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An exploratory study in the use of laboratory education with college-enrolled inmates.

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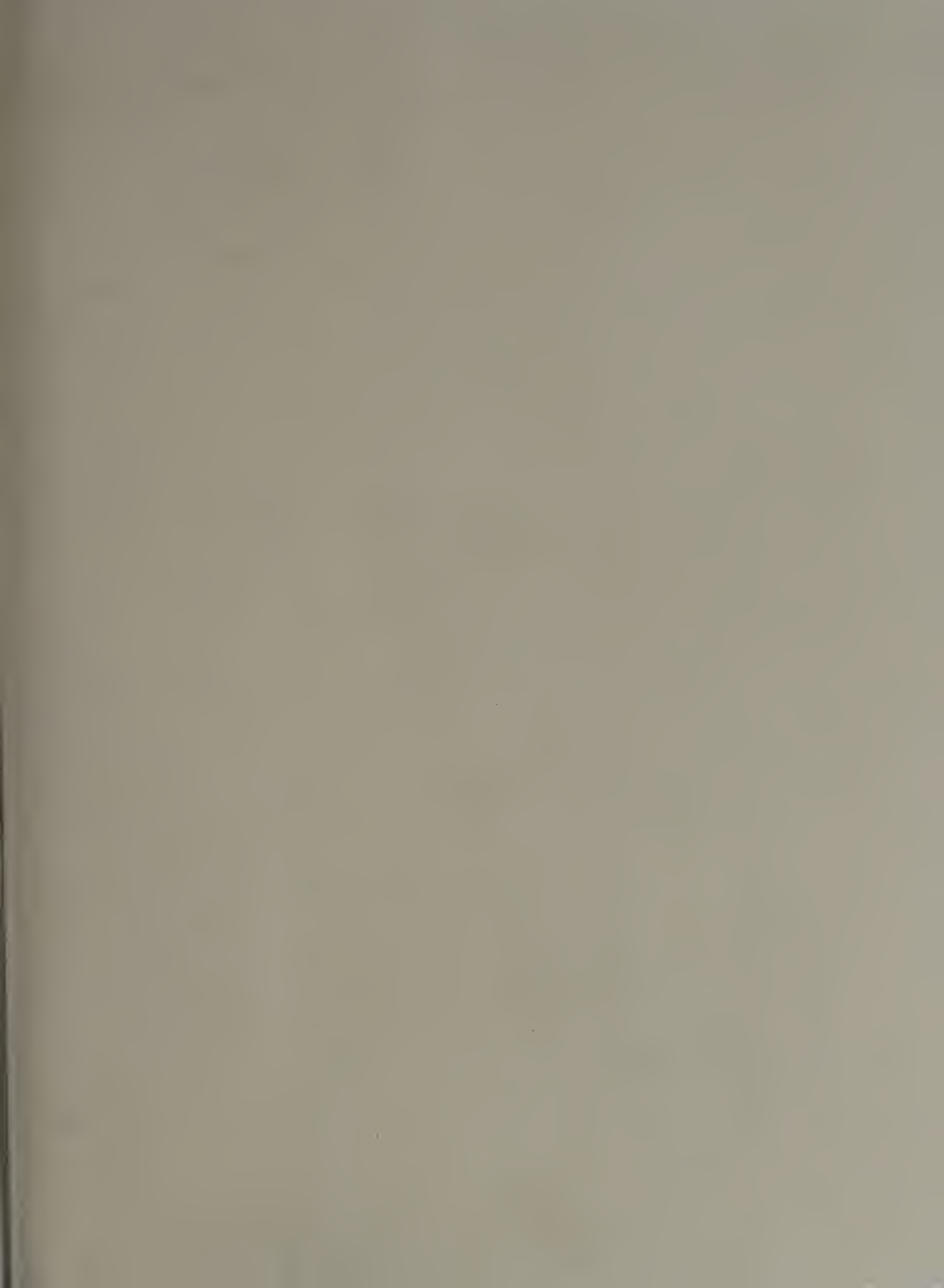
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AN EXPLORATORY STUDY IN THE
USE OF
LABORATORY EDUCATION
WITH
COLLEGE-ENROLLED INMATES

A Dissertation Presented

By

EDWARD W. TRAVIS

Submitted to the Graduate School of the
University of Massachusetts in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

September 1981

Education

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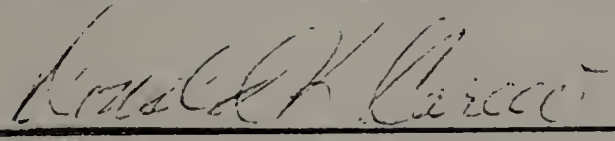
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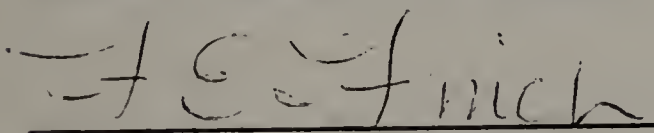
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EDWARD W. TRAVIS

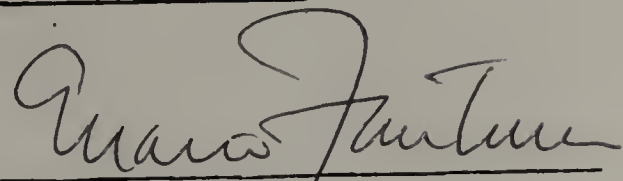
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"The possibility to create the
context in which people's lives really
matter is undoubtedly the most profound
opportunity available to
anyone
ever"

Werner Erhard

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I am deeply grateful for the opportunity that I have been given during the past several years. There are a number of people that I wish to acknowledge for their important roles in contributing so generously to my learning and to the many rich and very meaningful experiences that I have had. To each of you I am deeply grateful.

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Walter, Cyril, Ralph and the many wonderful men
I came to know so well at the Fishkill Correction
Facility, for sharing themselves.

ABSTRACT

An Exploratory Study in the Use of Laboratory Education with College-Enrolled Inmates

May 1981

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The purpose of the study was to determine the short-term effects of a Laboratory Education experience on newly-enrolled college students who are incarcerated. A 24-hour Motivational Workshop (the designated intervention) of the researcher's design, was administered to the subjects just prior to their initial attendance in a full-time program of study at the Fishkill (New York) Correctional Facility.

Initially, 48 subjects who were newly-enrolled participants in the study, were divided into Experimental and Control Groups. The Experimental Group received the intervention which was conducted by the investigator, who is a trained laboratory educator, and a co-trainer.

Pre- and post-test administrations of the Personal Orientation Inventory (Shostrom) and the Internal-External Control Scale (Rotter) were utilized to accumulate the data. Results of a post-semester Faculty Rating Scale and final grades for all subjects were also compiled.

The author identified three general hypotheses for the study which were: (1) Experimental Group subjects would exceed Control Group subjects on post-test scores of the Time Ratio and Support Ratio Scales and certain sub-scales of the Personal Orientation Inventory, (2) Experimental Group members would demonstrate increased internality as measured by the Internal-External Control Scale, and (3) Experimental Group subjects would out-perform Control Group subjects on a Faculty Rating Scale and in their final grades.

All data was subjected to a Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) and multiple t-tests utilizing Hotelling's T^2 formula, to test the stated hypotheses. Pearson Product-moment correlations were also computed on certain data to determine the strength of the

relationships between dependent variables. None of the results of the statistical analysis were significant ($P > .05$). There were, however, some indicators that Experimental Group members were positively affected by their participation, as evidenced by individual subjective evaluations obtained at the end of the semester.

The author acknowledges the difficulty in accurately measuring the effects of a short-term intervention when standardized instruments are employed and holds that better devices need to be developed. The author also urges that studies of this nature be continued and that experimentation by Laboratory Educators with inmate populations be radically increased, so that the potential for Laboratory Education as a preferred methodology for the re-socialization of inmates can be fully investigated.

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Chapter I

Introduction

Early attempts at inmate rehabilitation focused largely on isolation, solitary confinement, enforced labor, physical and psychological deprivation, and severe punishment. By the latter part of the 19th century, prisoners were being heavily exploited as a productive labor force. During this time, vocational training emerged as the primary rehabilitation technique, although much of the brutality and oppressive conditions continued.

During the 1930's and 1940's, prison reforms occurred which substantially reduced the brutality and punishment that inmates had to endure. However, at this time the vocational programs so long in vogue had become badly outdated and rapidly disappeared. These circumstances left large numbers of inmates confined with little or nothing to occupy their time. This prolonged idleness, combined with continuing institutional oppression served to increase inmate discontent. So-called "vocational programs" had become limited to those occupations which were necessary to maintain

the basic needs of the inmate population. Within those occupational categories the training remained very limited (Fogel, 1975).

By the 1950's, rehabilitation programs were becoming prevalent in the prisons. Based on psychological theory, these programs presumed that psychologists and psychiatrists could accurately diagnose the causes of criminal behavior as well as define and carry out effective "treatment" programs leading to inmate rehabilitation. These programs were based on the assumption that criminal behavior is the result of some form of mental illness that exists within the individual (American Correction Association, 1972; Fogel, 1975).

The lack of success of these so-called "treatment" or rehabilitation programs has led to increased criticism by correction officials and government officials. This criticism is directed at the psychologists and other social scientists who have continued to try and demonstrate the validity of their theoretical assumptions (Hawkins, 1976; Rachin, 1974; Wolfgang, 1979). The failure of these programs has been attributed to inconsistent and inaccurate diagnoses, non-valid and

irrelevant treatment, program limitations, and a serious contradiction between the programs and the institutional environment in which they are conducted (Kassebaum, Ward, and Wilner, 1977; Wolfgang, 1979).

The spurious data generated from poorly conceived and inconsistent research on inmate rehabilitation programs has limited the capacity of those change agents responsible, to improve existing programs, or to develop new and more successful ones (Martinson, 1978; Hosford and Moss, 1975). Unfortunately, this situation provides support for those who do not believe that inmates can be rehabilitated, while also limiting the development of much-needed experimentation from which sound programs might be formulated. This is occurring at a time when the need to develop new and more effective programs is at its greatest.

Sociological theory has driven us to look for the causes of crime in the community. Poverty, discrimination and other negative social conditions are believed by some to "form the bedrock for the creation of deviant sub-cultures that in turn foster crime." "Most, if not all sociologists agree that lurking somewhere in the

social order are causative levers--in the family, in social roles, in the relation between the individual and an unjust political order and so on--which, if pressed in the right combination, will shove some into crime" (Carlson, 1976, p. 45). Carlson believes that some individuals become criminals because of the differential impact of social and economic conditions and not because of individual differences or propensities toward crime. He also points out that the immediate social environment is more likely to shape criminal behavior in an individual than the "global and abstract social factors" (p. 45).

While many theorists have expended considerable effort identifying the social causation of crime, unfortunately, little effort has been put forth by corrections systems to explore possible antidotes to criminal behavior based on these concepts. While the social scientists have increasingly viewed the criminal behavior as a result of some combination of social elements in the criminal's past, the corrections officials have continued to deny the criminal as a social being.

Today, prisons are overcrowded to the point where they are in a very "explosive" condition in many states.

Inmates themselves have obtained the support of the American Civil Liberties Union and have obtained court orders which have mandated that correction officials reduce prison populations in some states (Lieber, 1981).

These overcrowded conditions are a result of widespread legislation which has demanded stricter punishment of offenders, regardless of the seriousness of the crime. Determinate sentencing has brought with it a dramatic increase in lengthier sentences. Lieber provides us with startling statistics in a very recent article in the New York Times Magazine. In New York City, prison sentences in excess of three years have risen to 85 percent in 1980, from 26 percent in 1971, or by 59 percent. Between 1973 and 1979, the overall crime rate went up by 33 percent. "Currently Blacks are being placed in state prisons at a rate that is approximately nine times faster than whites, and Hispanics, about two times greater" (than whites) (Lieber, 1981, p. 30). Lieber cites legislative sentencing, high unemployment rates, and the problems of our ghettos as causes of this serious problem, stating that the concept of rehabilitation has fallen out of favor and has been replaced by the "just

desserts" theory which meets the communities' needs for retribution (p. 34).

The serious, unrelenting stress that is caused by overcrowding reduces the potential for peaceful co-existence among prisoners while increasing the potential for violence, harrassment, and unrest. These conditions make it highly unlikely that inmates can respond favorably to programs that attempt to assist them through training, education, and other services. It has been shown that lengthier sentences in no way reduces crime rates, which are now believed to be more directly linked with causes that are rooted in our socio-economic problems such as "poor housing, un-employment, racial discrimination and non-existent family structures" (Lieber, p. 60).

Recently, more efforts to invalidate the assumption that mental illness is the cause of criminal behavior have been forthcoming. An ever-increasing number of theorists are beginning to look at the impact of the inmate's social experience as the primary determinant in the development of criminal behavior, as well as examine the inconsistencies that exist in treatment programs

(Kassebaum, Ward and Wilner, 1977; Kennedy and Kerber, 1973). Viewing the origins of criminal behavior from these assumptions has serious implications regarding the treatment of prisoners in our correction institutions. It calls for fuller acknowledgement of the inmate as a social being capable of learning new behavior. This represents a conflicting view from that of most correction officials, who for the most part, do not believe that inmates have the capacity to help themselves or each other (Page, 1979).

A recent and growing phenomenon in penal institutions is the enrollment of inmates in college programs of study. Education is viewed by college officials as a source of training and development for inmates that will enable them to get better jobs upon returning to society. The enrollment of an inmate in a college program, however, does not ensure his future (Metrametics Report, 1977).

Efforts to educate inmates through college programs are complicated by a number of problems. There is a serious lack of supportive services for the student-inmate (Metrametics Report, 1977). He is forced to deal with the daily stresses of his environment from which he has

little or no freedom to pursue his studies at his leisure, as does his campus counterpart.

Inmates are usually taught by part-time faculty and are denied the opportunity for sustained, open contact with their instructors. Both the inmates and their instructors have serious time restrictions placed on them due to the corrections system's maintenance of a highly regimented and controlled environment. This situation denies student-inmates access to potentially supportive relationships with their faculty. It also limits both groups in their opportunity to gain an appreciation of each other's roles. Inmates are denied most of the opportunity for formal and informal social experiences that accompany college programs on campus. DeJoie (1979) believes that colleges and universities have responsibility for the social education of inmates and that their staffs are best suited for accomplishing that objective.

Most inmates are usually unprepared for the college experience. Only a small number of inmates enrolled in a community college program housed in two large New York State correctional facilities had high school diplomas.

(See page 32). Inmates aspiring to complete a college program have a history of poor experiences in school (Clark, 1965; Kennedy and Kerber, 1979; Silberman, 1979). Consequently, they usually lack the skills that most incoming college students possess, and they are in need of an even greater variety of supportive services than their campus counterparts. These needs are not being met (Feldman, 1973). For example, in Lewis and Ficke's (1976) study of post-secondary education programs in eight Pennsylvania state correctional institutions, counseling was perceived as being the weakest part of the programs. Only 23 percent of the inmates responding saw the counseling services as "good". The potential for inmate failure remains high, as a result of the limited services provided inmates by both the colleges and the correction institutions. This situation exists in spite of the fact that the programs are heavily subsidized through the generous federal funding that supports financial aid programs for which most inmates qualify. The programs are also beneficial to the correction institutions as they provide ready-made programming for

the institution and because of the fact that most student-inmates are classified as model prisoners. The college programs are cost-effective for both institutions (Community Services Association, 1976).

Prison populations have increased dramatically during the past ten years. Programs to effectively limit recidivism rates have not been successfully developed and maintained (Lieber, 1981). College programs for inmates offer promise to train inmates for better opportunities upon release as well as provide them with social education while incarcerated. However, due to lagging support for these programs, it remains to be seen just how effective they can become.

In order to help break the regressive cycle that exists regarding the rehabilitation or re-education of inmates, both corrections staff and college officials must acknowledge the fact that they have a suitable, identified population group in student-inmates, with which to experiment. Student-inmates form a natural subgroup within correctional facilities, with which alternative re-education and "re-socialization" methods can be explored in conjunction with their college experience.

As a group committed to learning in a college program, despite many obstacles, it is reasonable to assume that they are amenable to learning about themselves, in order to take full advantage of their educational efforts. Learning at the affective level (intra-personal and inter-personal learning) is a reasonable objective to pursue in conjunction with an inmate's academic experience (DeJoie, 1979).

Statement of the Problem

The newly-enrolled student-inmate is poorly prepared for his role. He lives in a non-supportive environment and has left himself vulnerable by his actions. His attempts at change are seriously jeopardized by the constant pressure of his environment, the lack of supportive services available to him, and his lack of perspective about what he must face. To succeed he must quickly develop his personal resources and learn to effectively cope with new and different demands. He must learn to study in an impossible environment, risk the rejection of his peers, and deal with the daily harrassment that exists in prison.

He assumes that his success in a college program will help him to be successful upon release.

College and correction officials have not provided student-inmates with the needed supportive services. The newly-enrolled inmate is in a crisis as a result of exposure to a set of new and different demands in a fixed, non-supportive environment. This situation forces him to rely almost entirely upon his own resources, for which he is not necessarily prepared. If the educational experience is to be of value to the inmate, methods must be found to assist him to more fully utilize it, while incarcerated and later upon release. It is the researcher's contention that newly-enrolled inmates can be assisted in the development of their intra-personal and inter-personal skills so that they may more effectively cope with the demands of their educational experience, as well as utilize it for greater personal and economic reward.

The potential growthful effects of the college learning experience may be limited by the oppressive prison environment that the inmate experiences daily. However, inmates as students comprise a sub-group that

is unique within the prison community and therefore may be more available and more amenable to learning at the affective level than other men within the institution. Further, learning at the intra-personal and inter-personal level may be offered as a legitimate supplement to their academic experience.

Purpose of the Study

This study was conducted to determine the effects of Laboratory Education on inmates who are newly-enrolled in a college program while confined. Specifically, the study evaluated the short-term effects of a Motivational Workshop upon student-inmates, both educationally and psychologically. The workshop was designed by the researcher after two years of experimentation. The study also examined the value of Laboratory Education as a system for the "re-education" of student-inmates.

Description of the Study

The study was designed to be exploratory in nature and to test certain assumptions regarding the capacity

of college-enrolled inmates to learn at the affective level. The design of the study involved the facilitation of a Motivational Workshop designed by the researcher which was presented to the Experimental Group prior to the beginning of the semester. Pre-test and post-test data were obtained on both the Experimental and the Control Groups which were made up of comparable subjects. Data was gained through the utilization of the Personal Orientation Inventory, the Rotter Internal-External Control Scale, and a Faculty Rating Scale of the researcher's design. These items are described in Chapter III. Samples of the items are contained in Appendix C. Final grades were also compiled on all subjects.

The remainder of the dissertation is organized in the following manner. Chapter II contains a literature review which focuses on the limitations of existing rehabilitation methods, some of the causes of criminal behavior, the effects of imprisonment on behavior, and the psychological and social needs of inmates. It also contains a discussion regarding the efficacy of Laboratory Education as a system for positively impacting on inmate behavior in conjunction with college enrollment.

The needs of student-inmates are also discussed.

Chapter III describes the methods and procedures that were employed for this study. It also contains the definitions for the study and the stated hypotheses.

Chapter IV addresses the research findings and contains an analysis of the data. Chapter V discusses the findings of the research and also offers recommendations for the future.

Chapter II

Introduction

This chapter contains a review of the literature which focuses on the phases of criminal development, specifically, the effects of the environment on individuals who become criminals, the effects of imprisonment on inmate behavior, and inmate rehabilitation strategies. It also summarizes the psychological and social needs of inmates and presents a rationale for the use of Laboratory Education as a valid intervention for positively influencing inmate behavior.

For the past two hundred years the primary purpose of imprisonment of criminals has been to remove them from society. Early attempts at inmate rehabilitation were based on puritannical beliefs that called for their punishment and isolation. This period lasted until the latter part of the nineteenth century when inmates were heavily exploited as a labor force. They were used in the manufacture of a variety of goods, trained to provide their own services to themselves, such as cooking and maintenance. They also built highways and in some

cases, even their own prisons (American Friends Service Committee, 1977).

During the 1930's and 1940's a number of reforms took place which enabled inmates to gain some recognition for some of their rights. Brutality and corruption were reduced in most penal institutions. By 1950, however, as a result of these reforms, inmates were sitting idly while continuing to suffer from the isolation and oppression that is coupled with confinement. The jobs and so-called "training" programs through which inmates were so heavily exploited in the past had been largely eliminated, with little to take their place (Carter, Glaser, and Wilkins, 1972). The lessening of brutality and the reduction of inmate exploitation as a source of free labor were the first significant changes in the handling of inmates in over 50 years. It was at this time that the behaviorists became heavily involved in providing "rehabilitation" programs for inmates. The treatment programs that emerged were based largely on the medical model which called for "diagnosis and

treatment." The changes in the system are well-described by Carlson (1976) who wrote:

The new technology was the therapeutic toolkit: psychologists, psychiatrists and social workers clamored for access to the prison to try out new ideas. The three cornerstones were: classification, education-therapy, and a change in attitude measured by psychometrics as well as by subjective judgment.

The basic idea was simple: First, classify the offender by problem and need; next tailor a program to his or her specific needs; and finally, measure the offenders progress towards a possible release date. Prisons remained the same structurally but programmatically they were changed as they were infiltrated by a swarm of behavioral scientists. (p. 49)

Treatment became the preferred choice. The assumption was made almost universally that the inmate was either "deficient" or "diseased" and "could be cured through appropriate treatment" (Carlson, 1976, p. 68).

This system held the assumption that the clinicians who enacted it by reason of their authority had the capacity to both identify and treat the "underlying causes" of criminal behavior. While the classification process

frequently failed to take into consideration the inmate's background, it became the backbone of the rehabilitation system. It was later widely criticized for its inaccuracy, inconsistency and dishonesty (Irwin, 1978).

Inmates were more apt to be assigned to a program on a space available basis than as a result of a classification process (Irwin, 1977).

These rehabilitation programs were vitally linked to the procedure of indeterminate sentencing which provided therapists and those responsible with the authority necessary to enact their treatment. These programs were also enthusiastically supported by prison administrators as they provided a highly efficient control mechanism that contained broad discretionary powers to determine the treatment to be applied and also when the individual was "cured" (Carlson, 1976; Irwin, 1978).

By 1972 over 79% of the penal institutions in the United States were using "group counseling" or other group methodologies such as group therapy as part of their rehabilitation effort (Resnick, Lira, and Wallace, 1977). Although extensively employed in most institutions,

there is no evidence to support the fact that these methodologies have substantially reduced rates of recidivism. Martinson, Lipton, and Wilks (1977) reviewed over two hundred research reports that evaluated rehabilitation methodologies and found that with but a few exceptions, these efforts at rehabilitation showed no appreciable reduction in recidivism rates. Martinson also suggests that the research accomplished was very poor and incapable of defining a clear pattern regarding various treatments. Kassebaum, Ward, and Wilner (1977) found no difference in parole performance during periodic follow-up intervals over a three-year period between those offenders who had engaged in group counseling and those who had not. Carlson (1976) also found no evidence that group therapy or group counseling reduced recidivism in inmates. Slaikeu (1977) reviewed 23 studies in group therapy with youthful and adult offenders and was unable to conclude that group treatment in correctional institutions is an effective rehabilitation mode.

"In the absence of credible scientific data on the causation and treatment of crime, the content of the correctional treatment programs rests largely on speculation

or assumptions unrelated to criminality" (American Friends Service Committee, 1977, p. 385). Wilkins (1978) also supports the position that the "treatment" approach should be discontinued. He wrote:

It seems safe to conclude that it is doubtful whether any variants of present methods of treatment/punishment makes any difference to the recidivism rate....It seems clear that the clinical-medical model is inadequate and inaccurate as a basis for any theory or practice of treatment....
(p. 673-674)

Treatment programs have been found to be ineffective for a variety of reasons. Wilkins (1978) states that it is not possible to treat either a "probability" or a "past event" and that the prescribed treatments do not demonstrate any impact on the dysfunction of the inmate (p. 674). Traditional dyadic and group (counseling) procedures so often effective in the community are described as "not only much less efficient but totally inadequate" by Hosford and Moss (1977, p. 237).

Some theorists consider the "treatment" programs to be out-moded. Therapy on a one-to-one basis is

perceived as such by Wilkins (1978). Hurwitz (1977) criticizes the system for its failure to take the inmates' social background into consideration, while maintaining the goals and values of the prevailing social system. In a similar vein, Martinson (1978) sees the programs as flawed as they deny the "normality of crime in our society" and the personal normality of a very large proportion of offenders, criminals who are merely responding to the facts and conditions of society" (p. 806). This view regarding the social origins of criminal behavior was expressed much earlier by individuals who believed that the high crime rate amongst youths in the ghettos is a result of a deep frustration with a system that enforces their lowered social status (Clark, 1964; Malcolm X, 1965; Silberman, 1967).

The inconsistency that exists between the aims and objectives of therapeutic treatment methodologies and the objectives and pervading impact of imprisonment have been cited by a number of theorists as another cause of the failure of rehabilitation programs. Grant (1965) feels that the objectives of prison to instill obedience, docility, and passivity are contradictory to the aims

of therapy. This view is also shared by Hosford and Moss (1976). Rachin (1974) argues that this approach compartmentalized, stigmatized, and isolated those who for one reason or another have acted unconventionally. "Reformation and rehabilitation are the rhetoric, systematic dehumanization is the reality," according to Rudovsky (1975, p. 11). Knight (1970) describes prison rehabilitation programs as "feeble, face-saving attempts that exist in name only" (p. 52).

Staff members responsible for carrying out the treatment programs have been described as being absorbed into the system and therefore lose their effectiveness (Fogel, 1975; Toch, 1975). These authors and others provide compelling reasons to seriously question the efficacy of "treatment" programs carried out in an environment that has been described as "archaic" by Toch (1975), Leger and Stratton (1975), and others.

As stated earlier, rehabilitation has been based on assumptions regarding the causes of criminal behavior that imply "mental illness" in the criminal. Recently compiled data regarding the effectiveness of most programs by numerous theorists tends to repudiate previously-

held assumptions and theories, as well as invalidate the various methodologies that have been employed so extensively during the past 30 years. Psychotherapy, counseling, and group counseling have not been proven effective in reducing rates of recidivism (Martinson, 1978). They have also been described as inconsistent with the hostile, oppressive environment in which they are carried out and therefore unlikely to succeed. Data is available to substantiate that treatment programs have failed because they have ignored the social backgrounds of the inmates that they have attempted to assist. The programs have also failed because they have discounted the overwhelming impact of the environment on the inmates in a prison setting. Another, and perhaps equally as important reason for the failure of these programs, is linked to the nature of correction institutions. Swan (1979) argues that social and behavioral scientists have been used by state agents to facilitate prisoner control (p. 48). Fogel (1975) shares the same view. He states that the clinicians and the custodians of inmates have declared a "silent truce" because "the indeterminate sentence, a product of the clinician, remains a powerful custodial

weapon" (p. 63). Fogel observes that both the "treaters" and the "keepers" still insist upon status deprivation for inmates as either prisoner or patient (p. 63).

An example of attending to the environment as a source of positive inmate behavior change is provided by Adams (1979). In experimenting with prison environments, Adams found that the hostile affrontive relations characteristic of a "custodially-oriented" prison are a result of the prison regime and not the personality constructs of the prisoners or the officers. When the regime is manipulated to include more inmate control of the environment and increased participation, Adams noted positive changes in inter-personal relations in the inmates. Unfortunately, research in which the prison environment is purposely manipulated is difficult to accomplish in light of correction administrators' concerns about effectively controlling inmate behavior at all times.

The need for experimentation continues to exist and it does present a formidable challenge to social scientists who are faced with the growing resistance of correction administrators as the conflict regarding

inmate rehabilitation remains unabated. The strength of current resistance is revealed in statements by a current and a former Commissioner of Correction for the State of New York.

The brief career of Benjamin Ward as Commissioner of Correction for the State of New York is testimony to this conflict. Ward began his tenure in 1974 with the assumption that inmates can and should be "rehabilitated." He left that position three years later, flatly rejecting that belief. He wrote:

There's a significant number of people (inmates) that are rehabilitated, but that is more a result of their own personal decision than...of anything the prison does.

Even if they are sick there is no evidence that we know how to treat them or that we can determine when they are cured. (Bernstein and Golinski, 1981, p. 1c)

The growing criticism of the "treatment" model and the frustration of not having replaced it with any substantial alternative has left prison officials with an attitude that reflects a more traditional view of dealing

with criminal offenders. The attitude of the current Commissioner of the State of New York clearly expresses a return to a traditional view of corrections. The current Commissioner, Thomas Coughlin II, very recently said:

Philosophically, the main purpose prison serves is the removal from society of an individual who society has decided needs removal--incarceration, deprivation of liberty. That's what prisons do. That's what they do best.... And to think of them in any other therapeutic way is a mistake and that's what gets prisons into trouble all the time. They were set up as an arm of punishment of the state and not as an arm of treatment.... (p. 10)

The conflict that has been identified between correction administrators and those who continue to seek ways of rehabilitating inmates leaves the latter group in a difficult position, due to their limited success in the past. Unless the behaviorists who attempted inmate rehabilitation develop more viable and successful programs, their chances of gaining support in the future

is limited.

As noted earlier, some of the recent critics of inmate rehabilitation programs have cited the failure of the program's concern for both the social background of the inmate and the impact of the prison experience on inmate behavior. While it is certain that correction administrators seek to improve inmate behavior, it must be acknowledged that the negative effects of existing prison conditions mitigate against permanent, positive change in inmate behavior (Toch, 1975; Kassebaum, Ward, and Wilner, 1977).

If the shift away from the "treatment" programs that have been in effect so long, continues for reasons cited earlier, it remains to be determined what programs are to be developed that can impact on inmate behavior in a meaningful way that is long-lasting.

Uprisings in prisons that date from the 60's have resulted from prisoner concern for more humane treatment, more opportunities for education and training, and growing impatience with not being viewed as social beings. In a review of certain literature to be discussed later in this chapter, the researcher identified some successful

experiments that employed methodologies which emanated from a position which reflects the view that criminal behavior has its origin in the social experience of the individual, and therefore can be remediated through programs that stem from a social theory of learning as opposed to the individualized treatment system.

The study that is presented as part of this dissertation represents an attempt at dealing with only one aspect of a very complex problem that exists in our correctional facilities throughout the country. Today's prisons are badly overcrowded due to a trend toward determinate sentencing that has been demanded by state legislators throughout the country. Consequently, many prisons are viewed as being in a very "explosive" state due to the effects of overcrowding.

The wide-spread legislation that has demanded longer sentences and stricter punishment for all crimes is a result of a growing fear amongst the people of this nation. Lengthier sentences have increased dramatically. As mentioned previously, Lieber (1981) in a recent New York Times article, provides us with some

startling information about the current status of our criminal justice system. Lieber cites legislative sentencing, high unemployment rates, and the problems of our ghettos as causes for this serious problem, stating that the concept of rehabilitation has fallen out of favor and has been replaced by the "just desserts" theory which meets the communities' needs for retribution.

Leiber dramatically describes the impact of overcrowded conditions on inmate behavior. The tremendous stress that is created from overcrowding seriously reduces the potential for inmate-rehabilitation, as programs and staff are unable to meet inmate needs. Therefore, it can be concluded that while people may feel safer, increasing the number and length of sentences is only a temporary solution to a serious ongoing social problem for which we must begin to find permanent constructive solutions.

The remainder of this chapter is devoted to an exploration of some of the implications of the social background of inmates, the social and psychological

impact of incarceration, and a review of those experiments with inmate behavior change that emanate from a conceptual foundation that incorporates a social theory of learning. Finally, the chapter includes validation of Laboratory Education as a useful source of methodologies for use with inmate groups and a rationale for the study.

The Background of Today's Inmate

Historically, poverty and crime have always been linked together. The majority of men imprisoned in this country over the past two hundred years have come from the underprivileged communities in our society. The distribution of crime has changed in keeping with population shifts over the past 35 years, although crime rates have increased much more rapidly than the population has increased. Large metropolitan cities (over

250,000) and smaller cities produce roughly five times as much crime per 100,000 people than is produced in rural areas. However, in all areas, individuals with low incomes, lower-class occupations, and minimal education are arrested way out of proportion to their numbers in the population. Blacks and other minority-group members have a much higher crime rate than whites (Baldridge, 1980; Lieber, 1981).

Most inmates in New York State come from the ghettos of the state's cities. Of the 21,000 men committed to New York State's prisons in 1977, over 50 percent were Black, 28 percent were white, and 21 percent were of Hispanic background.¹ For the most part, inmates housed in New York State prisons have a history of poor educational background and school failure. Of the 400² inmates enrolled in a program of study in two large New York State correctional facilities that is community-college sponsored,

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1. Figures provided from the Annual Report of Commitments in New York State--published by the Division for Planning, Research, and Evaluation. Department of Correction, State of New York, Albany, N.Y.
 2. Figures provided by the Coordinator for Inmate Education, Dutchess Community College, Poughkeepsie, N.Y.

only 40 had entered the program with a high school diploma that was earned prior to incarceration. All but a few of the remainder earned a high school equivalency diploma while incarcerated.

Children being raised in the nation's ghettos frequently have difficulty in school for a variety of reasons. School behavior norms reflect middle-class behavior norms to which underprivileged children frequently have difficulty making adjustments. Clark (1965), Glaser (1972), and Kennedy and Kerber (1972) have all criticized ghetto schools for their lack of sensitivity to the cultural differences that ghetto children are forced to cope with. Failure to cope in many cases leads to poor adjustment, a loss of motivation, and failure. Many educators believe that the major causes of learning disabilities can be attributed to the social surroundings of the culturally disadvantaged. Educational deficiency interferes with social participation and relegates a person to social inferiority (Kendall, 1973). It is believed that the cultural patterns necessary for school success are not being transmitted to the children of ghetto families and that other problems such as broken

homes, poverty, discrimination, poor nourishment, and high crime rates also contribute to limit the educational potential of children in ghetto schools (Kennedy and Kerber, 1972, p. 57).

The fact that our nation's ghettos contain a high percentage of Blacks and Hispanics cannot be overlooked. Many of these individuals end up in prison due to the victimization by discrimination in education and their job market. Much of the economic plight of Blacks is attributable directly to racial discrimination (Malcolm X, 1965; Silberman, 1978; Young, 1965). Whitney Young wrote:

The Black man today is fully aware of his inferior status. He knows that it is man-made, not God-given....He has had enough contact with whites to appreciate the good things in life that they take for granted, but he also has enough contact with whites to be aware of the hypocrisy, the corruption and the moral rot that prevails in society. (p. 22)

Kenneth Clark (1965) speaks of the psychological emasculation of the black male and states that it is an "institutionalized, self-perpetuating and chronic

pathology" (p. 81). Clark believes that family instability is conducive to the development of delinquency, addiction to drugs, and violence. He also identifies a link between the dark ghetto and individual destructiveness and withdrawal.

Silberman (1978) attributes extreme material deprivation and the absence of any opportunity to leave the ghetto as the primary causes for criminal behavior by its inhabitants. Ghetto youth are more likely to be "educated for crime" because of the traffic in stolen goods that exists in the ghetto (p. 91). The availability of stolen goods in the ghettos is part of a system by which its inhabitants share part of the "American Dream" while getting even with the rest of society (p. 93).

Cloward and Ohlin (1960) believe that poverty in the lower classes forces people into delinquent sub-cultural categories. They include the criminal category in which wealth is acquired through crime, the conflict sub-culture where status is achieved through power, and the retreatist sub-culture which is described as being comprised of those individuals who are predisposed toward alcohol and drugs.

Vice and crime in our nation's ghettos constitute a "normal" response to a situation where the emphasis in our culture that is placed on material goods is absorbed by its inhabitants, but access to these same goods is denied the individual through conventional and legitimate means. The American virtue of ambition becomes lost and is replaced with so-called socially deviant behavior.

A portion of a lengthy letter written by a young man to the researcher, while he was incarcerated, provides valuable insights into the effects of his environment on his development. His experiences, unfortunately, are typical of the experiences of thousands of men who eventually end up in prison. Ralph M. ¹ writes:

On Dropping Out

A young mind is automatically shaped by environment. This includes parents (or lack of same), peers, neighborhood, socio-economic status of family, etc. There is no frame of reference, no available realm from which initial orientation can be gained beyond that provided on the home ground. The impact of this initial orientation

1. Ralph M. has graduated from Dutchess Community College with a B+ average and is currently attending a four-year college. He hopes to become a counselor.

is indelible and it will have a major influence on the early stages of an individual's development and general outlook on life.

The positive or negative nature of these early influences will determine the degree to which an individual is successfully "socialized."

I was born and raised in various N.Y.C. ghettos, in a mother headed family unit which included myself and three older sisters.

My sisters were on divergent paths, each pre-occupied with her own life and my mother worked everyday; so I never perceived home as being a place from which I could draw the strength and knowledge necessary to compete successfully in the kaleidoscopic world outside our apartment door.

I knew that I had the potential to do well in school but it seemed that every time I began getting settled down and making clear progress in a particular school we were relocating again. We moved no less than ten times before my mother passed away when I was twelve years old. My mother did the best that she possibly could. All that she had to offer was all that she had to give, namely, love and compassion and a simple desire to live.

After my mother's death I moved in with one of my sisters who had just gotten married. Her husband was not from the United States and had just arrived here from a totally different type of culture. He could not relate to my circumstances and position with any degree of empathy. In fact he made it plainly known that he considered my presence to be a total imposition with regard to both his marital freedom and his level of financial growth.

Faced with a home condition in which there was little love and even less constructive encouragement I embraced street life.

On the street I could relate to other youths who were experiencing the same thing I was in one form or another. We were outcasts to the world at large but very intimately and genuinely accepted by one another within our own sphere of reality. This was during the time when the youth gangs of the late fifties and early sixties were at the height of their activities. The occurrences which have happened within and around the N.Y.C. youth gang phenomena have been thoroughly documented over the years so I will not dwell on this area, nor belabor the obvious fact that I had become a juvenile delinquent by this time. I was filled with uncertainty and primarily motivated from an external focus of control.

I sought refuge in drugs and alcohol and entered into a cycle of petty crime, repeated failures and institutionalization, which extended into my adult life. I came to know indecision, doubt, and fear intimately; but time is the great equalizer and with the passage of time I determined to get at the root causes of my problems. I began to seek truth and resolved to get it no matter what the cost, even though it might temporarily embarrass me. After what I had been through I could well afford a little added embarrassment....

Tragically, our cities' ghettos have produced thousands and thousands of men like Ralph M. His writing provides valuable insights into the effects of ghetto life on young men who eventually wind up incarcerated. The effects of ghetto life are pronounced and long-lasting. Individuals are left deeply scarred

psychologically and limited in their capacity to gain motivation and direction in their lives. They are plagued with self-doubt and have poor educational backgrounds, little or no training, and for the most part, limited work experience. The young men that grow up in these ghettos frequently lack the capability to successfully gain and maintain employment at meaningful work, due to their background. They are also burdened with poor inter-personal skills, have limited self-concepts, and lack self-esteem.

These same individuals are frequently the victims of poverty, broken homes, and a lack of family stability. They have few positive role models and are exposed to crime as a way of life very early in life, in an environment where it is condoned.

A major segment of our nation's inmate population is currently being spawned in the ghettos of our cities. This fact and the effect of ghetto life on the thoughts and behavior of men coming from this background cannot be overlooked by those who would attempt to re-educate or re-socialize inmates. If we are to positively impact on their behavior and return them successfully to productive lives in society, their needs resulting from their experience

must be taken into account.

Some Effects of Imprisonment

An inmate entering prison for the first time faces the necessity of adapting to a new social environment which is controlled by two different groups, ordering two sets of rules. The first set of rules, clearly spelled out and strictly enforced by the corrections officers, call for immediate compliance and cooperation in order to avoid harrassment and punishment. The second set of rules emanate from an inmate sub-culture that he must live with around the clock. These rules are reinforced by intense peer pressure that provide a constant daily reminder that the inmate must appear "cool" at all times if he is to avoid confrontation. The inmate then is faced with the dilemma of conforming to the dictates of two groups, both of which have power over him. If he appears too compliant and too cooperative with prison officials, then he must face the rejection of his peers (Wheeler, 1977).

An inmate's self-esteem is lowered by the social

rejection that is implicit in his status. Feelings of self-doubt and self-defeat are a result of an inmate being forced to constantly deal with others from a position of inferiority (Wheeler, 1977). Toch (1975) writes:

Self-doubt is a product--a social outcome devised from encounters with other men. It is nurtured by guilt, shame and fear. It is magnified by the looking glass in every face he sees--his jaundiced self-image finding its reflection in the neglect and gloating and contempt of others. (p. 50-51)

The inmate is understood as a very anxious individual who has been deprived of his autonomy and robbed of his identity until such time as he is released (Sykes, 1978). He has little opportunity to develop his self-image and is pressured to maintain a negative outlook in spite of how he may feel inside. Inmates have little time for themselves. Having been denied access to heterosexual contact for the duration of their sentences in most prisons, inmates must endure the pressure that comes from living in intimate contact with an all-male population and the risk of sexual attack or physical assault. These

issues tend to create doubt in inmates regarding their self-concept as men (Thomas, 1975; Sykes, 1977). These on-going stressful conditions from which there is little relief, tend to make inmates hostile while fostering an "I don't give a damn attitude!" that is supported by a lack of support and direction from the correction system (McCorkle and Korn, 1977). Inmates retain a hostile attitude because they feel that others are hostile and unappreciative toward them (Glaser, 1972).

Conformity and cooperation, original effects of imprisonment, are shown to be temporary by Wheeler (1977) who notes that prison sub-cultures greatly over-ride the effects of imprisonment. These sub-cultures serve to insulate the inmate against the harmful effects of imprisonment, while helping him to retain some semblance of an identity in a system where it is quickly lost.

Inmates are described as passive by Knight (1970) who describes the prison mentality as a "slave mentality" which expends the inmate's energy in housekeeping roles while providing little change in attitude. He sees the rigid authoritarian structure with its rigid controls as "benumbing the spirit" needed to resolve the guilt

feelings of the offender (p. 53).

It is apparent that the negative effects of imprisonment reinforce the inmate's feelings at the time of incarceration, in spite of "so-called opportunities" for him to change. Positive, permanent change in the behavior of criminals, "re-socialization," (Kennedy and Kerber, 1973) is highly unlikely unless more attention is paid to the inmate's daily social experience, from which there is no escape. Inmate sub-cultures not only insulate the inmate against the harmful effects of imprisonment, but they also provide some semblance of support, acceptance, and recognition for him in his struggle (Sykes, 1977).

Although the treatment of inmates has improved over the past twenty years, numerous inhumane practices still exist in most institutions. These conditions severely limit the potential for positive, permanent change in inmate behavior, unless attended to. The daily life of oppression and psychological deprivation continue under conditions that are more crowded than ever. Although educational programs have increased, other programs which were intended to "rehabilitate" prisoners have fallen off (Lieber, 1981). The need for more humane

treatment of prisoners persists just as the need for training and skills development for inmates also persists.

The primary purpose of prisons is still to remove troublesome individuals from society (Lieber, 1981). These individuals, frequently defined as "deviant" in the past, have not responded to the individualized treatment model in an adequate manner. Rather than fault the system or the treatment model, in the past, those responsible chose to view the individual to be changed (the inmate) as being uncooperative or incapable of being rehabilitated. (See Ward p. 26)

The earlier research on specific aspects of inmate behavior was based on assumptions regarding its causation, which unfortunately has provided social scientists with little usable data from which to construct programs that can bring about changes in inmate behavior. "We have libraries full of criminological research on the etiology of crime, but most of it has been conducted without control groups and therefore tells us nothing about causation (and usually not much else, either)" (American Friends Service Committee, 1977, p. 384). The data generated from these volumes of research is outdated

conceptually, as are the methodology and treatment models on which they were based. Consequently, practitioners such as Kennedy and Kerber (1975) are advocating that inmates are in need of "re-socialization" in order to effectively alter previously learned criminal behavior. These same authors maintain that to rehabilitate a criminal successfully, he must be viewed as both a psychological and sociological entity, if the process is to succeed.

By definition, "re-socialization" is not limited to a set of narrowly-defined norms. Consequently, changes sought in inmate behavior, through re-socialization, are individually determined and not confined to the fixed expectations of corrections officials which in the past have been based on assumptions regarding the causes of crime (Kennedy and Kerber, 1973).

Included in recent research on inmate behavior are some efforts which can be described as a "re-socialization" process. The human relations training program provided for inmates by Davis, Sturgis, and Braswell (1976) is a good example. Participating inmates made positive gains in their work behavior and learned to successfully

discriminate between helpful and non-helpful communication. Shapiro's (1975) Leadership Training Program provides us with another example of the re-socialization process which was tested under fire. Shapiro's effort was conducted in an institution which was under considerable tension due to inter-racial conflicts within the inmate population. Inmates who completed the Leadership Training Program responded very positively to an explosive situation. They literally averted a brewing race riot by cooling down certain inmates and getting them to talk out the problem. There are a number of other examples of re-socialization efforts, including Jacobs, 1977; Murray and Hickie, 1979; and Bornstein, et al., 1979. Also, see Moore and Miller, 1979.

Re-socialization calls for re-learning or re-education. That is, the individual is discarding previous responses to situations in his social milieu and learning new responses to similar social stimuli (Shapiro, 1975). "The remaking of people is an educational function" (American Friends Service Committee, 1977, p. 386). In order for correction systems to re-educate or re-socialize inmates, its officials must begin to support programs which view

criminal behavior as a result of the individual's social experience and not as a result of some psychological aberration. Lengthy, dramatic articles appeared in News-week, 1981; Time, 1981; and the New York Times Magazine, 1981. The authors of these articles view the radical increases in crime rates as resulting from social problems that exist in our society. The authors of these articles freely acknowledge that the specific causes of criminal behavior, even within this context, are still essentially undetermined.

"Sociological theory has driven us to look for the causes of crime in the community. Poverty, discrimination, and other negative social conditions are believed by some to form the bedrock for the creation of deviant sub-cultures that in turn foster crime...most if not all sociologists agree that lurking somewhere in the social order are causative levers...which if pressed in the right combination, will shove some into crime" (Carlson, 1976, p. 45).

As theorists continue to look more closely at our social system for a clearer understanding of the origins of criminal behavior, corrections officials are faced

with burgeoning prison populations. This situation has placed even greater stress on the penal system to find ways of altering criminal behavior, though the system is poorly equipped to do so (Lieber, 1981). However, increased enrollments in college programs and other educational programs within prisons provide an indication that some inmates are very willing to learn and are seeking ways to change their lives, to ensure a better future.

Inmates have been identified as needing both interpersonal and intra-personal skills in order to take better advantage of their education and training upon release (Carlson, 1976; Kennedy and Kerber, 1973; Seashore and Haberfield, 1976). Prison life for the most part represents a contradiction to the supportive, sustaining environment that is associated with the stimulation, development, and maintenance of personal and social growth. To be one's real self while incarcerated is very difficult, if not impossible. An inmate's daily struggle is to hang on to some semblance of his real "self" against very difficult odds. To do this the inmate frequently turns inward and isolates himself from his peers in order to minimize his vulnerability. While this behavior may

aid him to cope with the stressful conditions he must face daily, it effectively inhibits his potential to develop or re-develop his identity. While his passivity and "cooperative" behavior are defined as "normal" by prison officials, the inmate has merely become temporarily acculturated into the prison environment. In adopting this behavior, however, the inmate has further separated his real self from his daily behavior (Jourard, 1959). This behavior may help to preclude the possibility of positive and significant change within the inmate.

"It is not until I am my real self and act my real self that I am in a position to grow" (Jourard, 1959, p. 542). The inmate has serious difficulty in assimilating his experience according to Toch (1975) who wrote:

Life for all of us is a process of assimilating or de-emphasizing disappointments, of developing alternative systems for coping and changing. These opportunities do not exist for inmates for the most part, consequently it is very difficult to attain a level of adjustment. (p. 33)

As indicated earlier, the acculturation of an inmate appears to be temporary and serves to provide him with

protection from the harmful effects of imprisonment. However, this process neither allows him to closely examine his own feelings or to reach out to others for assistance. It is as if he adopts and maintains a role which not only protects him, but also prevents him from changing.

If inmates are to successfully re-enter society, upon release, the corrections system must begin to develop newer approaches to assist their learning at the affective level. These programs must be presented in conjunction with training and educational programs. Corrections officials must provide experiences which will assist inmates to develop intra-personal and interpersonal skills as part of their training. This must be done if we are to override the negative effects of both imprisonment and of earlier experiences if inmates are going to rid themselves of their dysfunctional behavior and begin to realize their potential. Only in that way will they be "re-socialized".

The researcher has examined Laboratory Education for its potential to meet the personal learning needs of inmates. The remainder of this chapter examines

Laboratory Education as an alternative methodology for inmate re-education and re-socialization.

Laboratory Education--An Alternative

Laboratory Education places an emphasis on assisting individuals to clearly perceive the significance of that which they are experiencing while stressing the "here and now". Typically, a Laboratory Education experience develops a community of learners at the outset and stresses the "here and now" as well as the need for support in order to effect individual change. A definition of Laboratory Education is as follows:

A learning environment centered upon personal, interpersonal, group or organizational problems, in which the participants can learn and change through an inductive process based on experience. Thus, the term 'laboratory' derived from the notion that the learning environment is experimental to the extent that the participants are encouraged to experiment beyond their usual pattern of interacting with individuals and groups. (Blumberg, 1973, p. 15)

Additionally, Benne (1975) states that Laboratory Education is also an attempt to deal with the affective, valiative and cognitive.

As previously stated, inmates are perceived as

needing to develop inter-personal skills if they are to utilize their education or training. Argyris (1965) provides us with an important concept, "Competence-Acquisition," which he defines as "the ability to cope with interpersonal relations" (p. 546). He describes the three criteria for effective inter-personal coping as "perceiving the situation accurately" by the individual, "solving the problem" in a way that it remains solved, and "maintaining the effectiveness" of the working relationship. If successfully acquired, inter-personal competence goes beyond insight and understanding for the individuals and becomes a function of his ability to solve inter-personal problems. Argyris states: "...transference of learning is a central aspiration in competence acquisition" (p. 547). The transference of learning is of paramount importance to the inmate.

Rachin's (1974) preference for Reality Therapy for inmates provides additional support for the concept that Argyris provides. Rachin sees Reality Therapy as valuable to the development of realistic behavior in inmates as they are given the opportunity to consider and compare both the immediate and remote consequences of their

behavior. Noel (1974) analyzed Rollo May's Existential Therapy and concluded that it was more acceptable to Blacks as it was more culture-free. She saw the emphasis of the individual's perception of his own experience as one of the Existential Therapy's greatest assets and emphasized the fact that there is no one specific method of utilizing it. As a high percentage of Blacks and other minorities are now found amongst the prison populations, serious consideration must be given to systems which take Noel's reasoning into consideration.

Prison is a grim daily reminder of an inmate's past. Enrollment in an educational program may provide him with an opportunity to live in the present. By the same token, traditional therapeutic systems have stressed an historical approach to the solution of the client's problems, whereas the existential approach concerns itself with the present.

An antecedent to change described by Maslow (1968), Assagioli (1971), and others is the realization that an individual does not have to cling to his past. Letting go of the past is for most individuals the most critical step toward personal growth and development. We cannot

remain bound by the injunctions of our past experience if we seek growth and change within ourselves. Malcolm X (1965) taught us that the successful ex-inmate will utilize his learning and prison experience as a step toward the future. His teaching and the teaching of the Black Muslims have helped many inmates change the way they view themselves.

Thomas Cassidy (1973), an English professor at Southern Illinois University and teacher in prisons wrote: "I am tempted to think for example that rehabilitation is not really taking place in prisons; that the preparation may take place, but that the man himself is the one who rehabilitates himself both inside and outside. I think college courses give him a higher motivation to start this inward process while he is still in prison, and to embark upon his real rehabilitation when he gets back into society" (p. 32).

Inmates enrolled in a college program of study are demonstrating motivation to work toward higher goals in their lives. Though they may be unclear about what the outcomes of education may be or what the demands they now face are, their motivation must be acknowledged. The newly-enrolled inmate becomes a member of a different sub-culture within the prison. This new educational

community provides him with an opportunity to begin to view both the world and himself differently. However, he is in need of considerable assistance if he is to capitalize on this experience which may enable him to experiment with his behavior in a safer and more supportive environment.

Some of the recent research on inmate behavior reflects concern for their social learning. Although these studies vary in nature and subject, socialization and "re-socialization" are found as predominant themes in many of them. These studies also reflect many of the principles and objectives of Laboratory Education, which will be discussed later in this chapter.

Gonzalez (1979) found in his research that the only successful modality for the reduction of autonomic responses to stress in inmates was the system that involved self-concept and self-esteem enhancement. Bornstein, et al. (1979) found that inmates experiencing Interpersonal Effectiveness Training were able to demonstrate improved inter-personal skills.

Speas (1979) found that an experience-based learning model to develop job-seeking skills was much more effective

than alternative methods that excluded roleplaying and the use of video feedback. Davis (1976) and others utilized Human Relations Training to enable inmates to effectively discriminate between helpful and non-helpful behavior. They also made positive gains in their work. Tausch (1975) and co-psychologists utilizing Sensitivity Training, found that prisoners felt more psychic improvement and demonstrated more emotionality than other group participants which suggests that prisoners can learn to express their feelings under appropriate conditions.

Rootes (1974), in a program designed to teach the behavior characteristics of high achievement-motivation, found that he could significantly improve inmate work performance reports.

Macht, Siedek, and Druni (1977) found that inmates participating in a work-release program had developed an enhanced self-concept over others. They also found that inmates who were active in social organizations possessed significantly higher morale.

Murray and Hickel (1979) have developed a thirty-hour program for inmates entitled "How to Sell Yourself

in the Job Market" and for others, a "Life Skills" program. Both programs were found to be helpful to inmates seeking jobs.

Jacob (1976) evaluated the Growth Orientation Program of Stack and found that some inmates profited in the areas of tolerance, self-control, and socialization.

Kandel (1976) demonstrated that inmates' academic performance could be greatly enhanced when given an enriched incentive schedule. Barrett, Blanchard, and others (1973) also found that incentives were successful in improving attendance in remedial programs, noting that the net long-range effect was significant academic improvement. These studies reflect the importance of creating incentives for inmates. However, it may be difficult for inmates to be aware of incentives that might exist for them. Consequently, a program that heightens inmate self-awareness may assist him to discover appropriate incentives for change in his life.

Kimball's (1979) findings indicated significant positive effects in inmate re-socialization when they experienced a wilderness experience. Dennison (1979) recommends that inmates receive Life Skills Training.

Phillips, Fixsen, and Wolf (1973), utilizing a program based on modern behavior theory, successfully reduced recidivism in delinquent adolescents by teaching them behavior competencies that were unlearned in childhood. This study demonstrated the behavior deficiency of the adolescent delinquent, providing yet another argument for the utilization of laboratory learning as a preferred learning system for inmates. These studies and others reflect the attitude that inmates are socially disadvantaged and not necessarily suffering from pathological disorders.

A number of studies have been conducted which assess the degree of Internal-External Control in inmates as described by Rotter (1966). Reker (1977), Inger (1977), Groh and Goldenberg (1976), Levenson (1975), and Drasgow, Drasgow, Palau and Taibie (1974) have all contributed to knowledge of inmate behavior on this variable. For example, Levenson found that inmates serving longer sentences had a much higher expectancy of control than those serving shorter sentences. Drasgow, et al. found that the Internal Locus of Control variable is characteristic of success while Reker determined that inmates with

"clearer meaning and greater determination in Life" perceived themselves as more in control of their lives and less the "victims of chance" (p. 691). Peters (1970) determined that a greater proportion of "internally controlled" inmates will participate in occupational education programs than will those defined as "externally controlled".

The knowledge gained from research on the Internal-External control variable on inmates is helpful. The findings of Peters and others suggest the need to create interventions which will help to develop a higher degree of Internal control in inmates. Internal control can be translated into a plausible objective that can be included in Laboratory Education workshops.

The studies referred to above reveal an increased concern for humane, practical research with inmates, from which meaningful programs can possibly be constructed. The research also tends to be process-oriented and involves programs which have developed from assumptions about inmate behavior that stem from a social theory of learning. The inmates' need for self-esteem, self-knowledge, an improved self-concept, and improved

interpersonal skills may also be viewed as a series of behavioral deficiencies that stem from limited social experiences in his past. The findings of some of the research cited above tend to support the theory that these deficiencies can be overcome and that in doing so, the inmate becomes more functional in his attempts to reach his goals. It becomes apparent that if we are to increase the inmates' capacity to take full advantage of his education and training while incarcerated and after release, we must begin to provide them with programs that will enable them to remove some, if not all, of their behavioral deficiencies. To do this effectively, however, each inmate must somehow learn that he stands to profit from that process and must be actively involved in determining for himself what his learning should consist of. It should not be imposed, the way so many programs have been in the past. It is only through persistent experimentation and through listening to the inmates themselves, that we will find ways of developing relevant, meaningful and productive programs from which inmates can benefit permanently.

Education and training are viewed as imperative to the post-release success of inmates (Clark, 1964; Silberman, 1964; Toch, 1975). Education programs have continued to increase at all levels in most penal institutions (New York Times, 1981). As inmates educational activity increases, the potential for direct, positive influence on inmate behavior also increases. Due to program limitations, (mentioned earlier) the positive influences on inmate behavior through participation in educational programs has been limited to the side effects on indirect gains from the process. A report by Travis (1978) indicates that college-enrolled student-inmates were very receptive to involving themselves directly with a program designed to develop their interpersonal skills and their motivation.

Educators from outside the institution have been identified as having an advantage in working with inmates as they have not been "institutionalized," as have permanent staff members. As outsiders, they may have fewer biases towards inmates and tend to experience them under more ideal conditions.

Travis (1978) learned that inmates view outside educators very differently from permanent institutional staff. Outsider educators are viewed as ombudsmen, sources of information, and as supportive allies. This view of educators provides them with distinct advantages in their efforts to influence inmate thought and behavior. College faculty and staff represent a vast resource of talent, suitable for training to meet varied inmate needs. What remains to be determined is exactly how to best utilize these resources.

DeJoie (1979) sees colleges and universities as clearly responsible for the social education of prisoners. In her recent article she identifies prisoners as a major source of human potential that has remained untargeted by colleges and universities. DeJoie sees the need for a specific method to foster a positive self-image, and a "repertoire of behavioral choices and options" (p. 247) in inmates if they are to overcome the obstacles they will face upon release. DeJoie writes:

Education with social value is necessary for adequate prison reformation. This presupposes a social education program which is an attempt to

reorient the incarcerated or community-based offender with normative and socially acceptable attitudes and values of society at large. (p. 249)

An individual, through socialization and re-socialization, incorporates into himself norms, attitudes and values and applies them in accordance with his self concept of societal expectation. Social education attempts to transfer, through revision or deletions, norm-violating behavior into socially acceptable behavior. A fundamental ingredient in the process is to improve self-image. (p. 250)

The next section of this chapter examines Laboratory Education as a potential source of technology for the re-education and/or re-socialization of inmates.

Some Elements of Laboratory Education

Some of the recent research with inmates tends to illustrate many of the principles and objectives of Laboratory Education, which is defined on page 93. The findings of these studies are encouraging and tend to

demonstrate the validity of experiential learning for use with inmate groups. Many of these same studies are also primarily concerned with attempts at assisting inmate learning at both the intra-personal and inter-personal level.

During the past 20 years, Laboratory Education has developed into a specialization and is now regarded as an educational discipline. There are numerous training programs available throughout the country, in which one can learn the skills of a laboratory educator. Numerous practitioners, frequently called "Trainers," continue to expand their skills, as well as the knowledge, techniques, and methodologies that are a part of the field. These same practitioners have also continued to expand the range of application of the methodology. In spite of the fact that Laboratory Education has come of age in our society, it has been virtually overlooked as a possible source of learning for inmates.

It was stated earlier that Existential Therapy and Rational Therapy were preferable to traditional therapies for inmates as they dealt with the individual from his own frame of reference and stayed primarily in the "here

and now". Laboratory Education is bound by these same guiding principles. It provides an existential experience and it utilizes the individual's perception of his own experience as a source of input. "Laboratory education puts the onus for learning on the individual to create through his own behavior and skills the kind of human situation from which he can learn what is meaningful for him" (Blumberg, 1977, p. 14). These characteristics distinguish laboratory education from traditional learning experiences which call for the absorption of material from a person in a position of authority (Blumberg, 1977).

Meta-goals that guide and underpin a laboratory learning experience are defined by Blumberg (1977) as: "1) expanded consciousness and recognition of choice, 2) a spirit of inquiry, 3) authenticity in interpersonal relations, and 4) a collaborative conception of the authority relationship" (Blumberg, 1977, p. 17).

During early experimentation with student-inmates, utilizing laboratory education techniques, the researcher discerned that participants were able to make a significant transition in their level of communication. They

shifted from superficial institutionalized responses to each other to meaningful, shared communication in the course of one day (Travis, 1978). This observation provides support for the contention that inmates are ready and willing to communicate meaningfully, given the proper circumstances. These observations tend to substantiate Toch's (1975) findings that inmates were able to talk openly given the assurance that the information would not be used against them by authorities. This is viewed as a compelling reason for the use of professionals from outside the institutions in attempts at altering inmate behavior.

The Laboratory Education experience is an existential experience and therefore it is a-historical in nature. This factor enables participants to explore their immediate responses and feelings while joined in the experience, without the pressure to "reveal all," a norm that is typically associated with group counseling and group therapy. As an existential experience, Laboratory Education is concerned with the participant's "sense of being" at the time. Maslow (1968) wrote:

No theory of psychology will ever be complete

which does not centrally incorporate the concept that man has his future within him, dynamically active at this present moment. In this sense the future can be treated as a-historical. (p. 15)

Stating that the future is "unknown, that habits, defenses, and coping mechanisms are doubtful and ambiguous since they are based on past experiences," Maslow concluded that only "flexibly creative persons and those capable of facing reality without fear can manage the future" (p. 15-16).

Maslow provides strong support for creating existential experiences for inmates. He describes existentialism as "dealing radically with the human predicament presented by the gap between human aspiration and human limitations." Defining this gap as an identity problem, Maslow concludes that each individual is at once "actuality and potentiality" (p. 10). Existential psychology to Maslow also places emphasis on the use of experiential knowledge as a foundation on which abstract knowledge is built.

An inherent value of the existentiality of laboratory learning is that it enables participants to become available to each other while helping to release them

from earlier ties (Egan, 1970). Due to the nature of their environment, inmates are not given to sharing feelings, or prone to self-disclosure. These characteristics are obstructive to the development of self-awareness (Grambs, 1972). Schindler-Rainman and Lippitt also indicate that increased self-awareness can aid individuals in their communication ability and improve perceptivity, as well as aid the individual to discover "the emotions and feelings that help or hinder task-focused problem-solving" (p. 216-217).

Learning activities should also increase a learner's ability to be self-evaluative, self-critical, and self-helping as he is helped to develop the values, skills, and tools that support these functions. When awareness is activated according to Schindler-Rainman and Lippitt the learner may be "helped to achieve more awareness of casual connections between goals and means to perceive more alternative paths of action for himself than he is now able to perceive" (p. 217).

Benne, et al. (1975) believes that two important characteristics of laboratory education methods are the "integration of personal learning and planned action for

social improvement and the "attempt to deal integratively with the affective, valulative, and cognitive, the inner and the outer, dimensions of behavioral, personal or social change" (p. 21).

"...programs of laboratory learning and changing attempt a melding and merging of 'process' and 'content' data in building a workable basis for planned changes in human behavior and human systems" (p. 22).

Benne, et al. wrote: "Perhaps most fundamentally, the method (laboratory education) is a way by which people are helped to learn how to learn about themselves" (p. 25).

Bradford (1964) in discussing three goals of T-groups, provides us with goals that are also relevant to a laboratory education experience for student-inmates. They are "learning how to learn," "learning how to give help," and "developing effective membership" (p. 191-193).

Proponents and practitioners of laboratory education view re-education as "a process of personal and cultural renewal and reconstruction rather than a transmission of a heritage from the past" (Bradford, p. 26).

Self-disclosure has been discussed earlier as a key concern for inmates as they fear the misuse of information about them, by others. In the existential experience, the emphasis is on the disclosure of feelings at the time, not about past deeds or history. Consequently, self-disclosure must be a gradually emerging process within each individual as it is a key to self-understanding and self-acceptance. Sidney Jourard (1973) wrote:

Full disclosure of the self to at least one other significant human being appears to be one means by which a person discovers not only the breadth and depth of his needs and feelings, but also the nature of his self-affirmed values. (p. 544).

Jourard believed that withholding self-disclosure imposes a certain stress on people. Self-disclosure provides a source of data to each individual which has often been overlooked according to Jourard. There are a variety of activities which can facilitate self-disclosure in a gradual, integrated manner within laboratory education.

Egan's (1970) description of his "Contract Groups" includes an extensive examination of the self-disclosure issue. He states: "Facts about our self are not important

in themselves; the fact that through them you translate yourself to others is important" (p. 56). Egan does not ask for the revelation of secrets or past life in his contract group, choosing to focus on the importance of the individual, not their secrets. Egan feels that self-disclosure encourages others to get involved with you. He also believes in the importance of linking self-disclosure to the here and now. The researcher is reminded of the fact that in his numerous T-group experiences, the high level of intimacy that exists due to the disclosure of feelings is frequently devoid of any appreciable factual data about most members.

Egan also stresses that the use of feedback is helpful to participants' better understanding of their interpersonal abilities and limitations.

The process of developing self-awareness must be a gradually emerging experience during which participants are gradually put in touch with "latent, conceded, unconscious, repressed facts" (p. 222) according to Schindler-Rainman and Lippitt (1975), who see the critical importance of "developing an awareness of hidden agenda and of the defensive collusions within self, selves and

organizations, as well as inhibited needs and motives" as it relates to developing "diagnostic awareness" (p. 222). The development of "diagnostic awareness" described by these authors provides the key to "competence acquisition" described by Argyris, and is seen as essential to the student-inmate by the researcher.

Argyris (1973) views individuals seeking to increase their competence as "open" and those defending against the process as "closed". Argyris quotes Maslow's description of the former as "growth motivation". He describes the latter as "deficiency motivation". This concept is of particular concern regarding the utilization of laboratory education with inmates. The oppressive, stressful conditions of prison reduce the potential for trust while maintaining an environment which reinforces the inmate's "deficiency motivation". Prisoners learn adaptive survival skills but not necessarily interpersonal competence. Argyris states that "the individual will tend to be free to focus on competence-acquisition only to the extent that he feels his survival problems are solved (i.e., they do not control his present behavior)" (p. 557).

Summary

In this chapter I have briefly reviewed early approaches to the rehabilitation of criminals, cited their limited success, and provided the reader with an alternative way of understanding the underlying causes of criminal behavior. I have argued that criminal behavior stems from social origins and is not necessarily psychologically based as previously and as widely believed. I have also attempted to identify some of the needs that inmates manifest as a result of their background experience as well as from the effects of imprisonment, believing that these needs must be given careful consideration if alternative methods to positively alter inmate behavior are to be developed. I have identified that inmates are in need of support, improved self-images, feedback on their behavior, positive social experiences, heightened self-esteem, improved decision-making skills, and other intra-personal and inter-personal skills that they have been denied the opportunity to learn. I have also argued that the effects of education and training can be increased if these other needs are met.

In a partial review of the literature and in a review of recent research on inmate behavior, I have noted a trend toward efforts which reflect concern for re-education and/or re-socialization of inmates. These research efforts have conceptual foundations that are closely aligned with the principles and objectives of Laboratory Education. This literature and recent research reflects an attitude change which is now beginning to view the inmate as a social being with social needs to be met.

I have also presented a rationale for the employment of Laboratory Education as a preferred system to meet the social-learning needs of inmates as we are coming to understand them at both the intra-personal and inter-personal level.

Chapter IV of this dissertation presents an analysis of the data and the research findings. Chapter V discusses those findings and also contains recommendations for future research.

Chapter III

Introduction

This chapter contains the methodology and procedures employed in this study. It also contains the hypotheses for the study, a description of the instruments that were utilized, as well as the study's significance and limitations. Definitions specific to the research are also included.

Description of the Study

The study was designed to be exploratory in nature and to test certain assumptions regarding the capacity of college-enrolled inmates to learn at the affective level. The design of the study involved the facilitation of a Motivational Workshop designed by the researcher which was presented to the Experimental Group prior to the beginning of the semester. Pre-test and post-test data were attained on both the Experimental and the Control Groups which were made up of comparable subjects. Data was gained through the utilization of the Personal Orientation Inventory, the Rotter Internal-External Control Scale, and a Faculty Rating Scale of the researcher's design. These items are

described in Chapter III. Final grades were also compiled on all subjects.

Site of the Study

The site at which this study took place is a medium security prison known as the Fishkill Correctional Facility. It is a New York State Correctional Facility, located in Fishkill, New York. All activities that are a part of this study were conducted in a classroom in the basement of the central building, deep within the facility. The classroom is in an area which is set aside for educational purposes within the institution. The Motivational Workshop (the intervention) was conducted in a classroom prior to the beginning of the semester.

The site for this study was selected based on the researcher's affiliation with the sponsoring college, Dutchess Community College, where he is employed as a psychological counselor. The college sponsors the educational programs in which the inmates included in this study are enrolled full-time.

Method

This study sought to determine the extent to which a

Motivational Workshop of the researcher's design, affected student-inmate performance and personal growth during the course of their first full-time semester in a college program of study, while incarcerated. The study contained two groups of student-inmates. They were divided into the EXPERIMENTAL GROUP and the CONTROL GROUP. The Experimental Group participated in the Motivational Workshop, which was the designated intervention. The remainder of the students in the study comprised the Control Group which received no intervention or placebo.

Both groups were tested at the beginning and end of the semester during the fall and spring semesters. The tests utilized were the Personal Orientation Inventory (POI) and the Internal-External Control Scale (I-ECS). Participants from both groups were judged at the termination of the semester by their faculty. A Faculty Rating Scale of the researcher's design was employed. Grades for all participants were also recorded.

Description of Participants The subjects included in this study are incarcerated males, who as convicted felons, are serving sentences in excess of one calendar year. Most subjects had received sentences from two to five years

in length. The subjects were housed in the Fishkill Correctional Facility, Fishkill, New York, which is under the jurisdiction of the New York State Department of Corrections. All participants in the study were enrolled as first-time, full-time college students in a program that was provided by Dutchess Community College, Poughkeepsie, New York.

Each subject enrolled initially is enrolled in a required course of study entitled CSS 095 College Study Skills (See p. 94 for a description of the course.) All students enrolled in all courses of study were assigned to classes by the Coordinator for Inmate Education, a Dutchess Community College staff member.

Selection Procedure During the fall 1979 and the spring 1980 semesters 81 full-time student-inmates were enrolled initially in a total of five sections (classes) of CSS 095 College Study Skills. These students became the subjects contained in the study. They were designated as follows:

Experimental Group Prior to the beginning of the fall 1979 semester, one section of CSS 095 was chosen at random by the researcher to provide members for the Experimental Group. Just prior to the spring 1980 semester, another

administration of the Personal Orientation Inventory (POI) and the Internal-External Control Scale (I-ECS) was conducted. Immediately following the pre-test administration, the intervention was administered. The intervention, defined as a MOTIVATIONAL WORKSHOP, was of the researcher's design. It is described in detail in Appendix A. A definition of the workshop appears on page 10. The workshop was held in a classroom at the correctional facility where college classes are normally held.

During the first week of classes, the pre-test administration of the POI and the I-ECS was conducted with subjects in the CONTROL GROUP. The administration of the tests took place in a classroom during the first session.

The post-test administration of the POI and the I-ECS was conducted with both groups during the fourteenth week of class in their respective classrooms (in lieu of a class period). The Faculty Rating Scale (described in Appendix C) was administered immediately following the end of the semester during the fall and the spring. It was sent to the instructor's home with specific directions for completion and returned directly

to the researcher by mail.

Hypotheses

The specific hypotheses for this study are as follows:

1. Student-inmates exposed to a 24-hour Motivational Workshop at the onset of their college experience will show a significant increase on the Time Ratio of the Personal Orientation Inventory than other beginning student-inmates.
2. Student-inmates exposed to a 24-hour Motivational Workshop at the onset of their college experience will demonstrate a significant increase on the Support Ratio of the Personal Orientation Inventory than other beginning student-inmates.
3. Student-inmates exposed to a 24-hour Motivational Workshop at the onset of their college experience will show an increase in certain POI subscales including Spontaneity, Self-regard, Self-acceptance, Synergy, and the Capacity for Intimate Contact than student-inmates not exposed

to the program.

4. Student-inmates exposed to the 24-hour Motivational Workshop will show an increase in Internal Control as measured by the Internal-External Control Scale.
5. Student-inmates exposed to a 24-hour Motivational Workshop will attain higher faculty ratings on "attendance," "grades," "class participation," "work improvement," and "motivation," than control group members.
6. Student-inmates exposed to a 24-hour Motivational Workshop will attain higher grades in their courses than other newly-enrolled student-inmates.

Instrumentation

Instruments used in this study include: (1) The Personal Orientation Inventory (POI), (2) the Rotter Internal-External Control Scale (I-ECS), and (3) a Faculty Rating Scale (FRS), designed by the researcher.

Personal Orientation Inventory (POI) The POI developed by Shostrom (1974) purports to measure values and behaviors seen to be important in the development of self-actualization. The POI consists of "150 two-choice comparative value and behavior judgements" (p. 4). Each item is scored twice. One hundred and twenty-seven items are scored for one basic scale, Inner-Directed-Support. Twenty-three items are scored for Time Competence (basic scale). Time Competence ratio scores provide data to determine the degree to which the subject is "present" oriented. The Support ratio determines the degree to which an individual's "Reactivity Orientation" is toward others or self. All items are re-scored for ten subscales, all purported to measure a "conceptually important element of self-actualizing" (p. 4). The ten subscales include: Self-Actualizing Value (SAV), Existentiality (Ex), Feeling Reactivity (FR), Spontaneity (S), Self-Regard (SR), Self-Acceptance (SA), Nature of Man-Constructive (NC), Synergy (Sy), Acceptance of Aggression (A), and Capacity for Intimate Contact (C). The definitions of these scales and the number of items

comprising each scale are presented in Table I.

Test-re-test reliability coefficients (seven-day interval) based on a sample of 48 undergraduate college students, are $r=.71$ for the Time Competence (TC) scale and $r=.77$ for the Inner-Direction (I) scale. Coefficients for the subscales range from $r=.52$ to $r=.82$ (Shostrom, 1974). A copy of the instrument, along with reliability coefficients of all the scales, appear in Appendix C.

Table I

Definitions of the POI Scales and Subscales

Scale	Number of Items	Definition
Time Competence (TC)	23	Measures the degree to which individual lives in the present rather than in the past or future. Self-actualizing persons are those living primarily in the present, with full awareness and contact, and full feeling reactivity. They are able to tie the past and the future to the present in meaningful continuity, and their aspirations are tied meaningfully to present working goals. They are "time competent." In contrast,

Table I (Continued)

Definitions of the POI Scales and Subscales

<u>Scale</u>	<u>Number of Items</u>	<u>Definition</u>
Time Competence (Continued)		the "time incompetent" person lives primarily in the past--with guilts, regrets, and resentments--and/or in the future--with idealized goals, plans, expectations, predictions, and fears.
Inner- Direction (I)	127	Measures whether an individual's mode of reaction is characteristically "self" oriented or "other" oriented. Inner-, or self-directed persons are guided primarily by internalized principles and motivations while other-directed persons are, to a great extent, influenced by their peer group and other external forces.
<u>Subscale</u>		
Self- Actualizing Value (SAV)	26	Measures the affirmation of primary values of self-actualizing people.
Existen- tiality (Ex)	32	Measures the ability to situationally or existentially react without rigid adherence to principles. Existentiality measures one's flexibility in applying values or principles to one's life.

Table I (Continued)

Definitions of the POI Scales and Subscales

<u>Subscale</u>	<u>Number of Items</u>	<u>Definitions</u>
Feeling Reactivity (FR)	23	Measures sensitivity or responsiveness to one's own needs and feelings.
Spontaneity (S)	18	Measures freedom to react spontaneously, to be oneself.
Self-Regard (SR)	16	Measures affirmation of self because of worth or strength.
Self- Acceptance (SA)	26	Measures the affirmation or acceptance of oneself in spite of one's weaknesses or deficiencies.
Nature of Man-- Constructive	16	Measures the degree of one's constructive view of the nature of man.
Synergy (Sy)	9	Measures the ability to be synergistic--to transcend dichotomies and to see opposites of life as meaningfully related.
Acceptance of Aggression (A)	25	Measures the ability to ac- cept one's natural aggressive- ness--as opposed to defensive- ness, denial, and repression of aggression.
Capacity for Intimate Contact (C)	28	Measures the ability to develop contactful intimate relation- ships with other human beings unencumbered by expectations and obligations.

Internal-External Control Scale (I-EC Scale) The

Internal-External Locus of Control Scale developed by Rotter (1966) purports to measure an individual's orientation relative to locus of control. According to Rotter, an individual with high External Control will perceive his fate as controlled by others, by chance, and by fate. High Internal Control scores indicate an individual's belief that outcomes are contingent upon his own behavior. The I-E construct deals only with the individual's perception of contingency relationships between his own behavior and events that follow that behavior. There are 23 items to be scored.

An internal consistency coefficient of .70 (Kuder-Richardson) on 400 college students was obtained by Rotter. Test-re-test reliability coefficients of .72 and .55 were attained on two separate groups of college students after one and two month intervals respectively (Rotter, 1966).

Scoring The scale is hand-scored, according to a key. A low number of items scored according to the key indicate high Internal Control. A high number of

items indicate high External Control. The total number of items is 23. A copy of the scale and the scoring key appear in Appendix

Faculty Rating Scale (FRS) A simple rating scale was developed by the researcher to obtain measures on five variables. The variables are: Attendance (A), Grades (Achievement) (G), Class Participation (C), Work Improvement (W), and Motivation (M). Definitions for the variables are contained in Table II.

Each faculty member was asked to rate all students in his classes on all variables utilizing a simple sorting technique. All students were put into one of three categories on each variable, either "High," "Average," or "Low." A fourth category, "Drop," was provided for those students who did not complete the course. This category was used to distinguish between students who had withdrawn officially or merely stopped attending the class. A letter of request and directions for the rating procedure are contained in Appendix B.

Table II

Faculty Rating Scale

<u>Variable</u>	<u>Definition</u>
1. Attendance (A)	Regularly came to class and when absent offered an excuse acceptable to you as an instructor.
2. Grades (Achievement) (G)	Achieved a grade somewhat in keeping with his ability as you came to know and understand it.
3. Class Participation (C)	The student <u>appeared actively</u> involved in the classroom experience during the course. A shy person should not necessarily be rated low in this category.
4. Work Improvement (W)	The student showed improvement in the quality of his class work, assignments, and tests as time progressed--perhaps increases his potential for success as a student.
5. Motivation (M)	Student strived hard to complete the course and to achieve course objectives. He showed a willingness to work and appeared genuinely interested.

Method of Analysis

Data was collected on each subject which included pre-test and post-test scores of the Personal Orientation Inventory, pre-test and post-test scores on the Internal-External Control Scale, cumulative Faculty Rating Scale scores, final grades, and a corrected¹ Cumulative Point Average.

In order to test the hypotheses for this study, pre-test and post-test scores on the POI and the I-ECS were subjected to a Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA). T^2 -Tests (Hotelling) were also computed on certain data. Pearson Product-Moment Correlations were computed between certain post-test scores and the student-inmates' corrected Cumulative Point Average.

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1. The Cumulative Point Average (CPA) for individual students normally excludes grades earned in non-credit-bearing courses. In order to obtain a more complete picture of the student-inmates' academic achievement, CPA's were re-computed to include grades attained in all courses. These computations were performed by the researcher.

Definition of Terms

Motivational Workshop

For purposes of this study, the Motivational Workshop was the intervention to be utilized. It is a composite Laboratory Education experience of the researcher's design. The format and content is the result of three years of experimentation and evaluation with student-inmate groups at the Fishkill Correctional Facility. The materials to be utilized in the intervention are selected from a variety of sources common to Laboratory Educators. They have been widely used elsewhere. The design of the workshop is directed to specifically identified student-inmate needs. These needs include learning to set realistic goals, the use of feedback, experiencing team building, and

effective listening. Other needs of significance include the need to experience a helping, supportive relationship, the development of a support system, and the clarification of values relative to goals and the future.

The workshop is designed in keeping with the guidelines that have been established by leading Laboratory Educators including Dyer (1972), Benne (1975), Pfeifer and Jones (1974), Alschuler (1970) and others. (Described in Appendix A).

Student-Inmate

For purposes of this study, a student-inmate is an incarcerated male at the Fishkill (New York) Correctional Facility who is enrolled in college for the first time. He is also enrolled as a full-time student or full-time equivalent in a program of study offered by Dutchess Community College. He is enrolled in either the Business Administration or

Liberal Arts (Social Sciences) curriculum. He is also a high school graduate or possesses a high school equivalency diploma. Approximately 80 percent of the student-inmates are minority-group members. Most are either Black or Puerto Rican.

Trainer

In this study the role of Trainer is filled by the researcher. The researcher has lengthy and varied experience in the organization planning and presenting of a variety of workshops for a wide range of client populations. He has been extensively involved in T-groups as a Trainer. He has taught Achievement-Motivation courses for the past nine years. He also has experience with Leadership Training and has taught Group Dynamics courses. His program of study included an internship in Laboratory Education. He has three-years experience

with student-inmate groups and has spent the past twenty years as counselor, Director of Guidance, and part-time counselor educator. He is a white middle-aged male.

Co-Trainer

In this study the Co-trainer was a Black male who is a college-enrolled inmate. He has been training under the supervision of the researcher for the past three years. He has been actively involved throughout this time in the planning, evaluation, and revision of the intervention. He has an active interest in the project and upon completion of his course of study, he plans to be a counselor to minority group students.

He is and has been a Dean's List student.

Laboratory Education

Blumberg (1973) provides a definition for Laboratory Education which is a

working definition for the purposes of this study. It is as follows: "a learning environment centered upon personal, interpersonal group or organization problems, in which the participants can learn and change through an inductive process based on experience. Thus, the term 'laboratory' derived from the notion that the learning environment is experimental to the extent that the participants are encouraged to experiment beyond their usual pattern of interacting with individuals and groups" (p. 15). An addition to this definition is described by Benne (1975) who states that Laboratory Education is also an attempt to deal with the affective, evaluative and cognitive.

CSS 095
College Study
Skills

This non-credit course is required of all newly-enrolled inmates in the Dutchess Community College program at the

Fishkill Correctional Facility. It is a four-credit equivalent course described in the 1979-81 Dutchess Community College catalog as follows:

"Identification and analysis of attitudes, knowledge, and study skills contributing to academic success in college. Diagnosis of strengths and weaknesses of individual students in conjunction with educational and occupational counseling. Practical work with techniques of scheduling time, notetaking, textbook reading, using the library, writing themes and reports, and taking examinations. The course includes some review of basic grammar and language skills, as well as an introduction to selected topics from the social and natural sciences."

Inmate
Education
Coordinator

The Inmate Educational Coordinator at the location in which the study took place is a full-time administrator, who through his employment at Dutchess Community College, is responsible for all aspects of the administrative responsibilities inherent in a developing inmate education program that services inmate populations in two New York State correctional facilities at Fishkill and Green Haven. He schedules classes, students, and facilities for the program and oversees supportive services. He also works directly with the Director of Financial Aids of the college, as well as the Deputy Director of Services at the institutions.

Significance of the Study

The exploration of Laboratory Education as a source of behavioral change in inmates is significant for several important reasons. (1) Most research on inmate behavior

and inmate behavior change has been based on traditional psychological theory, which are proving to be unfounded.

(2) This study focuses on the "re-education" of inmates and emanates from a contemporary "existential" theory of behavior change that is well-documented with other populations. (3) The study examines the validity of Laboratory Education techniques with a non-traditional population of inmates in a maximum security prison. (4) It provides evaluative data regarding the importance of supportive systems to inmates in educational programs.

(5) The study examines the important issues of having a "laboratory" in which to practice behavior that is newly-learned from the intervention. (6) This study represents a viable and practical alternative to traditional interventions that have proven ineffective in inmate behavior change.

Limitations of the Study

The subjects contained in this study are primarily from the Metropolitan New York area, 85 percent of whom are Black or Puerto Rican. Consequently, the findings

of this study are not generalizable to other inmate populations throughout the country. The subjects in the study are all full-time college students, reflecting only 2.5 percent of the population from which they were drawn; therefore, the findings are not generalizable to either that population or other inmate populations throughout the State of New York. This study is also limited to the measurement of the short-term effects of the intervention due to the unavailability of the subjects for follow-up contact. As the students are all newly-enrolled, the findings of this study may not be generalized to previously enrolled student-inmates. Further, this study is limited to male subjects and, therefore, the findings do not apply to women. The findings of this study are not necessarily generalizable to inmates retained in training programs or to inmates in work or study release programs.

This chapter has presented a description of the research design, the methodology, a description of the instrumentation, and the hypotheses for the study. It also presented a series of definitions pertinent to the

study, the method for the data analysis, and the study's significance and limitations. The results and an analysis of the investigation will be presented in the next chapter.

Chapter IV

Results

This chapter is divided into three segments. The first part contains a statistical analysis of the data generated in the study relative to each hypothesis, each of which is considered in turn. The hypotheses are listed in Chapter III on page 80. The second portion of the chapter contains some of the subjective evaluative responses that were provided by members of the Experimental Group. The third part discusses the methodological issues that are generated by the research.

To determine the extent to which variance occurred between the Experimental Group (Group 1) and the Control Group (Group 5), the pre-test scores on certain data were subjected to a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) and to Hotelling's T^2 test. The Null hypothesis ($H=1=5$) was accepted. No significant differences were found on three variables; pre-test scores on the Time ratio and the Support ratio of the POI and pre-test scores on the Internal-External Control Scale, subjected to the manipulation provided F ratios of .122 $P>.05$. (See Table III.)

Hypotheses 1, 2, and 3 predicted significant increases in the post-test scores of the Experimental Group on the Time ratio, the Support ratio, and certain sub-scales of the POI.

Hypothesis 4 predicted an increase in internal control for Experimental Group members as measured by the Rotter Internal-External Control Scale.

Hypothesis 5 predicted that Experimental Group members would attain higher faculty ratings on five variables, Attendance, Grades, Class Participation, Motivation, and Work Improvement.

To determine whether or not these hypotheses were sustained, all data for both groups (1 and 5) were subjected to a multivariate analysis of covariance.¹ Multivariate T-tests (Hotelling T^2) were employed to compute F ratios. (See Table 1.)

Hypothesis 1

Hypothesis 1 predicted that Group 1 members would demonstrate significant score increases on the Time ratio (POI) as compared to members of Group 5. This

1. SPSS Program, utilizing options 1, 2, 5, 6, 12, 15 was executed.

hypothesis was not sustained. Data analyses indicated that no significant difference was attained. Pre-test means for Time ratio scores were 1 to 2.78 and 1 to 1.95 for Group 1 and 5 respectively, while post-test scores for Group 1 had a mean ratio of 1 to 1.80 and for Group 5 a mean of 1 to 1.97. (See Table IV.)

Hypothesis 2

Hypothesis 2 predicted that Experimental Group members (Group 1) would demonstrate increased scores on the Support ratio (POI) over Control Group members (Group 5). This hypothesis was not sustained. Pre-test mean ratio scores for Group 1 were 1:2.03 and Group 5, 1:1.79 respectively. The post-test means were: Group 1, 1:2.20 and Group 5, 1:2.30. Although the means for both groups increased in the predicted direction, the increases were not significant. (See Table IV, page 104.) Support ratio scores for the Experimental Group increased from 1:1.9 to 1:2.20, while ratio scores for the Control Group increased from 1:1.51 to 1:2.35. The increase was greater in the Control Group than in the Experimental Group.

To determine the actual significance of scores attained by both the Experimental and Control Group members

Table III

Difference Between Pre- and Post-test Scores for
Time and Support Ratios of the POI

		Experimental Group N=22				Control Group N=26			
		Mean	S.D.	(Diff.) Mean	2-Tail Prob.	Mean	S.D.	(Diff.) Mean	2-Tail Prob.
<u>Time</u>									
<u>Ratio</u>									
Pre-									
test	5.65*	1.73				6.28	1.41		
				.136*	.787			.123**	.819
Post-									
test	5.79	1.92				6.40	1.98		
 <u>Sup-</u>									
<u>port</u>									
<u>Ratio</u>									
Pre-									
test	1.17	.60				1.63	.92		
				.381*	.119			.638**	.068
Post-									
test	1.55	1.04				2.27	1.30		

* Mean scores are "Ratio Scores". Ex. 1:5.65

** df=21

*** df=25

Table IV

Pre-test and Post-test Means and Standard Deviations
for the Time and Support Ratios of the POI and
the Internal-External Control Scale

	Pre-test Mean	S.D.	Post-test Mean	S.D.
<u>Experimental Group (N=19)</u>				
Time Ratio	1:278*	2.34	1:1.806	1.09
Support Ratio	1:1.96	.444	1:206	1.631
Internal- External Control	6.63	2.73	6.68	2.750
<u>Control Group (N=10)</u>				
Time Ratio	1:1.956	1.41	1:1.97	1.126
Support Ratio	1:1.512	.906	1:2.35	2.183
Internal- External Control	8.87	4.30	8.90	2.13

*Expressed as ratio scores

on the Time ratio and Support ratio sub-tests of the POI, several calculations were made. The significance of the post-test ratio scores on these variables is defined by the degree to which the subject attained a score that moved toward an "ideal ratio score" on either of the variables. Shostrom (1974) defines an "ideal ratio score" for the Time ratio as 1:8 and for the Support ratio as 1:3. For a fuller explanation see: Shostrom (1974) and also Appendix C.

The mean of the differences between ratio scores attained and ideal ratio scores were subjected to a two-tailed t-test. No significant difference was found between the Experimental and the Control Group on either the Time ratio scores or the Support ratio scores.

($P > .05$ See Table V.)

Hypothesis 3

Hypothesis 3 predicted that subjects in the Experimental Group (1) would attain significantly higher post-test scores than members of the Control Group (5) on Spontaneity, Self-regard, Synergy, and the Capacity for Intimate Contact, all of which are sub-scales on the POI. Data obtained on these sub-scales were subjected to a

Hotelling T^2 test to determine the significance of the difference between pre-test and post-test scores of the two groups.

The results of this manipulation are shown in Table V. A significant difference was attained only on sub-test variable, Spontaneity by the Experimental Group. A coefficient of .030 was attained ($df=18$, $P>.05$). Other comparisons resulted in t-ratios of .403 to .894 for both the Experimental and Control Groups on the sub-scale scores subjected to analysis. Consequently, none of the differences between pre- and post-scores on the sub-tests, Self-regard, Synergy, and Capacity for Intimate Contact were statistically significant.

Hypothesis 4

Hypothesis 4 predicted that subjects in the Experimental Group (1) would attain significantly higher post-test scores on the Internal-External Control Scale than Control Group (5) subjects. The univariate F tests with 1.21 degrees of freedom produced an F-ratio of .079 which

Table V

Comparison of Pre- and Post-test POI Sub-scale Scores

	Experimental Group N=19			Control Group N=15		
POI Sub-scales	Mean	S.D.	2-Tail Prob.	Mean	S.D.	2-Tail Prob.
<u>Spontaneity</u>						
Pre-test	12.21	1.87	.030***	11.53	1.18	.682*
Post-test	11.21	2.12		11.86	2.41	
<u>Self-regard</u>						
Pre-test	13.36	1.60	.630**	13.13	1.59	.670
Post-test	13.15	2.06		12.86	2.38	
<u>Synergy</u>						
Pre-test	6.26	1.09	.725	5.86	1.12	.894
Post-test	6.36	.95		5.93	1.58	
<u>Capacity for Intimate Contact</u>						
Pre-test	18.94	2.60	.528	17.66	3.22	.403
Post-test	18.52	2.85		16.86	3.98	

* df=18

** df=14

*** Significant P .05

was not significant ($P > .05$). The hypothesis was not sustained although some evidence exists that the movement of the scores was in the preferred direction.

Table VI
Comparison of Post-test Sub-scales of
the POI Between Groups

POI Sub-scales	Experimental N=22		Control N=18		2-Tail Prob.
	<u>Mean</u>	<u>S.D.</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>S.D.</u>	
Post Spontaneity	11.15	2.08	11.72	2.32	.429*
Self-regard	13.15	2.00	12.72	2.84	.593
Self-accept.	14.05	3.72	13.66	3.75	.754
Synergy	6.40	.94	6.11	1.49	.475
Capacity for Inti. Contact	18.80	3.03	16.88	3.93	.101

* $df=36$

Hypothesis 5

Hypothesis 5 predicted that Experimental Group members (1) would attain higher faculty ratings on five variables than Control Group members. The variables were: Attendance, Grades, Class Participation, Motivation, and Work Improvement. This hypothesis was not sustained. However, the mean combined ratings for Experimental Group members did exceed the mean combined ratings of the Control Group by a narrow margin. The mean for the Experimental Group was computed to be 2.14 while the mean for the Control Group was computed at 2.02. This data does not include all ratings for all students in all courses.

Table VII

Combined Faculty Rating
Scale Mean Scores

Experimental Group	Control Group
N=19	N=15
2.14	2.02

Hypothesis 6

Hypothesis 6 predicted that members of the Experimental Group would attain higher grades than members of the Control Group. This hypothesis was sustained. The Experimental Group as a whole attained a Cumulative Point Average of 2.15. The Control Group as a whole attained a Cumulative Point Average of 1.79. All grades for all students were included. (See Table VII on p. 109 and Table VIII below.)

Table VIII

Final Cumulative Point Average
(CPA) for Both Groups

Experimental (N=22)

CPA* 2.15

Control (N=24)

CPA* 1.79

* Corrected Cumulative Point Average. See definition on page 89.

The CPA was correlated with post-test sub-scale scores on the POI for the Experimental Group (1) and for the Control Group (5), separately. Almost all of the correlations for both groups were negative. The exceptions were on sub-scale Synergy ($r=.174$) for Group 1 and on sub-scale Nature of Man ($r=.029$) for Group 5.

Although the correlations between variables were mostly negative, they differed substantially between groups on certain variables. Sizeable differences were noted on sub-scales Time Competence, Self-actualizing Value, Existentiality, and Capacity for Intimate Contact (see Table XI on p. 114), the negative correlations for the Experimental Group being lower.

The distribution of grades for both groups was relatively consistent. However, a disproportionate number of A grades were awarded to members of the Control Group by one instructor,¹ a factor which tends to skew the distribution.

Members of the Control Group accumulated a significantly greater number of F grades.

1. The instructor dispensed only A's, D's, and F's for which he was criticized by the college administration.

Table IX

Final Grade Distribution (All Courses)
of Student-Inmates

Grades Attained	Experimental Group	Control Group
	N = Number of Grades	N = Number of Grades
A	11	15
B	22	18
C	31	27
D	8	7
F	14	24
Withdrawal	14	14

The data were also manipulated to determine if relationships between the post-test results on the POI and the Internal-External Control Scale existed. The correlations produced ranged from low positive to low negative. They extended from an r of .1447, ($P=.204$) between Synergy (post-test) (POI sub-scale) and the I-ECS (post-test) score and an r of $-.2261$ between Self-regard (post-test) and I-ECS score (post-test).

Table X

Pearson (r) Correlations Between POI Sub-scale Scores
and Internal-External Control Scale Scores (Post-test)

Internal- External Control Scale Scores	Personal Orientation Inventory Sub-scales (Both Groups)			
	Sav	Ex	Fr	TS
	-.1616 p=.177	.0780 p=.328	-.1115 p=2.62	-.1226 p=.24
	Sr	Sa	Nc	Sy
	-.2261 p=.096	.0858 p=.312	-.1549 p=.312	.1447 p=.204
	Ta	Tc		
	.0508 p=.386	-.1906 p=.129		

Table XI
Pearson Correlations (r) Between
CPA and Post-test Sub-scales
of the POI

Post-test POI Sub-scales	Experimental Group N =	Control Group N =	Difference
Time Competence	.175	-.397	.572
Inner- Directedness	-.414	-.609	.185
Self-actualizing Value	-.351	-.576	.226
Existentiality	-.232	-.659	.427
Feeling Reactivity	-.338	-.340	.002
Self-regard	.035	-.215	.250
Spontaneity	-.365	-.171	.194
Self-acceptance	-.174	-.564	.128
Nature of Man	-.157	.029	
Synergy	.174	-.270	.096
Acceptance of Aggression	-.310	-.433	.133
Capacity, Intimate Contact	-.194	-.528	.334

Subjective Evaluations

At the end of each of the semesters during which this study was conducted, some members of the Experimental Group completed subjective evaluations. (See Appendix C) The responses to the items on the evaluation form were essentially positive and reflected considerable optimism. Many of the responses also clearly reflect increased self-awareness and increased self-understanding. The following section of this chapter contains selected responses of Experimental Group members, quoted directly from the evaluation forms. The responses are separated into three categories as follows:

- 1) Self-knowledge and insight into self
- 2) Clarification of immediate and long-term goals and goal setting
- 3) Reflected learning regarding communication, support, feedback, and trust.

Self-Knowledge and Insight Into Self

"I have admitted to myself many of my shortcomings,
and now I'm positively striving to remove them."¹

1. All responses are typed as originally written.

"The stigma of holding no titles other than an undesirable discharge from the Navy and a record of being a ex-convict triggered me toward bettering myself and my future."

(Have you learned about yourself?) "I have! To know my potentials and how to go about setting my goals in life!"

"I am better organized, more patient, and more understanding of myself. I now differentiate between my needs and my wants."

(I have learned) "That basically my same thoughts are a part of many others same thoughts. That me and many (others) want the same out of life. That intellectually I can speak on other levels."

"I understand my abilities and now have a better perspective and understanding of my present abilities and potentials."

"I have always knew what my capabilities were, and I knew that I could do anything I attempted, but I made the mistake of letting lifes hardships cast a shadow over my mind. A big mistake."

"I never did express my thoughts much, because my mother was very strict and she raised me to speak only when spoken to. I find that sharing my thoughts takes a big load off me. It help to relieve a lot of tension."

"I am very grateful for the workshop. Because until I attended the first two classes, I did not know why or how I ended up in Jail. Through the workshop I came to realize that I lost touch with myself. My loss of identity caused me to play a role outside my character, so now that I know where I went wrong, I will not make the mistake again!"

"My learning how to communicate with others had definitely triggered my learning. I have learned more about myself by accepting myself fully; and by being able to relate to others as well as myself. I feel strongly that this will always be of great help in the future, because it is important to be able to relate to others and understand them and their feelings, attitudes just as well as your own feelings and attitudes."

"I can be more trusting with others than I ever thought possible for me. I share many of the same thoughts

with my peers. I have no one to fear other than myself."

Clarification of Immediate and Long-Term Goals and Goal-Setting

An objective of the Motivational Workshop (the intervention) is to assist participants to learn about goal-setting and to begin to understand the relationship between their behavior on a daily basis and its effect on the attainment of both long-term and short-term goals. As noted in Chapter II, the oppressive environment that is found in most prisons inhibits the development of motivation in inmates and also serves to discourage them from setting goals. However, the researcher believes that inmates who are attending college classes are in a position to set clear attainable goals and to evaluate the manner and extent in which they work toward them. The responses that are quoted in the next segment provide clear evidence that participants in the Experimental Group had learned to more clearly relate the effect of their behavior to the potential attainment of goals. Other respondents also became more aware of the importance of having goals. Some of the responses were as follows:

"I realize that I must always set realistic goals for myself; and I must discipline myself, and not let anyone or anything get in my way to prevent me from accomplishing my task."

Another individual responded to the question on the evaluation form as follows: "I have put a greater emphasis and a much higher priority on better understanding myself. Because I realize that once I gain control of my being, there is no place I can't go or anything I can't do."

"I have! To know my potentials, and now to go about setting goals in my life!

"I have learned a great deal about myself and have taken confidence and the initiative in expanding my goals. My future is now controlled by me, my goals are making ways for plans that will be attained for I know that only I can impede myself."

"By being completely honest with myself I have taken one giant step towards my goals. My motivation really hasn't been tested yet. But I sincerely feel when it is,

it will be above the challenge."

Reflected Learning Regarding Communication, Support,
Feedback, and Trust

Communication "I've learned that communication is very important, and I've learned how to share my thoughts with others and being able to communicate shows or displays a certain amount of energy."

"To be more open. I am generally a closed person!"

"I never did express my thoughts much because my Mother was very strict and she raised me to speak only when spoken to. I find that sharing my thoughts takes a load off of me. It helps to relieve a lot of tension."

"That basically my same thoughts are a part of many others' same thoughts. That me and many want the same out of life. That intellectually I can speak on other levels."

"That I can be trusting with others and really open up despite my negative surroundings."

"I can be more trusting with others than I ever

thought possible for me. I share many of the same thoughts with my peers."

Support "That in order to live the life I want I need the support of my family. That I am well-worth supporting. That I don't feel like less of a man for being supported. That the support I'm receiving I yearn to return."

"That spiritually and mentally I feel good about myself. That confidence breeds confidence and my hard work breeds satisfaction. That once I put my mind to something I can and will do it."

"It helps confidence, desire, comfort, and satisfaction in striving for education!"

"I've learned that support from another person gives me confidence, assurance and motivation within myself."

Feedback: Why is this important to you? "To realize a fraction of the potential that lies half asleep within me. To lay the groundwork and build a foundation for the kids. To live instead of exist. To be at peace with myself and secure in the knowledge that (name) has

made the most of his life."

"To motivate me more in my studies."

"Because no one can push you ahead in this world like yourself. It is I who must think and do for myself."

"Feedback helps me to know where I'm weak so that I can improve. It also lets me know where my strong points are, this helps me by letting me know that my efforts were fruitful."

Trust "For truth is trust and trusting each man gives and gets his due. You are not vulnerable as long as you have common sense and a sense of right and wrong. Trusting opens up the possibilities."

"Some what! Trust is hard to have in an institution."

"I learned that trust does not necessarily have to be earned. Trust is something I've learned to expend more of. It really makes conversations more meaningful when all facts are put forth. It opens new avenues up and induces others to trust also."

"Trust builds up my confidence."

Significant learning outcomes are expressed by Experimental Group members in numerous positive, powerful statements at several levels and in different categories. These categories are vitally linked to individual personal growth and the development of self-knowledge. They are also associated with socially facilitative behavior which is imperative to personal growth and the development of self-knowledge. For example, an individual's response in reference to support (see p. 121), "I've learned that support from another person gives me confidence, assurance and motivation within myself" and "That spiritually and mentally, I feel good about myself."

One of the major obstacles to the altering of individual social behavior is the unwillingness to accept feedback. This problem is greatly intensified in a prison environment where the norms against trust are so powerful. However, some participants in the Experimental Group did express positive feelings that resulted from increased trust. One individual stated that increased trust made conversation "more meaningful" and it "opened new avenues up" and induced others to trust also" (p. 122).

These subjective responses tend to support the original rationale for the study which views inmates as social beings, capable of changing their behavior through social experiences (The Motivational Workshop). These responses also suggest that while the behavioral norms appear to be very powerful and fixed in the prison environment, they are not totally impermeable. The responses indicate that individuals who have been conditioned by these norms can, under the right circumstances, overcome them. The issue of "manliness" in prison environments is a constant all-pervasive issue. Trust and giving or receiving support are perceived frequently as signs of weakness, yet one individual put it squarely when he said, "I don't feel any less like a man for being supported (p. 121).

Through increased communication at the interpersonal level Experimental Group members found that they had a lot in common with each other. It is readily apparent that communication at this level is imperative to the development of trust and the eventual sharing of feedback which were also accomplished by many Experimental Group members. This will be discussed more fully in Chapter V.

The development of self-knowledge was also evident in statements made by Experimental Group members. Statements such as, "I am better organized, more patient and more understanding of myself" and "I now differentiate between my needs and wants" clearly reflect an increase in self-knowledge.

The remainder of this chapter includes a discussion of the results of the study and the methodological issues that are raised due to the research.

Discussion of the Results

The first three hypotheses specified for examination in this study predicted significant increases in POI ratio scores and sub-scales which are purported to measure self-actualization. Hypothesis 1 predicted an increase on the Time ratio variable for the Experimental Group over the Control Group. Although the Experimental Group post-test scores were lower than the pre-test scores the difference was not statistically significant. Control Group post-test scores on the same variable were almost identical to pre-test scores.

Hypothesis 2 predicted that Experimental Group members would achieve significantly higher post-test scores on the Support ratio variable than the Control Group. This hypothesis was not sustained. Although ratio scores increased in the desired direction in both groups, the increases were not statistically significant.

Pre- and post-test Time ratio scores for both groups were far below the ideal of 1:8 which is calculated by Shostrom (1974) as ideal.

Scores attained by both groups in the Support ratio scale were identified as much closer to the ideal of 1:3 for both groups, although the increases were not calculated to be statistically significant for either group.

Hypothesis 3 predicted increased sub-scale scores on the POI by the Experimental Group. They include: Spontaneity, Self-regard, Synergy, and Capacity for Intimate Contact. A significant increase was attained only on the Spontaneity variable.

Hypothesis 4 predicted that Experimental Group members would attain significantly higher post-test scores on the Rotter Internal-External Control scale than Control Group members. Although scores indicated a

trend in the desired direction they were not statistically significant.

Hypothesis 5 predicted that Experimental Group members would out perform Control Group members on semester-end Faculty Rating Scales on which they were rated for Attendance, Grades, Class Participation, Motivation, and Work Improvement. Although the mean score for the combined ratings of the Experimental Group exceeded that of the Control Group, the difference was not statistically significant. Due to the fact that not all faculty rated all student-inmates in all courses, it is not possible to determine the full significance of the mean rating scores.

Hypothesis 6 predicted that Experimental Group members would out perform Control Group members academically. This hypothesis was sustained. The Experimental Group's combined CPA of 2.15 is perceived by the researcher as significant when contrasted to the Control Group's combined CPA of 1.79. The data attained in this study has shown that the instruments utilized have not proven to be effective measures of the behavioral changes that were anticipated in Experimental Group members. (Subjective

self-evaluations compiled on members of the Experimental Group tend to offset this lack of findings, however.)

The CPA for the Control Group is also somewhat inflated due to the fact that an instructor for two courses in that group submitted grades that contained an inordinately high number of A's.

It is also important to note that Experimental Group members acquired fewer F grades, (14) as compared to 24 for the Control Group (see p. 113). These findings are also perceived as significant. Close scrutiny of the final grade sheets by the researcher revealed that a large number of the F grades in the Control Group were given by instructors due to the student-inmates' failure to complete courses. It appears that Experimental Group members demonstrated greater persistence through the course of the semester than did their Control Group counterparts. Interestingly, the remainder of the grades attained by both groups were relatively equally distributed (see p. 113). If the skewed grade distribution of the Control Group, mentioned above, is taken into consideration the Experimental Group will show an even greater difference in grades produced in the predicted direction.

It was theorized that through participation in the Motivational Workshop the Experimental Group would, when linked to 15 weeks of college experience, produce behavioral changes that are commonly associated with self-actualization and are, therefore, measurable with instruments such as the POI and the Rotter Internal-External Control Scale. The data attained in this research contradicts those assumptions.

The researcher also theorized that a positive relationship between the sub-scale scores on the POI and final grades would emerge. Although the between-group contrast in grades is considerable, correlations between grades and POI sub-scale scores did not correlate positively in either the Experimental or Control Group. The limited data acquired on the Faculty Rating Scale made it difficult to draw conclusions regarding relationships between these data and POI sub-scale scores, Internal-External Control Scale scores, or grades.

From the results obtained on the POI it cannot be concluded that the intervention aided in increasing self-actualization. Furthermore, the results obtained do not indicate that student-inmates receiving the intervention

increased their internal control as measured by the Internal-External Control Scale. These results are in conflict with the results of some earlier studies such as Kimball (1979), Riker (1977), and Rootes (1974). These studies, however, dealt with fewer and more specific behavior variables, whereas this study attempts to measure behavior in a broader dimension.

The lack of between-group contrast in the post-test standardized test scores may well be attributable to powerful environmental factors which may have overridden the long-term effects of the intervention. First, it is likely that the effects of the classroom experiences over 15 weeks influences inmate behavior. Secondly, the overall impact of daily prison life may serve to offset the measurable effects of the intervention employed in this study. Subjective evaluations obtained from the Experimental Group tend, however, to contradict the data produced by the standardized tests.

It can be seen from the subjective statements that were gathered, that at least some members of the Experimental Group chose to make statements that are related to the concept of self-actualization as described by

Shostrom (1974). Responses which referred to such behavioral variables as feeling supported, developing trust, responding to feedback, and the development of self-knowledge are closely aligned with sub-scales found on the POI. In many instances, the subjective responses also reveal an association between an inmate's current behavior and his future.

Summary

Statements made by Experimental Group members reflect an increase in self-knowledge, a greater willingness to trust, a greater predisposition toward supportive behavior, and increased contact with their own feelings. These findings reflect greater positive changes in student-inmate behavior than the data generated by the POI and the Internal-External Control Scale. The combined grade averages of the Experimental Group exceeded that of the Control Group significantly while the difference in Faculty Ratings was shown to be only very slightly in favor of the Experimental Group.

Methodological Issues

Research such as that which was conducted and reported in this investigation is not without its problems. Numerous methodological issues are raised. The major thrust of the intervention was to effect positive, permanent behavioral change in inmate behavior just prior to and during his first semester of college while incarcerated. The structure of the research raises several issues. First, the instruments utilized in the study may not have the capability of measuring behavioral change as it was anticipated in this model for two reasons: 1) the changes are long-term developmental changes that may take longer than 15 weeks to be incorporated into an inmate's behavioral repertoire, and 2) the nature of the prison environment may preclude the opportunity for reinforcement of the behavioral change and, therefore, may prevent its internalization in certain cases.

Another methodological issue regarding this study is the researcher's inability to control the effects of the participant's classroom experience. While it is assumed that student-inmates in both groups were having

comparable classroom experiences, this is not known as fact. Although it is probably the case, one may speculate that members of one group or the other had either outstanding instruction or poor instruction, a factor which may have had a greater influence on behavior than the intervention. It is widely known that it is difficult to measure the effects of interventions such as the one employed in this study (Benne, 1968).

While it was assumed that the educational experience during the ensuing 15 weeks would positively reinforce the learning of the Experimental Group members, this is not known to be true. This question raises the issue of structuring for reinforcement which calls for a coordinated effort between the researcher and the instructors of the Experimental Group. It also calls for tighter controls on the development of supportive relationships between student-inmates in the Experimental Group. This would, however, necessitate a different basic design than the one employed in this study. It would also be difficult to accomplish under the conditions that are present at the site of this study.

Still another issue to examine is the use of self-

report instruments. As it appears that standardized instruments are not available for the accurate measurement of behavior change in this study, serious consideration must be given to alternative ways of measuring these anticipated changes. Two possible alternatives come to mind. Individual student-inmates might rate themselves both before and after the intervention, on such variables as trust, support, self-knowledge, etc. The post-intervention self-ratings could then be validated against ratings by other men that the individual had contact with. However, it is recognized that self-report instruments are not without their limitations. This method could be built into the procedures and be included as part of the overall intervention. Inmates are, no doubt, fully capable of perceiving behavior changes in each other.

As mentioned in the discussion of the results, the Faculty Ratings were not completed by all faculty which places a limit on these results and raises another issue. An improved method of involving the faculty in the research would call for more sustained contact with them by the researcher. This could produce faculty ratings

both early and late in the semester after a brief training session.

The behavioral objectives to which the intervention addresses itself are outlined in Appendix A. These objectives are perceived to be readily translatable into student-inmate behavior which is perceptible. However, as mentioned previously, the accurate measurement of behavioral change of this nature is elusive. Consequently, social scientists must continue to search for more accurate means of measuring these kinds of behavioral changes.

Chapter V

Introduction

The final chapter of the dissertation is presented in two parts. The first part deals with the implications that this study raises for future research. The second part discusses some of the implications of this study for inmate educators and corrections officials.

In Chapters I and II of this dissertation some of the causes of crime were identified. The United States, through its continuing social inequality, indirectly, if not directly, fosters and maintains the growth of criminal behavior. The individuals most likely to turn to a life of crime are the poverty-stricken and minority group members who are most dramatically affected by the negative social conditions they experience. Carlson (1976) believes these conditions have formed the bedrock for the creation of deviant sub-cultures that produce criminals. Carlson also believes that criminal behavior is fostered by one's immediate social environment rather than global factors. More recently, theorists have concluded that most of the criminal behavior that exists is caused by a

combination of the criminals' past social experiences (see Chapters I and II). However, corrections officials, for the most part, continue to deny criminals (inmates) as social beings. Recent trends in corrections call for increases in the length of sentences, fewer paroles, and a reduction in privileges for inmates as tighter security is sought in prisons due to overcrowded conditions. These dehumanizing conditions only serve to mitigate against the possibility of positively altering inmate behavior through a re-socialization process. Obviously, if the origins of criminal behavior are lodged in a faulty social system which prevents the socialization of certain individuals who then become socially deviant or criminals, the methodology most likely to successfully re-train them away from a continuing life of crime lies in a re-socialization process. The remainder of this dissertation addresses the numerous implications that exist for future researchers, for inmate educators, and for corrections officials who share the awesome responsibility for inmate behavioral change and the reduction of recidivism rates.

Implications for Future Research

Those who would do research with inmate populations must create and maintain efforts which directly reflect more recent theories regarding the causation of criminal behavior. There is little need to continue to complete descriptive studies of inmate populations as the results of these studies have not tended to contribute to changes in inmate behavior. If more current theories of the causation of criminal behavior as outlined in Chapter II are accepted, then researchers must develop and conduct studies which parallel these theories. For guidance, Kennedy and Kerber (1973) provide us with valuable insights into the social causation of crime and how it might be better dealt with.

As mentioned earlier, this was an exploratory study which attempted to determine the efficacy of Laboratory Education techniques when applied to student-inmate groups. Although most of the hypotheses were not sustained, the overall impact of the experience based on subjective self-evaluations, by Experimental Group members, suggest that the intervention had lasting and positive effects on many of the participants. The design of the intervention

employed in this study reflects the current thinking of today's theorists on criminal behavior in that it is existential in nature and focuses on the development of inter-personal and intra-personal skills in inmates.

The choice of measures to determine the effects of the intervention was made based on certain assumptions regarding relationships between the variables that the instruments purported to measure and the objectives of the intervention. Although the POI and the Internal-External Control Scale have been used a number of times with inmate populations, their use in this research tends to raise questions regarding their validity for the purposes outlined in this study. Consequently, in future studies, practitioners must pay more attention to the measures employed to identify behavior changes in inmate populations. Only through repeated, concerted efforts will social scientists develop adequate measures to be used with inmate populations.

Future experimentation and research with inmate groups similar to those in this study should include the use of alternative systems for the observation and measurement of behavioral change. Rating scales, self-assessment

systems, observation scales, and other measurement devices must be developed to be utilized with inmate populations. Researchers must acknowledge that data acquired through the administration of standardized tests in prisons is also highly suspect due to the fears that inmates harbor regarding the use of that data. These fears are not easily eliminated and impose a serious threat to accurate data accumulation. This well-established fact raises the issue of research creditability with inmate populations.

In this study, a trained co-facilitator who was also an inmate at the time, was utilized. He was most effective in bridging gaps between the facilitator (researcher) and the subjects in the Experimental Group, particularly in the very early stages of the workshop. Consequently, the researcher recommends that this process be more fully explored by those who would attempt similar projects in the future. The inclusion of inmates as change agents may well be one of the keys to providing more impactful experiences for the inmate populations at a variety of levels, while also strengthening the self-image of those individuals who are capable of assisting. More effort then, must be put into training inmates to work with each

other. This process needs to be carefully researched.

The inmates themselves have shown a strong interest in helping each other. The success of Black Muslim groups in numerous institutions throughout the country is a particularly fine example. It can only be believed that if those competent and qualified to do so would begin to research known techniques with inmate populations which focused on their personal growth and development, great strides are possible. There are numerous examples of successful self-help groups in our society. It is not inconceivable that a group of inmate change agents could be trained to assist each other at a variety of levels. The growth of educational programs make this a very feasible possibility.

Further research is needed regarding the materials used in workshops such as those employed in this study. Social scientists have developed a wealth of materials for use in re-education programs, sensitivity groups, training groups, etc.; however, virtually no materials have been developed for use with inmate populations, although the need clearly exists. Consequently, social scientists and those concerned with change in inmate

behavior, must commit themselves to experimentation with new materials. This can easily be accomplished in conjunction with existing college programs as the situation is amenable to efforts of this nature.

Researchers also have an opportunity to study inmates who are successful in school as opposed to those who are not. Studies of this nature may hold valuable clues for the development of methods to assure greater success of all inmates who aspire to education.

We must learn how the inmate responds to the educational process and the prison environment internally and not limit our judgments to observable behavior. The researcher learned through his efforts that given the opportunity and the proper climate, many inmates became very willing to share their views, their inner thoughts, their changing perspectives, and their real feelings. It is important then that researchers begin studying the inmates' reactions to various processes from "where he really lives" if they are ever going to develop programs to bring about positive, permanent behavioral changes.

This study took place in a high security institution which is a fixed and extremely limiting environment over

which the inmate has no control. These conditions serve to severely limit an inmate's opportunity to experience reinforcement of new learning of a personal-social nature. This factor alone may prevent the inmate from internalizing the learning though he may be seeking ways of doing so. As social scientists increase their efforts to provide lasting learning experiences for inmates, they must begin to search for methods to foster learning reinforcement which can offset the negative environmental conditions that exist in all prison settings. This problem should also be understood in relationship to time and the differential learning rates of the individuals. The researcher observed that certain individuals adjusted quite readily to the new experience of attending college courses while others did not. It is believed that this adjustment is more specifically related to personal-social issues than academic concerns. Therefore, the researcher believes that those undertaking future studies should build more opportunities for learning reinforcement tied to the behavioral objectives of the model. The subjective data reported indicates that only some individuals were able to reinforce their learning through active behavior

with other inmates and in some cases, instructors.

Research that relies on a variety of sources of input is also not without its problems. In this study, Faculty Rating Scales were perceived initially as a rich source of data, to provide further information to the researcher relative to the impact of the intervention. However, due to circumstances beyond the control of the researcher, certain faculty refused to compile the rating scales and therefore limited the power of this data. The conclusion drawn from this is that future studies of this nature must also more directly involve faculty for two reasons:

- 1) Through their involvement they can be drawn into the process of learning more about inmates as students, and
- 2) they can develop improved methods of aiding in the personal-social development of the student-inmate. Future researchers interested in the education of inmates must carefully examine the opportunities that exist in the prison setting for the personal-social development of the student-inmates and for deeper, more fulfilling experiences for faculty.

Implications for Educators

In Chapter II mention was made of the constantly increasing enrollment of inmates in educational programs and that these programs were an economic boon to colleges. It was also stated that most colleges have been criticized for their failure to provide adequate supportive services to the inmates enrolled in these programs. What is needed, however, is rather different from what appears to exist in most corrections education programs. Colleges, for the most part, have merely transplanted existing courses and programs into the prisons. There is little evidence that either creative research or the careful examination of the inmates' real needs are being conducted. Colleges are in danger of remaining nothing more than highly paid educational "missionaries" to our prisons, rather than becoming the dynamic, creative innovators that these systems need. With an attitude perhaps similar to that of early "missionaries", educators are very likely to alienate corrections officials. By knowing "what's best" for the inmate as students they will continue to limit their potential to intervene effectively with educational programs. Therefore, educators must remove themselves from a position

of pre-eminence and begin to question their role in inmate education. Carefully developed research is needed to determine the real psycho-social needs of the inmates they serve so that truly relevant programs can be developed which will realistically benefit student-inmates.

There are many innovations that can be put into place immediately if educators would accord student-inmates with the same social status as their campus counterparts. Inmates need to develop an expanded awareness of the world around them. They need to develop a context in which their education takes place so that it has more meaning. Therefore, educators must strive to develop co-curricular programs for student-inmates such as lyceum programs, films, debates, seminars, and other efforts which are more in keeping with existing campus programs. They must view the student-inmate as being very much in a developmental stage of life regardless of his age or background.

Educators who strive to improve their programs should remain very sensitive to the attitudes and needs of the corrections officials as they are the one group of professionals that are still essentially neutral in the situation. Educators must guard against appearing only

to side with and support the inmate, for no matter how effective the educational program may be, it is the daily efforts of the corrections officers that determine the nature of the institution's environment. Educators need to remind themselves that many corrections officers resent the education of an inmate just as they also resent intrusion from "outside". Therefore, it is time that educators began to earnestly service the staffs and personnel of these institutions, as well as the inmates. Though the potential results of these kinds of efforts is largely unknown, their value appears to be considerable.

Most inmates begin college programs with very poor educational backgrounds. Their attitudes toward education, developed from their past experiences, is usually lukewarm at best. Consequently, the style and methods employed by their instructors may well determine their attitude and their future success. Therefore, the need to train inmate educators is critical to the success of these programs. Unfortunately, the indications are that instructors in these programs are usually part-time or drawn from the lowest rung of the academic ladder. Inmates as students need dynamic, innovative instruction

which can facilitate their psycho-social growth, enhance their attitude, and strengthen their convictions about the value of education to them. Student-inmates, for the most part, look up to instructors for they hold the knowledge and information that inmates want. Inmate educators need to understand clearly the educational and personal-social needs of their students. They also need to appreciate the daily stress the inmate experiences along with his feelings of isolation and loneliness. Training programs, workshops, and periodic dialog with their students are all perceived to be critical to the improvement of instruction in these programs. Successful inmate educators must be very resourceful. It is the responsibility of the educational administrators to see that they are. Therefore, the training of inmate educators should include the enhancement of an instructor's resourcefulness. It should also apprise him of the critical nature of his role in fostering growth in his students.

Instructors in social science and psychology (popular courses with inmates) have a clear opportunity to help their students to better understand themselves and the social milieu from which they come and to which most of

them will return. However, the methods the instructors employ will determine the extent to which the inmate is able to learn about himself. It seems unlikely that the traditional lecture method is the most satisfactory technique. Instructors working with inmates in courses such as these need to develop their capacity to utilize discussion and dialog in their classrooms to enhance their effectiveness.

Educational administrators should seriously support innovative teaching and experimentation by instructors in these programs. Further, they should be constantly working with corrections officials to improve the facilities and services that exist. Corrections officials are receptive to inmate education as most students are found to be model prisoners. However, innovative approaches are usually blocked on the grounds of security or for other administrative reasons.

Inmate educators are faced with a number of limiting elements when teaching in prison classrooms. The facilities are frequently poor and the support services are very limited. An instructor that normally supplements his teaching with audio-visual materials, guest speakers,

and discussions may find he is unable to do so in a prison classroom due to tight security and a reduced time schedule. Educators need to work hard to overcome these all too convenient obstacles to program development.

Inmate educators cannot be content with the existing services at the institutions they serve. The history of success in counseling, vocational training, and career development at most institutions is poor. However, college campuses have placement and career planning and development services, transfer counselors, career assessment programs, and other services to aid students on campus to make effective career choices, develop educational plans, and to make appropriate decisions. Inmates enrolled in college programs are not exposed to services of this nature and they are being badly short-changed.

In summary, inmate educators need to foster the development and maintenance of existing campus programs in correctional institutions. This must be done in such a way that corrections officials are included in the planning and implementation of these programs for there is no alternative if the programs are to become more dynamic. Educators must fully understand the power of corrections

officials and must seek ways of incorporating it into their plans to meet jointly defined goals for the academic education and re-socialization of inmates. They must begin to share in the research on inmates as students and work to reduce their image as "idealistic outsiders" while taking full advantage of that status. Finally, educational institutions linked to corrections programs are well-rewarded for their efforts. They must be certain that the student-inmates they serve are rewarded equally as well by their experience.

Summary

The problems that are manifest in the re-education and re-socialization of inmates seem insurmountable. No doubt, in many instances they are. However, educators have a rich opportunity to effectively impact on both the system and the inmates who are increasingly looking to them with new hope and an increased responsibility for their own behavior. An inmate who aspires to education and training is an inmate who somehow has gotten interested in himself, his personal welfare, and in his

future. Educators and prison officials alike have a responsibility to make concerted sustained efforts to capitalize on the individuals' motivation at that time. This calls for re-education and re-training of educators and prison officials as well. It also calls for coordinated efforts between individuals who are knowledgeable in the re-socialization process and those who are responsible for inmate education, which includes faculty, college staff, and a number of prison officials. The researcher concludes that the system cannot afford to pass up this opportunity to positively impact on inmate behavior, to experiment with a variety of learning experiences which have the potential to enhance the inmate's learning experience, provide support for the educator, a more peaceful existence for the corrections officer, and a life that is potentially enriched and changed permanently for the inmate.

Implications for Corrections Officials

Increased criminal activity and lengthier sentences brought about by a return to a more conservative approach to criminal justice has resulted in overcrowded conditions in the nation's prisons. These unfortunate circumstances are occurring in a period during which much confusion exists regarding what constitutes an effective approach to criminal rehabilitation. Having passed through an era in which therapeutic systems have proven relatively ineffective in inmate rehabilitation, corrections officials are in danger of regressing to a more traditional, conservative attitude in dealing with inmates. This attitude continues to deny the inmate his human dignity and ignores his psycho-social needs by keeping him locked up, avoiding his needs for psychological and social stimulation and personal growthful challenges. These unfortunate environmental conditions are being enforced at a time when education and training are being sought increasingly by inmates at all levels. It is also a time when a few research studies which deal with the personal-social needs of inmates are beginning to emerge.

This study and the activity surrounding it stands in stark contrast to the environment in which it took place and at a time when the criminal justice system appears to be regressing. The researcher, through the completion of this study, has identified several important issues that currently confront corrections officials.

During the course of this study the researcher worked hard to develop positive relationships with corrections officials and staff who are in daily contact with inmates. The researcher found that the attitude of these individuals toward inmates varied widely. However, most of these individuals see inmates as incapable of change and merely waiting to be released. They also frequently feel that inmates do not deserve further education or training which are denied them. Consequently, corrections officials must begin to view inmates as capable of development and change. They must alter the existing attitude toward inmates. This cannot be done, however, unless serious efforts are made by these officials to understand the social causation of crime and the penal system's critical role in altering inmate behavior through a process of re-education and re-socialization.

Under current overcrowded conditions in institutions that are far too large, and that are administered by officials with growing uncertainty, changes in inmate behavior are not likely to be forthcoming. Corrections officers under these conditions are limited to the role of custodial maintenance. Corrections officials must accept the responsibility to train their staffs so that they can be used as aides in the re-socialization process of inmates, not as a deterrent to that process. If this could be accomplished then inmates would profit and conceivably be easier to manage in the situation while the corrections officers would feel increasingly involved in the process and gain greater job satisfaction.

Corrections officials must also re-structure and re-organize these institutions so that they can begin to respond to the developmental needs of inmates. Smaller institutions with adequate training and educational programs that are provided with adequate supportive services are absolutely vital to any positive changes in inmate behavior. More ideal physical surroundings would also further enhance the potential of the corrections officer provided he is re-trained and in some instances,

re-socialized. This process may be the only viable way of creating effective agents in sufficient number to positively impact on inmate populations.

The current trend toward increasing enrollments in prison educational programs provides corrections officers with a real opportunity to learn about inmate behavior. Education within a prison environment is perhaps the most ideal diversion that exists for an inmate, which is no doubt one reason for its growing popularity. Although these programs have not yet been proven to be highly successful, there is reasonable evidence that many men profit from the experience. It is time corrections officials accepted the responsibility for the environmental impact on the success of these programs and not condemn a program because some inmates do not succeed in utilizing it successfully. It is highly doubtful that adequate follow-up studies on the success of these programs are being conducted by corrections officials or college officials, in spite of the strong vested interest both parties have in their success. It is also time then that corrections officials took the responsibility to provide adequate supportive services to the educational programs. Housing

arrangements, access to services such as libraries, study aides, tutoring, and fellow inmates are all needed. For most individuals, education outside a classroom does not occur in a vacuum. However, in a prison setting, it is not unusual for an inmate to attend classes and not know other students or even have access to them when out of class. He needs the opportunity to interact with other students so that his education can gain meaning. Corrections administrators can see that this happens.

Corrections officials need to begin to listen more closely to educators and to work more directly with them. There is a need for much greater dialog between the two groups. While each accuse the other of avoiding the dialog, corrections officials send messages which make educators wary of the process. Corrections officials need to get over the idea that they know what inmates need and want. They may be right some of the time, but the nature of their behavior shows a lack of concern for those needs fairly consistently. They must discontinue the time-worn excuses of the need for security and the need to keep peace in the institution which preclude the possibility of positive changes in the environment. These officials

need to give up the belief that they are the only ones that understand criminal behavior. Their limited success over a number of years stands as living testimony to the fact that they do not. Consequently, corrections officials need to work more closely with social scientists in gaining a better understanding of the causes of crime and of possible ways of developing programs for inmates which can re-educate and re-direct them. Corrections officials too, have a vested interest in conducting research and administering controlled studies. The full potential of interventions such as the one that was utilized in this study will not be known until corrections officials acknowledge the importance of research of this nature and contribute their active support to it.

If inmate behavior is to be changed, it must take place in existing prisons. Corrections officials have a strong vested interest in improving the system so that it functions to effectively re-educate and re-socialize inmates. There is a need then, for corrections officials to acknowledge their key position in fostering research which is reflective of the contemporary thinking of social scientists.

Corrections officials need to view inmates developmentally. They also need to acknowledge the differences that exist amongst inmates while avoiding the tendency toward stereotyping them which only serves to reinforce their existing, negative self-concept. This attitude also precludes the possibility of the corrections officer's development as a change agent.

Corrections officers have the potential to function as change agents within the system if the leadership will begin to accept the responsibility for their training and development. If corrections officials can begin to examine the various roles within the system more closely, then it is highly probable that they can begin to develop a system capable of more positively impacting on inmate behavior. They must begin to re-think these roles in concert with the thinking of today's social scientists who offer some hope for the education and re-socialization of inmates. It is only through massive efforts to alter the environment to alleviate the devastating impact on inmates that progress will be made.

It is readily acknowledged that corrections officials are placed in a very difficult position as a result of

our current social system. While the public is clamoring for more and lengthier sentencing and harsher treatment, they are also very resistant to funding experimentation such as that described here. Corrections officials must learn that criminals are a victim of an unjust social system which also severely limits the role of the corrections system, thereby frustrating attempts to improve it. Hopefully, corrections officials, in realizing their plight, will not only resist any trend towards regression in the system but also begin to work in close harmony with knowledgeable social scientists to develop a system which fosters and nourishes an environment that can facilitate positive behavior change in inmate behavior. Fundamentally, the problems of inmates, corrections personnel, and inmate educators are the problem of our unjust social system. Corrections officials have the capacity to impact more positively on the system for which they are responsible, which in turn will foster the re-education of public officials and the community. For it is not until our society is willing to share the responsibility for the burdensome problems of crime that it has created that real progress within the criminal justice system can be expected.

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APPENDIX A

Description of the Intervention

Motivational Workshop

SESSION I

(Morning)

9:00 Introductions
Overview of workshop
Remarks by Co-trainer

This portion serves to introduce the program and to give the opportunity for the Co-trainer to share his views on the importance of student participation in the workshop.

9:15 Name Game

This activity serves to positively reinforce the remembering of each individual's name. It also introduces stress in a very easy way. People are allowed to help if someone is stuck.

9:30 Ring Toss - 1st round
Administration of POI and
Rotter I-E Scale

Administration of the Rotter and the POI is done in conjunction with the first round of the Ring Toss.

Ring Toss Objectives: This low-threat activity generates individual and group data in the following categories: goal-setting, use of feedback, skills reinforcement through practice, competition with others, use of support and use of reward systems.

The activity also provides a release of tension and allows for freedom of movement through physical activity. The first round is done in private, the second is done individually in public, the third and fourth rounds are accomplished in teams.

Competition is introduced in the third

SESSION I (Continued)

round and teams decide to compete for something (usually pushups). A "strategy" session is held between round two and three, to enable teams to assess individual skills. This is repeated prior to round four.

The trainer's objective in each "strategy session" is to get a discussion going which revolves around individual skills assessment and what it will take from the combined effort to win. He tries, however, to keep his role to a minimum although he and the co-trainer participate. The objective of trainer participation is to assist both trainers to become more accepted by the group through their involvement.

11:00 Lecturette:
"Goal Setting"
"Use of Feedback"
"Risk-Taking"
"Competition"

Objectives: The lecturette provides the trainer with the opportunity to clearly relate the activity and the data that has been generated by the group relative to the topics addressed as objectives in the exercise.

The trainer draws obvious examples in the activity just completed. In doing so he should be specific, relating names to the incidents and data generated. This can also help in making inclusion of all participants more possible. Trainers should be brief, concise and very clear in relating the activity to the various topics.

SESSION II

(Afternoon)

1:00 "Admiration Ladder"

Directions:

- 1) Individuals complete Admiration Ladder on their own (15 min.).
- 2) Students pair up with a partner and share what they have written (15 min.).
- 3) Share positive and negative characteristics in large group. Post on board.
- 4) Trainer summarizes findings. Relate findings to educational & career goals.

2:00 "Jim Ryun Story"

Directions: Pass out Jim Ryun Story, asking students to read the materials.

After 15 min. ask the students to pair up and briefly discuss the "Ten Achievement Thoughts."

Objectives:

- a) Values clarification for individual participants.
- b) Provide an opportunity to share writing and values with another participant.
- c) Open discussion on values that are upheld and/or rejected by the group.
- d) Provide the opportunity to begin to relate values to long-range goals such as going to college and seeking a career.

This story of the sub-four minute miler contains the "Ten Achievement Thoughts." The objectives are:

- a) Reinforce the language of achievement thinking.
- b) Enable participants to identify clearly the steps to achievement.

SESSION II (Continued)

- c) Relate Ryun's story and the 10 Achievement Thoughts to the experience of attending college.
- d) Relate to the priorities for going to college (setting goals).
- e) Provide trainer to refer to other examples of achievers who are familiar to most people.

2:45 Lecturette:

"Achievement Thinking"

Trainer relates achievement thoughts to inmates attending college while in prison.

Objectives:

- a) Reinforce language of achievement thinking.
- b) Identify clearly the steps to achievement.
- c) Relate Ryun's story and 10 Achievement Thoughts to parallel experience of attending college, dealing with obstacles, etc. Skills development as a means to overcome obstacles. Use of Support, Help, Personal vs. World Obstacles.
- d) Relate to our priorities for attending college. What are your goals?

SESSION II (Continued)

- e) Trainers should use brief personal examples, if comfortable.

Objectives:

Participants are asked to work on the Achievement Plans during their free time prior to dinner.

- a) Create a bridge between the two sessions.
- b) Allow for independent work on the part of individual participants.

SESSION III

(Evening)

6:30 Give overview of evening program.

"Scrambled Words Game"

Directions:

- a) Divide group into three's.
- b) Read directions for the game.
- c) Conduct eight timed trials for the game.

This activity utilizes a series of pages on which the listed words are scrambled. They are moderately difficult words that are commonly used. The directions for the activity are as follows:

Step 1: Turn to page 1. You have 3 minutes to see how many words you can unscramble.

Step 2 Repeat directions re-
and 3: ducing time spent by
30 seconds during each
trial.

Objectives:

- a) Develop capacity to see things in an alternative way.
- b) Introduce time as a realistic issue to be dealt with.
- c) Create team concept.
- d) Introduce idea for effective use of resources within a trio.
- e) Stress immediate use of feedback.
- f) Use of positive reinforcement and support as a contributor to success.
- g) Introduce competition with self.
- h) Introduce concept of prediction for success by striving for attainable goals.

SESSION III (Continued)

- Step 4: Discuss in trios
"How well did each of
us do?"
- Step 5: Discuss in the trio:
"How many can you do as
a team in 2 minutes?"
- Step 6: Record predictions. Be-
gin unscrambling.
- Step 7: Repeat 5 and 6, reducing
by 30 seconds.
- Step 8: Repeat again reducing
time by 30 seconds.
- Step 9: Trios discuss how well
they functioned. What
was the difference be-
tween working on their
own and working in a
group.
Trainers process ac-
tivity in large group.
Use board to denote
various feelings and ob-
servations that come out.
Trainer relates data

SESSION III (Continued)

generated by activity to various Achievement Thoughts. Review 10 Achievement Thoughts very quickly for reinforcement.

8:15 Co-trainer reviews CSS 095, College Study Skills Course, relating the value of the course as a preparation for success in college.

8:30 "Five Dimensions of Myself"

Objectives:

- a) Encourage sharing some personal aspects of self with another person.
- b) Create movement toward increased sensitivity in the workshop environment.
- c) Further the validation of participants with others.

Directions:

Hand each participant a piece of paper on which he is to write his name and then list 5 dimensions of Self.

When each individual has completed the form, individuals are asked to move around silently reading the forms that are held up in front of each individual. Trainers should participate. After a reasonable length of time, participants should pair up with one individual and talk about they have written down as dimensions of Selves.

SESSION III (Continued)

8:50 Wrap-up

Objectives:

- Bring closure to the session.
Review days learning very briefly.
Focus on program for tomorrow, outlining what the goals and objectives will be for tomorrow.
Sharing of trainer's perceptions about how far we came during the day. Share positive thoughts and feelings that trainers have.
- a) Create a positive closing atmosphere.
 - b) Stimulate anticipation for tomorrow's sessions.
 - c) Acknowledge the progress made and the learning and sharing accomplished.
 - d) Permit trainers to share feelings, showing human side and provide role-modeling.

SESSION IV

(Morning)

9:00 "Epitaph"

Directions:

- a) Pass out sheets with directions. Ask each individual to complete their "epitaph."
- b) After 10 or 12 minutes, have individuals share epitaphs in three's.

Objectives:

- a) Relate values held by individuals to how they wish to be remembered.
- b) Relate goals for the future to how they wish to be remembered.
- c) Provide a link between college and career goals to the future.
- d) Allow individuals to express some of their values relative to how they wish to be remembered.
- e) Relate individuals' values to other members of the group.

9:45 Skits

"10 Achievement Thoughts"

Directions:

Participants are divided into two groups. Each group must prepare a skit which includes the 10 Achievement Thoughts.

Objectives:

- a) Provide individuals with the opportunity to re-examine the meanings of the 10 Achievement Thoughts.
- b) Reinforce the meanings of the 10 Achievement Thoughts.
- c) Provide the opportunity for creativity in the group.

SESSION IV (Continued)

Following each skit presentation, the viewing group evaluates the effectiveness of the skit in presenting the 10 Achievement Thoughts.

Following the presentations, the Trainers give feedback on the behavior of the group, focusing on the use of group resources, creativity, etc.

10:30 Lecturette:

Maslow Theory of Self-Actualization
Hierarchy of Needs
Intrinsic-Extrinsic Motivation

Objectives:

- a) Provide cognitive input for the experiences the workshop provides.
- b) Relate the theory of personal development to individual experiences, particularly education.
- c) Relate the process of education to personal growth.

Objectives:

- a) Help individuals to identify obstacles that they will have to confront as students in the environment they are in.

11:00 Hopes and Fears

Directions:

Distribute a piece of paper; divide in half.

- d) Provide the opportunity for interdependent behavior in the group.

- e) Provide the opportunity for exploration and utilization of resources within the group such as creativity, humor, acting ability, and leadership skills.

SESSION IV (Continued)

One side list hopes regarding
going to college while an inmate.

Second column list fears about
going to college while an inmate.

b) Provide individuals with the opportunity to visualize clearly their aspirations.

c) Relate their aspirations and their fears to the learning in the workshop.

d) Begin the development of a potential supportive relationship with another person by sharing hopes and fears.

Break for lunch.

SESSION V

(Afternoon)

1:00 Hopes and Fears (Continued)

Objectives:

Share directly with another individual.
(See previous session.)

Directions:

Pair up with another individual and discuss your hopes and fears as you have listed them on the paper.

1:20 Verbal Helping

Objectives:

a) Help each individual to get in touch with the helping process.

Join up in three's.

Directions:

Trainer describes help and role plays with co-trainer a helping response.

b) To clearly identify help.

c) To experience giving help.

d) To experience helping someone.

Each individual should select one of the problems from the list of fears.

e) To gain additional input to solve a problem.

SESSION VI

(Evening)

6:30 Lecturette:

"Man as a Whole Being"

Relate the concept of Psychosynthesis.

Explain relationship between our behavior and our environment.

Relate the impact of education on individual people as it becomes a process which can assist in development of change at the intra-personal level.

Objectives:

- a) Relate the impact of past and present surroundings on our behavior.
- b) Identify and share a more contemporary concept for growth and development using the concept of existentialism.
- c) Provide theoretical background for the process of change.
- d) Permit the Co-trainer to share his personal experience with change due to education.
- e) Identify the value of education as a process to aid us in the determination of our identity which can take us forward.
- f) Relate the building of strength as a student to the building of strength in one's personal life.

Objectives:

- a) Use deductive reasoning.

7:00 "Zebra Game"

Directions:

SESSION VI (Continued)

- 1) Divide into three's.
- 2) Determine who drank the water and who owns the zebra.
- b) Endure frustration in the problem-solving process.
- c) Work together to utilize resources in a trio.
- d) Teach problem-solving.
- e) Process activity to relate frustration of problem-solving to the problems of attending college.
- f) Identify needs to solve problem as similar to those personal characteristics needed to be a successful student; such as: persistence, dealing successfully with frustration, self-control, sustained attention to task, concentration, etc.

8:00 Review Responses

If no one has the answer and the group wishes to continue, the trainer may feel free to extend the time or allow people to work on the problem, bringing the answer to class next session.

SESSION VI (Continued)

8:30 Building a Support System

Lecture and discussion on the importance of support systems.

Participants are asked to think about who they can work with successfully in a support relationship. Decision is to be made in the next session.

Outline the importance of a contract and its contents in order to be clear about own needs re support and the individual ability to support another person.

8:40 Strength Building Exercise

Directions:

- 1) On a piece of paper write down three reasons "why you feel good about yourself tonight." (Trainers participate)

- 2) Have group form a tight circle while seated.

Objectives:

- a) Release some of positive feelings toward self.
- b) Create a situation wherein men can express positive feelings towards each other.
- c) Finish two days of hard work on a very positive note.
- d) Allow for feedback.

SESSION VI (Continued)

9:15 Parting Ceremony

Men are joined in a circle and have arms around each other's shoulders.

Trainer may induce some input about the workshop by stating how he feels about what has happened so far. Co-trainer and others should follow.

Objectives:

- a) Further positive feelings about group and the support that has been generated.
- b) Allow for freedom of expression.
- c) Permit feedback for trainers.
- d) Permit trainers to express openly their feelings about the workshop and the men.

SESSION VII

(Evening)

6:30 Reconnect.

(Trainers try to be early and greet students as they arrive.)

Discussion: "How has the first week gone thus far?"

Objectives:

- a) Get back in touch with each individual.
- b) Have trainers get some data for further use later in session.
- c) Allow for open discussion and sharing of feelings during the session.

6:45 Lecturette:

"Using help...Developing a Support System"

The trainer defines help and gives examples of what is helpful. He also gives examples of how we are frequently blocked from using help when it's available.

Objectives:

- a) Make participants very aware of what constitutes help.
- b) Identify the obstacles to using help that are commonly found.
- c) Be clear about knowing what kind of help you need.

7:00

Individuals are then asked to write down what it is that they will need support with and what kind of support they feel they can give to another person.

Objectives:

- a) To be clear about the obstacles they will face and what it will take to be helped in dealing with them.

SESSION VII (Continued)

- 7:20 After 20 minutes, individuals are asked to pair up with an individual that they feel they can work with. They then draw up a contract. The pairing is probably based on housing situations and schedules for classes, etc. The trainers should give input into the form for the contract, etc., but not control the process. (Include where you will meet, how you will support each other, etc.)
- b) Acknowledge within themselves their capacity to be supportive to another person.
 - c) Write a contract to emphasize the seriousness of the process and the potential value of the supportive relationship.

8:30 A Letter to Self

Directions:

Write a letter to yourself telling yourself where you want to be in relationship to going to school in eight weeks. Try and visualize how you want to feel about being in class; what kind of grade you want to have, etc. This letter is to be seen only by you and will be sealed and mailed to you in eight weeks.

Objectives:

- a) Encourage individuals to look ahead and relate learning of present to the future.
- b) Set goals and standards for behavior between now and then by contracting with self.

SESSION VII (Continued)

8:45 Closing Ceremony

Objectives:

- Men are in a circle with their arms around each other's shoulders. Trainers may get the dialogue started by expressing their feelings. Open expression of thoughts and feelings should be encouraged.
- a) Leave with a sense of unity to be carried on in following classes without the trainers present.
 - b) Emphasize the support of all being together.
 - c) Permit expression of feeling and openness.

SESSION VIII

Follow-up Session (Week 11)

Post-test administration of the POI and the Rotter I-E Control Scale to the Experimental and Control Groups.

Following the post-test administration, the trainer and co-trainer meet with the Experimental Group to discuss how their classes are going.

7:45 Participants will spend 15 minutes with their support partner identifying where they have had difficulties adjusting to demands of college and what solutions exist to cope more effectively with the problem.

8:00 Share data in large group.
Co-trainers share as resource people. Include instructor.

8:40 Trainer summarizes session; refers back to earlier learning and other resources to be used.

Objectives:

- a) Reinforce use of support.
- b) Identify clearly difficulties that exist.
- c) Share coping skills.
- d) Share data in large group.
- e) Relate earlier learning to that which is being experienced.
- f) Re-identify resources to be utilized.

SESSION IX

Follow-up Session (End of Semester)

6:30 Review the workshop in terms of objectives and strategies. Identify the relationship between the process of going to college and personal change. Use of support.

Objective:

Enable participants to look back to the beginning; to reflect on their learning and identify clearly the process in which they have been engaged.

7:00 Distribute evaluation form. Complete forms.

Objectives:

- a) Provide individuals the opportunity to evaluate and make suggestions.
- b) Provide feedback for trainers.

7:30 Large group discussion:
 "What Have We Learned"
 "What Do I Still Need to Work On"
 "What Still Needs to Be Done"
 Changes in the Support Services
 Changes in the System
 Changes in the Instructional Program

Objectives:

- a) Identify changes that have occurred and be able to share them publicly.
- b) Relate the changes to specific behaviors and effort of student-inmate.
- c) Identify needs to be met to assure further success.
- d) Create an opportunity for men to discuss how they can improve the system if they persist and articulate their needs.

SESSION IX (Continued)

8:15 Questions & Answers -
Career - Academic

Objectives:

- a) Look at future plans--need for planning.
- b) Identify need for further information.
- c) Show them ways of getting information.

8:45 Closing Ceremony

Objectives:

- a) Provide for open expression of feeling and support for each other.
- b) Symbolize unity and shared experience.
- c) Reinforce positive feelings about selves and the group for all involved.
- d) Leave a strong positive image for the future.

People in a circle, arms
around each other.

Trainers express their
feelings.

Open for others.

APPENDIX B

Correspondence



DUTCHESS COMMUNITY COLLEGE

State University of New York
Pendell Road/Poughkeepsie, NY 12601
Telephone: 914/471-4500

August 24, 1979

Dear CSS95 Student:

For the past couple of years I have been conducting workshops in conjunction with CSS95 classes at Fishkill. I have called them "Motivational Workshops." Let me explain a little further.

Each of us possesses the drive, motivation and energy to attain the things we want in our lives. Depending on ourselves, our school experience and background, we may have learned to reach some of our goals but usually not all. The MOTIVATIONAL WORKSHOP I'm asking you to participate in is designed to assist you to examine your goals educationally and for the future. Your participation will also enable you to examine the process by which you attempt to attain these goals.

The workshop provides you with an opportunity to participate in a variety of activities which generate information. It also provides opportunities for discussion and feedback. As the trainer, I will also be delivering brief lecturettes centering on topics specifically related to motivation.

The materials and concepts employed in this workshop have been widely used throughout the country. Over 300 have participated in a similar program which I have taught at Dutchess during the past 9 years. I believe that your learning and involvement in this workshop will provide you with a clearer understanding of your future aspirations and an awareness of a better system for getting there. You can also learn to develop and maintain a more effective support system for the attainment of your goals.

-2-

Many men at Fishkill have already participated in this workshop. Most have enjoyed it and have profited from the experience. I'm sure you will, too.

We will be meeting on Wednesday and Thursday, August 29 and 30, beginning in the morning. We will have three sessions a day including one in the evening. Arrangements are being made to have you in the educational area for all sessions.

Please try to clear your calendar for all sessions. The more total our participation is, the more we will accomplish as a group.

Ralph Mitchell, a top student at Dutchess, will be working with me during the workshop. His involvement in the past has added significantly to each individual's experience. I know you will appreciate getting to know "Mitch".

I look forward to being with you on Wednesday, August 29 and to the time we will spend together. The best of luck in your new venture, going to college.

Edward Travis
Counselor

u



DUTCHESS COMMUNITY COLLEGE

State University of New York
 Pendell Road Poughkeepsie, NY 12601
 Telephone 914 471 4500

January 11, 1980

I am currently conducting research with the students enrolled in the Dutchess program at Fishkill. I am attempting to determine the degree of impact that a "Motivational Workshop" has had on some currently enrolled students. Besides including grades and data resulting from standardized tests, I am also including data resulting from faculty member's perceptions of the students. I have devised a simple rating scale for this purpose which should take you approximately 20 minutes to complete.

The directions for the Faculty Rating Scale are detailed in the enclosed materials. Your input into this study is vital to its significance. Consequently, I am asking you to complete it as quickly as possible and return it to me in the pre-paid, self-addressed envelope.

If you have any questions regarding the procedure or the study please do not hesitate to call me.

Day ----- 471-4500, X286
 Evening -- 452-3866

Thank you sincerely. I look forward to sharing my findings with you.

Edward Travis
 Counselor
 (Researcher)

Gary C. Pfeifer
 Assistant Dean for
 Academic Administration

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 Encs.

APPENDIX C

Measurement Instruments

INSTRUCTIONS FOR THE I-E SCALE

This is a questionnaire to find out the way in which certain important events in our society affect different people. Each item consists of a pair of alternatives lettered "a" or "b". Please select the one statement of each pair (and only one) which you more strongly believe to be the case as far as you're concerned. Be sure to select the one you actually believe to be more true rather than the one you think you should choose as the one you would like to be true. This is a measure of personal belief: obviously there are no right or wrong answers.

Your answers to the items on this inventory are to be recorded on a separate answer sheet which is loosely inserted in the booklet. REMOVE THIS ANSWER SHEET NOW. Print your name and any other information requested by the examiner on the answer sheet, then finish reading these directions. Do not open the booklet until you are told to do so.

Please answer these items carefully but do not spend too much time on any one item. Be sure to find an answer

for every choice. Find the number of the item on the answer sheet and black-in the space under the number "1" or "2" which you choose as the statement more true.

In some instances, you may discover that you believe both statements or neither one. In such cases, be sure to select the one you more strongly believe to be the case as far as you're concerned. Also, try to respond to each item independently when making your choice; do not be influenced by your previous choices.

INTERNAL VS. EXTERNAL CONTROL

1. a. Children get into trouble because their parents punish them too much.
b. The trouble with most children nowadays is that their parents are too easy with them.
2. a. Many of the unhappy things in people's lives are partly due to bad luck.
b. People's misfortunes result from the mistakes they make.
3. a. One of the major reasons why we have wars is because people don't take enough interest in politics.
b. There will always be wars, no matter how hard people try to prevent them.
4. a. In the long run, people get the respect they deserve in this world.
b. Unfortunately, an individual's worth often passes unrecognized no matter how hard he tries.
5. a. The idea that teachers are unfair to students is nonsense.

- b. Most students don't realize the extent to which their grades are influenced by accidental happenings.
- 6.
 - a. Without the right breaks one cannot be an effective leader.
 - b. Capable people who fail to become leaders have not taken advantage of their opportunities.
 - 7.
 - a. No matter how hard you try, some people just don't like you.
 - b. People who can't get others to like them don't understand how to get along with others.
 - 8.
 - a. Heredity plays the major role in determining one's personality.
 - b. It is one's experiences in life which determine what one is like.
 - 9.
 - a. I have often found that what is going to happen will happen.
 - b. Trusting to fate has never turned out as well for me as making a decision to take a definite course of action.

10. a. In the case of the well-prepared student, there is rarely, if ever, much a thing as an unfair test.
b. Many times exam questions tend to be so unrelated to course work that studying is really useless.
11. a. Becoming a success is a matter of hard work, luck has little or nothing to do with it.
b. Getting a good job depends mainly on being in the right place at the right time.
12. a. The average citizen can have an influence in government decisions.
b. This world is run by the few people in power, and there is not much the little guy can do about it.
13. a. When I make plans, I am almost certain that I can make them work.
b. It is not always wise to plan too far ahead because many things turn out to be a matter of good or bad fortune anyhow.

14.
 - a. There are certain people who are just no good.
 - b. There is some good in everybody.
15.
 - a. In my case, getting what I want has little or nothing to do with luck.
 - b. Many times we might just as well decide what to do by flipping a coin.
16.
 - a. Who gets to be the boss often depends on who was lucky enough to be in the right place first.
 - b. Getting people to do the right thing depends upon ability, luck has little or nothing to do with it.
17.
 - a. As far as world affairs are concerned, most of us are the victims of forces we can neither understand, nor control.
 - b. By taking an active part in political and social affairs the people can control world events.
18.
 - a. Most people don't realize the extent to which their lives are controlled by accidental happenings.
 - b. There really is no such thing as "luck".

19. a. One should always be willing to admit mistakes.
b. It is usually best to cover up one's mistakes.
20. a. It is hard to know whether or not a person really likes you.
b. How many friends you have depends on how nice a person you are.
21. a. In the long run, the bad things that happen to us are balanced by the good ones.
b. Most misfortunes are the result of lack of ability, ignorance, laziness, or all three.
22. a. With enough effort we can wipe out political corruption.
b. It is difficult for people to have much control over the things politicians do in office.
23. a. Sometimes I can't understand how teachers arrive at the grades they give.
b. There is a direct connection between how hard I study and the grades I get.
24. a. A good leader expects people to decide for themselves what they should do.

- b. A good leader makes it clear to everybody what their jobs are.
- 25.
- a. Many times I feel that I have little influence over the things that happen to me.
 - b. It is impossible for me to believe that chance or luck plays an important role in my life.
- 26.
- a. People are lonely because they don't try to be friendly.
 - b. There's not much use in trying too hard to please people; if they like you, they like you.
- 27.
- a. There is too much emphasis on athletics in high school.
 - b. Team sports are an excellent way to build character.
- 28.
- a. What happens to me is my own doing.
 - b. Sometimes I feel that I don't have enough control over the direction my life is taking.
- 29.
- a. Most of the time I can't understand why politicians behave the way they do.

- b. In the long run, the people are responsible for bad government on a national as well as on a local level.

P O I PERSONAL ORIENTATION INVENTORY

EVERETT L. SHOSTROM, Ph.D.

DIRECTIONS

This inventory consists of pairs of numbered statements. Read each statement and decide which of the two paired statements most consistently applies to you.

You are to mark your answers on the answer sheet you have. Look at the example of the answer sheet shown at the right. If the first statement of the pair is TRUE or MOSTLY TRUE as applied to you, blacken between the lines in the column headed "a". (See Example Item 1 at right.) If the second statement of the pair is TRUE or MOSTLY TRUE as applied to you, blacken between the lines in the column headed "b". (See Example Item 2 at right.) If neither statement applies to you, or if they refer to something you don't know about, make no answer on the answer sheet. Remember to give YOUR OWN opinion of yourself and do not leave any blank spaces if you can avoid it.

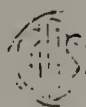
Section of Answer Columns Correctly Marked		
	a	b
1.	<div style="border-left: 1px solid black; height: 10px; width: 10px; margin: 0 auto;"></div>	<div style="border-left: 1px solid black; height: 10px; width: 10px; margin: 0 auto;"></div>
	a	b
2.	<div style="border-left: 1px solid black; height: 10px; width: 10px; margin: 0 auto;"></div>	<div style="border-left: 1px solid black; height: 10px; width: 10px; margin: 0 auto;"></div>

In marking your answers on the answer sheet, be sure that the number of the statement agrees with the number on the answer sheet. Make your marks heavy and black. Erase completely any answer you wish to change. Do not make any marks in this booklet.

Remember, try to make some answer to every statement.

Before you begin the inventory, be sure you put your name, your sex, your age, and the other information called for in the space provided on the answer sheet.

NOW OPEN THE BOOKLET AND START WITH QUESTION 1.



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1. a. I am bound by the principle of fairness.
b. I am not absolutely bound by the principle of fairness.
2. a. When a friend does me a favor, I feel that I must return it.
b. When a friend does me a favor, I do not feel that I must return it.
3. a. I feel I must always tell the truth.
b. I do not always tell the truth.
4. a. No matter how hard I try, my feelings are often hurt.
b. If I manage the situation right, I can avoid being hurt.
5. a. I feel that I must strive for perfection in everything that I undertake.
b. I do not feel that I must strive for perfection in everything that I undertake.
6. a. I often make my decisions spontaneously.
b. I seldom make my decisions spontaneously.
7. a. I am afraid to be myself.
b. I am not afraid to be myself.
8. a. I feel obligated when a stranger does me a favor.
b. I do not feel obligated when a stranger does me a favor.
9. a. I feel that I have a right to expect others to do what I want of them.
b. I do not feel that I have a right to expect others to do what I want of them.
10. a. I live by values which are in agreement with others.
b. I live by values which are primarily based on my own feelings.
11. a. I am concerned with self-improvement at all times.
b. I am not concerned with self-improvement at all times.
12. a. I feel guilty when I am selfish.
b. I don't feel guilty when I am selfish.
13. a. I have no objection to getting angry.
b. Anger is something I try to avoid.
14. a. For me, anything is possible if I believe in myself.
b. I have a lot of natural limitations even though I believe in myself.
15. a. I put others' interests before my own.
b. I do not put others' interests before my own.
16. a. I sometimes feel embarrassed by compliments.
b. I am not embarrassed by compliments.
17. a. I believe it is important to accept others as they are.
b. I believe it is important to understand why others are as they are.
18. a. I can put off until tomorrow what I ought to do today.
b. I don't put off until tomorrow what I ought to do today.
19. a. I can give without requiring the other person to appreciate what I give.
b. I have a right to expect the other person to appreciate what I give.
20. a. My moral values are dictated by society.
b. My moral values are self-determined.
21. a. I do what others expect of me.
b. I feel free to not do what others expect of me.
22. a. I accept my weaknesses.
b. I don't accept my weaknesses.
23. a. In order to grow emotionally, it is necessary to know why I act as I do.
b. In order to grow emotionally, it is not necessary to know why I act as I do.
24. a. Sometimes I am cross when I am not feeling well.
b. I am hardly ever cross.

GO ON TO THE NEXT PAGE

25. a. It is necessary that others approve of what I do.
b. It is not always necessary that others approve of what I do.
26. a. I am afraid of making mistakes.
b. I am not afraid of making mistakes.
27. a. I trust the decisions I make spontaneously.
b. I do not trust the decisions I make spontaneously.
28. a. My feelings of self-worth depend on how much I accomplish.
b. My feelings of self-worth do not depend on how much I accomplish.
29. a. I fear failure.
b. I don't fear failure.
30. a. My moral values are determined, for the most part, by the thoughts, feelings and decisions of others.
b. My moral values are not determined, for the most part, by the thoughts, feelings and decisions of others.
31. a. It is possible to live life in terms of what I want to do.
b. It is not possible to live life in terms of what I want to do.
32. a. I can cope with the ups and downs of life.
b. I cannot cope with the ups and downs of life.
33. a. I believe in saying what I feel in dealing with others.
b. I do not believe in saying what I feel in dealing with others.
34. a. Children should realize that they do not have the same rights and privileges as adults.
b. It is not important to make an issue of rights and privileges.
35. a. I can "stick my neck out" in my relations with others.
b. I avoid "sticking my neck out" in my relations with others.
36. a. I believe the pursuit of self-interest is opposed to interest in others.
b. I believe the pursuit of self-interest is not opposed to interest in others.
37. a. I find that I have rejected many of the moral values I was taught.
b. I have not rejected any of the moral values I was taught.
38. a. I live in terms of my wants, likes, dislikes and values.
b. I do not live in terms of my wants, likes, dislikes and values.
39. a. I trust my ability to size up a situation.
b. I do not trust my ability to size up a situation.
40. a. I believe I have an innate capacity to cope with life.
b. I do not believe I have an innate capacity to cope with life.
41. a. I must justify my actions in the pursuit of my own interests.
b. I need not justify my actions in the pursuit of my own interests.
42. a. I am bothered by fears of being inadequate.
b. I am not bothered by fears of being inadequate.
43. a. I believe that man is essentially good and can be trusted.
b. I believe that man is essentially evil and cannot be trusted.
44. a. I live by the rules and standards of society.
b. I do not always need to live by the rules and standards of society.
45. a. I am bound by my duties and obligations to others.
b. I am not bound by my duties and obligations to others.
46. a. Reasons are needed to justify my feelings.
b. Reasons are not needed to justify my feelings.

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47. a. There are times when just being silent is the best way I can express my feelings.
b. I find it difficult to express my feelings by just being silent.
48. a. I often feel it necessary to defend my past actions.
b. I do not feel it necessary to defend my past actions.
49. a. I like everyone I know.
b. I do not like everyone I know.
50. a. Criticism threatens my self-esteem.
b. Criticism does not threaten my self-esteem.
51. a. I believe that knowledge of what is right makes people act right.
b. I do not believe that knowledge of what is right necessarily makes people act right.
52. a. I am afraid to be angry at those I love.
b. I feel free to be angry at those I love.
53. a. My basic responsibility is to be aware of my own needs.
b. My basic responsibility is to be aware of others' needs.
54. a. Impressing others is most important.
b. Expressing myself is most important.
55. a. To feel right, I need always to please others.
b. I can feel right without always having to please others.
56. a. I will risk a friendship in order to say or do what I believe is right.
b. I will not risk a friendship just to say or do what is right.
57. a. I feel bound to keep the promises I make.
b. I do not always feel bound to keep the promises I make.
58. a. I must avoid sorrow at all costs.
b. It is not necessary for me to avoid sorrow.
59. a. I strive always to predict what will happen in the future.
b. I do not feel it necessary always to predict what will happen in the future.
60. a. It is important that others accept my point of view.
b. It is not necessary for others to accept my point of view.
61. a. I only feel free to express warm feelings to my friends.
b. I feel free to express both warm and hostile feelings to my friends.
62. a. There are many times when it is more important to express feelings than to carefully evaluate the situation.
b. There are very few times when it is more important to express feelings than to carefully evaluate the situation.
63. a. I welcome criticism as an opportunity for growth.
b. I do not welcome criticism as an opportunity for growth.
64. a. Appearances are all-important.
b. Appearances are not terribly important.
65. a. I hardly ever gossip.
b. I gossip a little at times.
66. a. I feel free to reveal my weaknesses among friends.
b. I do not feel free to reveal my weaknesses among friends.
67. a. I should always assume responsibility for other people's feelings.
b. I need not always assume responsibility for other people's feelings.
68. a. I feel free to be myself and bear the consequences.
b. I do not feel free to be myself and bear the consequences.

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69. a. I already know all I need to know about my feelings.
b. As life goes on, I continue to know more and more about my feelings.
70. a. I hesitate to show my weaknesses among strangers.
b. I do not hesitate to show my weaknesses among strangers.
71. a. I will continue to grow only by setting my sights on a high-level, socially approved goal.
b. I will continue to grow best by being myself.
72. a. I accept inconsistencies within myself.
b. I cannot accept inconsistencies within myself.
73. a. Man is naturally cooperative.
b. Man is naturally antagonistic.
74. a. I don't mind laughing at a dirty joke.
b. I hardly ever laugh at a dirty joke.
75. a. Happiness is a by-product in human relationships.
b. Happiness is an end in human relationships.
76. a. I only feel free to show friendly feelings to strangers.
b. I feel free to show both friendly and unfriendly feelings to strangers.
77. a. I try to be sincere but I sometimes fail.
b. I try to be sincere and I am sincere.
78. a. Self-interest is natural.
b. Self-interest is unnatural.
79. a. A neutral party can measure a happy relationship by observation.
b. A neutral party cannot measure a happy relationship by observation.
80. a. For me, work and play are the same.
b. For me, work and play are opposites.
81. a. Two people will get along best if each concentrates on pleasing the other.
b. Two people can get along best if each person feels free to express himself.
82. a. I have feelings of resentment about things that are past.
b. I do not have feelings of resentment about things that are past.
83. a. I like only masculine men and feminine women.
b. I like men and women who show masculinity as well as femininity.
84. a. I actively attempt to avoid embarrassment whenever I can.
b. I do not actively attempt to avoid embarrassment.
85. a. I blame my parents for a lot of my troubles.
b. I do not blame my parents for my troubles.
86. a. I feel that a person should be silly only at the right time and place.
b. I can be silly when I feel like it.
87. a. People should always repent their wrongdoings.
b. People need not always repent their wrongdoings.
88. a. I worry about the future.
b. I do not worry about the future.
89. a. Kindness and ruthlessness must be opposites.
b. Kindness and ruthlessness need not be opposites.
90. a. I prefer to save good things for future use.
b. I prefer to use good things now.
91. a. People should always control their anger.
b. People should express honestly-felt anger.

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92. a. The truly spiritual man is sometimes sensual.
b. The truly spiritual man is never sensual.
93. a. I am able to express my feelings even when they sometimes result in undesirable consequences.
b. I am unable to express my feelings if they are likely to result in undesirable consequences.
94. a. I am often ashamed of some of the emotions that I feel bubbling up within me.
b. I do not feel ashamed of my emotions.
95. a. I have had mysterious or ecstatic experiences.
b. I have never had mysterious or ecstatic experiences.
96. a. I am orthodoxly religious.
b. I am not orthodoxly religious.
97. a. I am completely free of guilt.
b. I am not free of guilt.
98. a. I have a problem in fusing sex and love.
b. I have no problem in fusing sex and love.
99. a. I enjoy detachment and privacy.
b. I do not enjoy detachment and privacy.
100. a. I feel dedicated to my work.
b. I do not feel dedicated to my work.
101. a. I can express affection regardless of whether it is returned.
b. I cannot express affection unless I am sure it will be returned.
102. a. Living for the future is as important as living for the moment.
b. Only living for the moment is important.
103. a. It is better to be yourself.
b. It is better to be popular.
104. a. Wishing and imagining can be bad.
b. Wishing and imagining are always good.
105. a. I spend more time preparing to live.
b. I spend more time actually living.
106. a. I am loved because I give love.
b. I am loved because I am lovable.
107. a. When I really love myself, everybody will love me.
b. When I really love myself, there will still be those who won't love me.
108. a. I can let other people control me.
b. I can let other people control me if I am sure they will not continue to control me.
109. a. As they are, people sometimes annoy me.
b. As they are, people do not annoy me.
110. a. Living for the future gives my life its primary meaning.
b. Only when living for the future ties into living for the present does my life have meaning.
111. a. I follow diligently the motto, "Don't waste your time."
b. I do not feel bound by the motto, "Don't waste your time."
112. a. What I have been in the past dictates the kind of person I will be.
b. What I have been in the past does not necessarily dictate the kind of person I will be.
113. a. It is important to me how I live in the here and now.
b. It is of little importance to me how I live in the here and now.
114. a. I have had an experience where life seemed just perfect.
b. I have never had an experience where life seemed just perfect.
115. a. Evil is the result of frustration in trying to be good.
b. Evil is an intrinsic part of human nature which fights good.

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116. a. A person can completely change his essential nature.
b. A person can never change his essential nature.
117. a. I am afraid to be tender.
b. I am not afraid to be tender.
118. a. I am assertive and affirming.
b. I am not assertive and affirming.
119. a. Women should be trusting and yielding.
b. Women should not be trusting and yielding.
120. a. I see myself as others see me.
b. I do not see myself as others see me.
121. a. It is a good idea to think about your greatest potential.
b. A person who thinks about his greatest potential gets conceited.
122. a. Men should be assertive and affirming.
b. Men should not be assertive and affirming.
123. a. I am able to risk being myself.
b. I am not able to risk being myself.
124. a. I feel the need to be doing something significant all of the time.
b. I do not feel the need to be doing something significant all of the time.
125. a. I suffer from memories.
b. I do not suffer from memories.
126. a. Men and women must be both yielding and assertive.
b. Men and women must not be both yielding and assertive.
127. a. I like to participate actively in intense discussions.
b. I do not like to participate actively in intense discussions.
128. a. I am self-sufficient.
b. I am not self-sufficient.
129. a. I like to withdraw from others for extended periods of time.
b. I do not like to withdraw from others for extended periods of time.
130. a. I always play fair.
b. Sometimes I cheat a little.
131. a. Sometimes I feel so angry I want to destroy or hurt others.
b. I never feel so angry that I want to destroy or hurt others.
132. a. I feel certain and secure in my relationships with others.
b. I feel uncertain and insecure in my relationships with others.
133. a. I like to withdraw temporarily from others.
b. I do not like to withdraw temporarily from others.
134. a. I can accept my mistakes.
b. I cannot accept my mistakes.
135. a. I find some people who are stupid and uninteresting.
b. I never find any people who are stupid and uninteresting.
136. a. I regret my past.
b. I do not regret my past.
137. a. Being myself is helpful to others.
b. Just being myself is not helpful to others.
138. a. I have had moments of intense happiness when I felt like I was experiencing a kind of ecstasy or bliss.
b. I have not had moments of intense happiness when I felt like I was experiencing a kind of bliss.

GO ON TO THE NEXT PAGE

139. a. People have an instinct for evil.
b. People do not have an instinct for evil.
140. a. For me, the future usually seems hopeful.
b. For me, the future often seems hopeless.
141. a. People are both good and evil.
b. People are not both good and evil.
142. a. My past is a stepping stone for the future.
b. My past is a handicap to my future.
143. a. "Killing time" is a problem for me.
b. "Killing time" is not a problem for me.
144. a. For me, past, present and future is in meaningful continuity.
b. For me, the present is an island, unrelated to the past and future.
145. a. My hope for the future depends on having friends.
b. My hope for the future does not depend on having friends.
146. a. I can like people without having to approve of them.
b. I cannot like people unless I also approve of them.
147. a. People are basically good.
b. People are not basically good.
148. a. Honesty is always the best policy.
b. There are times when honesty is not the best policy.
149. a. I can feel comfortable with less than a perfect performance.
b. I feel uncomfortable with anything less than a perfect performance.
150. a. I can overcome any obstacles as long as I believe in myself.
b. I cannot overcome every obstacle even if I believe in myself.



FACULTY RATING SCALE

Directions:

Enclosed please find a set of cards for each of the 5 variables defined below. On each card is the name of a student. A copy of your roster is enclosed.

Please read the definitions carefully and then follow the procedures for ranking the students in your class on the 5 variables on the next page.

<u>TERM</u>	<u>DEFINITION</u>
A (1) <u>Attendance</u>	Regularly came to class and when absent offered an excuse acceptable to you as an instructor.
G (2) <u>Grades</u> (Achievement)	Achieved a grade somewhat in keeping with his ability as you came to know and understand it.
CP (3) <u>Class</u> <u>Partici-</u> <u>pation</u>	The student <u>appeared</u> <u>actively</u> involved in the classroom experience during the course. A shy person should not necessarily be rated low in this category.
WI (4) <u>Work</u> <u>Improvement</u>	The student showed improvement in the quality of his class work, assignments and tests as time progressed--perhaps increased his potential for success as a student.
M (5) <u>Motivation</u>	Student strived hard to complete the course and achieve course objectives. He showed a willingness to work and appeared genuinely interested.

RANKING PROCEDURES

There are four categories in which to place the students. They are:

HIGH	AVERAGE	LOW	DROP
------	---------	-----	------

A. Cards are in alphabetical order by variable. You should rank the students by variable in the following order:

- | | |
|----------------------------|----------|
| 1. "A" Attendance | (GREEN) |
| 2. "G" Grades | (WHITE) |
| 3. "C" Class Participation | (BLUE) |
| 4. "W" Work Improvement | (ORANGE) |
| 5. "M" Motivation | (YELLOW) |

B. Step

1. Scan through the cards.
2. Remove any students from the pack that belong in the "Drop" category. Put in the envelope marked "Drop".
3. Scan the pack, removing cards of students you wish to place in the "High" category on the "Attendance" variable--place them in the "High Attendance" envelope.
4. Scan the pack, removing students you wish to place in the "Low" category on the "Attendance" variable. Place these cards in "Low Attendance" envelope.
5. Place the remainder of the cards in the "Average Attendance" envelope.

Repeat Steps 1 through 5 for the remaining 4 variables in the order listed in A above.

Place all the envelopes and materials in the tan envelope addressed to me and mail at your earliest possible convenience. Your assistance is greatly appreciated.

MOTIVATIONAL WORKSHOP EVALUATION

The workshop you have experienced was designed to provide learning in several key areas relative to your personal success as a student and upon release. Your responses are also critical to the further development of this work so that other men may also profit from the experience in the future. Please answer all items as clearly and completely as possible.

Thank you for your enthusiastic participation.

Edward Travis

GOAL SETTING

Have you gained a clearer understanding of how to go about setting and realizing your goal?

Yes _____ No _____ Please explain.

CLEARER SENSE OF SELF

Have you learned about yourself? Your motivation? If so, please explain what triggered your learning and how it can help you in the future.

COMMUNICATION

What have you learned about yourself regarding your ability to share your thoughts?

Your feelings?

SUPPORT

What have you learned regarding the use of support in relationship to yourself?

Your goals and objectives?

FEEDBACK

Why is this important to you?

TRUST

What have you learned regarding trust?

Which activities were most effective for your learning?

Least effective?

EVALUATION OF TRAINER (Ed) (Ralph)

- | | Little | Some | Quite
a Bit | Very
Much |
|--|--------|------|----------------|--------------|
| 1. Related to me as a participant. | | | | |
| | ED | | | |
| | RALPH | | | |
| 2. Ability to motivate me as a participant. | | | | |
| | ED | | | |
| | RALPH | | | |
| 3. Willing to be open with me. | | | | |
| | ED | | | |
| | RALPH | | | |
| 4. Knowledge of materials. | | | | |
| | ED | | | |
| | RALPH | | | |
| 5. Ability to communicate ideas effectively. | | | | |
| | ED | | | |
| | RALPH | | | |
| 6. List any specific behaviors of the trainer that were particularly helpful to you. | | | | |
| 7. What was the trainers' particular strengths? | | | | |

8. What could the trainer work on to improve for future workshops?
9. How would you improve the workshop?
10. Would you recommend this workshop for other men? Explain why.

Please feel free to write any comments that you have regarding the workshop and its impact on you.

Good Luck!

