

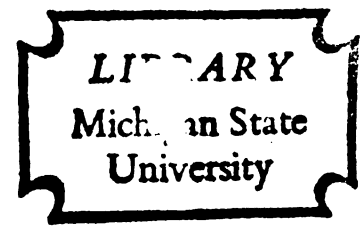
RELATIONSHIP OF LEADER BEHAVIOR AND MEMBER
RESPONSE WITHIN AN INSTITUTIONAL SETTING

Thesis for the Degree of M. S.

MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY

MICHAEL JON PANETTA

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**RELATIONSHIP OF LEADER BEHAVIOR AND MEMBER RESPONSE
WITHIN AN INSTITUTIONAL SETTING**

By
Michael Jon Panetta

A THESIS

Submitted to
Michigan State University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of

MASTER OF SCIENCE

School of Criminal Justice

1972

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ABSTRACT

RELATIONSHIP OF LEADER BEHAVIOR AND MEMBER RESPONSE WITHIN AN AN INSTITUTIONAL SETTING

by

Michael Jon Panetta

Literature in the area of Juvenile Corrections indicates a need for more adequate information concerning staff-ward relationships. Relatively few studies have focused upon this area of investigation.

This study is designed to determine whether or not a member's (wards) response is a function of/or related to the Leader (staff) Behavior to which he is exposed within the institutional setting.

Maxey Boys' Training School and Green Oaks Center (special treatment unit for boys unable to function in an "open" type of institution), located at Whitmore Lake, Michigan, was selected as the Juvenile Institution to be studied. The reason for this selection was due to the evacuation of the Lansing Boys' Training School and the

accessability to fully operant programs. Although the reception center also serves camp operations which are operant during the summer months, Maxey is soon to become Michigan's sole surviving Boys' Training School facility accommodating the entire state.

The hypotheses under investigation are:

(1) Leader Behavior (staff) has no effect on Member (ward) response, thus, there will be no difference between member response no matter what the Leader Behavior may be;

(2) If Leader Behavior is found to be Authoritarian, Democratic, or Laissez-faire, the member response will not be related to the Leader Behavior and therefore, not consistent with Lippitt and White's findings. I will use the null hypotheses and attempt to reject it in accepting the alternate hypotheses. Therefore, the premise under investigation is that the Leader's (staff) method of relating (behavior-IV) affects certain member (ward) behavior (behavior-DV) in a predicted way (consistent with Lippitt and White's findings).

The types of data collected were observed behaviors and verbal responses of the institution's

staff and wards under consideration. Specific categories of behavior derived from indices of typologies developed by Lippitt and White were utilized as a basis for observation and categorization.

The results of the study indicate that the null hypotheses can be rejected and the alternate accepted since the findings suggest that an association between Leader Behavior (staff) and Member Response (wards) exists. In essence, Child to Leader and Child to Child Behavior seem to be dependent upon the leadership style to which the individual is exposed. The need for further investigation of the dynamics of Juvenile and staff relationships within institutional settings is evident and strongly recommended.

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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my parents
MR. AND MRS. FRANK ANTHONY PANETTA
for their lifelong guidance,
encouragement and patience.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I wish to express my appreciation to the following people who assisted in the completion of this thesis:

to Dr. Robert C. Trojanowicz, my Major Professor and Committee Chairman, and the Committee, Dr. John H. McNamara and Mr. Roger Steggerda for their guidance and understanding;

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finally, heartfelt thanks goes to my loving wife, Susan Marie, and my daughter, Mary Elizabeth, for sacrificing many hours of family activity and for their understanding.

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CHAPTER I INTRODUCTION

At present youngsters adjudicated by courts as delinquent can be given a suspended sentence, placed in a detention home, probation, incarcerated in a training school or placed in alternative prevention programs that are available. "Most authorities agree a training school should be avoided as much as possible and used only as a last resort since it is actually an institution of confinement."¹

Cohen² and Thomas³ believe that the delinquent acts that a youth commits are a very small part of his behavioral repertoire and that most of his behavior is socially acceptable. It is their con-

¹William Amos, Ed.D., "The Future of Juvenile Institutions," Federal Probation, (Washington, D.C., March, 1968) p. 41.

²Albert K. Cohen, Delinquent Boys: Culture of the Gang, (Glencoe, Ill., The Free Press, 1955) pp. 24-32.

³Edwin Thomas, "Role Problems of Offenders and Workers in the Field of Corrections," pp. 164-172.

tention that by removing the youth from the expectations of the community, you make him much more susceptible to the pressures of his new environment, but warn that if the new environment supports non-legitimate adaptations, the delinquent will have difficulty resisting this life style, particularly if his reference group and associations in the institution are oriented toward non-legitimate styles.

Unfortunately, the methods employed by institutions in treating delinquents seems to be the removal and holding of the offender in a setting which is, in many ways, no different from the one from which he came. In fact, "the ineffectiveness of institutional programs is partly to blame for the increasing frequency of delinquent activity in that youngsters who return to their neighborhood from institutions carry with them the added sophistication of a one year graduate course in delinquency (manipulation, conning, utilization of subcultural codes) and thereby assume leadership and influence over other youngsters in the area."⁴

⁴William Amos, Ed. D., "The Future of Juvenile Institutions," Federal Probation. (Washington, D.C., March, 1968) p. 41.

Perhaps the reason authorities in the field of Juvenile Corrections oppose a training school placement is because rehabilitation in such institutions has become nothing more than a myth. Rehabilitation cannot be achieved as a by-product of the present system which is obviously designed for control and punishment. A new system should be developed based on the knowledge of human behavior. "If we have made progress in our knowledge of human behavior and institutional programs for young delinquents, the success of our treatment is debatable."⁵ The community preoccupies itself with the apprehension of the transgressor and afterwards, loses interest. While society is satisfied that the offender is being punished, it does not care about the actual method of punishment. Evidence of this is the fact that most Juvenile institutions are usually inadequately staffed and the state of California serves as a good example. Out of a

⁵Robert Pickett, House of Refuge: Origins of Juvenile Reform in New York State, (Syracuse University Press, Syracuse, 1969) p. 217.

total of California's 21,247 state staff members employed in correctional institutions, only five percent (1,154) are Psychiatrists, Psychologists, Social Workers, etc.⁶

The Problem

For many years the study of delinquency and criminality has focused its efforts almost entirely on measuring and describing conduct levels* and personality types. However, "the study of delinquency must go beyond a merely descriptive level of conduct and personality analysis to discover the interrelationships and dynamics of elements that determine conduct."⁷ Although this statement was made almost a quarter of a century ago, it is still applicable to the study of delinquency. For this reason I have chosen as my area of investigation Leader Behavior in an Institutional Setting. It is my

⁶Gerald Wheeler and Harvey Inskeep, "Youth in the Gauntlet," Federal Probation, (Washington, D.C., 1968) p. 25.

*Conduct level is the level at which an individual relates (physical, verbal, etc.); domineering, submissive, arrogant; passive, aggressive, defensive.

⁷Paul Tappen, Juvenile Delinquency, (New York: 1949) p. 56.

hope that this study will provide a better understanding of the dynamics of conduct and the effects of interrelationships on behavior.

Overview of the Study

The research problem is a descriptive study in that it is a series of descriptive observations. It seeks to identify the type of leadership that is being used in training school facilities (specifically Maxey Boys' Training School) and the type of behavioral response it is eliciting from wards. While the causal hypothesis set forth by Lewin, Lippitt and White in their study of Leader Behavior will be tested, there is an added feature of the institutional environment. The study is also comparative in that it notes the contrast between the behavior of wards in relating to different leader types (Authoritarian, Democratic, and Laissez-faire). In essence, the problem relates to role dimensions of relationships and attempts to explain the extent to which an individual's percepts and expectations of another impose/or encroach upon the recipitating individual's self-concept and predispose him to behave in one way or another.

Figures 1 and 2, although greatly oversimplified, serve as a visual representation of the dimensions of the research problem.

The Social Organization Between Staff and Inmates
Within an Institutional Setting

Figure 1

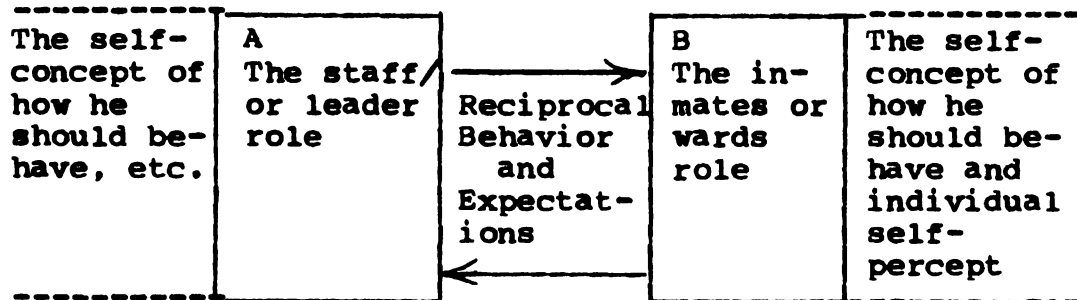
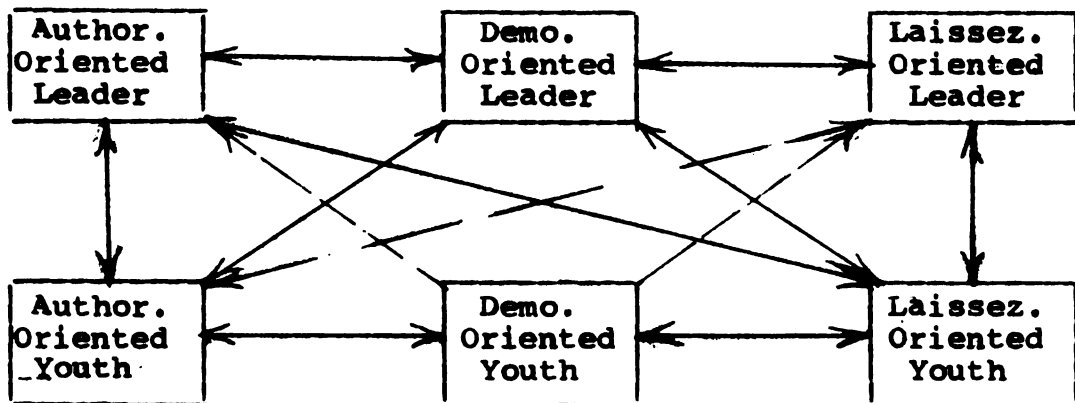


Figure 2



Significance

By answering these questions it is felt that a better understanding of the variables (dynamics) involved in these relationships will emerge. From this, a change in behavior techniques or other strategies for improvement can be introduced. The correctional setting is a unique situation in which many variables, if identified, could be effectively used in rehabilitative efforts. The problem of identifying a leadership style within an institutional setting and measuring its corresponding effect on member (wards) reactions relates to a critical population which is increasing and is in need of practical solutions which can only be developed after critical evaluation and review. The proposed study will sharpen the definition of the concepts and relationships identified in the Lippitt and White Study, and provide an opportunity for a fruitful exploration with known techniques.

Previous research in the fields of Education, Social Psychology and Educational Sociology have sought to determine the variables involved in motivation and learning. Variables conducive to these

factors include biological, cultural, social, and situational aspects which impinge upon the individual and influence him in differing degrees. This study relates to this research by attempting to identify significant variables which ultimately influence behavior and performance.

History and Theoretical Framework of the Study

The Theoretical Framework that this study can be related to is the Lewin, Lippitt and White study on Leader Behavior and Member Reaction in Three "Social Climates" in which Authoritarian, Democratic and Laissez-faire leaders are used and member reaction measured. Understanding the significance of this study necessitates an understanding of the Lewin, Lippitt and White study. For this reason I have included a brief summary of the Lewin, Lippitt and White study and findings.

Lippitt and White's investigation was carried out in two different parts: an exploratory experiment and a second, more extensive research. The primary aim of the first study was to develop techniques for creating and describing the "social (climate) atmosphere" of children's clubs and for

quantitatively recording the effects of varied social atmospheres upon group life and individual behavior. Two degrees of control group life, labeled "democratic" and "authoritarian" were used as the experimental variables. One group was led in a democratic manner, the other in an autocratic style. In the first study (experiment 1) the same leader met with two clubs. Both groups had five members, ten years of age. The behavior of the members and the leaders was recorded by observers.⁸ The second study had a number of purposes. The one most relevant to this study is to examine the effects upon individual and group behavior of three variations in a social atmosphere, labeled "democratic", "authoritarian" and "laissez-faire". The actual meaning of the adjectives used to label these social climates is necessarily somewhat different from the meaning attributed to them in political and economic discussions. The accompanying tabulation describes briefly the chief characteristics of three treatment

⁸A fuller description of this experimental plan for this investigation may be found in Lippitt, R., "An Experimental Study of the Affect of Democratic and Authoritarian Group Atmospheres", (University of Iowa Studies and Child Care, 1940, 16) pp. 43-195.

variations to be implemented within this study. Unlike Lippitt and White's second study⁹ (experiment 2), the behavior and style of the adult leaders was not a controlled variable.

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Four adult leaders were trained to proficiency in the three leadership treatments. Four, five-member groups of ten year old boys were used. Observations of both the leaders and the boys were observed.

Model of Leader Typologies¹⁰

Authoritarian	Democratic	Laissez-faire
1. All determination of policy to the leader	1. All policies a matter of group discussion and decision, encouraged and assisted by the leader	1. Complete freedom for group/individual decision, with a minimum of leader participation
2. Techniques and activity steps dictated by the authority, one at a time, so that future steps were always uncertain to a large degree	2. Activity perspective gained during discussion period. Steps to group goal sketched, and when technical advice was needed, the leader suggested two or more alternative procedures to choose from	2. Various materials supplied by the leader, who made it clear that he would supply information only when asked. He took no other part in work discussion
3. The leader usually dictated the particular work task and work companion of each member	3. The members were free to work with whomever they chose, and the division of tasks was left up to the group	3. Complete non-participation of the leader
4. The dominator tended to be "personal" in his praise and criticism of each members work; remained aloof from active group participation except when demonstrating	4. The leader was "objective" or "fact-minded" in his praise and criticism, and tried to be a regular group member in spirit without doing too much of the work	4. Infrequent spontaneous comments on member activity unless questioned, and no attempt to praise or regulate the course of events

¹⁰Ralph White and Ronald Lippitt, "Leader Behavior and Member Reaction in Three "Social Climates", Group Dynamics, p. 319.

The study was simply a "naturalistic" observation and evaluation of the behavior of the leaders and the reactions of the boys. They were also interviewed concerning their feelings about the basic nature of the leadership behavior typically used by each leader type. (This report describes the behavior of the members when under the direction of a leader using each of the variations). Summary graphs of Lippitt and White's findings (Figures 3-5) were used as a comparative frame of reference from which observations and evaluations (of what is presently being done within institutions) were made. Figure 3 compares the behavior of average Authoritarian, Democratic, and Laissez-faire leaders. Leader Behavior is expressed in terms of its percentage of the total observed behavior per category by each of the three models.

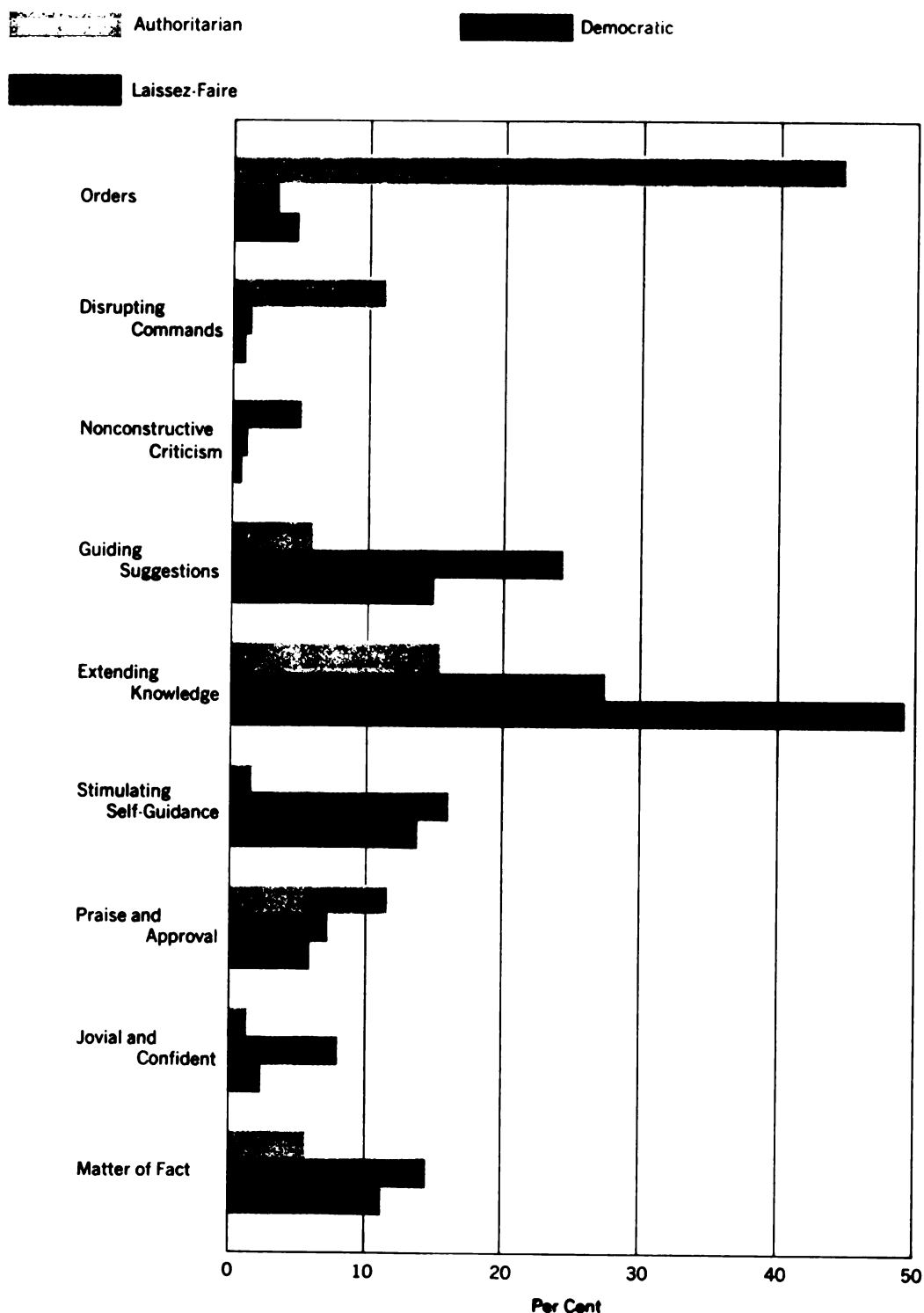


FIGURE 3. Comparison of behavior of average Authoritarian, Democratic, and Laissez-faire leader.

¹¹Ralph White and Ronald Lippitt, "Leader Behavior and Member Reaction in Three "Social Climates", *Group Dynamics*, (third edition, New York: Harper and Row, Publishers, 1968) p. 320.

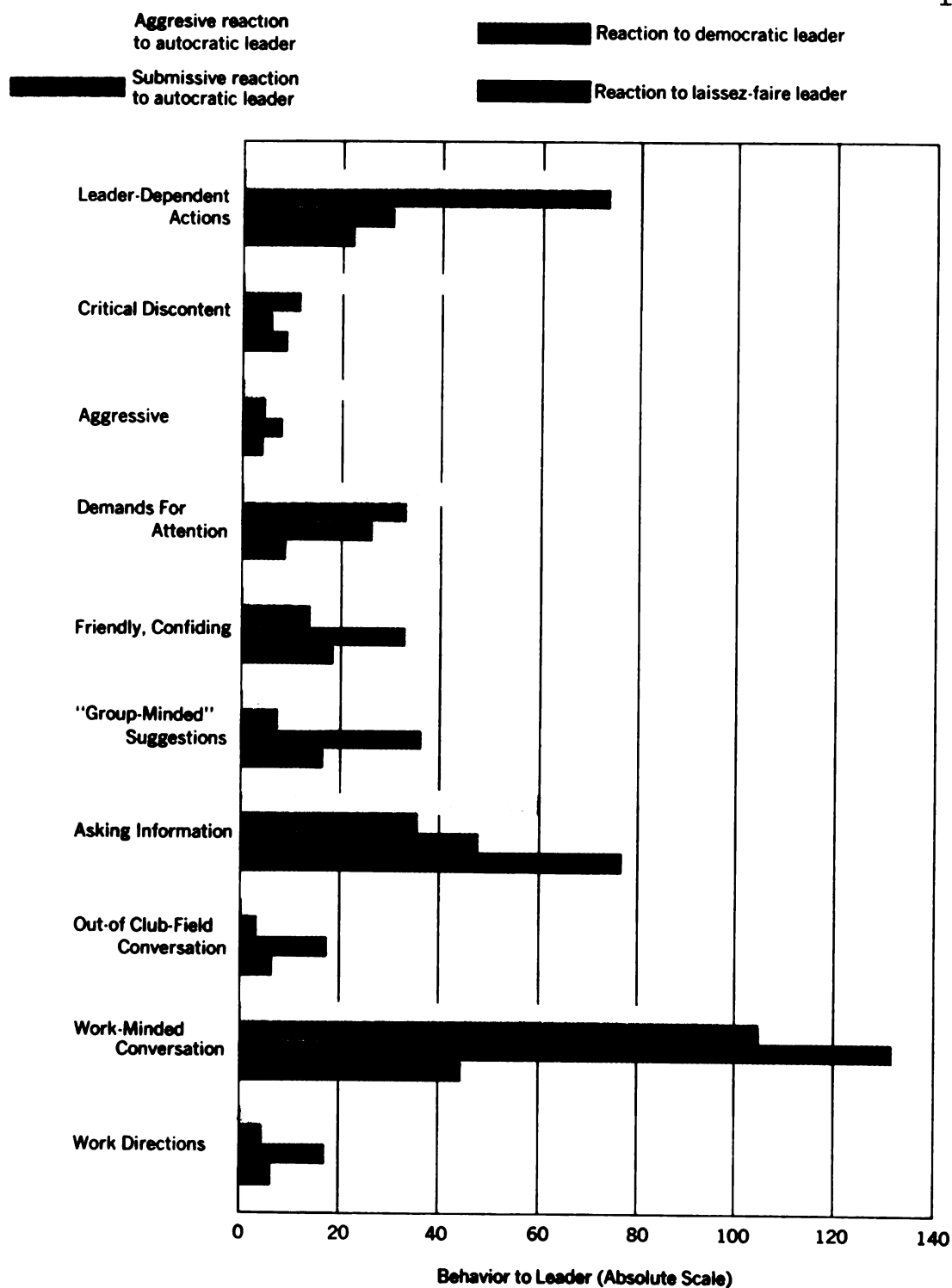


FIGURE 4. Four patterns of Child-to-Leader relationship.

¹²Ibid., p. 332.

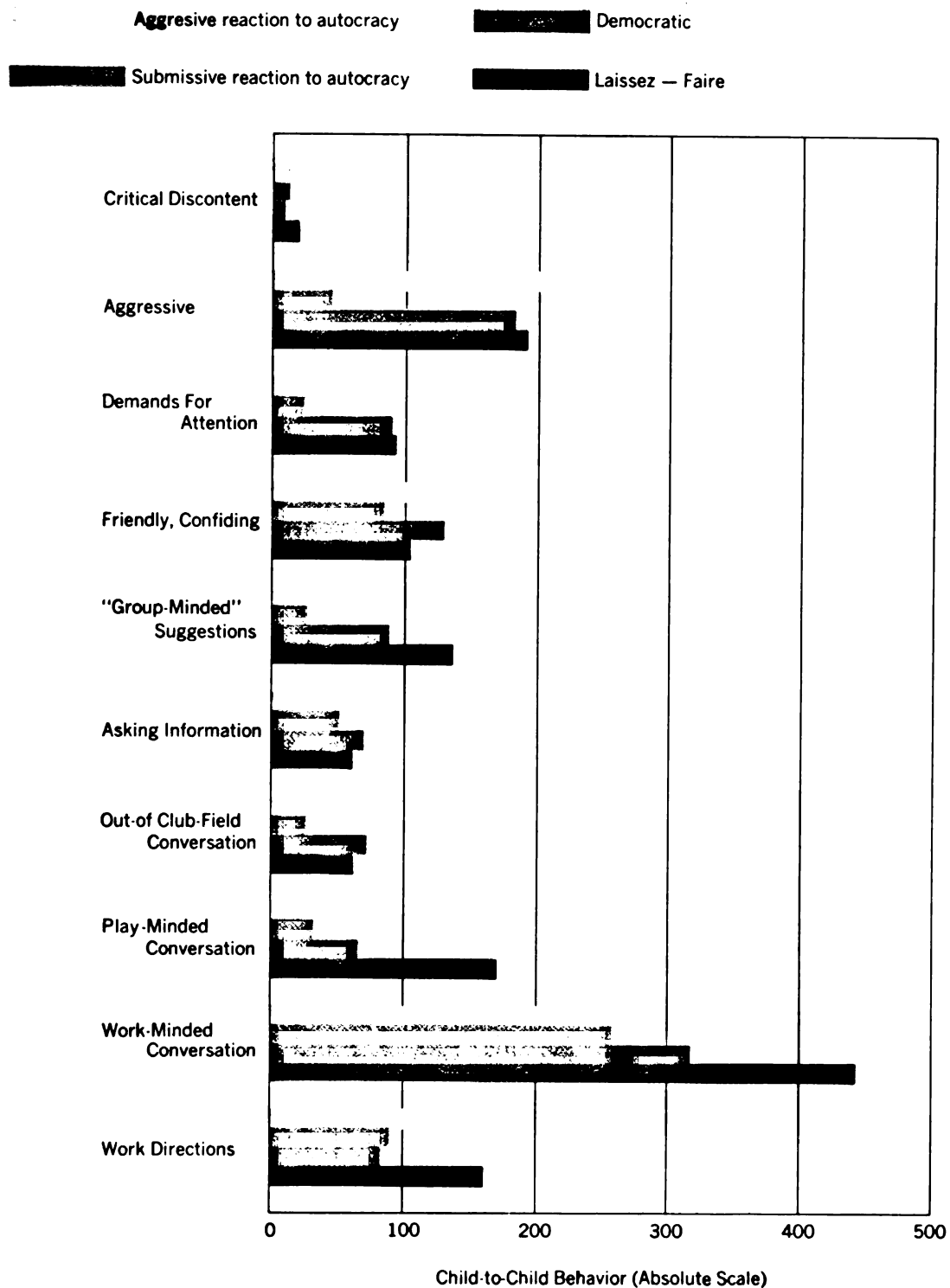


FIGURE 5. Four patterns of Child-to-Child relationship.

¹³Ibid., p. 333

The more important results of Lippitt and White's second study (experiment 2) is expressed in Figures 4 and 5, which represent, respectively, the boys' behavior toward their leader and toward each other. The chief differences worth noting are (a) the large number of leader-dependent actions in both reactions to autocracy; (b) the large amounts of critical discontent and of aggressive behavior in the aggressive reaction to autocracy; (c) the frequency of "friendly, confiding" conversation and of group-minded suggestions in democracy; and (d) the contrast between democracy and laissez-faire in work-minded conversation.

The following differences should also be noted: (a) the large difference between the two reactions to autocracy in amount of aggressive behavior, and the intermediate position of democracy and laissez-faire in this respect; (b) the generally subdued atmosphere in the submissive reaction to autocracy, as shown by the small absolute totals of aggressive behavior, attention demands, group-minded suggestions, out-of-club-field conversation, and play-minded remarks; (c) the small proportion of group-minded

suggestions in both reactions to autocracy; and (d) the small amount of play-minded conversation in both reactions to autocracy, and the very large amount in laissez-faire.

CHAPTER II REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The purpose of this chapter is to acquaint the reader with literature pertinent to an understanding of the study of "Leader Behavior and Member Reactions" within an Institutional Setting.

Leadership Studies

The early work on Leadership by Lewin, Lippitt and White¹ provided evidence that the same group of people will behave in markedly different ways when operating under leaders who behave differently.

Ever since Lewin, Lippitt and White's² classical leadership study, investigators in this area have concentrated on the important aspects or clusters of leadership behaviors and attitudes.

¹Lewin, K., Lippitt, R., and White, R., "An Experimental Approach to the Study of Autocracy and Democracy, Sociometry, 1938, I, pp. 292-300.

²Lewin, K., Lippitt, R., and White, R., "Patterns of Aggression Behavior in Experimentally Created "Social Climates", Journal of Social Psychology, 1939, pp. 271-299.

Fielder, in "Personality and Situational Determinants of Leadership Effectiveness" states: "Leadership or the process of influencing others for the purpose of performing a shared task requires to a greater or lesser extent that one person direct, coordinate or motivate others in the group in order to get the assigned task accomplished. In grossly, oversimplified terms, the leader may use the power of his position to enforce compliance or he may persuade and cajole his members to do his bidding."³ It is possible for a "power grabber" to help a group achieve its goals and it is also possible that when an individual's major role is the possession of power, his behavior will serve mainly his own needs without contributing to the group's locomotion or maintenance.

Leadership as Power

Kurt Lewin in Field Theory of Social Science describes power as being "the potential ability of one person to get another to behave in a certain way."

³Fred E. Fielder, "Personality and Situational Determinants of Leadership Effectiveness," Group Dynamics, (third edition, New York: Harper and Row Publishers, 1968) pp. 362-363.

When speaking of actualized power the concept influence is used. Power is therefore, potential influence. Thus, the definition of "leader" means that person who has relatively greater influence potential in a relationship. Just as power is something one possesses in degrees, leadership also exists in degrees and depends upon the relative power of the individual considered."⁴

Acquisition of Deviant Adaptations

Delinquency, like the measles, seems to have been regarded as a homogeneous something which people have or have not, and it was thought sufficient, therefore, to simply note that a person is or is not delinquent.⁵ However, as Abraham H. Maslow states in Toward a Psychology of Being: "each person has an essential inner nature which is instinctoid or hereditary. This nature is either good or neutral, therefore, in the beginning there can be no bad or delinquent nature as some people tend to believe."⁶

⁴Kurt Lewin, Field Theory of Social Science, (New York: Harper, 1951).

⁵Albert Cohen, Delinquent Boys: The Culture of the Gang, (New York: 1955) p. 172.

⁶Abraham Maslow, Toward a Psychology of Being, (New York: 1962) pp. 26-68.

Deviant behavior is not simply the violation of what the general populace has come to accept as proper social behavior. Edwin H. Sutherland and Donald R. Cressey, in the sixth edition of Principles of Criminology, use the theory of "differential association" to explain all types of crime, and refer to the various parts of criminality as parts of the traditional learning process. "Becoming a criminal involves the same learning processes as becoming a banker, professor or fisherman. The content of the learning, not the process itself determines whether or not an individual becomes a criminal."⁷ This relates to the study by describing the acquisition of negative social adaptations as a learned rather than innate process, dependent upon the nature or content of the individual's exposure.

Behavior patterns may be said to be motivated by a set of focal concerns which receive special emphasis within a social structure. In this way

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Edwin H. Sutherland and Donald R. Cressey, Principles of Criminology, (sixth edition, Phila., Lippincott, 1960) pp. 92-97.

the societal process or community enters as a determining factor in the individual's thinking. Because an individual's personality is comprised of every experience he has been subjected to, be it good or bad, the socialization process, the sub-culture(s) in which he lives, the experiences he has encountered in primary group relationships, his associations, and his social class position, therefore, play a major role in dictating to the individual what is right and what is wrong for him to do.

Man's attraction to others enables him to find identities. By noting similarities between himself and various individuals or groups, he is able to resolve a considerable degree of ambiguity as to "who he is", that is, what he means to himself as a person and what he means to others. One's social group, thus, becomes one source of meaning which serves as a frame of reference through which the environment is viewed. Reference groups figure into social learning by providing the individual with a tool for decision making and, in many instances, even deciding for the individual. Cart-

wright and Zander, in the third edition of Group Dynamics, carry Sutherland's idea one step further and imply that the content is a by-product of the process of social human organization, and relates to this study by describing how one's social group affiliations exert pressures upon behavior. "Whenever a collection of people are exposed to the same environment, they will be inclined to assume that there is only one "correct" description of the situation. If a person finds that he sees this environment differently from the others, he is faced with a cognitive conflict: Should he believe his own perceptions, or should he trust the views expressed by others? Although individuals respond differently to this conflict, the demand for uniformity of opinion generated by such a situation would seem to be inevitable. It is clear that groups can and often do apply pressures on their members so as to bring about a uniformity of beliefs, attitudes, values, and behavior. Membership in a group determines for an individual many of the things he will see, hear, think about, learn and do."⁸

⁸Cartwright, D., and Zander, A., Group Dynamics, (third edition, New York: Harper and Row Publishers, 1968) p. 139.

A similar line of reasoning was advanced by Albert K. Cohen in Delinquent Boys to account for the norms developed by delinquent gangs of lower-class boys. Cohen expands upon Cartwright and Zander's assertion and notes that "these groups arise because society's expectations in school and work cannot be met by potential gang members. Those sharing common feelings of frustration and defeat provide support for one another by establishing a code they can fulfill (characterized by Cohen as non-utilitarian, malicious, and negativistic) that is in opposition with the demands placed on them by society."⁹ This relates to the study by expressing the need for realistic expectations based upon the accessibility of legitimate channels of behavior for all people.

This is consistent with the theory of "non-legitimate socialization" enumerated by Edwin L. Thomas in "Role Problems of Offenders and Workers In the Field of Corrections." Thomas suggests that

⁹ Albert K. Cohen. Delinquent Boys: Culture of the Gang, (Glencoe, Ill., The Free Press, 1955) pp. 24-32.

offenders are socialized to be deviant, and cites poor/or inadequate role models, (parents, peers, etc.) identifications and associations as the primary predisposing agent to the acquisition of delinquent adaptations.

"The deviant act has been learned from other similar offenders. It is consistent with the norms of the deviant group, those norms being defined typically in opposition to those of legitimate society. The deviant behaviors considered desirable by legitimate society; the role models, such as peers, friends, or even parents either are examples of deviant behavior or are otherwise poor representatives of the role model sanctioned by the legitimate world. The career route readily available to such individuals make it easier to remain in deviant positions than to enter and remain in non-deviant categories. In brief, social learning has conspired to create a person for whom the commission of various delinquent acts is normal expected behavior."¹⁰

This is directly related to the study of Leader Behavior in that it asserts that the behavior patterns and examples of the role models to which an individual is exposed is a major determinant of his behavior.

Literature that Indicates a Need for the Study of Leader and Group Dynamics

In "The Schools and the Problems of Delinquency: Research Studies and Findings," Bernice M. Moore

¹⁰Edwin Thomas, "Role Problems of Offenders and Workers in the Field of Corrections," pp. 164-172.

substantiates Thomas' theory and describes the need for positive role models and associations with institutions while discussing the dis-socializations within institutions social systems.

"The individual who is most susceptible to negative influences is the less emotionally stable, who has relatively few positive relationships outside the walls. For with no points of orientation to serve as guidelines, the mind is free to be directed by the positive or negative pressures of the present environment. Juveniles are particularly susceptible to this influence and further delinquent adaptation is a danger because they have not yet developed a relatively stable social or personal identity. When the informal and in some instances, the formal normative system in the institution is deviant and the paths to success are through non-legitimate means, the individual, especially the "mean-achiever," (re)learns a delinquent adaptation."

Therefore, the superimposed expectations of friends, peers, and authority figures, in general, are the chief counter productive/or productive elements in determining an individual's behavior.

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Bernice M. Moore, "The Schools and the Problems of Delinquency: Research Studies and Findings," in Ruth Shonle Cavan's Readings in Juvenile Delinquency (New York: Lippincott Co., 1964) pp. 182-190.

The Self-fulfilling Prophecy¹² works in the family and in society as well; expectations can actually perpetuate and create antisocial behavior.

Two Chicago Psychiatrists, Adelaide Johnson and S. A. Szurek first examined expectancy as a causal determinant of antisocial behavior in children and concluded "parental expectations of a specific behavior damages the child's "conscience" in a corresponding specific area. In other words, a child loses confidence in his ability to restrain an impulse if his parents consistently expect him to act out that impulse."¹³

Conclusive evidence of expectations effects on behavior and performance change was supplied by Robert Rosenthal and Lenore Jacobson's "Pygmalion Study". The study was a report on the effects of teachers' expectations upon pupil performance and

¹² An example of a Self-fulfilling Prophecy is a favorable medical prognosis in a case of cancer which caused the patient to move from despair to hope and became a crucial part of his cure. Herbert Kohl, "Great Expectations," Where it's at, (New York: Harper and Row Publishers, 1970) pp. 258-262.

¹³A. Johnson and S. A. Szurek, in Ruth Sholne Cavan's Readings in Juvenile Delinquency, p. 144.

"the central proposition...that one person's prophecy of another's intellectual behavior and performance can come to determine that other's intellectual behavior and performance." ¹⁴

After getting the staff of a school in South San Francisco to cooperate with them by pretending that they were conducting a scientific study of the performance of certain students in the school who were "late bloomers," (the "late bloomers" were selected randomly) the teachers' were then told that some of their pupils had turned out to be "late bloomers" and were about to "bloom".

"Jose, a Mexican-American boy had an IQ of 61 before he was labeled a "late bloomer". Less than a year later he had gained 45 IQ points, testing at 106. Thus, he moved from being classified as mentally retarded to above average. Another child, Maria, moved from 88 to 128, i.e., from "slow learner" to "gifted child" according to the school's classification. These two results alone are staggering, yet many similar, though less

¹⁴Herbert Kohl, "Great Expectations," Where It's At, (New York: Harper and Row Publishers, 1970) pp. 258-262.

dramatic advances occurred when the teachers' expectations of the children changed."¹⁵

Johnson, Szurek, Rosenthal and Jacobson's findings add clarity to Thomas' assertion by focusing in on a specific characteristic of role model behavior, and relates to this study by demonstrating the potential power and influence of role models in producing behavior and performance change.

The implications underlying the themes presented is the fact that delinquent/or criminal adaptations are not innate but by-products of society's expectations learned through various types of social exposure. Therefore, not only can one's social group be said to serve as a frame of reference through which the environment is viewed but adverse behavior can also be said to be symptomatic of poor or inadequate social conditions. Thus, man's degree of exposure and overall environmental situation is of utmost importance in his (1) attitude formulation, (2) value orientation, and (3) long and short range goal formation.

¹⁵Ibid., pp. 258-262.

In "Organizational Control Structures in Five Correctional Institutions", Mayer Zald cites that the roles and social relations among staff members are largely dependent upon whether the institution seeks to provide "treatment" or "custody" for the inmates.

"The institution emphasizing treatment employed numerous professional workers who were given considerable autonomy to provide therapy as they saw fit and to work as a team in rehabilitating the young offenders. In the institution oriented toward custody, most of the power remained with the superintendant who kept close control over the actions of the staff and who depended mainly upon non-professional people to enforce his rules. The relations between staff members and inmates were also correspondingly different in the two types of institutions."¹⁶

Institutional education, in its efforts to (re)direct and (re)cultivate those social and environmental conditions that have a tendency to precipitate deviant behavior is dependent upon not only the delinquent's attitude, but also the type of leader and peer group relationship to which he is exposed within the institutional setting.

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Mayer Zald, "Organizational Control Structures in Five Correctional Institutions," American Journal of Sociology, pp. 305-345.

Therefore, the administrative orientation (treatment or custody) determines the quality of the individuals employed within the institution's social system and is ultimately responsible for effective/or ineffective rehabilitative efforts. Zald's findings relate to the study by furnishing points from which an evaluation of the administrative orientation can be made. If it is found that there is practically no mutual cooperative rehabilitative efforts among staff members and a minimal level of coordination between the various programs, the administration can be said to be "custody-oriented". Conversely, if the staff is collectively organized in their rehabilitative efforts and have a high level of coordination, the administration can be said to be "treatment-oriented."

CHAPTER III METHODOLOGY

The Department of Youth Services, a branch of the states Departments of Social Services, was established in 1967 through the guidance of Florida state senator, Louis De la Parte. However, Michigan has only had a formally organized Department of Youth Services for little over two years, various divisions of Michigan's Department of Youth Services are responsible for all Juvenile and Youth Programs (i.e., Halfway Houses, Training Schools, Forestry Camps, Foster Homes, etc.) and therefore are an invaluable resource of Michigan's Juvenile Court System. Although Juvenile Courts were organized out of public concern to protect and rehabilitate Juveniles, Judicial officials are dismayed at the rate of recivism.

As William Amos notes in an article written for Federal Probation entitled "The Future of Juvenile Institutions": "In this country there are over 400 public and private institutions serving approximately 65,000 boys and girls adjudicated as delinquent."¹ This is only two percent of all teenagers and does not include those who appear before a representative of the court other than the Judge and the large number who have had contact with the police and have not been referred to the court regardless of guilt or innocence, but who are just as delinquent sociologically as youngsters in institutions. "It has been estimated that seventy percent of youngsters between the ages of nine and eighteen could legally be adjudicated as delinquent if they were processed/or reported."²

In order to make rehabilitation a reality rather than mythological, an investigation of the primary relationships encountered by the wards

¹William Amos, Ed.D., "The Future of Juvenile Institutions," Federal Probation, (Washington, D.C. March, 1968) p. 41.

²Ibid., p. 41.

and the personality style of the staff/or leaders to which the wards are subjected within the institutional setting is a paramount concern if effective rehabilitation is to be achieved as a by-product of institutionalization, as it must, to meet the ever increasing delinquent population in this country.

Setting

Maxey Boys' Training School and Green Oaks Center (special treatment unit for boys unable to function in an "open" type of institution), located at Whitmore Lake, Michigan, was selected as the Juvenile Institution to be studied. The reason for this selection was due to the evacuation of the Lansing Boys' Training School and the accessibility to fully operant programs. Although the reception center also serves camp operations which are operant during the summer months, Maxey is soon to become Michigan's sole surviving Boys' Training School facility accommodating the entire state.

Permission was obtained through a personal telephone conversation between Maxey Boys' Training School's Chief Administrator, Mr. J. J. Powers,

and myself on June 7, 1972. However, permission was pending a formally written request which I submitted to Mr. Powers on June 21, 1972. Confirmation of permission was granted via a telephone conversation with the Program Director of Maxey Boys' Training School, Mr. James Evans, who Mr. Powers had appointed to schedule and conduct our activity. Mr. Evans informed me that, unfortunately, the observations were going to have to be primarily of activity programs due to the fact that classes were not in session during the summer months. However, it was my feeling that this would not detract from the purpose of the study and would provide ample opportunity to observe leadership styles and corresponding member reactions within the institutional setting. Consequently three days of observations were scheduled, two hours each day, for July 26-28, 1972.

Design

The design of the inquiry is as follows: observations were made of two different situations at a training school facility. Each situation involved some activity or interaction that lasted

for two hours each day and three days of observations were made during the week of July 24, 1972. Because the study called for the grouping of diverse behavioral symptoms having varying psychological meanings, three observers, all of whom had previous training in Psychology and Sociology, were familiarized with the behavior typologies and clusters to be investigated within the study and were used to score observations on the three different areas of behavior: Leader Behavior, Behavior to Leader and Child to Child Behavior. The observers rotated in scoring the different behaviors so that each area of behavior was scored by each observer in both groups. This was done to insure that individual biases or idiosyncrasies of the observers were constant and equally distributed. Influential variables were controlled by using standardized scoring and measurement procedures presented in the Lewin, Lip-pitt and White Study.

Potentially Influencing Variables

Potentially influencing variables which could qualify and/or explain the posited relations between the independent and dependent variables are: (1) the influence of the measurement process might present factors that predetermine the outcome of the

study. That is, our indices may measure only those categories which show a relationship and ignore those that are contrary. (2) Situational factors might be a primary cause for variation in leader behavior and ward response. (3) The type of task or function the group has as its goal or purpose could affect leader behavior and ward response. (4) The size of the group could affect leader behavior and ward response. (5) The type of group composition could affect the leader behavior and ward response such as age, grade level, personality type, socio-cultural factors, etc.

Measurement

The types of data collected were the observed behavior and verbal responses of superiors (staff) and subordinates (wards). Specific categories of Lippitt and White's indices for each of the three specified areas of interest were utilized as a basis for observation and categorization. The measurement scales, variables and indices were developed and used in Lippitt and White's research. The variables relate to the indices defined in the "Leader Typology" given on page 11 of Chapter I.

Specific Categories to be Observed

Methods of gathering data were confined to observations of the specific categories of the indices. Interviews with leaders (staff) and members (wards) aided in the analysis and interpretation of the study. The accompanying definitions of the specific categories is part of the operational design that was used as a criteria for scoring the three different types of behavior.

Definitions of categories in scoring Leader Behavior.

- (1) Giving Orders- Direct orders or statements in the imperative form. The imposition of one human will upon another.
- (2) Non-objective Criticism and Praise- Criticism which was adverse and personal in character and which did not point objectively toward improvement by suggesting a reason for failure or a way of doing the thing better.
- (3) Disrupting Commands- Commands that cut across an expressed wish or ongoing activity of a member of the group, and substitute for it some wish of the leader.
- (4) Guiding Suggestions- Clarifying of alternatives between which the boys themselves are free to choose. Given course of action which is related to one of the boys' own purposes.

- (5) Giving Information (Extending Knowledge)- Information given in a way that there is almost no chance of its being a form of social influence or pressure, as compared to either orders or guiding suggestions.
- (6) Stimulation Self-direction- Leader serves as a catalyst by releasing energies that already exist in the group. Different techniques-- drawing out less articulate members or simply listening.
- (7) Praise and Approval- Leader attempts to extend his assigned function of teaching a group procedure for setting goals and means to teaching of criteria and methods for evaluating goals and means.
- (8) Jovial and Confiding- It represents the purely social aspect of the leader's behavior and indicates the openness of communication which develops as a result of the relationship created by the leader's behavior.
- (9) Matter of Fact- Incidental observation.

Definitions of categories in scoring Behavior to Leader and Child to Child Behavior.

- (1) Leader-dependent Actions- Dependent remarks such as: "Is this O.K.? "Should I write this or not?"
- (2) Critical Discontent- Discontented remarks, criticism.
- (3) Aggressive- "Scapegoating", aggressive reactions and responses, threats, destruction of property, etc.

- (4) Demands for Attention- "Showing off"
- (5) Friendly, Confiding- Friendly ascendance, or agreeable and cooperative behavior. Joking remarks.
- (6) "Group-minded" Suggestions- Mutual praise, sharing, "we-minded". Use of common pronoun "I" vs "We".
- (7) Asking Information- Asking Information about play activity and work tasks.
- (8) Out-of-club-field Conversation- General conversation or rap sessions unrelated to the task.
- (9) Play-minded Conversation- Conversation pertaining to play activity.
- (10) Work-minded Conversation- Conversations directly related to the task at hand.
- (11) Work Directions- Directions geared toward task completion.

Scoring Procedure

Ratings were performed according to the categories listed in each indice. Tally sheets were used for the scoring process. Item numbers on the sheets respectively represented each category of the specific area being investigated/or evaluated. Leader Behavior (staff employees) was scored on nine categories (points) while Behavior to Leader and Child to Child Behavior (youths) was scored on ten.

The data was analyzed by coding and looking for evidence in the scores that supported the expected

results. The observed frequencies for each of the categories were tallied and then collapsed into one of the three typologies they most closely identified with. A bi-variate contingency table was constructed in order to compare the observed frequencies for each of the three typologies with the expected frequencies. The chi-squared analysis was applied to the contingency table in order to test independence; the expected cell frequencies were derived from the data and were those we expected to obtain if the two variables were independent of each other. The .05 factor was used as the accepted level of significance and served as the criteria for comparing the observed with the expected frequencies.

Reliability and Validity

The specific categories (behavior clusters) observed within the content of this study listed on pages seven to nine as previously stated, were derived from Lewin, Lippitt and White's study on Leader Behavior in Three "Social Climates" and were agreed upon by the three observers as being representative of the three behavior variations to be investigated.

Agreement between the separate tabulations of two observers making simultaneous observations of each of the behavior clusters (specific categories)

for the same phenomena was utilized as a means of establishing the validity and reliability of the evaluations. Therefore, the data collected in the study is reliable and valid to the extent that the measuring instrument satisfactorily reflects the characteristics it is intended to with a minimum of distortion by other factors.

Sampling

The sampling procedure was impaired by the fact that the experimental plan was designed for objective observation and evaluation of Leader Behavior and Member Reaction of two groups within the institutional setting. Therefore, the conventional random/or systematic sampling procedures were not utilized in the selection of group members in order to maintain the natural composition of the group and to preserve spontaneity of expression. However, an assessment of the sample population (age, race, sex, I.Q. level, etc.) was investigated, and revealed that the selected sample did not differ appreciably in these characteristics from the larger group or population. Thus, it is a relatively safe assumption that the sample is representative of the larger group.

Statement of the Hypothesis

In the operational terms of the inquiry, the independent variable will be the Leader's Behavior and the dependent variable will be the ward's response. Although leadership, as stated by Lewin is "the potential ability of one person to get another to behave in a certain way,"² for the purpose of this study, the term "leader" will be exclusively applied to the staff members within the institution. The null hypothesis contains two statements (one indicates no change and the other no direction): (1) Leader Behavior (IV) has no effect on ward response (DV) thus there will be no difference between ward response no matter what the leader behavior may be. The two variables are independent of each other and therefore, unrelated. (2) If Leader Behavior is found to be Authoritarian, Democratic, or Laissez-faire, the responses of the wards will not be related to the Leader Behavior and therefore, not be consistent with Lippitt and White's findings. I will use the null hypothesis and attempt to reject it in accepting the alternate hypothesis. Therefore, the premise under investigation is that the Leader's method of relating (behavior-IV) affects certain ward behavior

²Kurt Lewin, Field Theory in Social Science, (New York: Harper, 1951).

(ward behavior-DV) in a predicted way (consistent with Lippitt and White's findings).

Researchability of the Hypothesis

The hypothesis is researchable because it meets the following criteria: (1) Measurement techniques are available. (2) Definition of concepts have been made, the variables have been specified, and the key concepts have been amended to operational definitions for specificity. (3) Predictive statement is made by the premise under investigation (of interest) which infers that there is an existence of a causal relationship between the two variables (Leader Behavior and Ward Reaction Response) which result in concomitant variation. (4) The variables are independent of each other, both semantically and operationally. (5) The independent variable occurs prior in time to the dependent variable. (6) The study is feasible and can be of practical significance.

Significance

The significance of this hypothesis is that if the null hypothesis is accepted it will raise many interesting questions which could lead to the discovery and isolation of some important inter-

vening variables. If the null hypothesis is rejected, it will give added weight to the Lippitt and White findings. This study has practical value in that it will offer the Leader and Administrator a clearer view of what is happening throughout the institution as well as within the classroom situation and possibly offer them a means of changing responses by manipulating techniques to obtain desired reactions.

CHAPTER IV ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

In this interpretation it is important to remember that the null hypothesis is being tested because of the accepted understanding in statistics that the acceptance of a hypothesis means only that it might be true while the rejection of a hypothesis means it is false. The null hypothesis contains two statements, one indicates no change and the other, no direction:

(1) Leader behavior (IV) has no effect on ward response (DV), thus, there will be no difference between ward response no matter what the leader behavior may be.

(2) If leader behavior is found to be Authoritarian, Democratic or Laissez-faire, the responses of the wards will not be related to the leader behavior and therefore, not consistent with Lippitt and White's findings.

The alternate hypothesis also contains two statements:

- (1) The Leader's method of relating (behavior-IV) to the wards affects certain ward behavior (DV).
- (2) Leader Behavior affects ward response in directions consistent with Lippitt and White's findings.

In the first area, "Child to Leader Behavior" wards were observed in two groups and scored on ten categories enumerated on page 8 of Chapter III. I have attempted to define the type of Child to Leader Behavior expressed in the two groups by determining which of the three types the observed behavior is most closely identified with. The observed behavior of both groups were combined in each of the three areas and the frequencies of behavior for each of the categories were grouped into the specific typology they represented, A (Authoritarian), D (Democratic) and L (Laissez-faire). The data was then charted into a bivariate contingency table which served as a visual aid from which comparisons could be made as to whether or not the DV (X-axis) was, in fact, a function of the IV

(Y-axis). CHI^2 analysis was utilized in order to test whether the variables were actually independent of each other or associated.

The expected frequencies (EF) per cell were statistically compared with the observed frequencies (OF) in order to test the independence/or associativeness of the variables under consideration. The Child to Leader Behavior analysis (Tables 1 and 2) indicates that the L (Laissez-faire) column score is 6.68 measured at four df with a X^2 critical value of 9.49, followed by the A (Authoritarian) score, 2.699 and the D (Democratic) score, 1.578 as the three distinct values comprising the total X^2 sum of 10.948 for the matrix which is significant. A (Authoritarian) Leader Behavior tended to produce Child to Leader Behavior that was predominately Autocratic and Democratic, while D (Democratic) and A (Authoritarian) Child to Leader Behavior comprises the major portions of the observed behavior for the D (Democratic) Leader Behavior and L (Laissez-faire) Leader Behavior yielded predominately L (Laissez-faire) and D (Democratic) Child to Leader responses. Therefore, the data seems to suggest that Child to Leader Behavior is not in-

dependent of Leader Behavior. The total X^2 sum of the Child to Leader area is obviously above the X^2 critical value and could be used to reject the null hypothesis that Leader Behavior and Child (ward) Response are independent of each other. Table I presents the data accumulated on the relationship between Child to Leader Behavior and Leader Behavior and the X^2 values for each of the three columns.

Table 1. Child to Leader Behavior

		A	D	L	
Leader Behavior	A	17 (13.0)	12 (14.5)	9 (10.4)	38
	D	22 (20.8)	28 (23.2)	11 (16.8)	61
	L	13 (18.1)	18 (20.2)	22 (14.6)	53
		52	58	42	152

$X^2 =$	2.699	1.578	6.68
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Table 2 presents the calculation of χ^2 for the data presented in Table 1.

Table 2.

Calculation of χ^2 for data of Table 1

O	E	(O-E)	(O-E) ²	$\frac{(O-E)^2}{E}$
17	13.0	4.0	16.0	1.23
12	14.5	-2.5	6.25	.43
9	10.4	-1.4	1.96	.18
22	20.8	1.2	1.44	.069
28	23.2	4.8	23.04	.909
11	16.8	-5.8	33.64	2.80
13	18.1	-5.1	26.01	1.40
18	20.2	-2.2	4.84	.239
22	14.6	7.4	54.76	3.7
152				$\chi^2 = 10.948$

C.V./ χ^2 with 4 df = 9.49

The evidence implies that each of the three Leader Behavior styles precipitates and possibly even produces corresponding behavior on the part of the children. Thus, the findings are consistent with Lippitt and White's and gives credence to the assertion that behavior is transmitted from leaders/or role models to members (wards).

The second area, Child to Child Behavior, was scored in the same manner as the other areas of behavior observed and had ten categories. The one different category, "Play-minded Conversation," replaced the "Leader-dependent Acts" category of the Child to Leader Behavior area. The χ^2 components for the Child to Child Behavior area (Tables 3 and 4) are as follows: Laissez-faire, 20.73; Democratic, 9.83; and Authoritarian, 1.08 with a total χ^2 sum of 31.64.

Table 3 Child to Child Behavior

		A	D	L	
Leader Behavior	A	10 (13)	12 (19)	24 (14)	46
	D	20 (20)	23 (30)	30 (23)	73
	L	26 (23)	48 (34)	8 (25)	82
		56	55	90	201

$\chi^2 =$	1.08	9.83	20.73
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Table 4 presents the calculation of χ^2 for the data presented in Table 3.

Table 4.

Calculation of χ^2 for data of Table 3

O	E	(O-E)	(O-E) ²	$\frac{(O-E)^2}{E}$
10	13	-3	9	.69
12	19	-7	49	2.5
24	14	10	100	7.1
20	20	0	0	0
23	30	-7	49	1.63
30	23	7	49	2.13
26	23	3	9	.39
48	34	14	196	5.7
8	25	17	289	11.5
201			$\chi^2 = 31.64$	

C.V./ χ^2 with 4 df = 9.49

The χ^2 sum is well over the 9.49 χ^2 critical value, thus, the level of significance is questionable, but as an indicator, it is helpful in raising questions and inferring causes. One can infer from the cell frequencies of the three areas that if Leader Behavior is found to be D (Democratic), the Child to Leader response will be Democratic

(consistent with the leader's behavior) and the children will relate to each other in a Laissez-faire manner. Therefore, the teacher's behavior to the child effects the child's response to his peers.

Further speculation would be that the children seem to have picked up the reference group of the teacher and relate to him in a Democratic way while breaking down some of his feelings of belongingness to his peer group which allows him to relate to them in a Laissez-faire manner. In this case the teacher, by being Democratic, allows the child to experience an atmosphere which is fair and predictable to which he responds in an individualistic way. Also, the child may have a feeling of more control over his own mind (knowing the rules of the class) and thus, in testing out first becomes more/or less assertive with his own peers. However, the value in relating to each other while the teacher, in demonstrating Democratic behavior, sets up a different expectation which is responded to by the children.

The Child to Leader behavior was L (Laissez-faire), followed by A (Authoritarian) and D (Democratic). The Child to Child behavior was L (Laissez-faire) followed by D (Democratic) and A (Authoritarian) and seems to indicate that if the leader falls between Democratic and Laissez-faire in his behavior, the student response to the leader will tend to be Authoritarian and to each other, Laissez-faire. One could further speculate that when ambiguity exists in the leader's style, it will be reflected in an unclear and unfixed role and passed on to the children in his relationship with them. Too much uncertainty may make the children anxious and dependent. This could cause the child to view the leader in an Authoritarian way, asking questions and directions and never moving on his own, etc. Another possibility is that the children could easily attribute role expectations formed outside the class to this leader since he allowed them this freedom by not having firmly established a more definitive leadership style. The children would feel most comfortable relating to an adult as an authority figure

and depending on the supportiveness of the group to delute the authority. This would explain the Laissez-fiare Child to Child Behavior. However, it seems that reality would break this relationship down over a period of time unless it were strongly supported and maintained by institutional forces. If this is the case, the teacher is in fact, being scapegoated for institutional or social practices.

Considered in total, the null hypothesis can be rejected since the CHI squared sums for each of the areas investigated were significant at the .05 level and apparently suggests that an association between the variables considered exists. Therefore, the alternate hypothesis can be accepted and may be true.

Comparison of Studies

The Lippitt and White Study used four groups of ten year old boys who met after school to engage in hobby activities. Each group had five members and were roughly equated on patterns of interpersonal relationships, intellectual, physical, and socio-economic status and personality characteristics. Four adult leaders were trained to proficiency in the three leadership treatments. The leaders were shifted from club to club every

six weeks, each one changing his leadership style at the time of this transition. Thus, each club experienced each of the leadership styles under different leaders. All clubs met in the same place and did the same activities with similar materials. The training school study used two groups of fourteen and fifteen year-old boys who met voluntarily in a school classroom situation. Group one was ungraded and taught by Mrs. M. It consisted of ten boys, four of whom were black. Group two was directed by Mr. G. It consisted of eleven boys, five of whom were black. Each of these groups were also roughly equated on patterns of interpersonal relationships, intellectual, physical, socio-economic status, and personality characteristics. Three observers were used to score observations on the three different types of behavior. The greatest differences in these two studies are (1) the extent of observer training in the training school study was not as intense as in the Lippitt

D. Cartwright and A. Zander, Group Dynamics, (New York: Harper and Row Publishers, 1968).

S. Weinberg and _____. Schumaker, Statistics: An Intuitive Approach, (Second Ed., Calif., Brooks/Cole Publishers, 1969).

and White study, (2) the social climate in the training school study, although voluntary, was still institutionally based, (3) the group compositions differed consistently with the settings each study met in, and (4) the tasks performed by the group in the studies differed greatly. All of these factors could have had an effect on the leader-member roles and responses.

Supplement

The comparable aspects of the two groups were not as numerous as one might expect. The first group consisted of youths enrolled at Maxey Boys' Training School and the second group was comprised of "incorrigible youth" from Green Oaks maximum security center. Both groups exhibited similar patterns of behavior and expectations. I was informed that tests had shown that none of the youths were suffering from any organically-based mental/or physical damage. Therefore, I assumed that the youths were educatable and rehabilitatable. However, several teachers who were interviewed did not share this feeling. In fact, one even implied that the majority of the youths' mental capabilities were less than many mental defectives. With the knowledge that negativistic

attitudes and expectations such as this are harbored by the staff of the institution, it is not difficult to surmise why institutionalization has failed to alter the juveniles' attitudes and expectations.

It would seem that the reason a youngster is institutionalized in the first place is because of his inability to function in a socially acceptable manner on the outside. This, therefore, implies that the problem of delinquency is a social rather than a psychological problem, rooted in the lack of positive experiences in relationships/or with role models. Thus, the dynamics of the role models/or leaders presently operating within an institutional setting must be of a positive order if delinquent individuals are to be effectively resocialized.

I agree with those who view delinquency as a social rather than psychological phenomenon. The combination of Thomas' "non-legitimate socialization" theory with Cohen's and other opportunity theories seem to most cogently define the factors which precipitate and maintain delinquency. If we accept these theories as most central and crit-

ical to the explanation of delinquency, then our primary concern should be the institution of treatment programs directed at ameliorating these conditions. It would seem that institutionalizing delinquents in non-communities without the structural guidance and expectations of the community is antipathetical to the effective treatment programs that these theories imply. Thus, the placement of socially maladjusted youths within an institutional setting will only momentarily succeed in forestalling delinquent activity unless a familial atmosphere is developed that enhances/or imposes upon the youth, the assumption of responsibility and decision-making practices.

The inability of the delinquent to make the right decision at the right time is his primary deficit. Therefore, sound decision-making capabilities must be inculcated before lasting rehabilitation can be achieved.

CHAPTER V
SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS
FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Literature in the field of Corrections strongly points to the need for more knowledge of the Criminal Justice System's impact on adjudicated youth in order to reduce deviant behavior and improve institutions directed toward rehabilitation. In this chapter, I would like to take this opportunity to offer a few observations and comments about the training school study and to make some recommendations for further research.

It was hypothesized that:

- (1) Leader Behavior has no effect on ward response, thus, there will be no difference between ward response no matter what the Leader Behavior may be.
- (2) If Leader Behavior is found to be Authoritarian, Democratic, or Laissez-faire, the ward response will not be related to the Leader Behavior and therefore, not consistent with Lippitt and White's findings.

The behavior Typology was threefold and consisted of:¹

- (1) Authoritarian: All determination of policy by the leader;
- (2) Democratic: All policies a matter of group discussion and decision, encouraged and assisted by the leader;
- (3) Laissez-faire: Complete freedom for group or individual decision, with a minimum of leader participation.

The results of this study indicate that Child to Leader and Child to Child behavior are dependent upon the Leader Behavior to which the ward is subjected. Therefore, one can conclude : (1) a strong socialization process is in operation within the institution and (2) the nature of the socialization process is determined by the Leader (staff) Behavior to which the ward is exposed within the institutional setting. Thus, the staff's attitude toward and expectation of the juvenile are transmitted in such a way that the juvenile adjusts his behavior accordingly. Therefore, the development of rehabilitative relationships is dependent upon socially acceptable role-model exposure within the institution-

¹More detailed definitions can be found in Chapter I on page 11.

al setting. From this, one could speculate that the rate of recidivism that dismays juvenile officials might be attributal to a negative institutional orientation communicated via negative attitudes of the role models to which a juvenile is exposed.

In conclusion, the study has negated the null hypotheses and has lent support to the alternate hypotheses. The findings suggest that there is a need for further investigation in the area of juvenile and staff relationships within a juvenile institution. If an analogy can be drawn between the ineffectiveness of an institution's rehabilitative efforts and the learning of delinquent adaptations, then Thomas' assertion that the acquisition of a delinquent adaptation is due to the fact that "... role models to which an individual is exposed either are examples of deviant behavior or are otherwise poor representatives of the role model sanctioned by the legitimate world," seems to imply that the continuence of a delinquent adaptation after institutionalization is due to the ineffectiveness of the institution's personnel in presenting a catalyst conducive to an acceptable social adaptation.

It is hoped that this study will assist administrators of juvenile institutions in: (1) structuring effective treatment programs directed at ameliorating the transmission and maintenance of negative behaviors, expectations and values; (2) recognizing that the effectiveness of institutional rehabilitative efforts hinges upon its personnel's ability to (a) minimize the negative influences that tend to exist; (b) inculcate positive social adaptations, values, goals, and expectations; and (c) strengthen the juvenile's decision-making capabilities in a positive way and prepare him for the responsibilities he will ultimately be faced with upon his release.

A method which could be employed by administrators is the individualistic screening of the institution's personnel as well as wards in order to:

- (1) Determine the attitude and orientation of the youths and staff members;
- (2) Determine the type of leadership that the youths would be most receptive to; and
- (3) Pair youths of similar attitudes and orientations with staff members who possess leadership qualities that would most likely succeed in upgrading the youths' behavior adaptations.

Recommendations for Further Research

The accompanying suggestions may be of value to other researchers interested in similar studies in the area of juvenile delinquency:

- (1) Further investigation of the relationship between Leader Behavior and Member Response within an institutional setting could be expanded and performed on a larger scale, since the sample used in the present study was rather limited.
- (2) The present study could be expanded to include factors which might determine the staff's orientation and behavior.
- (3) The staff's behavior might be investigated in its relationship to the effectiveness of various treatment programs.
- (4) Investigating the background of a juvenile sample might afford the researcher an opportunity to compare member response on the basis of juveniles previous history.
- (5) The self-percepts of juveniles and staff might be investigated and studied from the standpoint of its effect on attitude formulation and behavior adaptation.

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