	4	3	2	1

11. The prison authorities here usually try to correct real grievances that come to their attention.

STA	MA	SLA	SLDIS	MDIS	STDIS
6	5	4	3	2	1

12. The officers and other prison personnel are usually ready to listen to the problems the inmates have.

STA	MA	SLA	SLDIS	MDIS	STDIS
6	5	4	3	2	1

- _____ 13. There is really no way the inmates here can get a fair hearing from the people who run this place.

STA	MA	SLA	SLDIS	MDIS	STDIS
1	2	3	4	5	6

(XVII.) Participation in Voluntary Formal Organizations

Directions:

Show the inmate the list of organizations (Card No. 31) at the institution. Check the following organizations in which he is a member. Ask the inmate to estimate the number of hours per week that he participates in the program.

Tab. _____

_____ Education _____ hrs.

_____ Group Therapy _____ hrs.

_____ Hobby Group _____ hrs.

_____ Organized

Recreation _____ hrs.

_____ Religious _____ hrs.

List other groups:

_____ hrs.

_____ hrs.

_____ hrs.