A STUDY OF THE SELF-ESTEEM AND RELATED BACKGROUND FACTORS OF NEW REFORMATORY INMATES

Thesis for the Degree of Ph. D. MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY ROBERT E. JOHNSON 1968 HERIS





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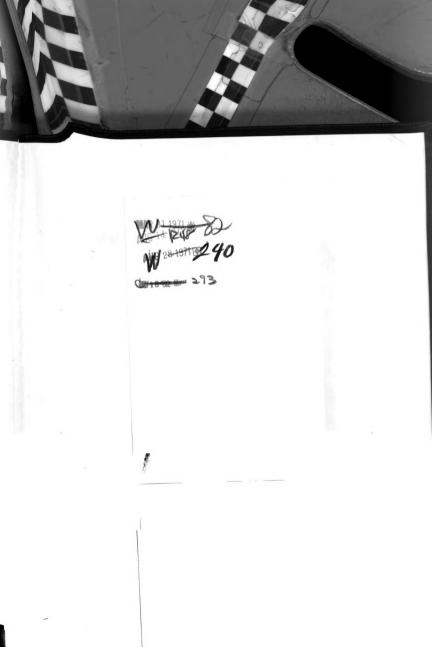
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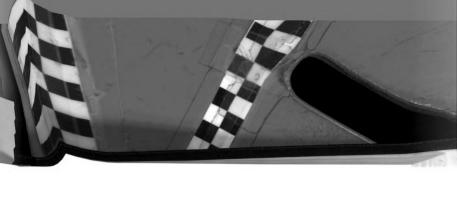
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#### ABSTRACT

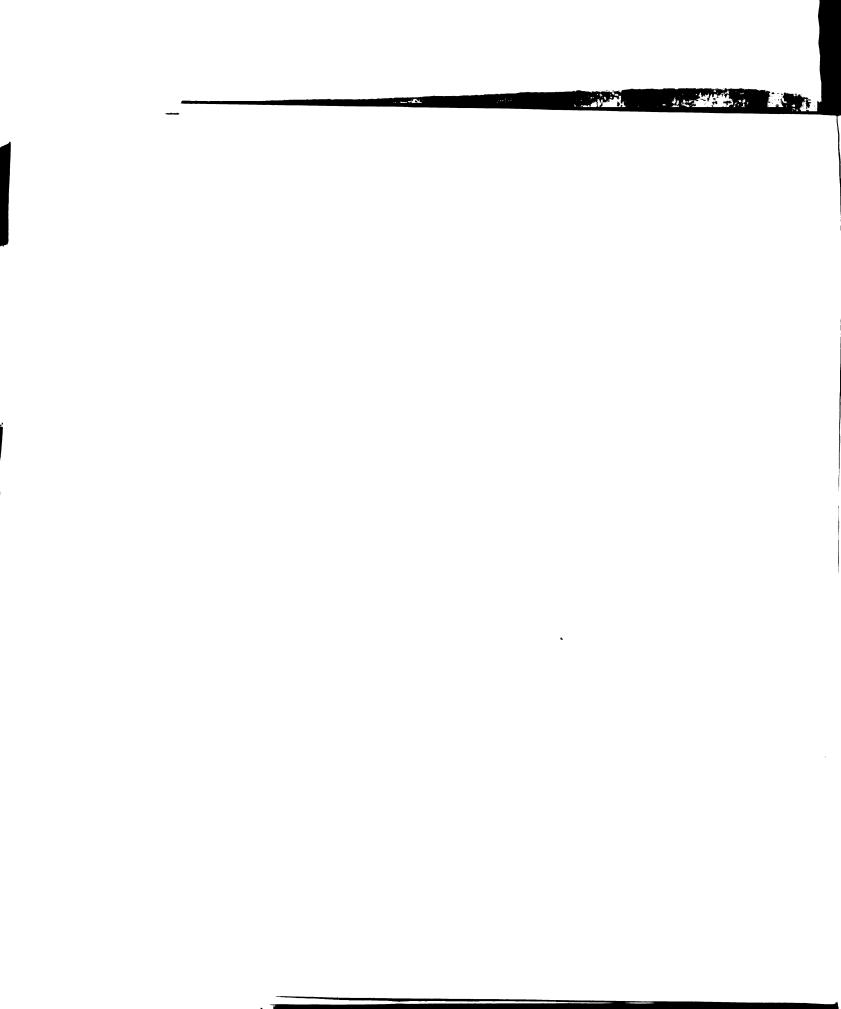
#### A STUDY OF THE SELF-ESTEEM AND RELATED BACKGROUND FACTORS OF NEW REFORMATORY INMATES

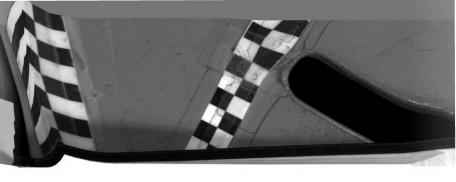
by Robert E. Johnson

The purposes of this study were to examine whether the self-esteem of inmates is low when compared with the self-esteem of a civilian population and to examine twelve inmate background factors that might influence inmate self-esteem at the time of incarceration. These purposes were posed as thirteen questions in the study.

Self-esteem was defined as that element of the selfconfiguration which results from positive or negative selfvaluing with the goals and ideals of the person as a
standard of reference, and was seen as a strong motivational
factor in behavior change, and hence important in design of
correctional education programs. Self-esteem was measured
through use of the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale, a ten item
seven-point Guttman-type scale.

The inmate population consisted of 153 Negro and 182 white "first timers" entering the Michigan Reformatory between September 1, 1965 and June 1, 1966, ranging from seventeen through twenty-two years of age. The civilian





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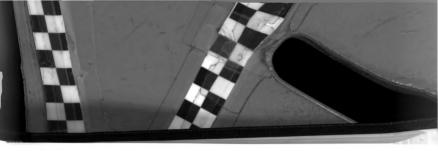
population used for comparison with the white inmate population was a reasonably representative one consisting of 390 white twelfth grade males from three high schools in a large city.

The inmate background factors studied in relation to self-esteem were race, age at admission, work experience, school grade level attained, mothers' or fathers' attitudes toward inmates, parental family cohesiveness, marital status of parents, the age (of the inmates whose homes were broken) at the time the home was broken, the inmate's age at the time of his first recorded delinquency, the time served in institutions as a juvenile, and the length of the current minimum sentence.

Self-esteem scores were obtained by administering the scale to inmates on their arrival at the Reformatory, and to the civilians in September, 1965, in school. Data for inmate background factors were derived from the inmate classification records of the Reception Diagnostic Center of the Michigan Department of Corrections.

The Mann-Whitney U test was used to compare the distributions of self-esteem scores of the white inmate and white civilian populations. Pearson correlation coefficients were calculated by computer to describe the relationships between inmate self-esteem scores and the twelve inmate background factors.



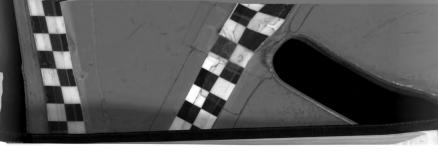


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The two major findings were: 1) The distribution of the self-esteem scores of the white inmate population did not differ significantly from the distribution of self-esteem scores of the reasonably representative civilian population of white twelfth graders, and 2) such very slight correlation coefficients between inmate self-esteem and the inmate background factors were found that none of the background factors appeared to have more than the slightest influence on inmate self-esteem scores.

The following conclusions were drawn:

- The data do not support the assumption that inmate self-esteem at the time of incarceration is lower than the self-esteem of the civilian population used in this study.
- The data do not support the assumption that the self-esteem of Negro inmates is lower than the self-esteem of white inmates.
- 3. The data support the assumptions that very small relationships would be found between inmate self-esteem and age of inmates, the marital status of inmate's parents, and the age (of inmates whose homes were broken) when their homes were broken.
- 4. The data do not support the assumptions that relationships would be found between the self-esteem of inmates and school level attained, work experience, attitudes of mothers or fathers toward the inmates during



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childhood, the cohesiveness of the family home, the age at which the inmate's recorded delinquency began, the prior time served by the inmates as juveniles, or the current minimum sentence.

5. The background factors studied do not account for the observed variation in self-esteem scores.

Implications were drawn from these conclusions and suggestions made for future research.



# A STUDY OF THE SELF-ESTEEM AND RELATED BACKGROUND FACTORS OF NEW REFORMATORY INMATES

Ву

Robert E. Johnson

A THESIS

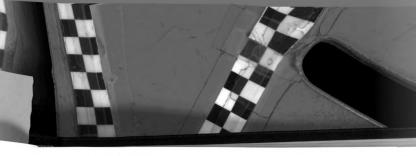
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DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

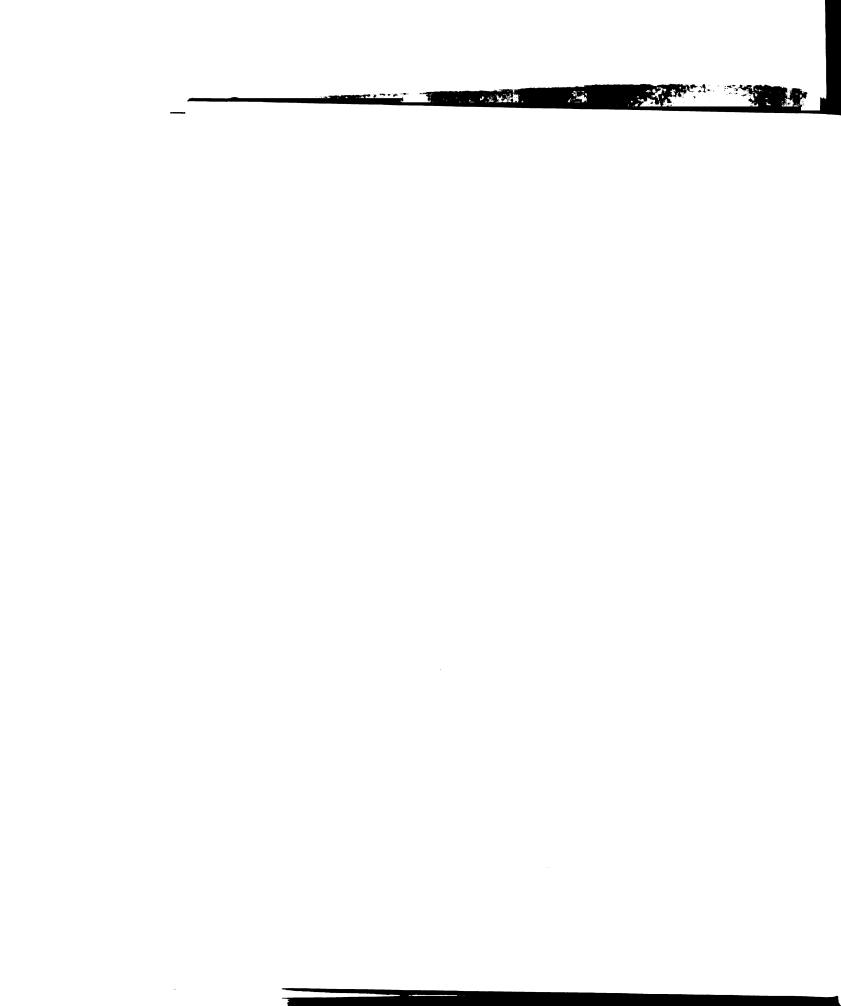
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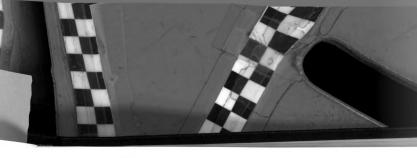


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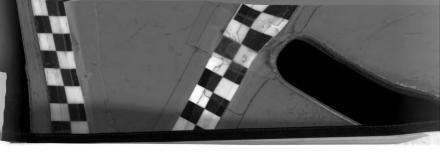
Other individuals contributed to the completion of the research reported here, including Drs. E. L. V. Shelley, Donald Thurston and Mr. Robert Glass of the Michigan Department of Corrections. Appreciation is extended to the inmates of the Michigan Reformatory who participated in the study and to the inmate clerks who assisted the project.

Finally, thanks to my wife, Relda Jean, my daughters Valerie and Jennifer, and son, Steve, without whose inspiration, understanding, sacrifice, and work this effort would not have come to fruition.



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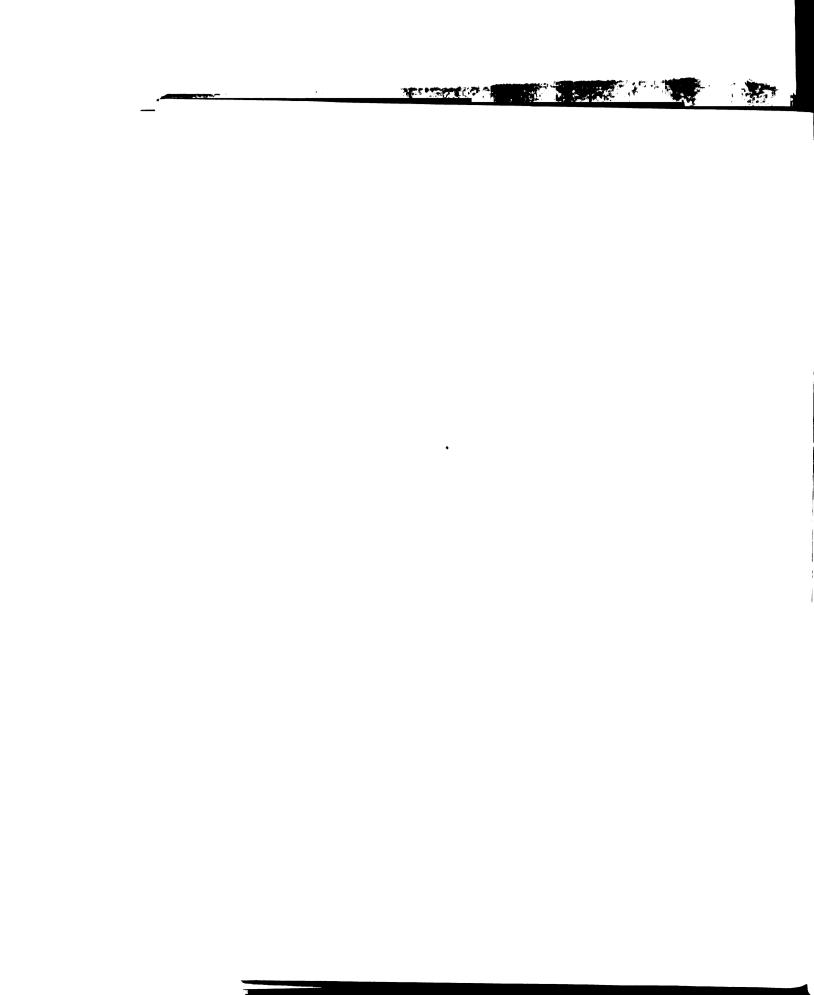


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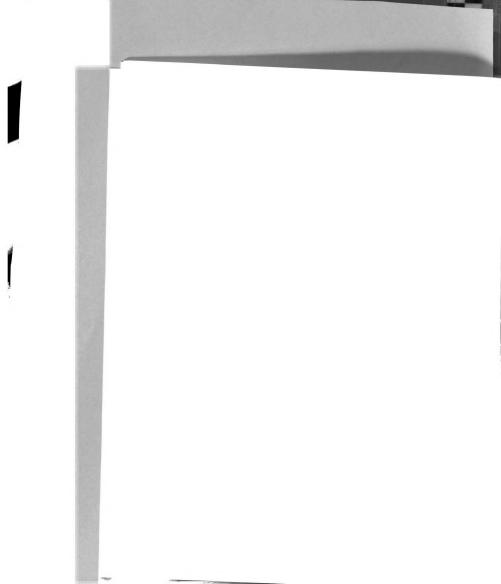
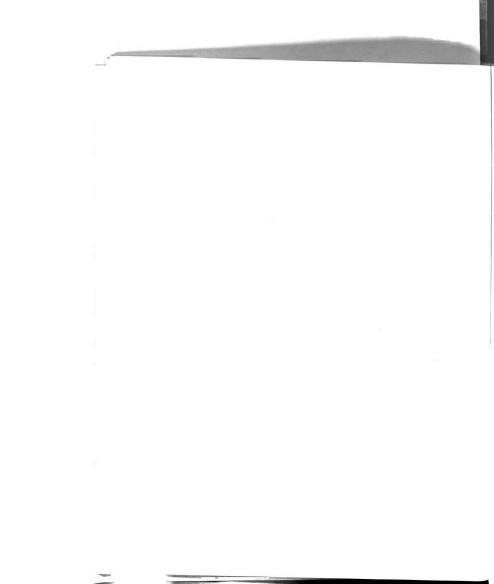




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#### CHAPTER I

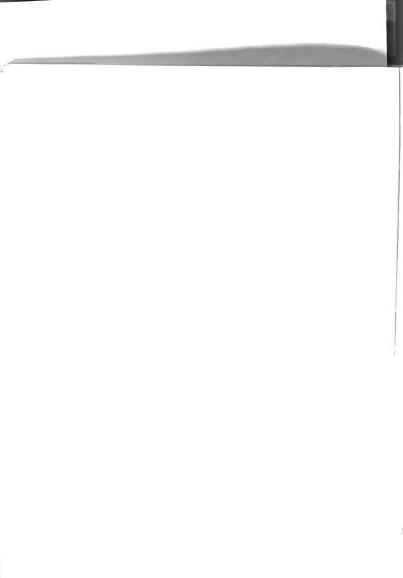
### THE PROBLEM

The need and purpose of this study are set forth in this chapter, followed by the problem statement. The objectives and questions to be answered are presented. Definitions, assumptions, and limitations of the study precede the final section which provides an overview of the thesis.

## Need for the Study

One of the most important problems in correctional education concerns those elements of the self which influence an inmate's ability to utilize rehabilitatively the treatment and educational programs now available to him as a result of the "new penology." One of those elements, the self-esteem of inmates, and its relationship to selected inmate background factors provides the central focus of this study.

An examination of the theoretical base of self-esteem indicates that it is one of the important elements of the self that influences the individual's motivation toward change and learning. Knowledge of the level of self-esteem of inmates at incarceration should contribute to more





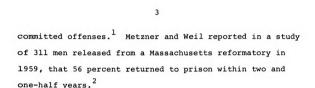
enlightened decisions concerning the substance and aims of correctional education.

In a review of the literature a scarcity of basic information and empirical research regarding self-esteem was found. Though assumptions were found in the literature regarding the "low self-esteem" of inmates, and its relationship to background factors, no empirical studies were found that investigated self-esteem of inmates in particular nor its relationship to background factors of inmates.

Evidence that inmates were not able to use the learnings available to them in prison treatment and educational programs is found in the high recidivism rate of offenders leaving prison. James V. Bennett reported that between 55 and 70 percent of prisoners released returned to prison within five years. In a study made in Massachusetts, Sheldon and Eleanor Glueck found that during parole 55 percent of the parolees studied "committed serious breaches of parole conditions, including commission of new crimes," and that 80 percent of 422 men studied during a five year period following expiration of parole

James V. Bennett, "Evaluating a Prison." <u>Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, 293, (May, 1954), p. 10-16).</u>

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>Sheldon Glueck and Eleanor Glueck, <u>500 Criminal</u> Careers (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1930), p. 169.



Perhaps the most comprehensive study recently made of recidivism was Glaser's study for the University of Illinois-Ford Foundation Research Program in the Federal Correction System. Every tenth man was selected from a list of those released from federal prisons in 1956. In 1960, it was found that of the 1015 cases studied 35 percent returned to prisons, 52.2 percent "had no further criminal record whatever," and 12.8 percent were involved in minor contacts with the law. These rates of recidivism indicate that though other factors may have been critical in parole or post-parole failure, the correctional programs participated in by the individual did not adequately enable him to cope with problem situations that prompted his return to prison.

The goal of the "new penology" as given by Schnur is closely related to the reduction of recidivism. He

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup><u>Ibid.</u>, p. 184.

Ralph Metzner and Gunther Weil, "Predicting Recidivism." Journal of Criminal Law, Criminology and Police Science, 54, (September, 1963), p. 307-316.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>Daniel Glaser, The Effectiveness of a Prison and Parole System (Indianapolis, Ind.: The Bobbs-Merrill Co. Inc., 1964), p. 19-20.

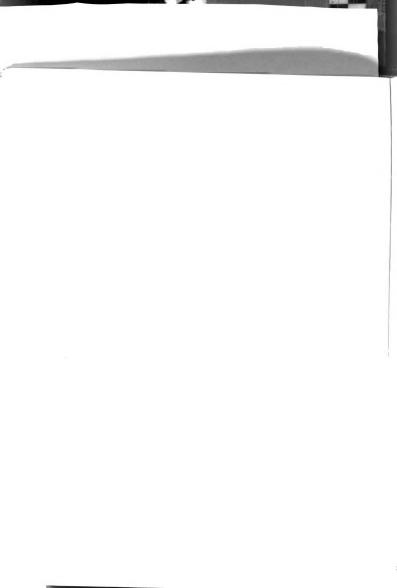
says, "It is to get men ready, as rapidly and economically as possible, to go out and stay out by returning them to society, as useful, law-abiding, self-supporting, self-reliant, independent citizens who will not contribute to the commission of crime by others--men who obey the law because they want to and not because they are afraid not to." The main responsibility for achieving this goal has been given to those responsible for correctional treatment and education.

The function of the "new penology" was defined as re-education by Frank Jacobson and Eugene McGee who suggested that correctional institutions need to become educational institutions where

The total institution is organized to surround the incarcerated delinquent with a system of experiences which teach socially acceptable, self-actualized behavior in an atmosphere favorable to learning. The total institution, plus necessary new services, should be so organized that the adolescent is mobilized to "internalize values, norms, goals, expectations, responsibility, limits, status, belongingness, identification and alternative approaches." This is the essential character of the total push, the therapeutic milieu or treatment community in the mental health field. The atmosphere of the correctional institution can be designed so that the delinquent's only response possible is to change, by real learning, in the direction of increased personal-social adequacy.

lalfred C. Schnur, "The New Penology: Fact or Fiction," <u>Penology</u>, ed. Clyde B. Vedder and Barbara A. Kay (Springfield, fll.: C. C. Thomas, 1964), p. 3.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>Frank Jacobson, Eugene McGee and Richard Jessor, Re-Educating Confined Delinquents (Washington: U.S. Dept. of Justice. Bureau of Prisons, 1964), p. 79.





For many years the popular view held by Americans has been that "education" is a cure-all for nearly every social malady. "Education" has been used by the dominant middle class in the United States to transmit its values and culture to succeeding generations, and to change the values, as well as the socialization and behavior patterns of the many varied sub-cultures found within the United States. The changes sought have been in the direction of conformity with the dominant middle class values which have shaped our codified system of norms. It was not difficult for the American public, when the gradual shift occurred from punitive patterns to therapeutic patterns for violators of societal norms and mores, to conclude that "education" would encourage the desired conformity with middle class values, mores and folkways.

This view was repeated as recently as 1959 in the Manual of Correctional Standards, published by the American Correctional Association:

Extensive education opportunities for inmates have been made available in all modern correctional institutions. No lengthy defense need be presented here for the maintenance of a sound educational program adequately staffed and financed. The value of education in our society—to which most prisoners will return—has been dramatically underscored by recent scientific developments both here and abroad. Also though, unfortunately, little factual information is available as to the power of formal education to change prisoners' attitudes, a belief in its potentialities and paramount importance in a treatment program is widely held.

American Correctional Association, <u>Manual of Correctional Standards</u>, 1959 (New York: The American Correctional Association, 1959), p. 316.



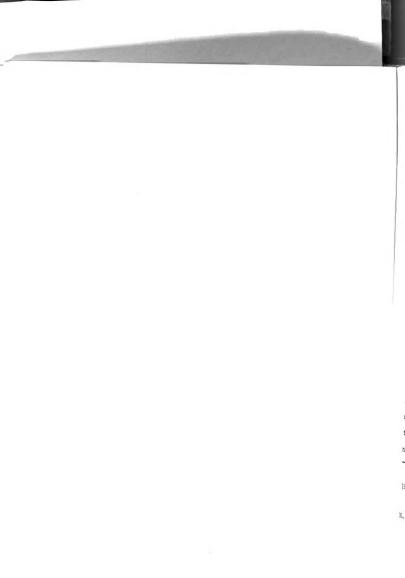
Correctional education has become an important, though specialized area of adult education, providing educational treatment programs for young adult and older adult individuals in penal institutions. The idea that "education is good for prisoners" has quite generally gone unchallenged. The result has been the development of a wide range of educational programs in correctional settings with only a few making provision for evaluation of these programs or their effects upon the prisoners.

The need for basic research in corrections was emphasized by Schnur, who said:

The correctional process--probation, institutions, parole--is operated in relative ignorance today. Correctional decisions are made today upon the basis of blind hunch, faith, intuition, whim, dramatic circumstance, and so called common sense, when they should be made upon the basis of the uncommon sense that emerges from a statistical analysis of data describing the client and the process. No research has been done to date that enables us to say that one treatment program is better than another or that enables us to look at a man and say this is the treatment he needs. I

Furthermore, E. H. Johnson, speaking of the lack of information about the behavior of criminals needed to develop treatment programs said, "There is little evidence concerning the specific constellation of general attributes

l Alfred C. Schnur, "Correctional Research: Review and Critique," Penology, ed. Clyde B. Vedder and Barbara A. Kay (Springfield, Tll.: C. C. Thomas, 1964), p. 315.





which compose the etiology of a given offender."  $^1$  Quay  $^2$  and  $^3$  spoke of this lack of similarly.

The design of adequate treatment programs needed to attain the goals of the "new penology" depends in part on our understanding of the inmate personality. This study was directed to increasing our understanding of one critical part of the inmate's self structure, his self-esteem. We looked at the inmate's self-esteem at the time he arrived at the correctional institution to begin treatment. The relationship between self-esteem and certain background characteristics of inmates also was investigated.

### Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this exploratory study was to examine the nature of new youthful offenders' self-esteem at the time of incarceration. Empirical evidence was sought to support or reject the commonly held assumption that the self-esteem of new inmates is low when compared with the self-esteem of a civilian population. An effort was made to discover what relationships, if any, exist between a new inmate's self-esteem and certain background factors.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Elmer Hubert Johnson, <u>Crime</u>, <u>Correction and Society</u> (Homewood, Ill.: The Dorsey Press, 1964), p. 49-50.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>Herbert C. Quay, <u>Juvenile Delinquency</u> (Princeton, N. J.: D. Van Nostrand Co. Inc., 1965), p. 139.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>Glaser, op. cit., p. 497.

The implications of the findings for correctional education and further studies of inmate self-esteem are examined.

### The Problem Statement

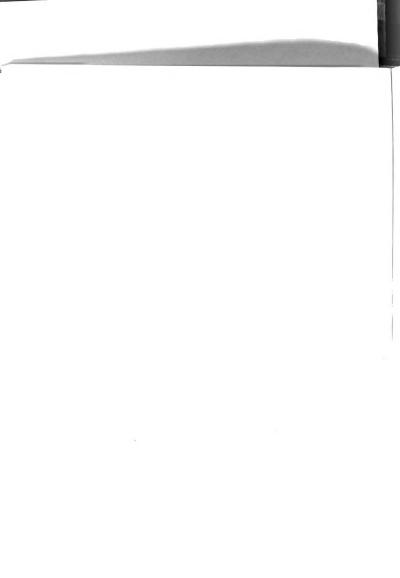
Three major questions emerged for study:

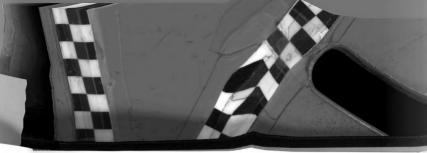
- I. What is the distribution of measured selfesteem of newly incarcerated inmates?
- II. How does the discrete distribution of measured inmate self-esteem at time of incarceration compare with that of a civilian population?
- III. Which of several selected background factors of new inmates are related to their measured self-esteem and in what direction (i.e. to either high or low self-esteem) are they related?

### Objectives for Study

Two general objectives were suggested by the above questions for this study:

- I. To determine whether the distribution of selfesteem scores of inmates at the time of incarceration differs from the distribution of selfesteem scores of a civilian population of twelfth grade males.
- II. To examine the relationship and its direction between measured inmate self-esteem at the time





of incarceration and the following background factors:

#### A. Personal Data

- 1. Race
- 2. Age at time of incarceration
- 3. Work experience
- 4. Educational achievement

#### B. Early Home and Family Influences

- 1. Mother's attitude toward inmate
- 2. Father's attitude toward inmate
- 3. Parental family cohesiveness
- 4. Marital status of parents
- Age at which parental home broken, if broken.

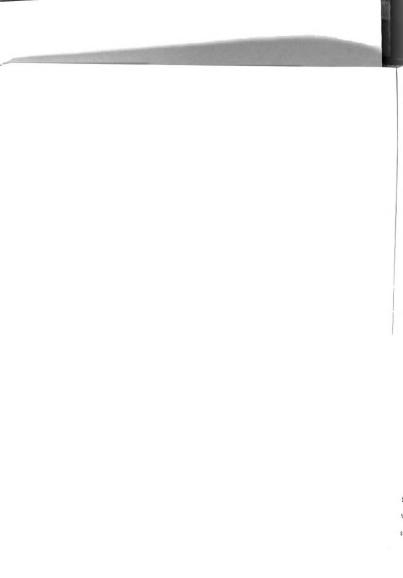
# C. Criminal History

- 1. Age at first attention of officials
- Prior time served in penal institutions as juvenile
- 3. Minimum sentence.

These objectives were restated as questions.

### Questions

- 1. Does a difference exist between the distribution of self-esteem scores of newly incarcerated white inmates and the distribution of self-esteem scores of a white civilian population of twelfth grade males?
- 2. What correlation exists between self-esteem scores and the race of inmates?
- 3. What correlation exists between self-esteem scores and the age of inmates?
- 4. What correlation exists between self-esteem scores and work experience of inmates?



- 5. What correlation exists between self-esteem scores and school grade level attained by inmates?
- 6. What correlation exists between self-esteem scores and mother's attitude toward the inmate?
- 7. What correlation exists between self-esteem scores and father's attitude toward the inmate?
- 8. What correlation exists between self-esteem scores and family cohesiveness?
- 9. What correlation exists between self-esteem scores and marital status of parents?
- 10. Among inmates whose childhood homes were broken, what correlation exists between self-esteem scores and inmate's age at time home was broken?
- 11. What correlation exists between self-esteem scores and age at which delinquency began?
- 12. What correlation exists between self-esteem scores and length of time served in penal institutions as juveniles prior to current committal?
- 13. What correlation exists between self-esteem scores and minimum sentence?

# Definitions

 Self-esteem--that element of the self configuration which results from positive or negative selfvaluing with the goals and ideals of the person as a standard of reference.



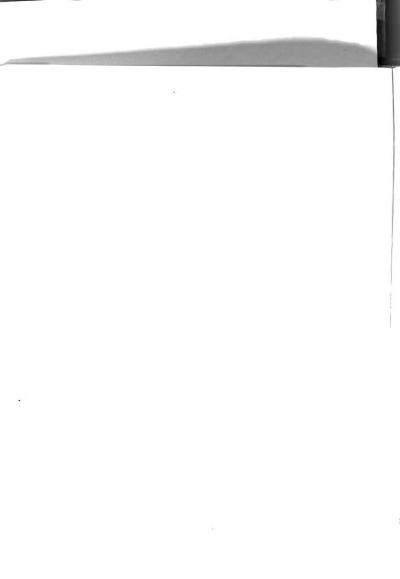
- a. <u>high self-esteem</u>--valuing the perceived self as worthy, self-respect, self-satisfaction.
- b. <u>low self-esteem</u>--valuing the perceived self as unworthy, self-contempt, self-dissatisfaction.
- Measured self-esteem--self-esteem measured by the Rosenberg Self-Esteem scale and distributed on a continuum from 0-1 (high) to 6 (low).
- 3. <u>Newly incarcerated inmates</u>—young white or Negro adult persons, seventeen through twenty—two years of age, on the date of their committal to Michigan Reformatory as a result of conviction for crimes.
- 4. Recidivists—-persons returned to prison as a result of committing crimes or breaking parole regulations after their release. Those who fall back into criminal behavior after release from prison.
- 5. <u>Background factors</u>—taxonomic designation of certain aspects of the inmate and his etiology prior to his incarceration, as established by the professional staff of the Michigan Department of Corrections Reception-Diagnostic Center<sup>1</sup> on the basis of presentence reports, interviews, and tests.
- a.  $\underline{\text{race of inmates}}$ --designation of the inmates as Negro or white on the Inmate Data Cards. Inmates with other racial background were removed from the study.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Michigan, Department of Corrections, <u>Statistical</u> <u>Manual</u>, Section III, January 1, 1957.





- b. age of inmates—derivation of age in years of inmates from the birth year indicated on Inmate Data Cards. Birth years ranged from 1943-1948, yielding an age range of seventeen through twenty-two years.
- c. work experience of inmates--indication on the Inmate Data Cards as to whether inmates were or were not gainfully employed before their arrest.
- d. school grade level attained by inmates—designation of the "highest grade or year of school completed" by the inmates on the Inmate Data Cards.
- e. <u>father, mother, or parents of inmates</u>—
  designates either "natural parents or parent substitutes
  if the maternal or paternal parent substitutes were the
  first parents known to the offender during his childhood."
  The designation reflects the judgment of the ReceptionDiagnostic Center staff in response to this definition.
- f. mother's attitude or father's attitude
  toward the inmate--description of the influence of the
  parents, defined in paragraph "e," judged as healthy or
  unhealthy by the professional staff of the ReceptionDiagnostic Center. A healthy attitude indicates "love,
  affection, good discipline and training." An unhealthy
  attitude is "rejecting, permissive of anti-social
  behavior, indulgent, dominating, inattentive, or
  inconsistent."



- g. <u>family cohesiveness</u>—description of the climate of the inmate's parental home as harmonious or non-harmonious. Harmonious is used to "describe a good or adequate marital relationship." Non-harmonious describes a relationship that was judged to be "discordant," marked by "serious friction, or little or no cohesion." The judgment is that of the RDC staff and is designated on the Inmate Data Cards.
- h. marital status of parents--defines whether or not the inmate's parents "live together as a married couple." The status is indicated on the Inmate Data Card.
- i. <u>inmate age at time parental home was broken</u>, <u>if broken</u>—the age of the inmate designated on his data card, when his parents ceased to live together as a married couple.
- j. age at which delinquency began--designation on the Inmate Data Card of the age at which the "offender was first recognized as a behavior problem by authorities concerned with delinquent or antisocial behavior."
- k. length of time served in penal institutions
  prior to current committal—the length of time shown on
  the data card, spent by the inmate as a juvenile in institutions, jails or workhouses, prior to his conviction for
  a state offense resulting in incarceration in a state
  penal institution for youthful offenders.



length of minimum sentence—the designation
on the Inmate Data Cards of the minimum sentence imposed
by the court on the inmate as a result of conviction for
a crime against the state.

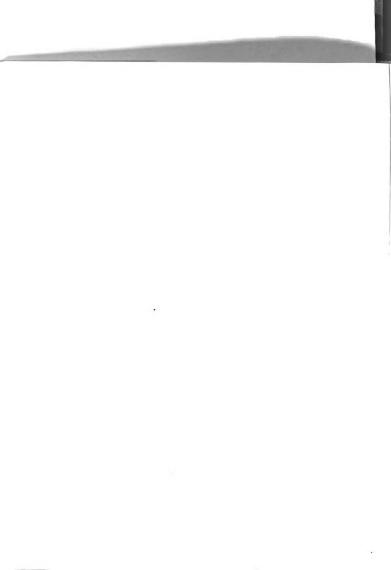
# Assumptions

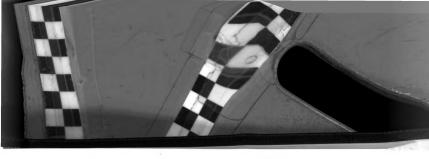
This study makes the following assumptions:

- 1. Self-esteem exists and is measurable.
- 2. The Rosenberg Self-Esteem scale measures self-esteem.
- 3. The data supplied by the Michigan State Department of Corrections represents an accurate evaluation of the inmate's background factors by the professional staff of the Department.

### Limitations

- Because this study utilizes intact groups, generalization is limited to those groups.
- Data input of background factors is limited to data available from the Michigan State Department of Corrections.
- 3. Self-esteem scores are those derived by the Rosenberg Self-Esteem scale at the time of incarceration. There is no assurance that they reflect self-esteem at other times.





### Overview of the Thesis

In Chapter II, the literature of studies relevant to the study of self-esteem is reviewed. This is followed by a report of the search of studies pertinent to the self-esteem of inmates. Next, studies relating background factors to self-esteem are examined. A discussion of relationships suggested by the literature and a summary conclude the chapter.

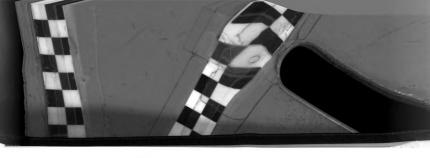
Chapter III includes a description of the unique setting for the study. The Reception-Diagnostic Center, the center's classification process in which inmate background factors are identified, and the Michigan Reformatory are described. A delineation of the inmate and civilian population used is also presented.

The methods and procedures used in the study are outlined in Chapter IV. A description of the Rosenberg Self-Esteem scale, a rationale for its selection as the measure of self-esteem used in this study, and the procedure followed in its administration are set forth. The background factors and the source of data concerning them are presented. The statistical tools used in describing the relationships existing between the variables are detailed and followed by a summary statement.

Chapter V is a presentation of the data and the findings resulting from their analysis. A summary of the findings concludes the chapter.



A summary of the entire study, conclusions, and a discussion interpreting the results and drawing implications from them for further study constitute the final Chapter VI.



### CHAPTER II

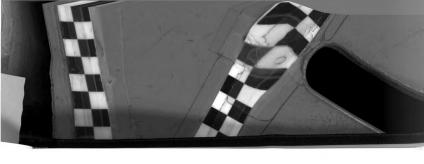
#### REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Studies of the concept of the self, and particularly of global self-concept or self-image have been reported often by behavioral scientists; however, few researchers have focused attention on the particular elements or aspects of it. Among those studies which have looked at specific mechanisms and processes within the broad concept of the self are the "self-concept of academic achievement" studies by the Brookover teams at Michigan State University. Morris Rosenberg studied the self-esteem of high school students in relationship to certain social background factors. 2

In this chapter the literature of the nature and conceptual development of the self and self-esteem is reviewed. The result of the search for studies of self-esteem, and of self-esteem of prison inmates and delinquents

lwilbur Brookover et al. Self-Concept of Ability and School Achievement (East Lansing, Mich.: Michigan State University, Office of Research and Publications, 1962).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>Morris Rosenberg, Society and the Adolescent Self-Image (Princeton, N. J.: Princeton University Press,



in particular is reported in the following section. Next, the relationship of self-esteem to certain background characteristics of inmates is explored. Finally, the implications are discussed and summarized.

# The Self and Self-Esteem

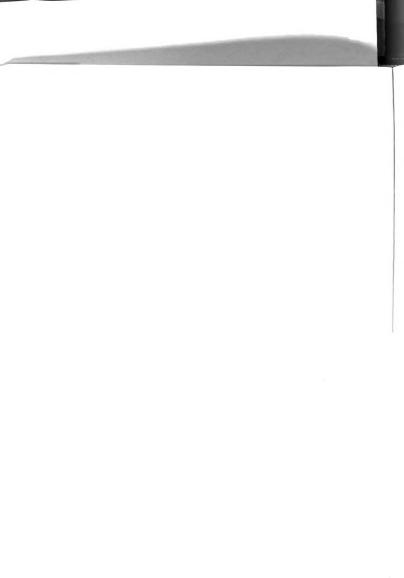
The study of the self-esteem of inmates is based on the writings by the theorists of "self" and "personality" who approach the "self" from psychological and sociological orientations. The observable or measurable "self" which they describe assumes the existence of the "self." This study makes the same assumption and is not concerned with philosophical or theological arguments regarding the ontological nature of the "self," nor the currently unmeasurable unconscious self.

William James defined the person's self as the "sum total of all that he can call his." G. H. Mead says, "The self, as that which can be an object to itself, is essentially a social structure, and it arises in social experience." Jersild speaks of the self as "a person's total subjective environment." He further defines self

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>William James, The Principles of Psychology (New York: Henry Holt and Co., 1890, 1918), p. 291.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>George Herbert Mead, Mind, Self and Society (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1934), p. 140.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>Arthur Thomas Jersild, <u>In Search of Self</u> (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1952), p. 18.





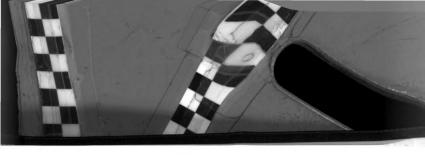
as "a composite of thoughts and feelings which constitute a person's awareness of his individual existence, his conception of who and what he is." Purder and Hand say that, "A man's Self, his 'Phenomenal' or 'Unique' Self, is the hidden key to his learning behavior, and is formed through his internalizations of what he thinks others think of him." These general definitions suggest that the self is a totality of experience and awareness. However, they do not inform us regarding the nature of the parts which compose the self.

More help is found in the definitions of Landsman and Rogers. Landsman writes, "It (the Self) is the central aspect of personality, consisting of a number of organized, defined objects or ideas, each with a corresponding attitude indicating its adequacy in the eyes of the person who is literally looking at himself and judging himself." Landsman describes the self as consisting in part of value attitudes held by the self towards the self. Rogers defines the structure of the self as

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 9.

William H. Purder and S. E. Hand, "Personality Factors Which May Interfere with the Learning of Adult Basic Education Students," Adult Education Journal XVIII (No. 2, 1968), p. 81-93.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>Ted Landsman, "The Role of the Self-Concept in Learning Situations." <u>High School Journal</u> XLV (April, 1962), p. 289-295.



an organized configuration of perceptions of the self which are admissable to awareness. It is composed of such elements as the perceptions of one's characteristics and abilities; the percepts and concepts of the self in relation to others and to the environment; the value qualities which are perceived as associated with experiences and objects; the goals and ideals which are perceived as having positive or negative valence. It is, then, the organized picture, existing in awareness either as figure or ground of the self and the self-in-relationship, together with the positive and negative values which are associated with those qualities and relationships, as they are perceived as existing in in the past, present, or future. "I

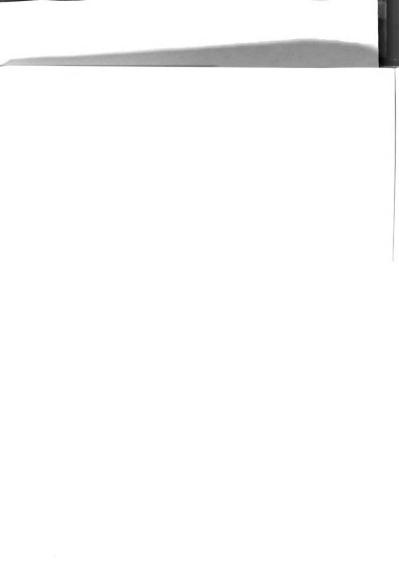
Self-esteem is viewed here as one of the elements of the self-configuration. Self-esteem is that element of the self-configuration which results from positive or negative self-valuing with the goals and ideals of the person as a standard of reference.

## The Nature of Self-Esteem

The conceptual development of self-esteem has a short, but interesting history. William James, as early as 1890, when psychology as science was emerging from mental philosophy, defined self-esteem in the classic formula: "Self-esteem =  $\frac{\text{Success}}{\text{Pretensions}}$ ." He noted that self-esteem can be increased either by increasing the numerator, success, or by decreasing the denominator, pretensions. Satisfaction with actual successes achieved

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Carl R. Rogers, <u>Client-Centered Therapy</u> (Boston, Houghton Mifflin Company, 1951), p. 501.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>James, op. cit., p. 310-311.





and liking one's self is high self-esteem. Low selfesteem stems from disappointment in failure to realize one's "supposed potentialities" or "aspirations."

Cooley's discussion of the reflexive nature of the self,  $^1$  G. H. Mead's emphasis on the cognitive processes and role of the generalized other in the formation of the concept of self,  $^2$  and Combs and Snygg's stress on the phenomenal self and behavior  $^3$  contributed to the theoretical base of this study.

The reflexive nature of the self was first described by Cooley when he wrote:

In a very large and interesting class of cases the social reference takes the form of a somewhat definite imagination of how one's self--that is any idea he appropriates--appears in a particular mind, and the kind of self-feeling one has is determined by the attitude toward this attributed to that other mind. A social self of this sort might be called the reflected or looking-glass self:

"Each to each a looking-glass

Reflects the other that doth pass."

As we see our face, figure, and dress in the glass, and are interested in them because they are ours, and pleased or otherwise with whom according as they do or do not answer to what we should like them to be; so in imagination we perceive in another's mind some thought of our appearance, manners, aims, deeds, character, friends, and so on and are variously affected by it.

A self-idea of this sort seems to have three principal elements: the imagination of our appearance

Order (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1902, 1922).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>G. H. Mead, op. cit.

Arthur W. Combs and Donald Snygg, Individual Behavior (Rev. ed.; New York: Harper & Row, 1959).



to the other person; the imagination of his judgment of that appearance, and some sort of self-feeling, such as pride or mortification. <sup>1</sup>

Cooley's discussion of the manner in which the self-idea or self-concept is formed emphasized one's evaluation of the way he is perceived by others. The individual builds his concept of self out of the reflections of himself mirrored back to him by others and evaluates the self he sees reflected. These evaluations result in self-feelings of pride or mortification as suggested by Cooley and these self-feelings suggest that the self-valuing process has occurred. The self-esteeming process is implicit in Cooley's description.

G. H. Mead added to Cooley's contribution of the importance of reflection of affect by emphasizing the cognitive processes and reflective thinking. He stressed the role of the generalized other in the cognitive process saying:

It is in the form of the generalized other that the social process influences the behavior of the individuals involved in it and carrying it on, i.e., that the community exercises control over the conduct of its individual members; for it is in this form that the social process or community enters as a determining factor into the individual's thinking. In abstract thought the individual takes the attitude of the generalized other toward himself, without reference to its expression in any particular other individuals; and in concrete thought he takes that attitude in so

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Cooley, <u>op. cit.</u>, p. 183-184.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>G. H. Mead, <u>op. cit.</u>, p. 173.



far as it is expressed in the attitudes toward his behavior of those other individuals with whom he is involved in the given social situation or act. But only by taking the attitude of the generalized other toward himself, in one or another of these ways, can he think at all; for only thus can thinking—or the internalized conversation of gestures which constitues thinking—occur. And only through the taking by individuals of the attitude or attitudes of the generalized other toward themselves is the existence of a universe of discourse, as that system of common social meanings which thinking presuppposes as its context, rendered possible. I

The generalized other, then, is important to the genesis of the concept one develops of himself and throughout life provides a frame of reference for self-evaluations. Evaluations based on this frame of reference are not affective only, but are cognitively based on the "internalized conversation of gestures which constitutes thinking."

The role of the self and of self-evaluation in relationship to behavior was suggested by Combs and Snygg in their discussion of the phenomenal self. They said:

The perceived, or phenomenal, self includes far more than the physical aspects of self. Perceptions of the self as strong, honest, good-humored, sophisticated, just, guilty, and a thousand other qualities may be a part of the phenomenal self of a particular individual...the phenomenal self of a particular individual...the phenomenal self may include, by identification, persons and objects entirely outside our physical selves.

. . . we have defined the perceptual field as the universe, including himself, as it appears to the individual at the moment. Although behavior is always determined by the total field, that portion which the individual regards as part or charateristic of himself influences almost all of his behavior. Since it is always the self which is perceived as behaving, behavior must always be appropriate to the phenomenal self.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 155-156.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>Combs, op. cit., p. 44.



Combs and Snygg further recognized the dynamic nature of the self as changing, evolving, and causing one to enhance his self-concept. They continued:

A changing world requires changes in the organization of the self if it is to be maintained. Because we are aware of the future and must maintain ourselves, in the future as well as in the present, it is necessary to enhance the self against the exigencies of tomorrow.

To achieve this self-adequacy requires of man that he seek, not only to maintain his existing organization, but also that he build up and make more adequate the self of which he is aware. Man seeks both to maintain and enhance his perceived self.

The effort of the individual to maintain his self and enhance it is constantly influencing his behavior. The effort is based on the frame of reference acquired and internalized in the self-structure from the generalized other and on the evaluation of self made in terms of this frame of reference. Thus the individual not only sees himself as object, but evaluates the self he sees, and acts in accordance with that evaluation.

Hall and Lindzey have suggested the self-as-object and self-as-process dichotomy in their analysis of various self-theories. Based upon these insights from the discussions of Cooley, G. H. Mead, and Combs and Snygg it was assumed in this study that self-as-object (self-concept, self-image, self-picture, and self-esteem) and self-as-process

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 45.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>Calvin S. Hall and Gardner Lindzey, Theories of Personality (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1957), p. 468.



(self-conceiving, self-imagining, self-picturing and selfesteeming) exist in simultaneous interaction within the self at the level of awareness.

Self-concepts, self-images, self-pictures are perceived as objects by the person's self. In and of themselves they are not "high" or "low," "adequate" or "inadequate" to the self until a valuation is placed on them. The high-low, adequate-inadequate valuations are the result of a valuing process, self-esteeming. Self-esteeming is thus seen as an important intervening variable between the Gestalt of an individual's background experiences and significant persons and his self-concept.

Bertocci defined the ego as "the critical-value-complex" and said, "the self can know itself and its relations to the world, and the ego symbolizes for the self a particular evaluation of that self's predicament."

Indicative of the interest in self-esteem and the importance attached to its relation to motivation were the writings of several psychologists and personality theorists. MacDougall classified self-regard as a sentiment which strongly influences conduct and serves to sustain efforts.<sup>2</sup> Allport underlined the importance he

leter A. Bertocci, "The Psychological Self, The Ego, and Personality," <a href="Psychological Review">Psychological Review</a>, 52 (1945), p. 91-99.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>William MacDougall, Character and The Conduct of Life (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1927), p. 90.





gives to self-esteem saying:

Self-love and pride are universal in human nature. . . . Every day we experience grave threats to our self-esteem: we feel inferior, guilty, insecure, unloved. Not only big things but little things put us in the wrong. . . . The ego sweats. We suffer discomfort, perhaps anxiety, and we hasten to repair the narcissistic wound.

The individual's drive to maintain a high level of self-esteem has been described by Sullivan. He has suggested that some individuals characterized by customarily low self-esteem exhibit anxiety and may seek to minimize this anxiety through concealments and social isolation, may channel their anxiety and disjunctive motivations in interpersonal relations by exploitative attitudes and substitutive processes, or may manifest them in dissociative processes. Horney similarly described these processes in her discussion of the neurotic person. The protection of the self has been studied by personality theorists, such as Jersild, Gates, and Stagner.

Gordon W. Allport, <u>Pattern and Growth in Personality</u> (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1961), p. 155.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>Harry Stack Sullivan, The Interpersonal Theory of Psychiatry (New York: W. W. Norton, 1953), p. 351.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>Karen Horney, <u>Self-Analysis</u> (New York: W. W. Norton, 1942), p. 63-66.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup>Jersild, <u>op. cit.</u>, p. 18.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup>Arthur I. Gates et al., <u>Educational Psychology</u> (3d ed.; New York: Macmillan, 1948), p. 682.

<sup>6</sup> Ross Stagner, Psychology of Personality (3d ed.; New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co. Inc., 1961), p. 197.



Murray contrasted the needs abasement and achievement and implied that they were opposite poles of self-regard in his need system. Maslow emphasized that "all people in our society have a need or desire for a stable, firmly based, usually high evaluation of themselves for self-respect, or self-esteem, and for the esteem of others. "Rogers proposed that liking of one's self as "a quiet pleasure in being one's self" is one of the important objectives and outcomes of therapy. The individual's drive to satisfy the need for an enhanced self-esteem becomes a powerful motivational force.

The importance of self-esteem was found also in the anthropological writings by Kardiner, <sup>4</sup> Honigmann, <sup>5</sup> and M. Mead. <sup>6</sup> They suggested that each culture provides ways to enhance or limit the self-esteem of its members. In

Henry A. Murray et al. Explorations in Personality (New York: Oxford University Press, 1938), p. 161-166.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>Abraham Harold Maslow, <u>Motivation and Personality</u> (New York: Harper & Row, 1954), p. 90.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>Carl R. Rogers, <u>On Becoming a Person</u> (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1961), p. 87.

<sup>4</sup>Abram Kardiner et al. The Psychological Frontiers of Society (New York: Columbia University Press, 1945).

 $<sup>^{5} \</sup>mbox{John J. Honigmann, Culture and Personality}$  (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1954).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup>Margaret Mead, <u>Male and Female</u> (New York: William Morrow & Co., 1949).



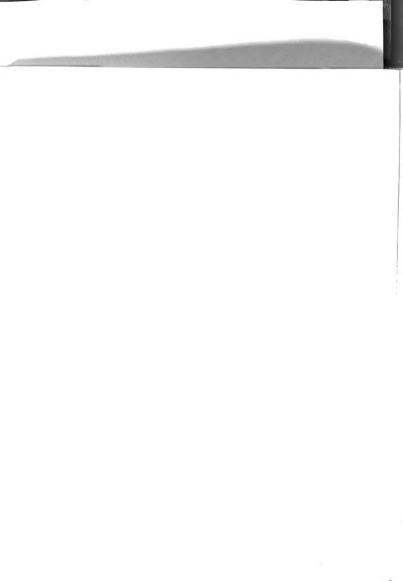
the various cultures, patterns have evolved which enable the individual to develop a personality meaningful for living in the particular culture. Erikson described the impact of the positive resolution of his eight crises on self-esteem in American culture saying, "This self-esteem, confirmed at the end of the major crises . . . grows to be a conviction that one is learning effective steps toward a tangible future, that one is developing a defined personality within a social reality which one understands."

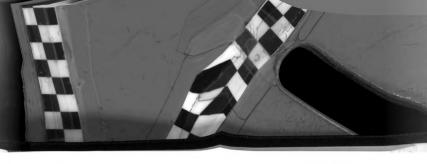
G. H. Mead stressed the role of the "generalized other" in the formation of the concept of one's self. This input into the individual's self-structure is the influence of "the organized community or social group which gives to the individual his unity of self." Numerous studies have illustrated that along with a dominant culture and its value system, mores, folkways, and norms, subcultures may exist with their own values, mores, folkways, and norms. These subculture systems are often inconsistent or even incompatible with the dominant culture system. The modal personality of a dominant culture may

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Eric Homburger Erikson, "Growth and Crises of the 'Healthy Personality'," Personality in Nature, Society, and Culture, ed. Clyde Kluckhohn and Henry A. Murray (2d ed.; New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1959), p. 216.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>G. H. Mead, <u>op. cit.</u>, p. 154.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>Ibid., p. 159.





vary considerably from the modal personalities of various coexistent subcultures.

A close relationship is posited between self-esteem on the one hand, and significant persons and cultural experience on the other. Anderson placed emphasis upon the influence of significant people saying, "Without significant people or without their pressures and assumptions and attitudes to cause the self-image to be formed and have content . . . , the growing child, and, later, the adult would have nothing to measure up to, to rebel against, or to stop him." The experiences and influences of the cultural and societal background and the significant persons create a framework of criteria against which an individual evaluates himself. The self-structure or selfimage is composed of elements each of which is valued, according to Anderson, on the basis of "the acceptability of the trait to the significant people." 2 Anderson commented, "If there is any discrepancy between these values and those of the culture in which they live, it will be the standards of the significant people the child will structuralize, provided he derives a sense of security from these significant people."3

Camilla M. Anderson, "The Self-Image: A Theory of the Dynamics of Behavior." The Self in Growth, Teaching, and Learning, ed. Don E. Hamachek (New York: Prentice-Hall, 1965), p. 9.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup><u>Ibid.</u>, p. 12. <sup>3</sup><u>Ibid.</u>, p. 7.



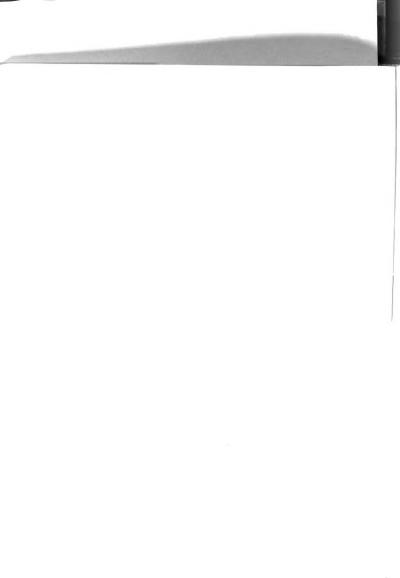


An individual influenced by a subculture system (a generalized other) or by a significant person having the values of such a system will incorporate these values in his self-structure. These values will become his referents in the self-esteeming process though they may be inconsistent with the values and norms of the dominant culture. Thus, if he violates the dominant culture's law, but in so doing behaves consistently with the structuralized values of his subculture or significant person, his self-esteem will remain high.

In contrast to this conclusion, it is often assumed by members of a dominant norm-setting culture that those who violate its laws have failed to measure up to its system, and as failures must have low self-regard or low self-esteem. It is commonly believed that the violator has failed and cannot consider himself a success.

A recent study undertaken at the Federal Correctional Institution at Englewood, Colorado, for planning a re-education program, was built in part on this assumption. It listed as one of its basic assumptions that inmates "tended to suffer from self-deprecation and self-defeat as a result of viewing themselves as unworthy, 'bad,' and incompetent." The purposes listed for a phase of the newly developed program included an effort

<sup>1</sup> Jacobson, op. cit., p. 5.





to "modify their (assumed) underlying concept of themselves as unworthy and unable or unlikely to 'amount to anything'."

This poses the problem for correctional education of determining whether the self-esteem of new inmates entering treatment is lower than, or is similar to, or even higher than the self-esteem pattern of a normal population. The present study sought to explore this problem. Our theoretical base suggested that the self-esteem of new inmates might be similar to the self-esteem pattern of a normal population.

# Studies of Self-Esteem

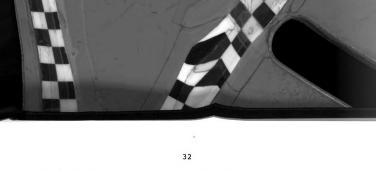
Despite the many discussions of self-esteem and the importance attached to it, surprisingly few studies have investigated it as a separate process. Many studies approach self-esteem tangentially as part of the self-concept but few have studied it directly. No studies were found which directly measured the self-esteem of youthful offenders at the time of incarceration.

Current interest in self-esteem and the diversity of its application is indicated by several recent studies.

Sears and Sherman<sup>2</sup> examined the self-esteem of eight elementary school children using the case study approach.

<sup>1</sup> Ibid., p. 6.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>Pauline S. Sears and Vivian S. Sherman, <u>In Pursuit</u> of <u>Self-Esteem</u> (Belmont, Calif.: Wadsworth Publishing Co., 1964).



 ${\tt Lefkowitz}^{\tt l}$  examined the self-esteem of industrial workers using Bills Index of Adjustment and Values.

Wylie, in her comprehensive study of self-concept, noted that agreement is lacking among a number of experimental studies of self-regard and induced success or failure. She observed that this is because ". . . each study involved a unique combination of assumptions, procedures, and measuring instruments."

Most relevant to our study was Rosenberg's study of adolescent self-image. Rosenberg defined self-esteem as "a positive or negative attitude toward a particular object, namely, the self." By high self-esteem he means "that the individual respects himself, considers himself worthy." He said that "Low self-esteem, on the other hand, implies self-rejection, self-dissatisfaction, self-contempt." This definition corresponds closely to that developed in our theoretical discussion.

Rosenberg devised a self-esteem scale intended to measure directly the individual's self-esteem and produce

 $<sup>^{1}</sup>$ Joel Morris Lefkowitz, "Self Esteem of Industrial Workers" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Western Reserve University, 1965).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>Ruth C. Wylie, <u>The Self Concept</u> (Lincoln, Nebr.: University of Nebraska <u>Press</u>, <u>1961</u>), p. 198.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>Rosenberg, op. cit. <sup>4</sup>Ibid., p. 30.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup>Ibid., p. 31. <sup>6</sup>Ibid.

scores distributed along a unidimensional continuum. The scale was used to find the distribution of self-esteem of adolescents in broad social groupings including the neigh-hood and the family. He also sought to find the distribution of self-esteem in relation to certain psychological conditions, attitudes, and behavior prevalent among adolescents. Rosenberg did not at that time report the self-esteem distribution of his sample, however he did report it in a letter to the author. 1

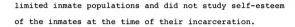
The close similarity between Rosenberg's definition of self-esteem and the one developed in this study, his recognition that self-esteem can be measured on a high-low continuum, the reproducibility, scalability and validity of the scale and its brevity and usefulness in the context of this study, led to the selection of the Rosenberg Self-Esteem scale as the measure of self-esteem used here.

Cooper<sup>2</sup> using the Q-methodology, found that the self-perceptions of drug addicts and alcohol addicts were not consistent with the low self-esteem attributed to them in literature. It should be noted that Cooper studied two

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>The distribution of the self-esteem scores in Rosenberg's sample was received in a letter. (Letter from Morris Rosenberg, National Institute of Mental Health, Bethesda, Md., August 8, 1966.)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>Morton Cooper, "Differences in Self-Perception Among Physically Dependent Drug Addicts, Alcohol Addicts, and Controls" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, the American University, 1958).



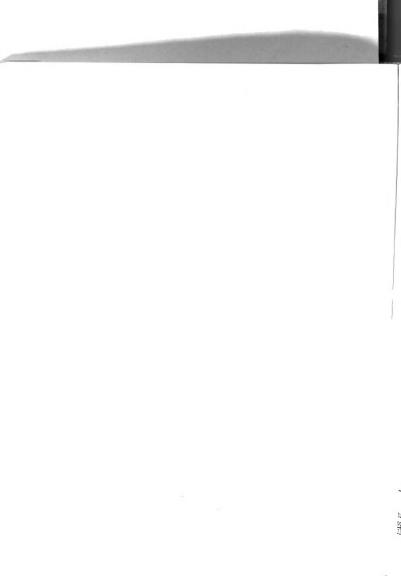


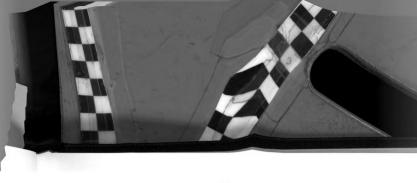
#### Background Characteristics

Certain background characteristics were selected in this study for examination of their possible relationship to self-esteem. These background factors were:

- A. Personal Data
  - 1. Race
  - 2. Age at time of incarceration
  - 3. Work experience
  - 4. Educational achievement
- B. Early Home and Family Influence
  - 1. Mother's attitude toward inmate
  - 2. Father's attitude toward inmate
  - 3. Parental family cohesiveness
  - 4. Marital status of parents
  - Age at which parental home broken, if broken.
- C. Criminal History
  - 1. Age at first attention of officials
  - 2. Prior time served in institutions as juvenile
  - 3. Minimum sentence.

Though none of the studies in the literature directly examined these factors in relation to the self-esteem of inmates, studies were found that examined factors A-1 and A-2 in relationship to self-esteem. Other studies examined factors A-3, A-4, B-1, B-2, B-3, B-4, B-5, C-1, C-2, and C-3 as related to criminal and delinquent behavior. Further, some studies were found which examined factors C-1, C-2, and C-3 in relation to the self-concept of inmates. The latter were included here because of the close relationships in





theory between self-esteem and self-concept which have been demonstrated in the earlier discussion of the nature of self-esteem.

Coe, in a study of the relationship of inmate characteristics to prison adjustment, listed those characteristics he found to be significantly related to inmate adjustment to prison programs at Illinois State Penitentiary at Menard, Illinois. Of forty-one factors studied, only nineteen were found to differentiate significantly the well adjusted from the poorly adjusted inmates. Though the present study was not concerned with prediction of good or poor adjustment, and though Coe's factors did not correspond with those factors on which data was available to the present study, the importance of self-esteem to behavior change and thus to adjustment suggested the relevance of Coe's findings to our study. Coe's list of significant factors follows:

- A. Personal Data

  Age at admission
  Race
  Occupational status
  Employment record
- B. Early Social Data
  Home status
  Home conditions
  Inmate reared by parental figures
  Economic status (parents)

Rodney M. Coe, "Who is the Inmate? Characteristics of Well Adjusted and Poorly Adjusted Inmates," Penology, ed. Clyde B. Vedder and Barbara A. Kay (Springfield, Ill.: C. C. Thomas, 1964), p. 46-61.

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- C. Current Social Data

  Marital status
  Economic status (inmate)
  Length of residence in community
  Personality evaluation
- D. Criminal Data

Offense Length of sentence Classification type Type of offender Age at first arrest Type of commitment Prognosis

#### Personal Data

The factors selected from personal data included race, age at admission, work experience, and educational achievement. Each of these defines the individual as a member of a group that may function as a generalized other.

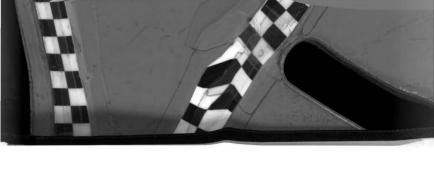
#### Race

In discussing race and its possible relationship to self-esteem we directed special attention to the Negro. Statistics indicated that Negro males comprise 31 percent of the prison admissions and that they were four and one-half times more likely to be imprisoned than white males. 1

Low self-esteem of Negroes is generally assumed in the literature. Grambs said, "The self-esteem of the Negro is damaged by the overwhelming fact that the world

<sup>1</sup> Johnson, op. cit., p. 85.

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he lives in said, 'White is right, black is bad.'" She continued saying, "Those social symptoms report to the Negro that he is not valued as a person; he cannot, against such massive evidence, counter by his own feelings of self-esteem, since in truth he can typically show little factual support for a contrary view." Coe supported this view commenting that, "The dominant sociopsychological pressure of color prejudice seems to produce a collapsing effect upon the individual's self-respect--to render him ashamed of his existence."

Simpson and Yinger indicated that self-hatred and feelings of inferiority were "natural results of the pressures acting upon a minority group." Rose reasoned that "when one is abused or insulted and forces oneself to react passively, the hatred that would normally be directed toward the abusing or insulting person is instead turned inward." 5

lJean D. Grambs, "The Self-Concept: Basis for Reeducation of Negro Youth," Negro Self-Concept, William C. Kvaraceus, et al., (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1965), p. 15.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 17.

 $<sup>$^3$</sup>$  Oliver C. Cox, <u>Caste, Class and Race</u> (New York: Doubleday, 1948), p. 38 $\overline{2}$ -383.

<sup>4</sup>George Eaton Simpson and J. Milton Yinger, Racial and Cultural Minorities (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1953)...n. 192

<sup>5</sup>Arnold Marshall Rose, <u>The Negro's Morale</u> (Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1949), p. 89.



The assumption of low self-esteem of Negroes was supported by a number of studies of Negro children. The Clarks in one of their studies found that Negro children preferred white dolls and rejected colored dolls. Nearly two-thirds of the children indicated liking white dolls best, saying that they would rather play with a white doll than a colored doll, and that they considered the white doll the "nice" doll. Findings indicating low self-esteem among Negroes were reported in other studies by Goodman, Landreth, Morland, Stevenson, and Trager. Koch found

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Kenneth B. Clark and Mamie P. Clark, "Racial Identification and Preference in Negro Children," Readings in Social Psychology, ed. T. M. Newcomb and E. L. (1st ed.; New York: Holt, 1947), p. 169-178.

 $<sup>^2 \</sup>rm Mary~E.~Goodman,~Race~Awareness~in~Young~Children~(Cambridge, Mass.: Addison-Wesley, 1952).$ 

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>Catherine Landreth and Barbara C. Johnson, "Young Children's Responses to a Picture and Inset Test Designed to Reveal Reactions to Persons of Different Skin Color," Child Development, 24 (1953), p. 63-80.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup>J. K. Morland, "Racial Recognition by Nursery School Children in Lynchburg, Virginia," <u>Social Forces</u>, 37 (1958), p. 132-137.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup>H. W. Stevenson and E. C. Stewart, "A Developmental Study of Racial Awareness in Young Children," Child Development, 29 (1958), p. 399-409.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup>Helen G. Trager and Marian R. Yarrow, <u>They Live</u> What They Learn (New York: Harpers, 1952).

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that some of this low self-regard disappeared in later years. However, in other studies made by Johnson and Seeman it was indicated that self-hate persists among older Negro children. A study reported by Yarrow of campers in an interracial setting found a tendency by Negro children to avoid each other in the early days of the camp. This tendency however modified toward the end of the two week camp experience.

Milner<sup>5</sup> suggested that this early disenchantment with self becomes more complex in the teenage years as patterns of dating and peer group affiliations become segregated. Devaluation in school experiences and jobsearch efforts further compound the confusion of self-identity and deepens the self-hate. Katz and Benjamin<sup>6</sup>

Helen L. Koch, "Social Distinction between Certain Racial, Nationality, and Skin Pigmentation Groups in Selected Populations of American School Children," <u>Journal of Genetic Psychology</u>, 68 (1946), p. 63-95.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>C. S. Johnson, <u>Growing up in the Black Belt</u> (Washington: American Council on Education, 1941).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>M. Seeman, "A Situational Approach to Intragroup Negro Attitudes," <u>Sociometry</u>, 9 (1946), p. 199-206.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup>Marian R. Yarrow, "Interpersonal Dynamics in a Desegregation Process," <u>Journal of Social Issues</u>, 14 (1958), p. 3-63.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup>Esther Milner, "Some Hypotheses Concerning the Influence of Segregation on Negro Personality Development," Psychiatry, 16 (1953), p. 291-297.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup>I. Katz and L. Benjamin, "Effects of White Authoritarianism in Biracial Work Groups," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 61 (1960), p. 448-456.

in a recent study reported that even when Negroes were confronted with evidence of their learning abilities in an interracial situation they responded with feelings of inadequacy and compliance. Clark stated,

By the age of seven most Negro children have accepted the reality that they are . . . dark skinned. But the stigma remains; they have been forced to recognize themselves as inferior. Few if any Negroes ever fully lose that sense of shame and self-hatred. I

Pettigrew summarized the effect of minority status on Negroes saying:

For years, Negro Americans have had little else by which to judge themselves than the second-class status assigned them in America. And along with this interior treatment, their ears have been filled with the din of white racists egotistically insisting that Caucasians are innately superior to Negroes. Consequently, many Negroes, consciously or unconsciously, accept in part these assertions of their inferiority. In addition, they accept the American emphases on "status" and "success." But when they employ these standards for judging their own worth, their lowly positions and their relative lack of success lead to further self-disparagement. Competition with successful whites is especially threatening.

Recent events such as civil rights legislation and the Supreme Court decisions are viewed by Pettigrew as changing the Negro's view of himself.

Now he is greeted with evidence from all sides that the white supremacists are wrong . . . . He sees segregationists desperately defying his national

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Kenneth B. Clark, <u>Dark Ghetto</u> (New York: Harper & Row, 1965), p. 65.

Thomas F. Pettigrew, A Profile of the Negro American (Princeton, N. J.: Van Nostrand, 1964), p. 9.



government in their losing battle to maintain Jim Crow. . . He sees all this and his wounds begin to heal.  $\dot{\rm l}$ 

Baldwin $^2$  saw the recent changes as "a great antidote to the poison of self-hatred." Clark also supported this view. $^3$ 

Despite these recent changes however, it was expected that the self-esteem of Negro inmates in this study would be low. It appeared that low self-evaluation internalized from the "generalized other" of their subculture in childhood years would be deeply entrenched before the recent civil rights changes developed.

## Age at Admission

The literature suggests that age of inmates cannot be meaningfully discussed apart from an inmate's developmental criminal history. Further, age as a factor in itself does not appear to be meaningfully related to self-esteem.

Clinard reported that serious crimes were most often committed by individuals under twenty-five years of age and that many of these individuals were under

lbid., p. 10.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>James Baldwin, <u>Nobody Knows My Name</u> (New York: Dial, 1961), p. 81.

<sup>3</sup>Clark, Dark Ghetto, op. cit., p. 68.



twenty-one years. The median age in 1965 for auto theft, burglary and larceny was about seventeen years, for robbery and forcible rape about twenty-one, and for aggravated assault and murder about twenty-seven years. Glaser suggested that a close relationship exists between the age at which specific types of felonies are most often committed, and the age at which persons in our society first try to enter legitimate pursuits for which these felonies substitute."

Research studies of the relation of inmate age to self-concept were few and no agreement was found in the findings. Moran in a study of inmates in the U. S. Reformatory at Chillicothe, Ohio, found that younger inmates, those under eighteen years of age, suffered "from the poorest concepts of self-respect." In contrast Lefeber in a recent study using the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale found that "none of the self-concept scores as measured, varied significantly as a function of the independent

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Marshall B. Clinard, <u>Sociology of Deviant Behavior</u> (Rev. ed.; New York: Holt, <u>Rinehart & Winston</u>, <u>Inc.</u>, 1963), p. 207.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>U. S. Department of Justice. Federal Bureau of Investigation. Uniform Crime Report, 1965 (Washington: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1965), p. 112-113.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>Glaser, op. cit., p. 469.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup>Mark Roland Moran, "Inmate Concept of Self in a Reformatory Society" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, The Ohio State University, 1953).



variable of age, ethnicity, mental maturity, or socioeconomic status employed" in his study.  $^{1}$ 

Rosenberg reported that in his study of the selfesteem of high school students he found that "age was virtually unrelated to self-esteem with the exception of the very young juniors and seniors (15 years old) who had higher self-esteem."<sup>2</sup>

These studies indicated the lack of demonstrated relationship between age and self-concept, and age and self-esteem, except among individuals younger than those within this study. Age of inmates in relationship to the individual's developing criminal history will be discussed in a later section.

### Work Experience

Glaser noted that over 90 percent of the major crimes reported by the Federal Bureau of Investigation's <a href="Uniform Crime Reports">Uniform Crime Reports</a> ". . . involve taking someone else's money or property . . ." and concluded that "most crime is either a supplement to or a substitute for work as a means of procuring an income." In his study of 1015 federal

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>James Arthur Lefeber, "The Delinquent's Self-Concept" (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, University of Southern California, 1965).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>Letter from Rosenberg, op. cit.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>Glaser, <u>op. cit.</u>, p. 230.



prisoner cases he found "only a quarter of the federal prisoners were employed during 75 percent or more of their last two years of civilian life in the free community, 38 percent were employed 25 to 74 percent of the time, 27 percent had worked less than 25 percent of the time, 6 percent had never had any legitimate employment. . ." This finding leads to the conclusion that inmates lacked experience in legitimate work pursuits.

The Gluecks in their study of after-school employment of delinquents and non-delinquents found few significant differences except that delinquents worked less regularly and in more hazardous and less favorable job circumstances than non-delinquents. Sterne in a study of delinquents reported similar findings.

Clinard suggested a relationship between minority status and work experience. Grambs, speaking of the economic status of the Negro minority, writes

The Negro family is much more likely than the white family to be on the lowest economic rung. . Although we have seen in recent generations the rise

<sup>1</sup> Ibid.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>Sheldon Glueck and Eleanor Glueck, <u>Unraveling Juvenile Delinquency</u> (New York: The Commonwealth Fund, 1950), p. 158-159.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>Richard S. Sterne, <u>Delinquent Conduct and Broken</u> Homes (New Haven, Conn.: <u>College and University Press</u>, 1964), p. 87.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup>Clinard, op. cit., p. 547.

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of a Negro middle class, and even a very few wealthy Negroes, most Negroes remain in the "last hired, first fired" category of employment.

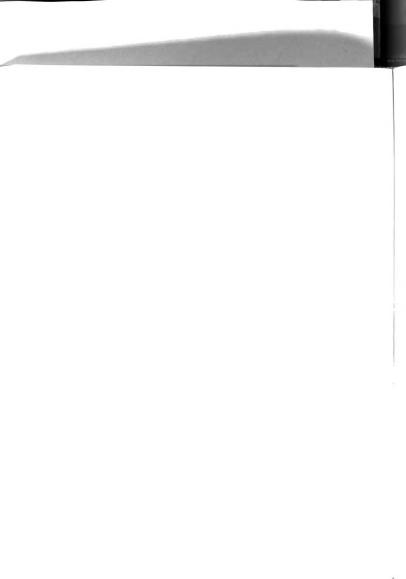
. . . Not only is the Negro last to be hired and the first to be fired, but he pays more for insurance premiums, he has a much harder time obtaining home mortgage money and any kind of bank or credit loans. . . In such an environment, it is hard indeed for the Negro male to achieve a sense of self-worth as a breadwiner and provider for his family. 1

Discrimination in employment practices may result in larger numbers of Negro inmates with no work experience than is found among their white counterparts. However, Glaser reports "that the prior employment record of Negroes released from federal prisons is about the same as that for white releasees." He explains this saying, "In the prison population, both whites and Negroes are predominantly unskilled, and have dropped out of school early, hence both racial groups are highly similar in the extent of their unemployment." 2

The relationship of unemployment to self-esteem of inmates has not been clarified by this discussion. Though lack of work experience seems to be related to criminal activity, there appears to be no empirical basis for predicting the relationship between self-esteem and work experience.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Grambs, <u>op. cit.</u>, p. 17-18, 19.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>Glaser, <u>op. cit.</u>, p. 232.



# Educational Achievement

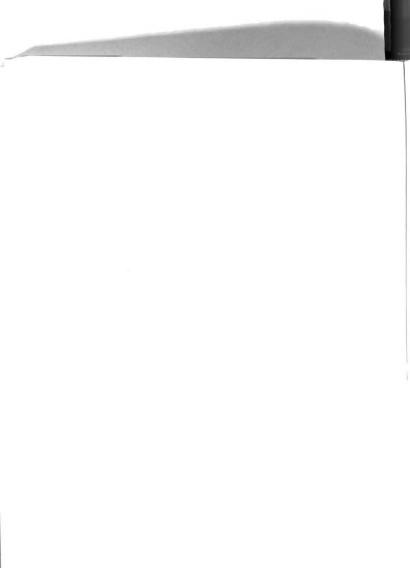
Lipset and Bendix noted that "Education has become the principal avenue for upward mobility in most industrial nations." It has been found, however, that delinquents and criminals lag behind other students in educational levels attained in school. The Gluecks reported that "delinquents, as a group, were a year behind non-delinquents in educational achievement." Chenault noted that "from 10 to 30 percent of the admissions to correctional institutions throughout the country are functionally illiterate." A study of 4000 inmates over seventeen years of age admitted to the prison system of Texas showed 5 percent had not completed the first grade, 44 percent had not completed eighth grade, 89 percent had failed to complete high school, 99+ percent had not completed college. Comparison with admittees to New Jersey State Prison produced comparable figures: 3.6, 41, 91, and 99+,4

<sup>1</sup> Seymour M. Lipset and Reinhard Bendix, Social Mobility in Industrial Society (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1959), p. 91.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>Glueck, <u>Unraveling</u> . . . , <u>op. cit.</u>, p. 136.

Price Chenault, "Education," Contemporary Correction, ed. Paul W. Tappan (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1951), p. 226.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup>U. S., Congress, Subcommittee to Investigate Juvenile Delinquency, Education and Juvenile Delinquency, Interim Report, 84th Cong., (Washington: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1956), pp. 106-110.



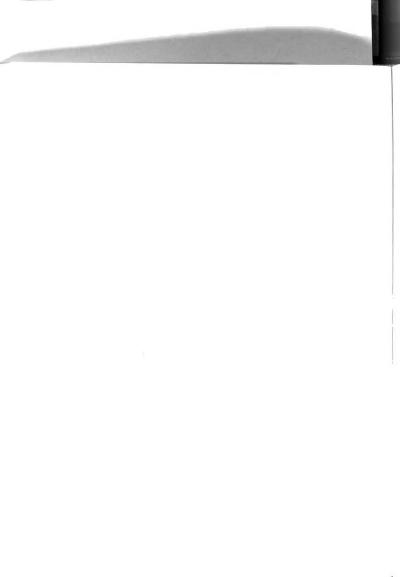
Glaser reported that though the median school grade completed by the U. S. population is past the tenth grade, "most compilations of the highest grade completed by prison inmates have a median in the eighth grade. . . Only one to three percent of men admitted to prison had completed high school." He further observed that "despite their deficiencies in education, the intelligence of men in prison is not markedly different from that of men out of prison." He continues:

The average intelligence quotient of prisoners in most compilations is in the upper nineties, and there are many prisoners in every range of intelligence. Improvement in the educational attainment of persons retarded in school is known to be correlated with some increase in their scores on intelligence Therefore, it seems probable that much of the small deficiency in prisoner intelligence scores, by comparison with average scores, is due to school retardation. Futhermore, the smallness of the inmate deficiency in intelligence score compared with their deficiency in schooling suggests that most of their school retardation is due to lack of motivation to perform well in school rather than to intelligence below the level needed to progress at a normal rate. Their lack of past educational effort generally reflects the interruption of their schooling by delinquent behavior and the failure of the home to effectively motivate a high interest in educational attainment.1

Cloward and Ontell stated, "A firm educational foundation is crucial if a young person is to have a good idea of himself and a sense of competence."

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Glaser, <u>op. cit.</u>, p. 260-261.

Richard A. Cloward and Robert Ontell, "The Trouble with Training," American Child, 47 (1965), p. 1-6.



This discussion led us to expect to find a failure to progress in school grade levels among the inmates in this study. The relationship between motivation and feelings of self-worth and school attainment as reported in our readings, led us to anticipate a depressed self-esteem in relation to low school grade achievement among inmates.

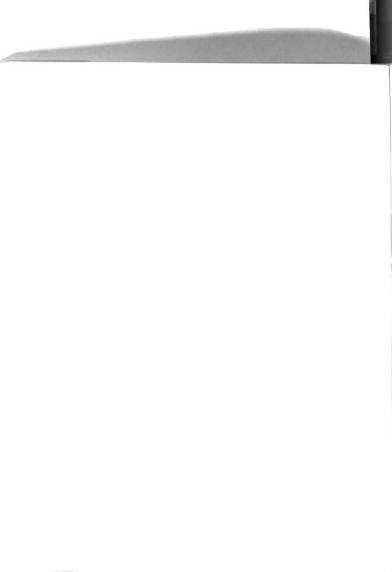
Early Home and Family Influences

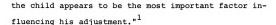
Home and family members are significant components of the "generalized other," and frequently parents are an individual's "significant persons." The role of home and family members, along with others, in the formation of criminal and delinquent behavior was stressed by Tannenbaum:

The person becomes the thing he is described as being. Nor does it seem to matter whether the valuation is made by those who would punish or those who would reform. In either case the emphasis is upon the conduct that is disapproved of. The parents or the policemen, the older brother or the court, the probation officer or the juvenile institution, in so far as they rest upon the thing complained of, rest upon a false ground. Their very enthusiasm defeats their aim. The harder they work to reform the evil, the greater the evil grows under their very hands. The persistent suggestion, with whatever good intentions, works mischief, because it leads to bringing out the bad behavior that it would suppress. I

Holley concluded from his study of parole adjustment that of the variables considered, "family life of

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Frank Tannenbaum, <u>Crime and Community</u> (New York: Columbia University Press, 1938), p. 18.





Several aspects of home and family influence were selected to discover their bearing on the self-esteem of inmates. These aspects were:

- 1. Mother's attitudes toward the inmate
- 2. Father's attitudes toward the inmate
  - 3. Climate of parental marriage
  - 4. Marital status of parents
- 5. Age at which parental home broken, if broken.

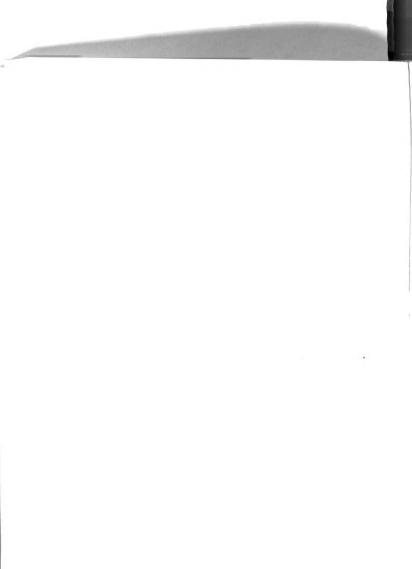
A review of the literature regarding these aspects revealed that some have been found to be significantly related to delinquent or criminal behavior. The likely relationship of these factors to self-esteem was inferred from their relationship to self-concept as indicated in several studies.

### Mother's Attitude toward the Inmate

According to Cavan, the mother's attitude "toward her children is regarded as most significant" in all discussions of parent-child relationships. She continued that a

warm, loving mother is the one with whom the child can identify and from whom he receives a sense of worth and self-confidence. The rejecting mother not only does not secure the child's identification but

Floyd Bernard Holley, "Case History Factors Associated with Youth Parole Adjustment: A Follow-up Study of Selected Boys of the New York State Training School for Boys at Warwick, New York" (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, New York University, 1964).



creates in him a sense of unworthiness and of resentment toward herself.  $^{\rm L}$ 

This view was supported by the Gluecks who found in their study of delinquents that a much lower percentage of mothers of delinquents "had what might be described as a warm attitude than mothers of non-delinquents (72.1%: 95.6%)." They also found that the proportion of overprotective mothers of delinquents was 24.4 percent compared with 15.2 percent of mothers of non-delinquents.<sup>2</sup>

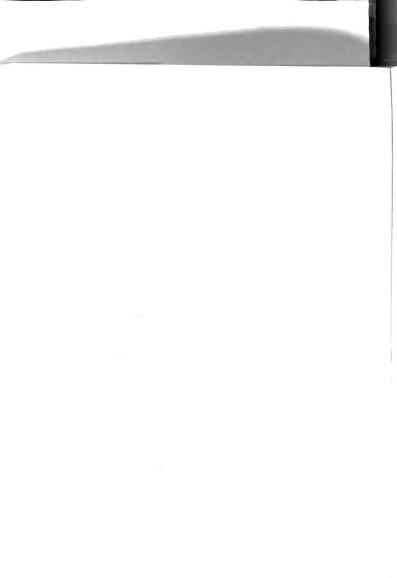
The McCords in their extension of the Cambridge-Somerville youth study reported similar findings and commented, "neglect on the mother's part led to a high rate of criminality. . . . Loving mothers, regardless of their other personality characteristics gave their children enough emotional security for the internalization of moral controls." Nye in summarizing his findings said that a "test was made of the generally accepted relationship between rejection of the child by the parent and delinquency. A significant but slight relationship was found, considering the importance often accorded this variable."

Ruth Shonle Cavan, Juvenile Delinquency (Philadelphia, Pa.: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1962), p. 111.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>Glueck, <u>Unraveling</u> . . . , <u>op. cit.</u>, p. 125.

William McCord and Joan McCord, Origins of Crime (New York: Columbia University Press, 1959), p. 101-102.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup>F. Ivan Nye, <u>Family Relationships and Delinquent</u>
<u>Behavior</u> (New York: <u>John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1958)</u>, p. 75.



On the basis of the studies reported we expected to find a relationship, possibly slight, between low self-esteem, reflecting a sense of unworthiness in the inmate, and an unhealthy and rejecting mother's attitude toward the inmate in childhood.

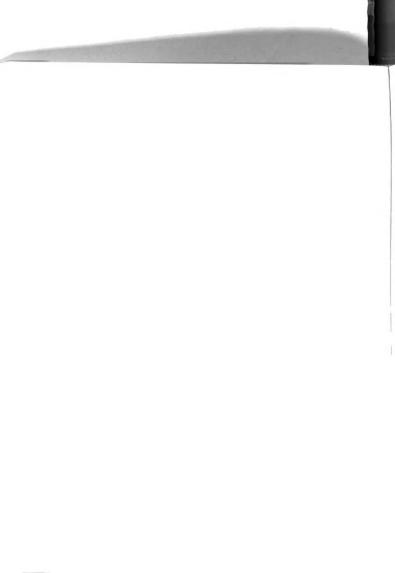
# Father's Attitude toward the Inmate

The study by the Gluecks reported that close ties to fathers be delinquents and non-delinquents was in the proportion of 32.5 percent:65.1 percent. They further found emulation of fathers was wholly acceptable to 17.1 percent of the delinquents, and to 42.1 percent of the non-delinquents. Fathers were wholly unacceptable to 30.7 percent of the delinquents and to only 7 percent of the non-delinquents. In disciplining practices many more fathers of delinquents were found to be overstrict. Nearly two-fifths of the fathers (41.6 percent) of delinquents were found to be inconsistent in disciplining. Many more of the delinquents than non-deliquents reported that their fathers were not concerned for their welfare (33.9 percent:5.2 percent). Twice as many fathers of

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Glueck, <u>Unraveling</u> . . . , <u>op. cit.</u>, p. 126.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup><u>Ibid</u>., p. 127. <sup>3</sup><u>Ibid</u>., p. 132.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup>Ibid., p. 129.



non-delinquents showed affection for their sons as did fathers of delinquents. 1

Healy and Bronner in their classic study of 143 delinquents reported that only one-fifth of their cases expressed or evidenced love for father. Nye found a slight correlation between rejecting fathers and delinquents.

The McCords found that fathers' attitude influenced the criminal or non-criminal behavior of their sons.

The actions of two types of fathers—the warm and the passive—tended to produce non-criminal sons. The warm fathers furnished the prerequisites for their sons' introduction to social life. . . . We believe that the passive fathers, in most relevant respects, closely resembled the warm fathers. Even though they were markedly withdrawn men, many of them gave evidence of an affectionate attitude toward their children.

Two types of fathers, at the other end of the scale, had a decidedly adverse effect upon the criminal proclivities of their boys. The neglecting fathers had the worst influence. These men were present in the home and actively rejected their sons. They constantly frustrated the basic emotional and material needs of their boys. . . . Evidently, the constant frustrations caused by the neglecting fathers had a more serious effect than the brutal actions of the cruel fathers (although the difference between the two is not statistically significant). Both types rejected their children, but apparently the cruel fathers instilled

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup><u>Ibid.</u>, p. 125.

William Healy and Augusta F. Bronner, New Light on Delinquency and its Treatment (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1936), p. 48.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>Nye, <u>op. cit.</u>, p. 74.



just enough fear of retribution to keep many of their sons from becoming criminal.

The McCords summarized their findings saying,

fathers arouse a tendency toward criminal behavior in their children if the child is deprived of paternal affection through absence, cruelty, or neglect. The likelihood of crime is increased if the child is disciplined in an erratic fashion or is left undisciplined. . . On the other hand, warmth or passivity on the part of the father, combined with consistent discipline and a non deviant role model, helps insulate the son against criminality.<sup>2</sup>

These studies indicate that a relationship exists between rejecting fathers and criminal activity. If rejection should develop feelings of unworthiness in the son, we might expect to find unhealthy rejecting fathers' attitudes toward sons who became inmates related to low self-esteem, and healthy, accepting attitudes related to high self-esteem of inmates.

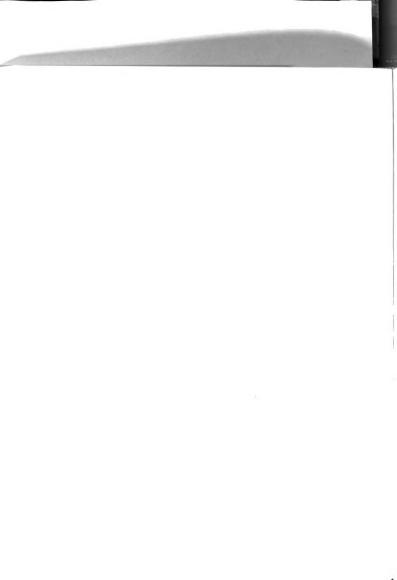
## Climate of Parental Marriage

Healy and Bronner reported that 43 of their 143 delinquent cases evidenced emotional disturbance about family disharmony and discipline. The finding of the Glueck study showed only a third of the delinquent parents had good conjugal relations as compared with two-thirds

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>McCord, <u>op. cit.</u>, pp. 90-91.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 94.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>Healy, <u>op. cit.</u>, p. 49.



of the parents of non-delinquents. Another third of the delinquents' parents and a fifth of the non-delinquents' parents experienced only fair relationships. One-third of the delinquents' parents' relationships were classed as poor. 1

The McCords categorized homes as cohesive, quarrel-some-affectionate, broken, and quarrelsome-neglecting. They found that quarrelsome-neglecting homes had a higher crime rate than homes disrupted by permanent separation. The lowest percentage of criminal activity came from cohesive homes.<sup>2</sup>

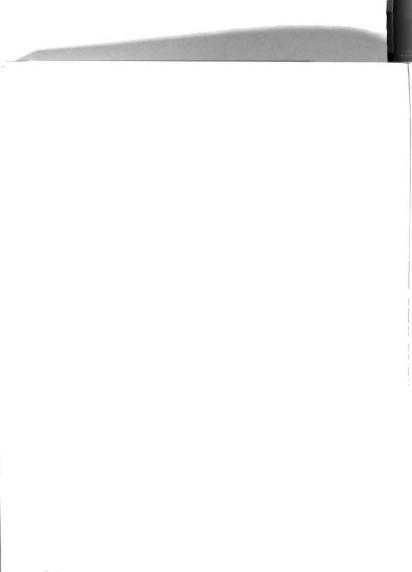
The climate of the parental home appears to be related to criminal activity among the subjects reported in the studies. A cohesive home climate appears to produce fewer delinquents than a home marked by friction. Though the relation of the climate of the parental home to inmate self-esteem is not made clear in these studies, we might assume that some relationship exists because of the supposed importance of the home as a generalized other and of the parents as significant others.

### Marital Status of Parents

Sterne in his study of broken homes and delinquency reported that "broken and unbroken homes do not differ

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Glueck, <u>Unraveling</u> . . . , <u>op. cit.</u>, p. 111.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>McCord, op. cit., p. 81-83.



significantly in their effects on delinquent behavior."

This corresponded with the finding of the McCord study that the percent of incarcerated boys from broken homes was 11 percent and from cohesive homes 9 percent.<sup>2</sup>

The Gluecks found 60.4 percent of their delinquent cases came from broken homes as compared with only 34.2 percent of their non-delinquent cases. Shaw and McKay in a study of family disorganization and delinquency found that broken homes were not an important factor in delinquency causation. Birge in a recent study reported that the relationship between broken homes and delinquency was not firmly supported, though boys from broken homes seemed to be overrepresented. This he suggested was due to a tendency of courts to treat boys from broken homes differently than boys from homes where both parents are present. Nye reported similar findings. Healy and

<sup>1</sup>Sterne, op. cit., p. 61. 2McCord, op. cit., p. 83.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>Glueck, <u>Unraveling</u> . . . , <u>op. cit.</u>, p. 122.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup>Clifford R. Shaw and Henry D. McKay, "Social Factors in Juvenile Delinquency," National Commission on Law Observance and Enforcement, Report on the Causes of Crime, No. 13, II (Washington: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1931), p. 261-263.

<sup>5</sup>Robert Dean Birge, "The Relation of Differential Association, Self-Concept, and Delinquent Behavior" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, The University of Nebraska, 1966).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup>Nye, <u>op. cit.</u>, p. 47-48.



Bronner found that 65.5 percent of their delinquents came from unbroken homes and only 34.5 percent from broken homes.

The evidence regarding the marital status of inmates' homes and delinquent activity appears to be in
conflict. As a result, predicting a relationship between
inmate self-esteem and the marital status of inmates'
parental homes would be difficult.

# Age at which Parental Home Broken

In analyzing his findings, Sterne reported that ages of boys whose parental homes were broken were not significantly related to incidence of serious offenses except for four to nine year old boys whose homes were broken by maternal death. These boys committed a significantly low percentage of serious offenses. The McCords noted that children whose homes were broken at an early age (before five years old) did not produce more criminal activity than those whose homes were broken at a later age. They commented that this contrasted with psychoanalytic generalizations which suggested "the dire effects of an early separation of the child from his parents." Nye supported these findings, reporting "no

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Healy, op. cit., p. 35. <sup>2</sup>Sterne, op. cit., p. 90-92.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>McCord, <u>op. cit.</u>, p. 83.



significant differences between children from homes broken early or late in childhood."

The Gluecks discovered "a considerable likeness" between delinquents and non-delinquents concerning their ages at the time their homes were broken.

As a result of these reports which indicated little or no relationships between incidence of broken homes or age of boys at which the home was broken, and delinquency, it was anticipated that little or no relationship would be found between these factors and the self-esteem of inmates.

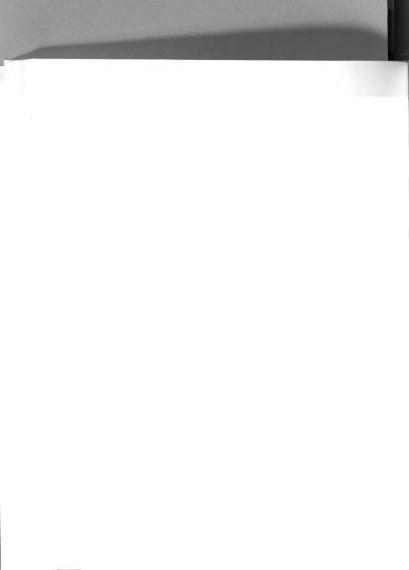
#### Criminal History

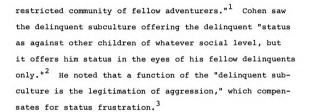
The criminal history of prison inmates is one indication of the extent of their participation in the delinquent subculture. The delinquent subculture, seen as a "generalized other" with its own value system, would perhaps influence the self-esteem of inmates.

Cohen stressed the importance of the delinquent subculture saying that, though it is not the only road to delinquency, ". . . for most delinquents delinquency would not be available as a response were it not socially legitimatized and given a kind of respectability, albeit by a

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Nye, op. cit., p. 46.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>Glueck, Unraveling . . . , op. cit., p. 122.





Glaser commented, "Each involvement in crime, and each experience of arrest and correctional confinement may increase a youth's alienation from home and school at the same time it enhances his prestige and self-esteem in delinquent social circles."

Three indices of participation in the delinquent subculture were examined in relation to self-esteem

- 1. Age at first attention of authorites
- Time served in institutions before confinement in the state facility
- 3. Minimum sentence

It was expected that inmates with participation in the delinquent subculture as indicated by early involvement in crime, time served, and the seriousness of the offense committed as indicated by minimum sentence would be found to possess a higher self-esteem than would inmates for whom the state offense was the first offense.

 $<sup>$^{1}$</sup>$  Albert K. Cohen, Delinquent Boys (Glencoe, II1.: The Free Press, 1955), p.  $\overline{135}.$ 

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup><u>Ibid.</u>, p. 136. <sup>3</sup><u>Ibid.</u>, p. 131.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup>Glaser, op. cit., p. 40.

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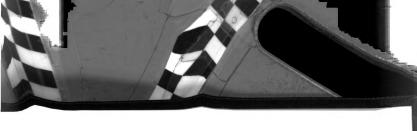
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### Age at First Attention of Officials

Glaser hypothesized, "the younger a prisoner was when first arrested, convicted, or confined for any crime, the more likely he is to continue in crime." The findings in his study of releasees from federal prisons supported this hypothesis. He concluded that the earlier age age of first arrest the higher the failure rate after their release from prison. 1

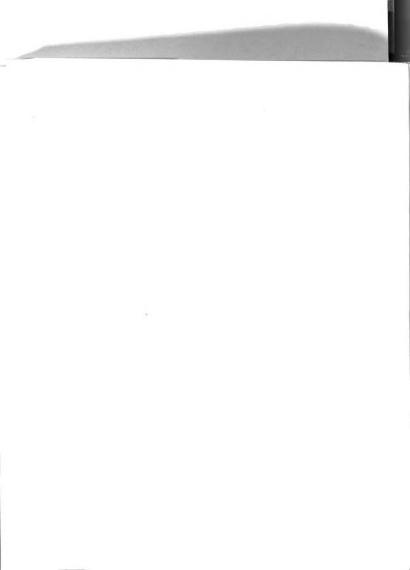
The Gluecks reported that the average age of the 500 delinquents in their study was 12.4 years (±2.1) at their first court appearance, and 28.4 percent first appeared in court when they were under eleven years of age. Nearly a half (45.8 percent) first appeared in court between eleven and thirteen years of age, while 25.8 percent were over fourteen years of age. The median age of the 500 delinquents in the Glueck study was about fourteen and one-half years. Ullman noted that the criminal careers of the misdemeanants of his study tended to start early in life. 3

Healy and Bronner observed that the age of first delinquency for their 153 cases was eight years or younger

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup><u>Ibid.</u>, p. 37-38.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>Glueck, <u>Unraveling</u> . . . , <u>op. cit.</u>, p. 27.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>Albert D. Ullman, et al., "Some Social Characteristics of Misdemeanants," Journal of Criminal Law, Criminology and Police Science, 48 (1957), p. 44-53.



for 48 percent, between eight and twelve for 30 percent, and after twelve years for 22 percent.

Age at first offense was found to be significantly related to recidivism in a study of 132 prisoners at Tokushima Prison, Japan, by Kashiwagi, Mano and Yasuhara. Fradkin in a study of the self-concept of 300 white male prisoners at Ohio State Penitentiary reported that early age of delinquency involvement was "prognostic of unfavorable self-concepts, of high delinquency vulnerability, and of high degree of personality deviation." He further stated that "early delinquency onset is apt to be prognostic of the most unfavorable offenders from the standpoint of rehabilitation."

A relationship between the age at which criminality begins and home influences was suggested by the McCords. They listed factors which in their analysis of data appeared to be related to early criminality: "passive or neglecting mothers, passive or neglecting fathers, quarrel-some homes, and poor neighborhoods." No significant

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Healy, <u>op. cit.</u>, p. 51.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>Massayoshi Kashiwagi, Morizo Mano and Hisao Yasuhara, "On Factors for the Prediction of Recidivism," National Clearinghouse, Current Projects in the Prevention, Control, and Treatment of Crime and Delinquency, V (Summer 1964), #1785.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>Howard Elwin Fradkin, "Criminal Background and Self-Concept as Prognostic Factors in the Lives of Prisoners" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, The Ohio State University, 1958.

relationship was found between discipline or low intelligence and early criminality. They suggested that "juvenile criminals appear to be escaping from the conflict in the home and from parents who fail to gratify emotional needs."

The literature suggested a strong relationship between early criminality and prolonged deviation from legal norms as well as recidivism. If prolonged delinquent activity functions to enhance the delinquent individual's self-esteem as Glaser suggests, then we might expect to find a strong relationship between high inmate self-esteem and the inmate's age at the time of his first offense.

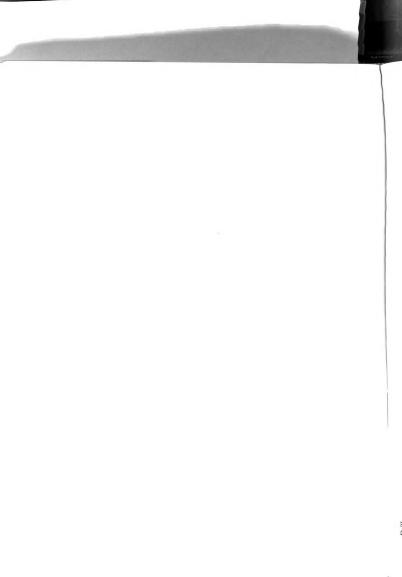
# Prior Time Served in Institutions

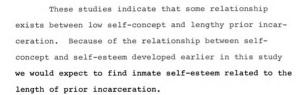
Harris noted "the correlation between self-concept and length of prior incarceration . . . was low but highly significant and in the expected direction." He concluded that "as the amount of prior incarceration increases the less a prisoner sees himself as different from the average incarcerated person." Fradkin reported ". . . that men with lengthy prior incarceration records were found to have the poorest self-conceptions."

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>McCord, op. cit., p. 162-163.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>Joseph Jerry Harris, "A Self-Concept Measure for Prisoners and its Relation to Certain Objective Indices of Criminality" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Pittsburgh, 1957).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>Fradkin, op. cit.





### Minimum Sentence

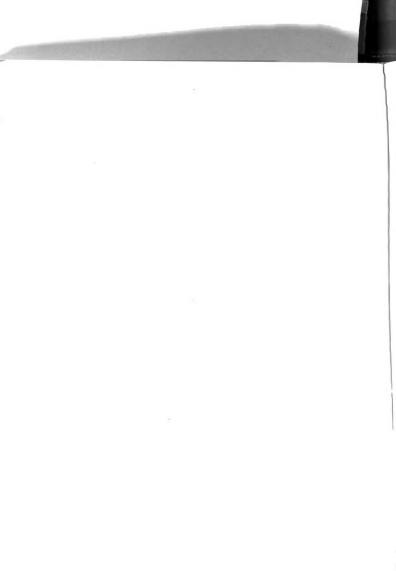
Minimum sentence is viewed here as indicative of the type of crime committed. Fradkin found that type of offense was not "prognostic of the offender's self-concepts." He suggests that his findings indicate that "criminologists and correctional administrators have placed too much emphasis on type of offense."

Nardini, in a study of first-time offenders at Iowa State Penitentiary reported finding that "inmates who have a criminal self-conception tend to have negative reference groups, longer sentences, have committed the more serious crimes and are more likely to feel that they are guilty of the crime for which they were convicted."

The findings of these studies are in conflict and create difficulty in predicting a relationship between inmate self-esteem and minimum sentence.

lIbid.

 $<sup>$^2$</sup>$  William Nardini, "Criminal Self Conceptions in the Penal Community: An Empirical Study" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, State University of Iowa, 1959).



## Summary

The nature of self-esteem in relation to the self has been reviewed. Self-esteem is defined as that element of the self-configuration which results from positive or negative self-valuing with the goals and ideals of the person as a standard of reference. It is seen as a strong motivational factor in behavior change and hence an important consideration in the design of correctional educational programs for young adult inmates. A correctional program at the Federal Correctional Institution, Englewood, Colorado, designed on the assumed low self-esteem of inmates was reported. A theoretical base for assuming that inmate self-esteem may not be different from that of a civilian population was posited.

The roles of the generalized other and the significant person in developing a standard of reference for self-valuing were discussed. Twelve background factors which might influence self-esteem were reviewed. The factors led to the following expectations:

- 1. The self-esteem of Negro inmates will be lower than that of white inmates.
- 2. The self-esteem of inmates who failed to progress in school grade levels will be lower than those who attained higher grade levels.
- 3. Inmates whose mother's attitudes were judged to be unhealthy will have lower self-esteem than those whose mother's attitudes were judged to be healthy.

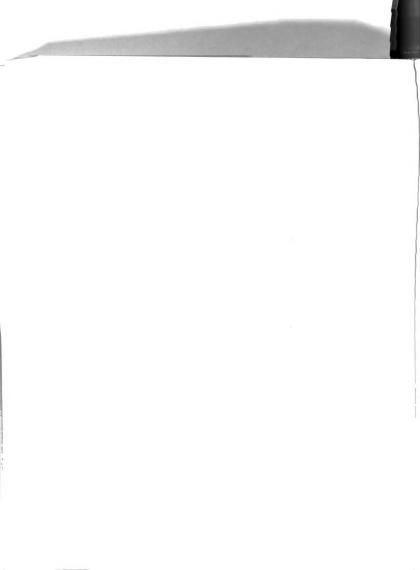




- 4. Inmates whose father's attitudes were judged to be unhealthy will have lower self-esteem than those whose father's attitudes were judged to be healthy.
- 5. The self-esteem of inmates who began delinquent activity at an early age will be higher than that of those who began such activity at a later age.
- 6. The self-esteem of inmates who had lengthy records of prior institutionalization as juveniles will be lower than those who have shorter records.

The literature revealed a lack of empirical evidence on which to predict relationships between selfesteem and the following inmate background factors:

- 1. Age
- 2. Work experience
- 3. Parental family cohesiveness
- 4. Marital status of parents
- 5. Age at which parental home broken, if broken
- 6. Minimum sentence.



### CHAPTER III

## RESEARCH SETTING AND POPULATION

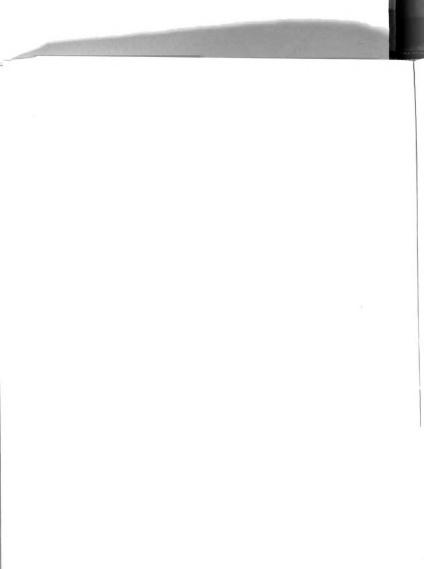
In this chapter the setting in which the study took place is described as well as the classification process through which the inmate background factors were derived. The general characteristics of the inmate population and of the population of high school senior boys are also presented.

# The Setting of the Study

This study was undertaken with the cooperation of the Michigan State Department of Corrections. Two facilities of the department were directly involved: 1) the Reception-Diagnostic Center at Jackson, Michigan, to which all persons sentenced in the criminal courts of the state are committed, and 2) the Michigan Reformatory at Ionia, Michigan, to which the inmates involved in this study were transferred for incarceration.

# The Reception-Diagnostic Center

The Center was first opened for use February 1, 1956. Though located on the grounds of the State Prison of Southern Michigan at Jackson, Michigan, it operates



as a separate facility, independently of the prison.

Every individual committed to prison in the state of

Michigan is processed through the Center. When the processing has been completed, and the individual and his

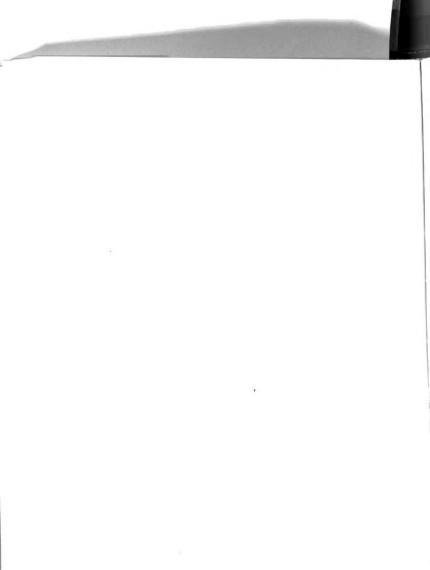
case record evaluated by the staff, the new inmate is

transferred to one of the eight major residential penal
institutions in the state. In 1964, the Center processed

1838 new commitments. The average daily population ranged
from 450 to 500 inmates.

The professional staff of the Center includes a supervisor, a psychiatrist, psychologists, vocational counselors and social workers. Their function is to examine the physical, social, and mental background and presentation of each new inmate and to recommend a program of treatment. This program of treatment is designed to provide the inmate the opportunity to achieve an optimum level of rehabilitation utilizing the resources available.

Inmates sometimes stay as long as thirty to forty days at the Center. The classification procedures include personal interviews, the testing and examination of abilities, aptitudes, and personality configuration, and counseling sessions. Many of the new inmates experience their first exposure to institutionalized living at the Center. They may interact socially with experienced inmates and recidivists who are at the Center awaiting

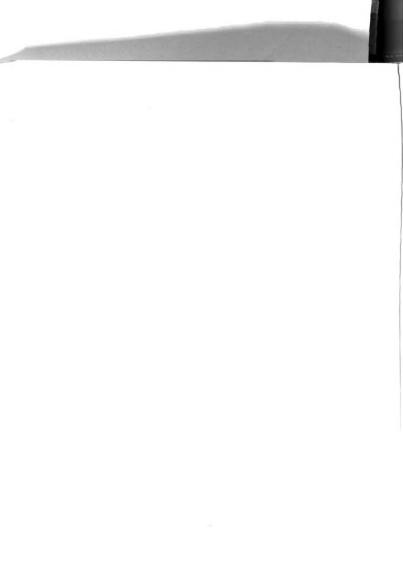


reclassification. The new youthful offender is not separated from the "old-timers" until his classification is complete and his transfer is made to one of the major penal facilities.

## The Classification Process

The classification process at the Reception-Diagnostic Center was the source for data on the inmate background factors used in this study. Information used in classification was derived primarily from the inmate's case history. An effort is made to obtain missing information or check the accuracy of the case history through the use of RDC-administered tests and interviews with inmates at the Center.

The inmate case history is the substance of the Pre-Sentence Report, an official court record, made following conviction and before sentencing, to assist the judge in the particular case to pass sentence fairly in the best interests of the state and the convicted person. This case history is carefully prepared by the probation officer assigned to the particular case through interviews with individuals acquainted with the convict. Those interviewed include the convict's parents, his spouse and children, his family's friends and neighbors, the school officials and teachers at the school he attended, possible employers and work partners, his minister, if any, and the

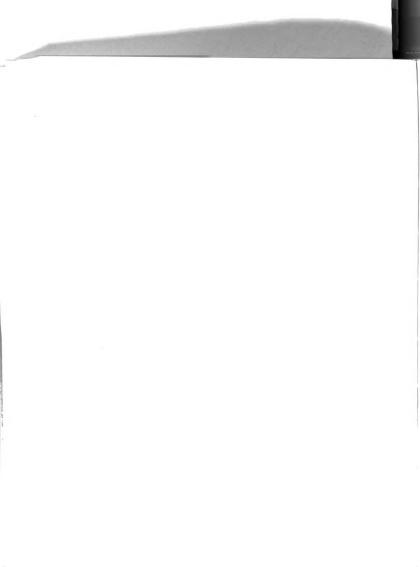


law enforcement officers involved in his case. As the investigation proceeds the probation officer seeks to discover other community or social agencies, and individuals who may provide further information. The school records, agency case records, and local police files often provide necessary data. When the search and interviewing procedure is completed, the probation officer prepares the case history.

The case history contains information regarding the convict's family and its interaction, his school and work record and activity, his previous criminal record, and information regarding his attitudes, habits, and life patterns. The items are carefully documented by giving the sources of information.

In the effort to provide information that is missing or to check available information certain tests are sometimes administered at the Reception-Diagnostic Center including the Army General Classification Test or the "individual" Wechsler for a measure of intelligence, and the Stanford Achievement for a measure of school grade level. The Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory is sometimes administered to indicate the possibility of existing pathologies and the need for referral to the prison psychiatrist for further testing.

With the case history and test scores at hand the counselor interviews the inmate. The purpose of the



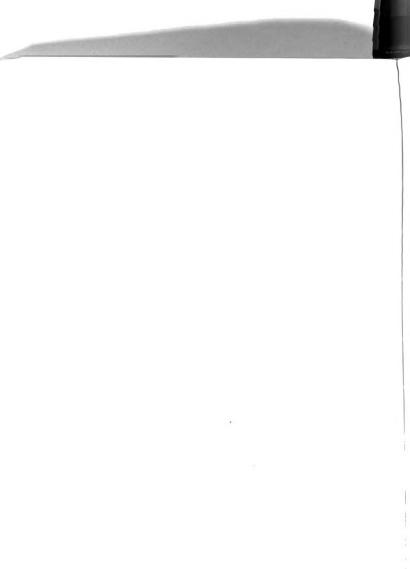
is to check the data avilable in the case history and the test scores with the prisoner's self-report. Whenever significant discrepancies are found, the counselor requests the probation officer to clarify the issue through further investigation. When the counselor is satisfied that the available information is accurate, he codes the Statistical Data Report which is used for punching I.B.M. cards, called the Inmate Data Cards.

The classification process is completed with a determination of the facility and treatment program best suited for the rehabilitation of the inmate. The inmates in this study were those classified for treatment at the Michigan Reformatory.

## Michigan Reformatory

Legislation providing for the establishment and financing of the Michigan Reformatory, a maximum security institution for younger offenders, was passed by the Michigan legislature, April 22, 1875. The first inmates were admitted to the reformatory in 1877, though construction begun in 1875 was not completed until 1880. The institution is located on the western outskirts of Ionia, Michigan, on nearly fifteen acres enclosed by an eighteen foot wall.

The reformatory which housed 600 inmates in the early 1900's, and reached a peak population of 2250 inmates





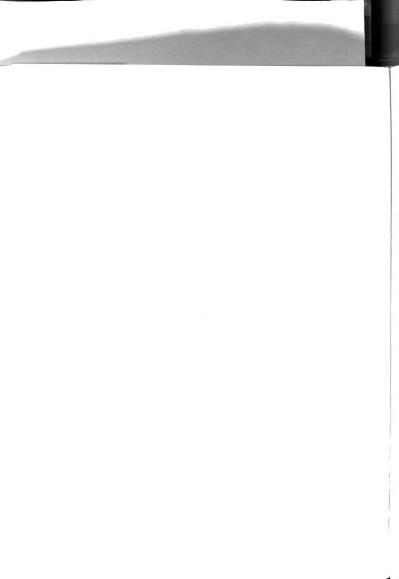
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in 1929, now has a regular cell capacity for 1050 persons with special cell facilities for 125 additional men. A new outside dormitory accommodates 235 inmates assigned to trusty duties on the prison farm and grounds. The "end of year population" reported for 1964 was 972 inmates which was down from the "beginning of the year population" of 1094 inmates.

The professional staff of the reformatory is under the direction of the warden who is responsible for the operation of the institution and its program. A deputy warden is reponsible for the custody and security of the inmates. In 1964, 298 persons, most of whom were custodial officers, were employed in the reformatory. Of this number, 23 persons worked as supervisory and instructional personnel for the Bureau of Prison Industries. A director of classification and five counselors are responsible for "the welfare, programming, and adjustment" of inmates during their stay at the institution.

### Reformatory Treatment Program

The treatment program includes an orientation period with emphasis on personal adjustment and the inmate's role in rehabilitation. After the initial orientation the inmate participates for five weeks in a program of social education designed to assist adjustment, create a "treatment-oriented" climate, and enable re-socialization.



The variety of educational programs available to inmates includes basic education, elementary and secondary school programs, vocational training, on-the-job training, correspondence courses, and television courses. The basic education or elementary school program derives importance from the announced policy of the Department of Corrections that no educable inmate should be released with "basic skills below the fifth grade level." An intermediate education program includes subjects considered as belonging to grades five through eight. Inmates successfully completing the basic and intermediate programs are issued a Basic Education Completion Certificate.

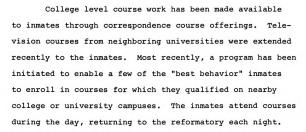
The high school program of the reformatory provides for choice of one of the following three curricula: the General Studies Curriculum, the Business Curriculum, and the College Preparatory Curriculum. When an inmate

successfully completes a curriculum, an effort is made to have his home high school issue a diploma. If the home high school is not willing, the inmate is granted an institutional diploma. As an alternative to the high school completion program, inmates may follow a course of study designed to enable successful completion of the General Education Development tests.

Vocational training includes shop courses in plumbing, electricity, appliance and motor repair, drafting, machine operation, sheet metal work, automotive servicing, welding, tailoring and printing. These curricula include related academic courses. On-the-job training is provided for inmates through work assignments in reformatory maintenance, or in one of the four prison factories. These factories produce furniture, garments, soap, and laundry services for the reformatory and other nearby state institutions. A Trade Training Certificate is issued to inmates on the completion of courses indicating the number of hours of training, skills acquired and the level of competence attained.

Inmate instructors are widely used in the various educational programs. They are prepared to teach through Instructor Training Courses of twelve to fifteen weeks which include principles of teaching, methods of teaching, and working with students. After teaching begins each instructor participates in a continuing in-service training program.





Other treatment programs are the Dale Carnegie courses, Alcoholics Anonymous, Civil Defense courses, and extensive music, athletic and hobby-craft programs. The reformatory library consists of 14,000 volumes and is open to all inmates.

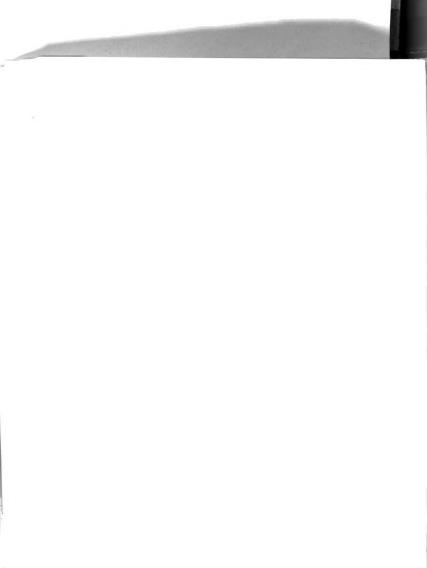
The goal of the treatment program is "the reorientation of each individual inmate" and to "awaken the individual prisoner to the recognition of his place in a free society as a decent, law-abiding person." 2

## The Reformatory Inmates

The inmates at the Michigan Reformatory are youthful offenders, most of whom are under 22 years of age. They

Michigan, Department of Corrections, The Michigan Reformatory and Its Programs (Ionia, Michigan: Michigan Reformatory, 1964), p. 17.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>Michigan, Department of Corrections, Supervisor of Treatment, <u>Education Manual</u> (Lansing, Michigan: Michigan Department of Corrections, 1964), p. 5.



are described by the staff of the Department of Corrections as needing close supervision because of emotional instability or serious antisocial behavior characterized by serious assaultive offenses, sex offenses or an escape history. They are not considered by the staff to have the potential or motivation for successful rehabilitation in the more academically oriented program of the Michigan Training Unit, a medium security facility also located at Ionia, Michigan.

The criteria listed by the Reception-Diagnostic

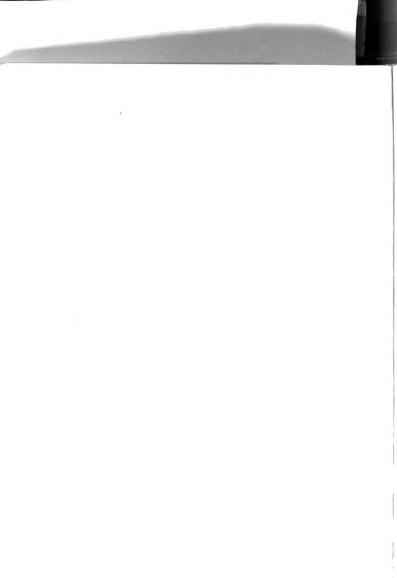
Center supervisor for placement of men in the Reformatory

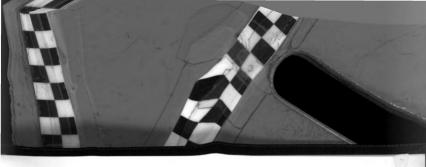
are of interest:

First timers, second timers and parole violators up to the age of 23 are considered for placement at this institution. These men are more aggressive than routine cases and need close custody. They may be very youthful-appearing individuals. High school cases, semi-skilled level trade training cases are considered. The associates of these inmates are juvenile rather than adult. They are quite sophisticated in anti-social behavior. Emphasis is placed on those men who need remedial academic activities and who could profit from Dr. Price's program.

The reformatory inmates are described as generally having sufficient intelligence to complete high school, having average I.Q. of about 90, and "serving sentences for breaking and entering stores or dwellings, or for various types of larceny and burglary. Although some

<sup>1</sup>Memorandum from Howard Grossman, Supervisor,
Michigan Department of Corrections Reception-Diagnostic
Center to E. L. V. Shelley, Supervisor of Treatment,
Michigan Department of Corrections, January 15, 1964.





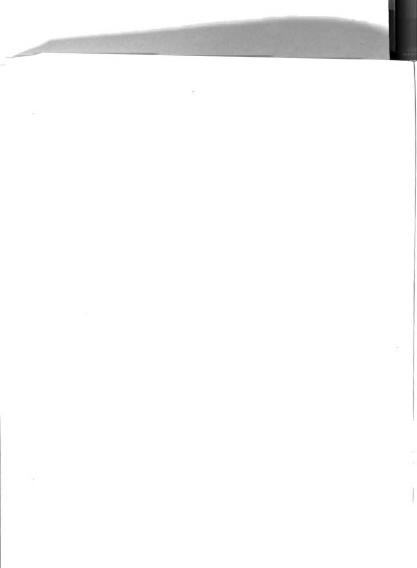
are serving life sentences, over one-half are serving sentences having a minimum term of two years or less."

All inmates who entered the Michigan Reformatory between September 1, 1965 and June 1, 1966 were included in the research population who were a) either white or Negro, b) aged seventeen through twenty-two years, and c) "first-timers" at a state prison facility. Inmates of other races, those younger than seventeen years or older than twenty-two years, and those who were recidivists were screened out of this study.

## The High School Senior Boys

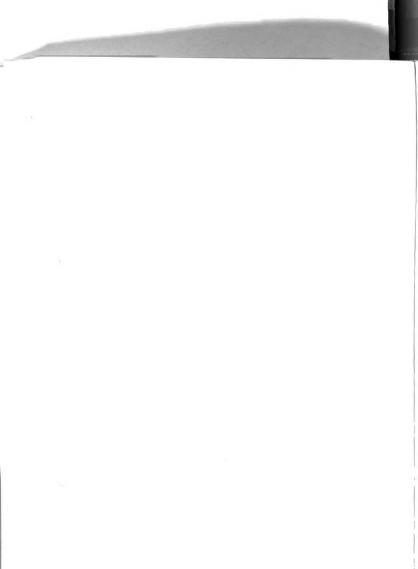
The high school senior boys, all twelfth graders, were administered the Rosenberg Self-Esteem scale by the Brookover project team from Michigan State University in September, 1965. These twelfth graders were students in the three high schools of a Michigan city of over 150,000 population, located not far from the Reformatory. The study included all male students in the twelfth grade except Negro students, special education students, and persons of unknown race. This population was assumed to be reasonably representative of a normal population.

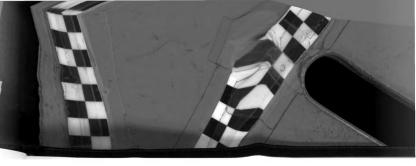
<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Michigan, Department of Corrections, <u>The Michigan</u> Reformatory and Its Programs, 1964, p. 5.



# Summary

The two settings which directly influenced the study and the process through which inmate background factors were derived have been described. The nature and characteristics of the inmate population and of the population of high school senior boys have been presented.





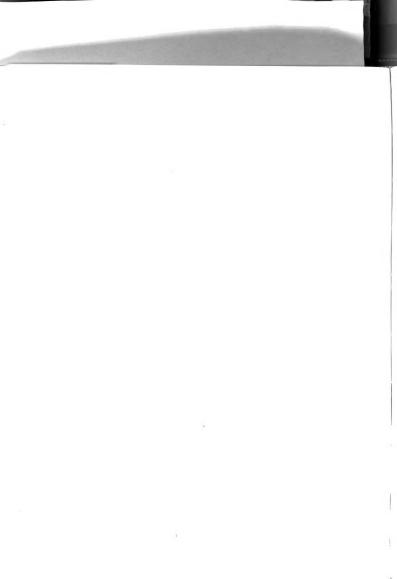
## CHAPTER IV

#### METHODS AND PROCEDURES

The objectives stated for this study in Chapter I suggested that the following tasks be completed:

- 1. Selection of a measure of self-esteem.
- Administration of the measure to the population of new inmates and to the civilian population of twelfth grade males, and determination of self-esteem scores and their distribution.
- Collection of the data for the selected background factors of inmates from the State Department of Corrections.
- 4. Selection of statistical tools and analyses for
  - a) comparing the distribution of inmate selfesteem scores with that of the twelfth grade males, and
  - establishing the relationships between inmate self-esteem scores and the twelve background factors.

In this chapter the methods and procedures used to complete these tasks are described.



#### The Measure of Self-Esteem

The Rosenberg Self-Esteem scale was used as the measure of self-esteem in this study. Rosenberg devised the scale for use in his study of 5000 adolescents in an attempt to understand "how they saw themselves, how they felt about themselves, and what criteria for self-evaluation they employed." He reports that the main aim of his study was "to specify the bearing of certain social factors on self-esteem and to indicate the influence of self-esteem on socially significant attitudes and behavior." The scale was designed and used to measure the self-esteem of the subjects in the study.

Rosenberg defines self-esteem measured by the scale as "a positive or negative attitude toward a particular object, namely, the self." He dichotomizes the high and low dimensions of self-esteem, saying,

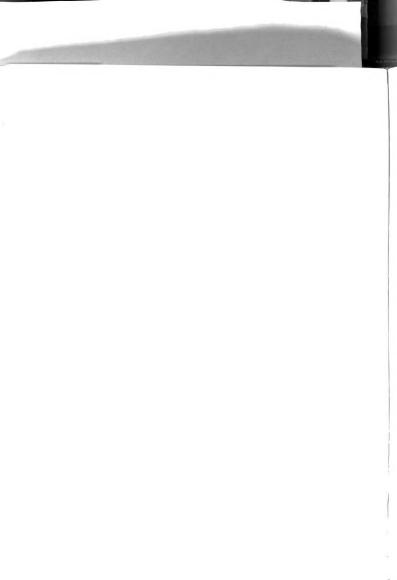
High self-esteem, as reflected in our scale items, expresses the feeling that one is 'good enough.' The individual simply feels that he is a person of worth; he respects himself for what he is, but he does not stand in awe of himself nor does he expect others to stand in awe of him. He does not necessarily consider himself superior to others.

Low self-esteem, on the other hand, implies selfrejection, self-dissatisfaction, self-contempt. The individual lacks respect for the self he observes. The self-picture is disagreeable, and he wishes it were otherwise.

<sup>1</sup>Rosenberg, op. cit., viii.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 15. <sup>3</sup>Ibid., p. 30.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup>Ibid., p. 31.



## The Scale

This Guttman type scale consists of ten items which deal with the dimension of self-esteem. Respondents were requested to "strongly agree, agree, disagree, or strongly disagree" with the following items:

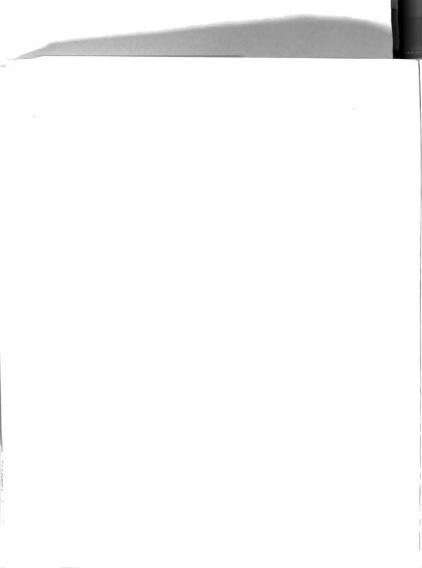
- 1. On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.
- 2. At times I think I am no good at all.
- 3. I feel that I have a number of good qualities.
- 4. I am able to do things as well as most other people.
- 5. I feel I do not have much to be proud of.
- 6. I certainly feel useless at times.
- 7. I feel that I am a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others.
- 8. I wish I could have more respect for myself.
- All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure.
- 10. I take a positive attitude toward myself. 1

Rosenberg arranged "positive" and "negative" items in alternating order, and interspersed four non-used items to help avoid respondent set.

## Scoring

In the scoring procedure positive responses indicated low self-esteem. Positive responses were the

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Ibi<u>d.</u>, p. 17-18.



"agree" or "strongly agree" answers to "negative" items, and "disagree" or "strongly disagree" answers to "positive" items.

To achieve Guttman scaling from "0" to "6" from the ten items of the scale, some scale items consisted of combined responses to several items as follows:

Scale Item I.--"Contrived from the combined responses" to items 7, 3, and 9. If a respondent answered two out of three, or three out of three positively, he received a positive score. If he answered one of three, or none of three positively he received no score.

Scale Item II. -- "Contrived from the combined responses" to items 4, and 6. One out of two, or two out of two positive responses were considered positive.

Scale Item III. -- Item 10.

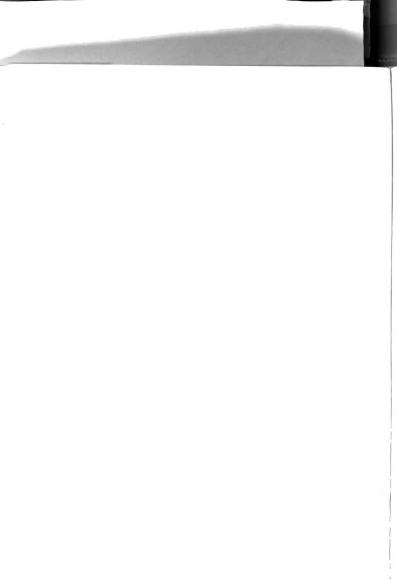
Scale Item IV. -- Item 1.

Scale Item V.--Item 8.

Scale Item VI.--"Contrived from the combined responses" to items 6, and 2. One out of two, or two out of two positive responses were considered positive.

From this scoring procedure a seven point Guttman type scale was produced measuring self-esteem on a continuum from 0 (high self-esteem) to 6 (low self-esteem).

The use of "contrived" items follows the procedure of the H-technique proposed by Stouffer, Borgatta, Hays, and Henry to guard against reversals in the ordering of



respondents. They say:

This is the task of the H-technique. Instead of using one item to determine a given cutting point we use two, three, or even more. In effect, what we are doing is to convert the responses to two or more observed items into a response to a "new" item, which we call a contrived item. 1

The objective of the use of the 'contrived' item "is to maximize the information available from the basic data, and hence to strengthen confidence in the scalability of the area under consideration and the generality of the dimension which the scale is defining, and to improve the ranking of individuals through reduction of scale error." 2

Reproducibility and Scalability

The Rosenberg Self-Esteem scale is a Guttman type scale. According to Kerlinger,

the cumulative or Guttman scale consists of a relatively small set of homogeneous items that are unidimensional. A unidimensional scale measures one variable, and one variable only. The scale gets its name from the cumulative relation between items and the total scores of individuals.<sup>3</sup>

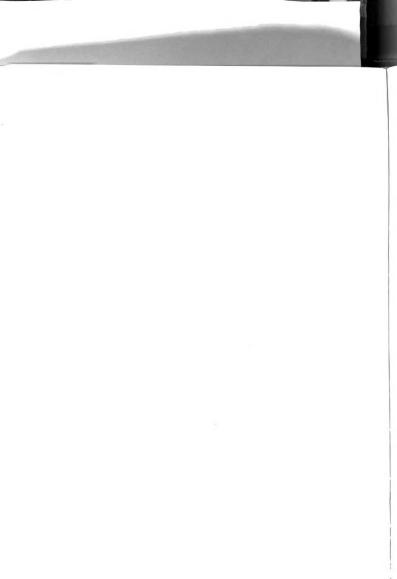
Guttman says,

The basic condition to be satisfied is that persons who answer a question "favorably" all have higher

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Samuel A. Stouffer et al., "A Technique for Improving Cumulative Scales." <u>Public Opinion Quarterly</u>, 16, (Summer, 1952), p. 276.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 273.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>Fred N. Kerlinger, <u>Foundations of Behavioral Research</u> (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1965), p. 485.



scale scores than persons who answer the same question "unfavorably." This constitutes a rigorous definition of a scale. It provides a simple, objective technique for testing the existence of a single variable, that is, for determining whether the questions have the same meaning for all respondents.1

Regarding the measurement of error in scales, and thus the internal consistency or reliability of the scale, he adds,

The amount by which a scale deviates from the ideal scale pattern is measured by a <u>coefficient</u> of reproducibility. This coefficient is simply a measure of the relative degree with which the obtained multivariate distribution corresponds to the expected multivariate distribution of a perfect scale. . . . An acceptable approximation to a perfect scale has been arbitrarily set at 90 percent reproducibility.<sup>2</sup>

Rosenberg's report that the scale has reproducibility of 92 percent<sup>3</sup> is satisfactory in terms of Guttman's definition of acceptability. This test of the unidimensionality of the scale informs us regarding the reliability of the scale for as Kerlinger comments,

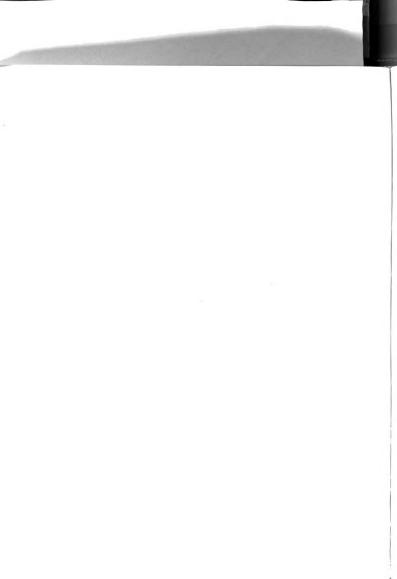
Another interpretation is that reliability is the internal consistency of a test. This means that the test items are homogeneous. This interpretation boils down to the same idea of the other interpretations: accuracy.

Menzel in proposing a coefficient of scalability argues that the Guttman coefficient of reproducibility

Louis Guttman, "Basis for Scalogram Analysis," Measurement and Prediction, Samuel A. Stouffer et al., being Vol. 4, Studies in Social Psychology in World War II (Princeton, N. J.: Princeton University Press, 1950), p. 76-77.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup><u>Ibid.</u>, p. 77. <sup>3</sup>Rosenberg, <u>op. cit.</u>, p. 17.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup>Kerlinger, op. cit., p. 439.



is not an adequate measure of scalability alone, saying

Any degree of success in reproductions which has actually been attained is a joint result of 1) the extremeness of items, 2) the extremeness of individuals, and 3) the scalability of items for the given individuals. The value of the Coefficient of Reproducibility is therefore a joint result of the same three sources, and not an accurate measure of scalability alone.

Using Menzel's refined measure of scalability,

Rosenberg reports that his scale has a scalability of 72

percent. This is satisfactory according to Menzel,

who writes,

Since C. of S. is always lower than C. of R. (except where they both equal one), a new 'level of acceptance' will have to be established, considerably below .90. Its exact value must await practical experience. If the scalograms published in Measurement and Prediction can serve as a guide, Table I of the present paper suggests that the new level of acceptance may be somewhere between .60 and .65.3

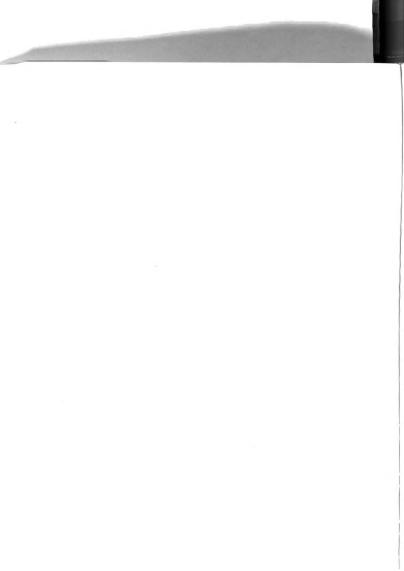
Guttman also comments on the relationship of reproducibility to test-retest reliability saying:

From general considerations of scale theory, it should be clear that if a set of items has high reproducibility, then the items must necessarily have high test-retest reliability. If there were a substantial unreliability factor operating in the responses to the items, this would create appreciable scale error; there would be more than a single factor present. Hence, if scalogram analysis shows that essentially only a single factor is operating in the

Herbert Menzel, "A New Coefficient for Scalogram Analysis," Public Opinion Quarterly, 17, (Summer, 1953), p. 269.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>Rosenberg, op. cit., p. 17.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>Menzel, <u>op. cit.</u>, p. 279.



responses, this must mean that there cannot be many additional factors, including unreliability. I

# Validity

Though the scale appears to have face validity, and though the Guttman model usually insures "that the items on a scale belong to the same dimension, they cannot define the dimension." Because Rosenberg was unable to find "known" groups with which to validate his scale he sought to defend the adequacy of his scale on "the following grounds: if this scale actually did measure self-esteem, then we would expect the scores on this scale to be associated with other data in a theoretically meaningful way."

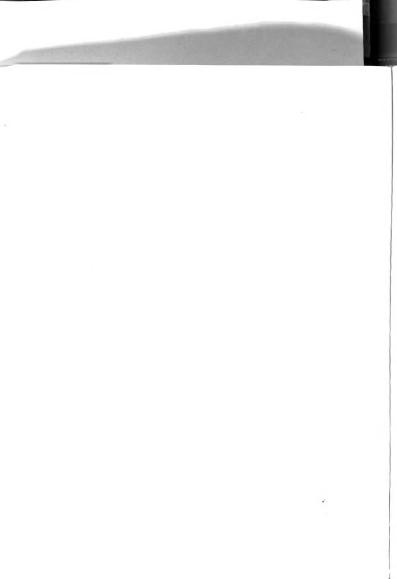
Reasoning from the "familiar clinical observation that depression often accompanies low self-esteem,"

Rosenberg concludes that, "If such depressed feelings rise to the surface, and if the scale measures self-esteem, then people with low self-esteem should appear more depressed to outside observers." Fifty "normal" volunteers retained by the National Institutes of Health as research subjects

Louis Guttman, "Problems of Reliability," Measurement and Prediction, Samuel A. Stouffer et al., being Vol. 4, Studies in Social Psychology in World War II (Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 1950), p. 305.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>Rosenberg, <u>op. cit.</u>, p. 17. <sup>3</sup><u>Ibid.</u>, p. 18.

<sup>4</sup> Ibid.

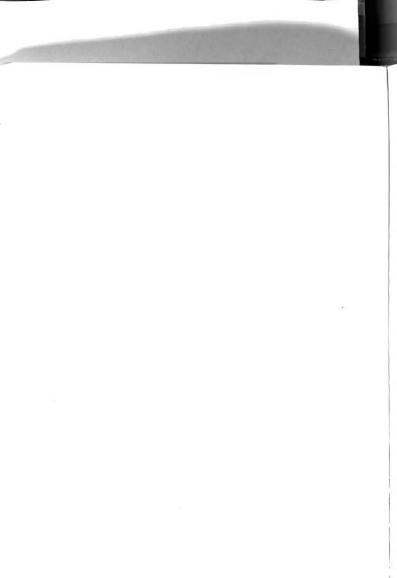


and housed in the wards of the Clinical Center were asked to complete the self-esteem scale. Independently, nursing personnel in the wards were asked to fill out Leary scales on the subjects. He found a significant association,  $\alpha=.05$ , between individuals with low self-esteem and the likelihood that the individuals appeared depressed to nurses. He also found a "very strong and consistent relationship between the self-esteem scale and a Guttman scale of 'depressive affect'."  $^2$ 

Rosenberg next related his self-esteem scale to
Star's measure of neuroticism which is based on psychosomatic symptoms and which was developed by the U. S. Army
Research Branch in World War II. He did this because "the
presence of low self-esteem among neurotics is commonly
observed in clinical practice." Further, he noted that
"Horney and Fromm stress that an underlying feeling of
worthlessness is characteristic of the sick personality."
He reports that "each step down the self-esteem scale
finds a larger proportion of respondents with many psychosomatic symptoms." In seeking additional information
Rosenberg presented respondents with "a list of ailments
. . . thought to have psychogenic components and asked them
to indicate how much they have been bothered by such ailments

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup><u>Ibid.</u>, p. 20. <sup>2</sup><u>Ibid</u>. <sup>3</sup><u>Ibid.</u>, p. 22.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup><u>Ibid.</u> <sup>5</sup><u>Ibid.</u>, p. 23.



The relationships in these two tests were significant,  $\alpha = .05$ .

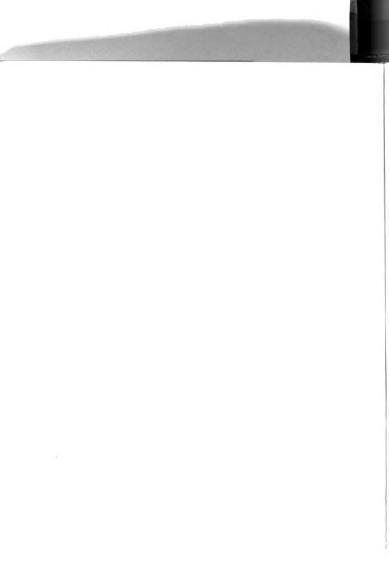
Working from the statement that, "Cooley, Mead, James and others agree that the individual's self opinion is largely determined by what others think of him," Rosenberg conducted a sociometric test among 272 seniors from two high schools near Washington, D. C. He reports that "low self-esteem people were half as likely as medium self-esteem people and one-third as likely as high self-esteem respondents to be selected as leaders by others." This finding was significant,  $\alpha = .05$ . He also found that the "lower the individual's self-esteem, the less likely is he to be described as an active class participant."  $^3$ 

Rosenberg concludes his validation of the selfesteem scale saying,

If the scale actually measures low self-esteem, then we would expect those with low scores to appear depressed to others and to express feelings of discouragement and unhappiness, to manifest symptoms of "neuroticism" or anxiety; to hold a low sociometric status in the group; to be described as commanding less respect than others and to feel that others have little respect for them. The evidence supports these expectations.<sup>4</sup>

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup><u>Ibid.</u>, p. 25. <sup>2</sup><u>Ibid.</u> <sup>3</sup><u>Ibid.</u>, p. 26.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup>Ibid., p. 30.



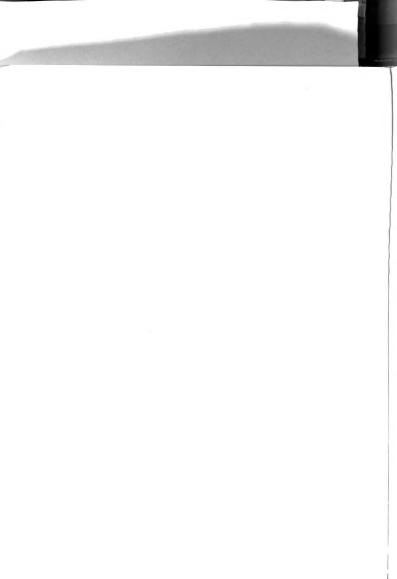
The face validity of Rosenberg's Self-Esteem scale appears to be corroborated by the "theoretically meaning-ful" relationship of self-esteem scores and other data.

The close similarity between Rosenberg's definition of self-esteem and the one developed in this study, his recognition that self-esteem could be measured on a high-low continuum, the reproducibility, scalability and validity of the scale, and its brevity and usefulness in the context of this study, led to the selection of Rosenberg's Self-Esteem scale as the instrument for establishing self-esteem scores.

# Administering the Scale to Inmates

The Rosenberg Self-Esteem scale was administered to the new inmates of the Michigan Reformatory upon their arrival at the institution. Following the check-in procedures, inmates were taken to a small conference room and comfortably seated. The inmate clerk who had greeted them and processed their "check-in," then gave to each inmate a copy of the scale. He asked them to complete the scale before proceeding with the orientation session. The conference room was small, seating only ten. Usually two to five inmates were given the scale at the same time.

During the "check-in" and in the conference room, administering the scale, the inmate clerk sought to establish a relaxed, friendly, and encouraging atmosphere.



After seeing that the new inmates were comfortably seated around the table he maintained normal decorum telling the prisoners that they should do their own work and not talk to each other. He then read them the set of instructions for marking the scale. The marked scales were then collected and placed in a file to be held for scoring and tabulation.

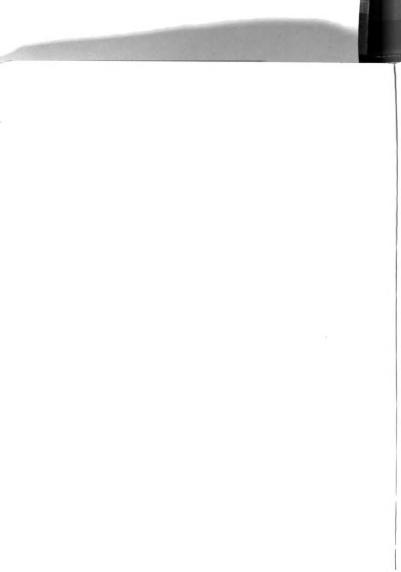
In June, 1966, the scales were picked up by the investigator, and scored. The distribution of scores was determined. The scales were then matched with Inmates' Data Cards by case number. The scores were punched into the data cards for computer analysis.

# Administering the Scale to the Twelfth Grade Males

The Rosenberg Self-Esteem scale was administered to the civilian population of twelfth grade males by the Brookover Project team from Michigan State University. The team administered the scale in September, 1965. In June, 1966, the investigator obtained the scales from the Brookover team. The scores and their distribution were determined.

## The Background Factors

Twelve inmate background factors were studied in relation to inmate self-esteem. These factors included personal data about each inmate, his early home and family

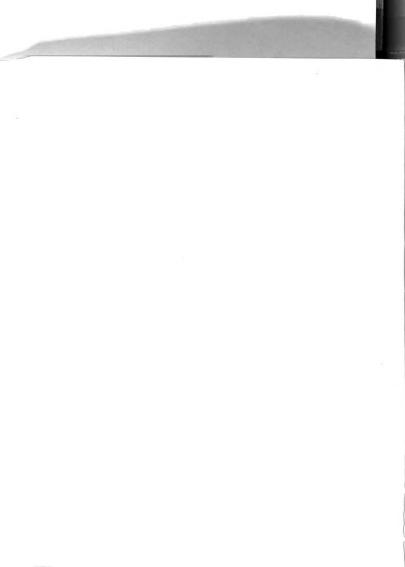


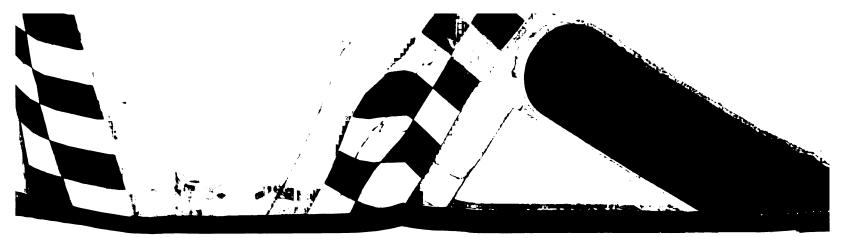
influences, and his criminal history. Factors were limited for practical reasons to those for which data were available from the State Department of Corrections. These factors were:

- A. Personal Data
  - 1. Race
  - 2. Age at time of incarceration
  - 3. Work experience
  - 4. Educational achievement.
- B. Early Home and Family Influences
  - 1. Mother's attitude toward inmate
  - 2. Father's attitude toward inmate
  - 3. Parental family cohesiveness
  - 4. Marital status of parents
  - 5. Age at which parental home broken, if broken.
- C. Criminal History
  - 1. Age at first attention of officials
  - 2. Prior time served in penal institutions as juvenile
  - 3. Minimum sentence.

The source of data regarding these factors has been described in Chapter III as the classification process of the Reception-Diagnostic Center. The definitions of the factors are limited to those used by the department in the classification process and are found in Chapter I.

Although the background factor data reflects the judgments made by various probation officers, it was assumed that the reliability of the data was enhanced by the checking and validation of the Pre-Sentence Reports by the Reception-Diagnostic Center professional staff members who coded the Inmate Data Cards. The Inmate Data Cards containing the numerical codes for the background factors of each inmate





were obtained from the Records and Statistics Division of the Department. The numerical codes were used in the computer calculations. The self-esteem scores bearing the inmate identification numbers were matched to the similar numbers on the Inmate Data Cards and the self-esteem scores were punched into the cards to enable computer analysis.

# Statistical Tools and Analyses

Two statistical analyses were used in this study.

The Mann-Whitney U test<sup>1</sup> was employed in answering the first question. The Pearson product-moment correlation (r) was used to answer questions two through thirteen.

The first question, requiring comparison of the distribution of inmate self-esteem scores with that of high school senior boys was examined using the Mann-Whitney U test. This test is used to determine if two groups are drawn from the same population, and is one of the most powerful of the non-parametric tests. It is appropriate when the measurement used produces scaling that is weaker than interval scaling.

To calculate the U value, the formula for large samples,  $(n_2 > 20)$ , was used. The formula states:

<sup>1</sup>Sidney Siegel, Nonparametric Statistics for the Behavioral Sciences (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1956), p. 123.



$$U = n_1 n_2 + \frac{n_1 (n_1 + 1)}{2} - R_1$$
, where

 $n_1 = cases of inmates,$ 

 $n_2$  = cases of high school senior boys, and

R<sub>1</sub> = sum of ranks of inmates by self-esteem
scores, separated from the ranks of the
total population.

The significance (z) of the observed value of U, where  $N_2 > 20$ , and where tied scores occur, is calculated solving for z in the formula:

$$z = \frac{U - \frac{n_1 n_2}{2}}{\sqrt{\frac{n_1 n_2}{N(N-1)} \left(\frac{N^3 - N}{12} - \sum T\right)}}, \text{ where}$$

U = value of Mann-Whitney U obtained above

 $n_1 = cases of inmates$ 

 $n_2$  = cases of high school senior boys

N = total cases

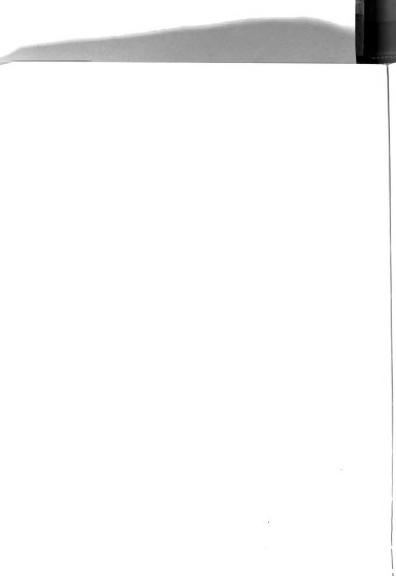
 $T = \frac{t^3 - t}{12}$ , where t is the number of observations tied for a given rank.

The values of U and z were calculated and checked,

Reference was made to the <u>Table of Probabilities Associated</u>

with Values as Extreme as Observed Values of z in the Nor
mal Distribution<sup>2</sup> to determine the probability (p) associated

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup><u>Ibid.</u>, p. 125. <sup>2</sup><u>Ibid.</u>, p. 247.



with the value of z obtained. A decision was made to reject the null hypothesis if p was smaller than  $\alpha = .05$ .

Questions two through thirteen required the determination of the relationship between inmate self-esteem scores and selected background factors. The Pearson product-moment correlation (r) was selected as a measure of the degree and direction of relationship between the variables.

The correlation, r, was calculated through the use of a computer program provided for the CDC 3600 computer installation at Michigan State University. The formula used in the program was

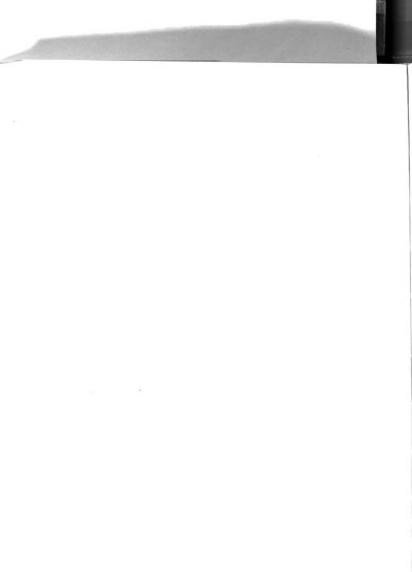
$$r = \frac{N\sum XY - (\sum X)(\sum Y)}{\sqrt{(N\sum X - (\sum X))(N\sum Y - (\sum Y))}}$$

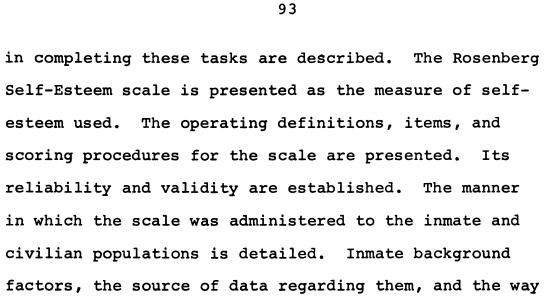
Graphs were constructed for each of the tables to compare and examine the curves of each distribution. The raw data in each row were converted into percentages for graphing. The graphs were examined for evidence of shift in distribution from one row to another, for skewness, and for shape.

#### Summary

In this chapter, four major tasks confronting this study are outlined and the methods and procedures used

<sup>1</sup> John Morris, "Rank Correlation Coefficients," being Technical Report #47, mimeo., (East Lansing, Mich.: Michigan State University, Computer Institute for Social Science Research, 1967), p. 5.





in which the data were obtained are explained. Finally,

the statistical tools and analyses used in examining the

data are described.





### CHAPTER V

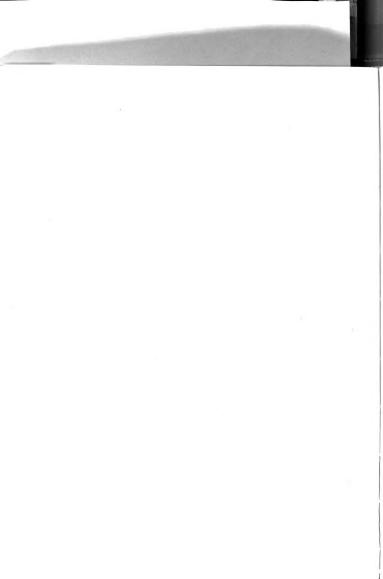
#### PRESENTATION OF DATA

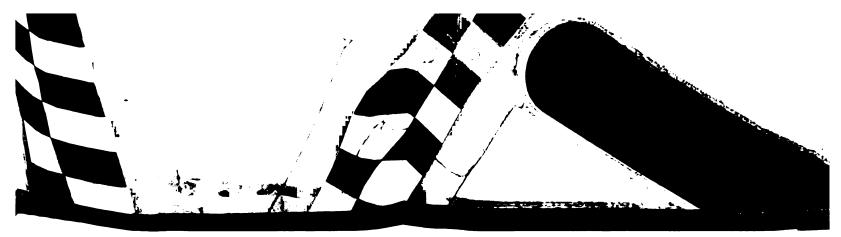
The research presented here has been directed toward increasing our understanding of the self-esteem of newly incarcerated inmates. Answers were sought to two general questions:

- 1. How high or low is the self-esteem of inmates, and
- 2. Is the level of inmate self-esteem related to selected factors in inmates' background?

The distribution of self-esteem scores of inmates was compared with that of a group of twelfth grade males selected as reasonably representative of the civilian population. Questions regarding relationships between levels of inmate self-esteem and twelve inmate background factors were then investigated.

In this chapter the questions in researchable terms are presented, as are relevant data and the results of the statistical analyses of those data. Answers resulting from the statistical analyses are given. A concluding section summarizes the findings of the study.





# Question 1

Does a difference exist between the distribution of self-esteem scores of newly incarcerated white inmates and the distribution of self-esteem scores of a white civilian population of twelfth grade males?

This question was restated as a null hypothesis for testing.

 ${\rm H}_{\rm O}$ : There is no difference between the distribution of self-esteem scores of newly incarcerated white inmates and the distribution of self-esteem scores of a white civilian population of twelfth grade males.

Table 5.1 shows the distribution of self-esteem scores in the two populations. The Mann-Whitney U value was calculated to compare the distribution of self-esteem scores and found to be U = 33135. Using this U value, z=-1.301 was obtained. Reference to the Table of Probabilities Associated with Values as Extreme as Observed Values of z in the Normal Distribution revealed that  $z\leq -1.301$  has a two-tailed probability under  $H_{\rm O}$  of p<.1936. Since this p is larger than  $\alpha=.05$ , the null hypothesis was not rejected. An examination of the curves of the two distributions in Figure 5.1 reveals only a slight difference between them.

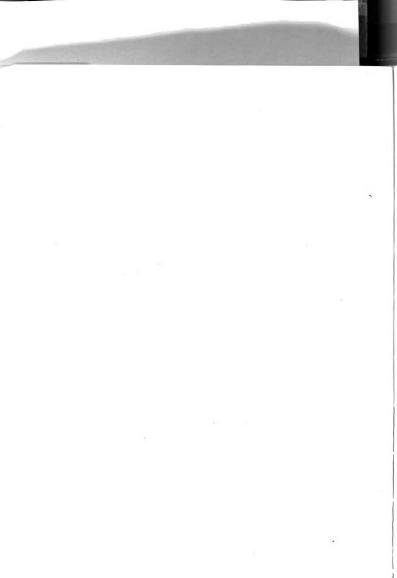


Table 5.1 Frequencies of scores, and frequencies as percents, for white inmates and white civilians on the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale.

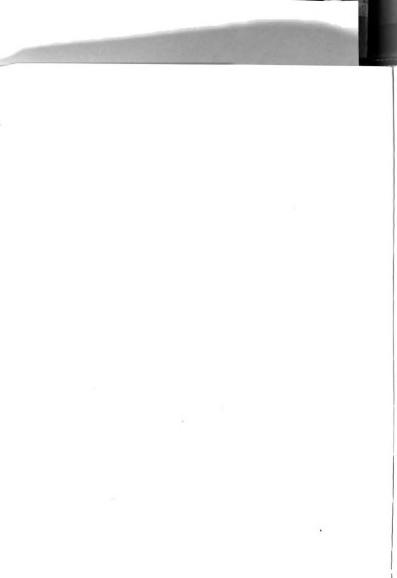
		Self-Esteem Scores									
Popula- tions	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	Totals			
Inmates	10	32	47	52	27	13	1	182			
	(5.5)	(17.5)	(25.8)	(28.8)	(14.8)	(7.1)	(.5)	(100)			
Civilian	36	87	90 .	87	47	39	4	390			
	(9.2)	(22.3)	(23.1)	(22.3)	(12.0)	(10.1)	(1.0)	(100)			

## Question 2

What correlation exists between self-esteem scores and the race of inmates?

A correlation coefficient, r = -.069 was found.

This coefficient suggests a very slight negative linear relationship between the two variables, race of inmates and self-esteem scores. The relationship is such that the race of the inmates in this study appears to have had almost no influence on inmates' self-esteem scores. The negative relationship indicates that Negro self-esteem scores were slightly higher than those of the white population. The distribution of inmate self-esteem scores by race is shown on Table 5.2. The minor correlation can best be attributed to chance. The very slight irregularity in the distribution curve of the Negro inmates evident in



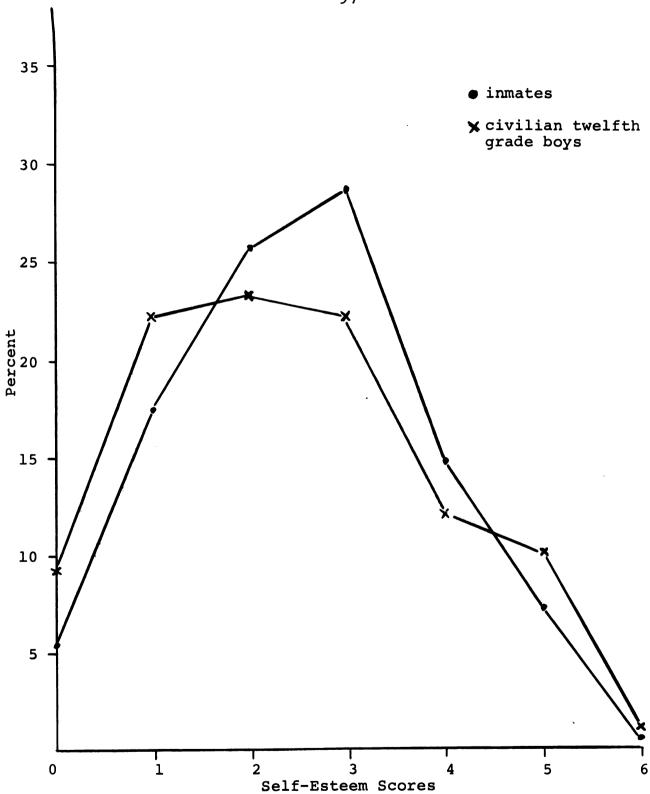
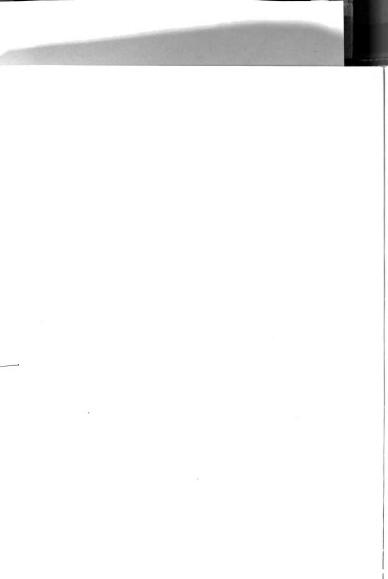


Figure 5.1 Distribution of scores on the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale of white inmates and white civilians with frequencies converted to percentages.



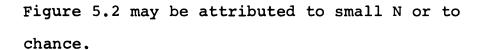


Table 5.2 Frequencies of scores, and frequencies as percents, on the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale for white and Negro inmates.

Racial Back- ground		Self-Esteem Scores										
	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	Totals				
T.T	10	32	47	52	27	13	1	182				
White	(5.5)	(17.6)	(25.8)	(28.6)	(14.8)	(7.1)	(.6)	(100)				
<b>N</b> 7	17	33	32	36	24	9	2	153				
Negro	(11.1)	(21.6)	(20.9)	(23.5)	(15.7)	(5.9)	(1.3)	(100)				

r = -.069

## Question 3

What correlation exists between self-esteem scores and the age of inmates?

The correlation coefficient r = .031 suggests a very slight positive linear relationship between the two variables, age of inmates and self-esteem scores. The relationship is such that the age of inmates appears to have had almost no influence on inmate self-esteem scores. The distribution of inmate self-esteem scores by age of inmates is shown in Table 5.3. Reference to Figure 5.3 demonstrates the close similarity of the distribution

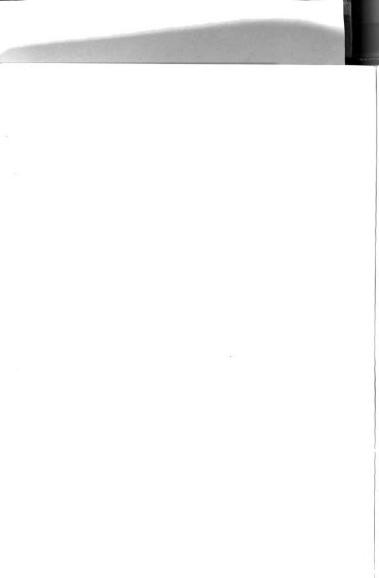
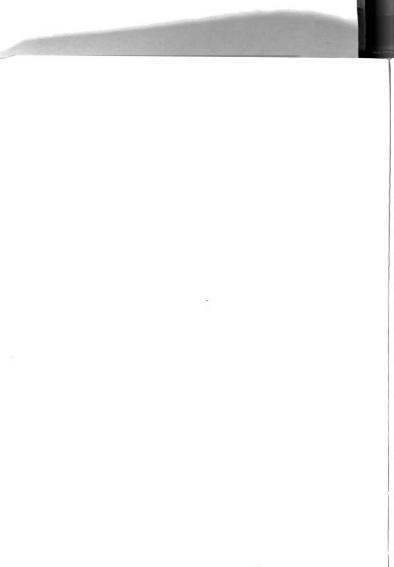


Figure 5.2 Distributions of scores on the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale of white and Negro inmates with frequencies converted to percentages.

Self-Esteem Scores



curves. This minor correlation can best be attributed to chance.

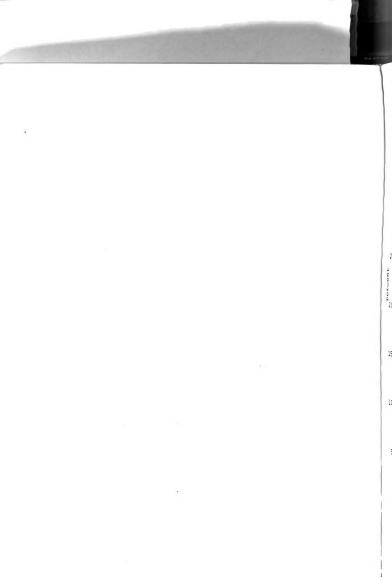
Table 5.3 Frequencies of scores, and frequencies as percents, on the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale of inmates by age.

			Se:	lf-Este	em Score	es		
Age	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	Totals
17	4	13	9	15	6	2	-	49
17	(8.2)	(26.5)	(18.4)	(30.6)	(12.2)	(4.1)	-	(100)
18	7	17	24	24	11	6	2	91
10	(7.7)	(18.6)	(26.4)	(26.4)	(12.1)	(6.6)	(2.2)	(100)
10	6	11	16	19	17	4	-	73
19	(8.2)	(15.1)	(21.9)	(26.0)	(23.3)	(5.5)	-	(100)
20	6	8	8	17	6	5	_	50
20	(12.0)	(16.0)	(16.0)	(34.0)	(12.0)	(10.0)	-	(100)
21	2	9	15	4	4	2	1	37
<b>4 1</b>	(5.4)	(24.3)	(40.6)	(10.8)	(10.8)	(5.4)	(2.7)	(100)
22	2	7	7	9	7	3	-	35
<i>L L</i>	(5.7)	(20.0)	(20.0)	(25.7)	(20.0)	(8.6)	-	(100)

r = .031

# Question 4

What correlation exists between self-esteem scores and work experience of inmates?





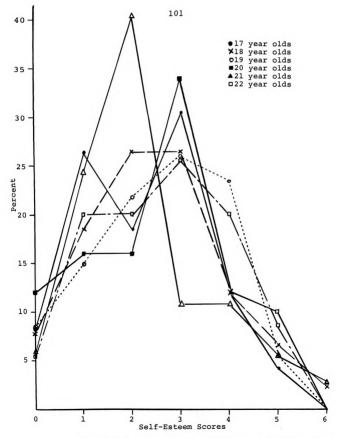
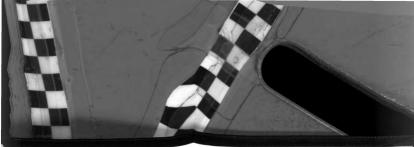


Figure 5.3 Distribution of scores on the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale of inmates by age with frequencies converted to percentages.





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The correlation coefficient of r = .032 suggests a very slight positive linear relationship between the two variables, work experience of inmates and self-esteem scores. The relationship is such that the work experience of inmates appears to have had almost no influence on inmate self-esteem scores. The distribution of inmate self-esteem scores by work experience is shown in Table 5.4. The close similarity existing between the distribution curves of those with work experience and those without is evident in Figure 5.4. This minor correlation can best be attributed to chance.

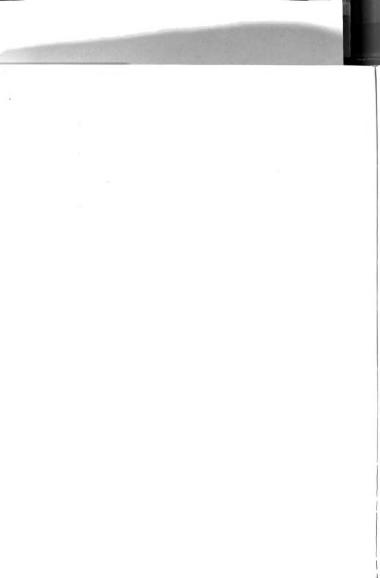
Table 5.4 Frequencies of scores, and frequencies as percents, on the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale for inmates with work experience and for those without work experience.

Work	Self-Esteem Scores									
Experience	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	Totals		
	12	18	25	31	19	5	-	110		
None	(10.9)	(16.4)	(22.7)	(28.2)	(17.3)	(4.5)	-	(100)		
Previously Employed	15	47	54	57	32	17	3	225		
	(6.7)	(20.9)	(24.0)	(25.3)	(14.2)	(7.6)	(1.3)	(100)		

r = .032

#### Question 5

What correlation exists between self-esteem scores and school grade level attained by inmates?



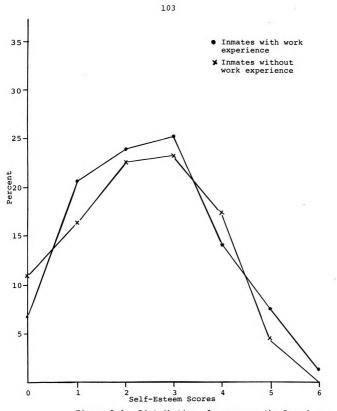
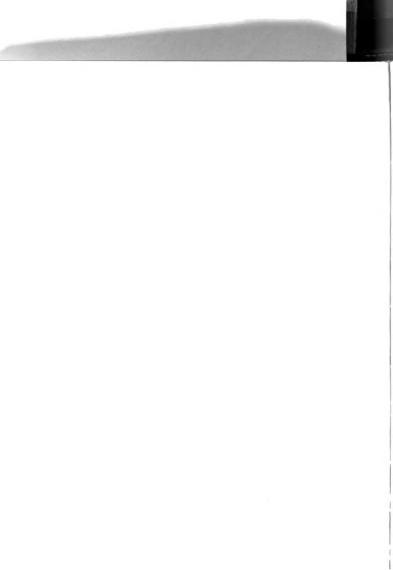


Figure 5.4 Distribution of scores on the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale of immates with work experience of those without work experience with frequencies converted to percentages.



The correlation coefficient of r = -.119 indicates a small negative linear relationship between the two variables, school grade level attained by the inmates and self-esteem scores. The negative correlation indicates a slight inverse relationship between progress in school and high self-esteem. The relationship is such that the school grade level attained by inmates appears to have had very little influence on self-esteem scores. The distribution of inmate self-esteem scores by school grade level attained is shown in Table 5.5. Figure 5.5 shows the similarity of the distribution curves of inmates attaining different school levels. The minor correlation can best be attri-The erratic distribution of the group buted to chance. with no schooling and the groups progressing only through the fourth grade may be accounted for by size of  $N_{\bullet}(N = 7)$ .

### Question 6

What correlation exists between self-esteem scores and mother's attitude toward the inmate?

A correlation coefficient of r = .029 was found. This coefficient suggests a very slight positive linear relationship between the two variables, mother's attitude toward the inmate and self-esteem scores. The relationship is such that mother's attitude toward the inmate appears to have had almost no influence on self-esteem scores.



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Table 5.5 Frequencies of scores, and frequencies as percents, on the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale for inmates by grade level attained in school.

Educa- tional	Self-Esteem Scores									
Level	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	Totals		
	-	1	-	4	2	-	-	7		
None  Gr. 1-2  Gr. 3-4  Gr. 5-6	-	(14.3)	-	(57.1)	(28.6)	-	-	(100)		
g., 1.2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		
Gr. 1-2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		
a. 2.4	-	1	3	-	2	1	-	7		
Gr. 3-4	-	(14.3)	(42.8)	-	(28.6)	-	-	(100)		
Gr. 5-6	-	4	4	7	2	1	-	18		
	-	(22.2)	(22.2)	(38.9)	(11.1)	(5.6)	-	(100)		
Gr. 7-8	7	17	36	29	22	13	1	125		
	(5.6)	(13.6)	(28.8)	(23.2)	(17.6)	(10.4)	(.8)	(100)		
	14	32	22	32	16	5	1	122		
H.S. 1-2	(11.5)	(26.2)	(18.1)	(26.2)	(13.1)	(4.1)	(.8)	(100)		
	6	8	12	15	7	1	-	49		
H.S. 3-4	(12.2)	(16.3)	(24.5)	(30.6)	(14.3)	(2.1)	-	(100)		
- 1 1 1 1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	1		
Co1. 1-2	-	_	-	_	-	-	(100)	(100)		
0-1 2 4	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		
Col. 3-4	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_		





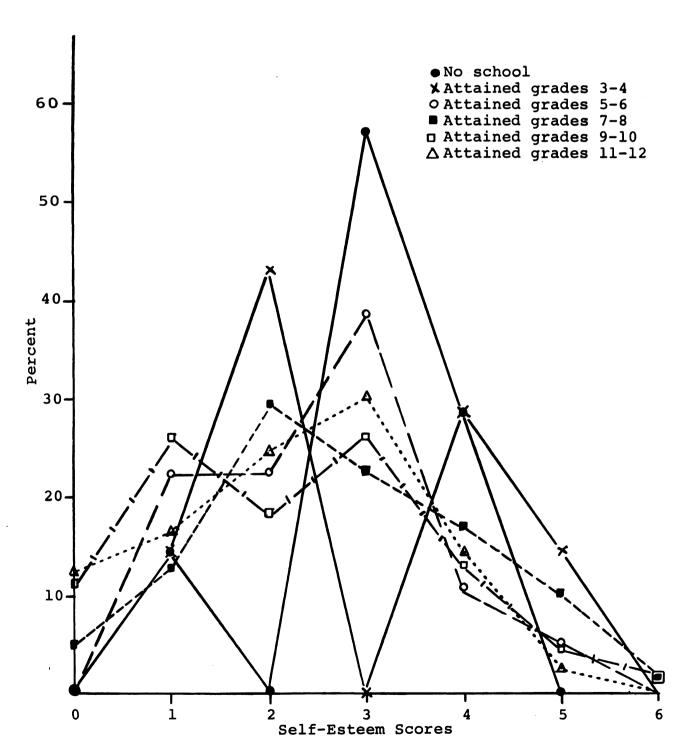
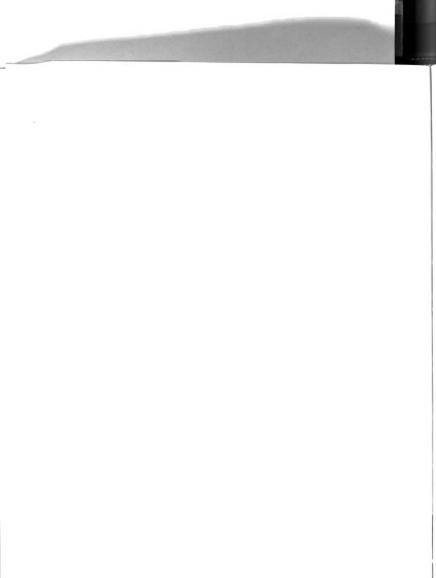


Figure 5.5 Distribution of scores on the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale of inmates by grade level attained in school with frequencies converted to percentages.



The distribution of inmate self-esteem scores by mother's attitude toward the inmate is shown in Table 5.6. Examination of Figure 5.6 reveals the close similarity of the two distribution curves. This minor correlation can best be attributed to chance.

Table 5.6 Frequencies of scores, and frequencies as percents, on the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale for inmates whose mothers' attitudes were judged healthy and for those whose mothers' attitudes were judged unhealthy.

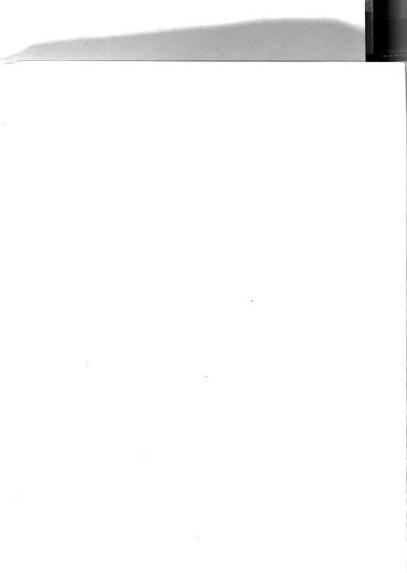
	Self-Esteem Scores									
Mother's Influence	0	1	2	3	4	5	6 Т	otals		
	8	12	25	19	10	4	2	80		
Healthy	(10.0)	(15.0)	(31.2)	(23.8)	(12.5)	(5.0)	(2.5)	(100)		
Unhealthy	17	52	53	67	40	18	1	248		
	(6.9)	(21.0)	(21.4)	(27.0)	(16.1)	(7.2)	(.4)	(100)		

r = .029

#### Question 7

What correlation exists between self-esteem scores and father's attitude toward the inmate?

A correlation coefficient of r=-.002 was found. This suggests an extremely slight negative linear relaionship between the two variables, father's attitude toward the inmate and self-esteem scores. The relationship is





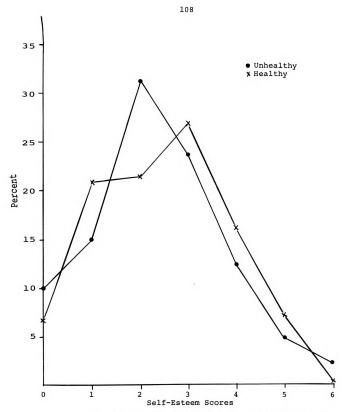


Figure 5.6 Distribution of scores on the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale of inmates whose mothers' attitudes toward them were judged healthy and those whose mothers' attitudes were judged unhealthy, with frequencies concerted to percentages.





such that father's attitude toward the inmate appears to have had no influence on self-esteem scores. The distribution of inmate self-esteem scores by father's attitude toward the inmate is shown in Table 5.7. Examination of Figure 5.7 demonstrates the close similarity of the two distribution curves. This very minor correlation can best be attributed to chance.

Table 5.7 Frequencies of scores, and frequencies as percents, on the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale for inmates whose fathers' attitudes were judged healthy and for those whose fathers' attitudes were judged unhealthy.

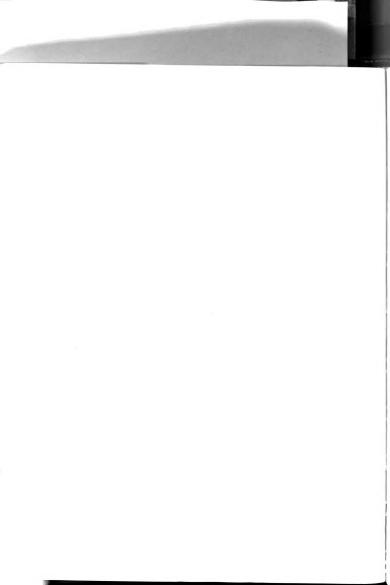
			Se:	lf-Este	em Score	es		
Father's Influence	0	1	2	3	4	5	6 :	rotals
Healthy	5	7	13	15	5	. 5	_	50
	(10.0)	(14.0)	(26.0)	(30.0)	(10.0)	(10.0)	-	(100)
Unhealthy		57	64	73	43	17	3	277
	(7.2)	(20.6)	(23.1)	(26.4)	(15.5)	(6.1)	(1.1)	(100)

r = -.002

# Question 8

What correlation exists between self-esteem scores and family cohesiveness?

The correlation coefficient, r = -.004, suggests an extremely slight negative linear relationship between





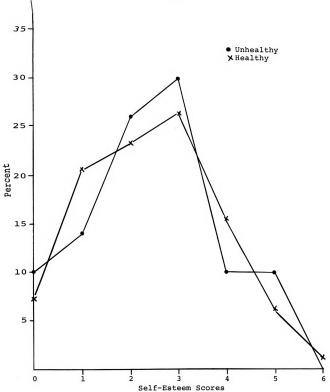
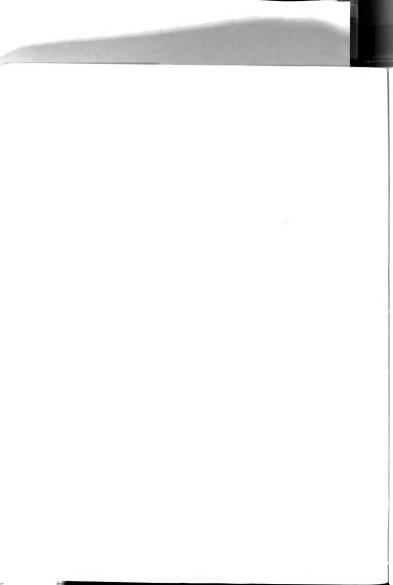


Figure 5.7 Distribution of scores on the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale of immates whose fathers' attitudes were judged healthy and those whose fathers' attitudes were judged unhealthy, with frequencies converted to percentages.

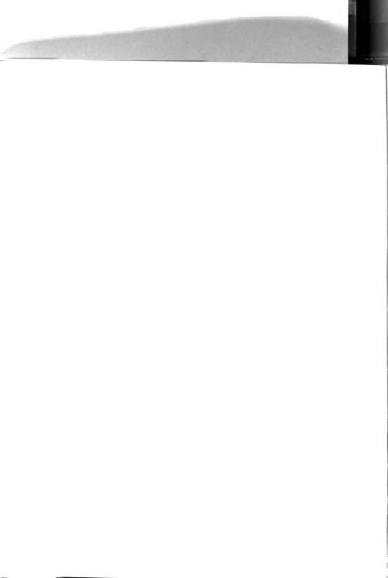


the two variables, family cohesiveness and inmate selfesteem scores. The relationship is such that family
cohesiveness appears to have had no influence on selfesteem scores. The distribution of inmate self-esteem
scores by family cohesiveness is shown in Table 5.8. The
close similarity of the two distribution curves is evident
in Figure 5.8. This very minor correlation can best be
attributed to chance. The irregularity in the distribution curve of inmates whose home climate was harmonious
may be attributed to chance or size of N.

Table 5.8 Frequencies of scores, and frequencies as percents, on the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale for inmates from homes judged to be harmonious and for those from homes judged to be non-harmonious.

Climate of		Self-Esteem Scores							
Parental- Marriage		1	2	3	4	5	6	Totals	
II		26	21	36	15	9	2	119	
Harmonious		(21.8)	(17.6)	(30.3)	(12.6)	(7.6)	(1.7)	(100)	
Non-			51	48	34	12	1	198	
harmoniou	<sup>5</sup> (8.1)	(18.2)	(25.7)	(24.2)	(17.2)	(6.1)	(.5)	(100)	

r = -.004



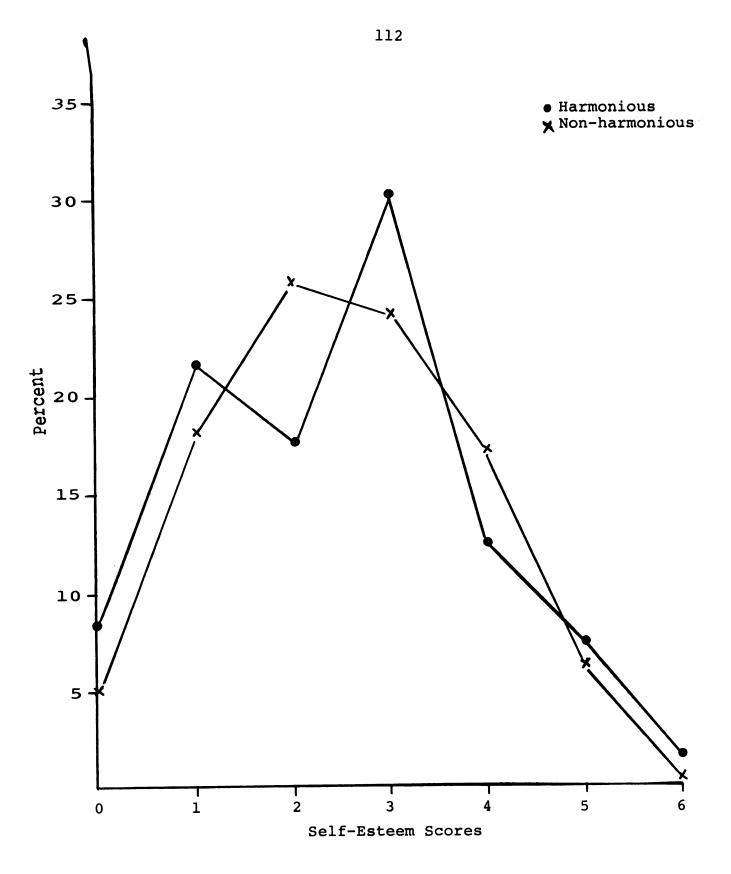
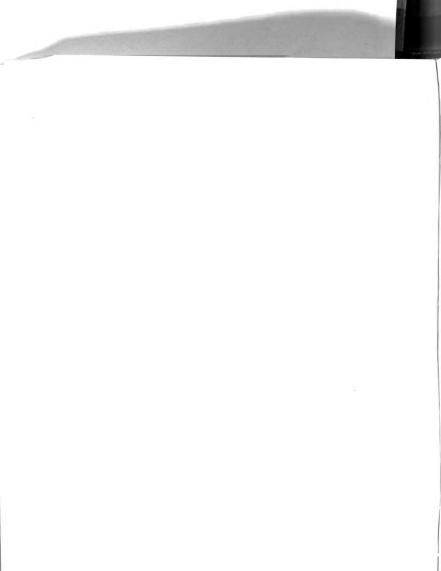


Figure 5.8 Distribution of scores on the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale of inmates from homes judged to be harmonious, and those from homes judged to be non-harmonious, with frequencies converted to percentages.



## Question 9

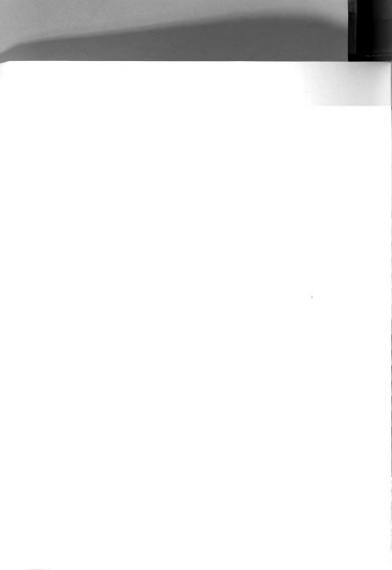
What correlation exists between self-esteem scores and marital status of parents?

The correlation coefficient of r = .076 suggests a slight positive linear relationship between the two variables, marital status of parents and inmate self-esteem scores. The relationship is such that marital status of parents appears to have had almost no influence on the self-esteem scores of inmates. The distribution of self-esteem scores of inmates by marital status of parents is shown in Table 5.9. The similarity of the two distributions is evident in Figure 5.9. This minor correlation can best be attributed to chance. The irregularity in the distribution of those whose homes were broken may be attributed to chance or size of N.

Table 5.9 Frequencies of scores, and frequencies as percents, on the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale for inmates whose homes were broken, and for those whose homes were not broken.

Home Broken		Self-Esteem Scores									
	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	Totals			
No	13	27	22	43	12	9	-	126			
	(10.3)	(21.4)	(17.5)	(34.1)	(9.5)	(7.2)	-	(100)			
Yes	13	36	54	44	38	13	3	201			
	(6.5)	(17.9)	(26.9)	(21.9)	(18.9)	(6.4)	(1.5)	(100)			

r = .076



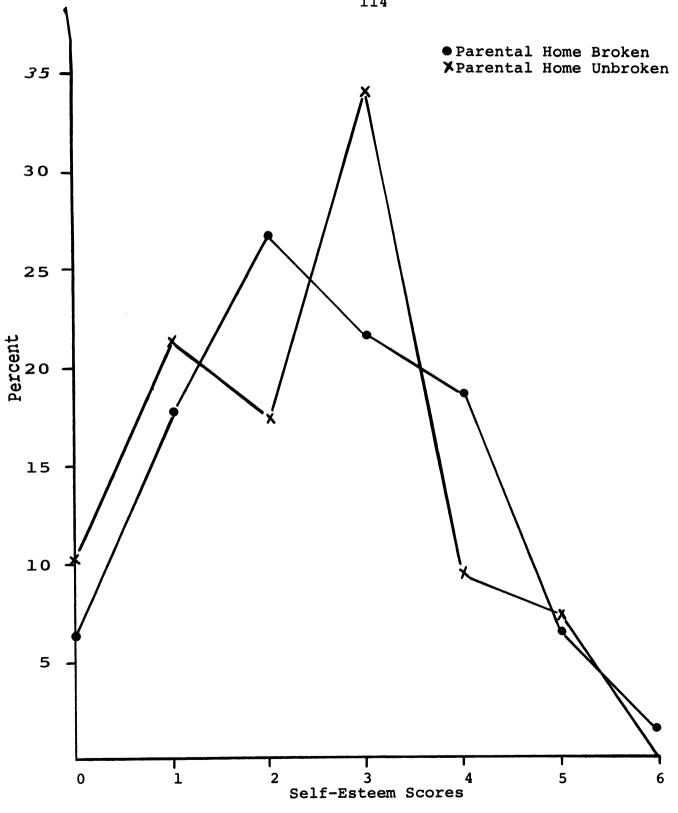
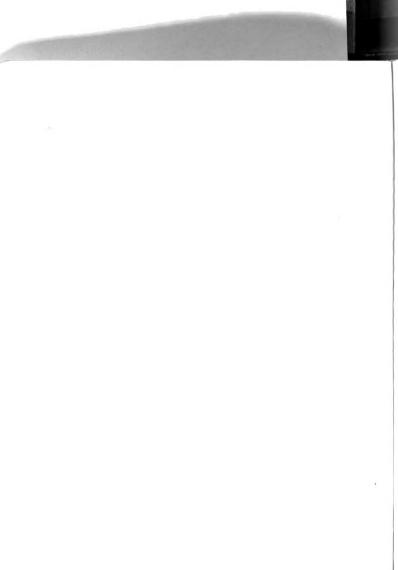


Figure 5.9 Distribution of scores on the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale for inmates whose homes were broken, and those whose homes were not broken, with frequencies converted to percentages.



### Question 10

Among inmates whose childhood homes were broken, what correlation exists between self-esteem scores and inmates' age at time home was broken?

For inmates whose childhood homes were broken, the correlation coefficient, r = -.032, suggests a very slight negative linear relationship between the two variables, inmate's age at time home was broken and self-esteem scores. The relationship is such that age at time the inmate's home was broken appears to have had almost no influence on selfesteem scores. The distribution of self-esteem scores by age at which home was broken is shown in Table 5.10. Reference to Figure 5.10 reveals the similarity of the distributions. This minor correlation can best be attributed to chance. A slight shift can be observed from higher to lower self-esteem as the age of the inmate at the time his home was broken increases. The indications of bimodality observable in the distribution of scores for those whose homes were broken when they were twelve to fifteen year olds and for those who were over fifteen may be attributed to the small size of N, (N = 17, and N = 23).

## Question 11

What correlation exists between self-esteem scores and age at which delinquency began?

The correlation coefficient, r = .046, suggests a very slight positive linear relationship between the

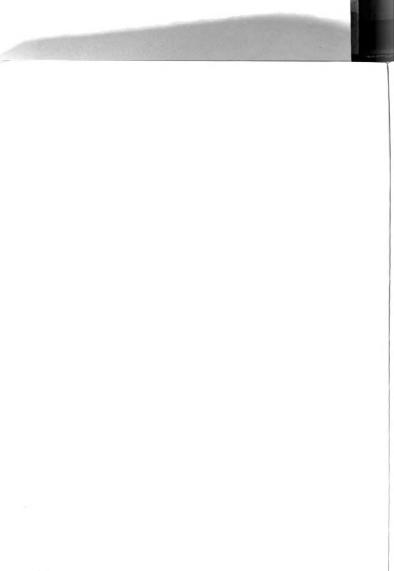


Table 5.10 Frequencies of scores and frequencies as percents, on the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale for inmates whose homes were broken by their age at the time their homes were broken.

Age When Parental- Home Broken		Self-Esteem Scores									
	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	Totals			
Before	3	16	24	18	16	6	1	84			
Age 3	(3.6)	(19.0)	(28.6)	(21.4)	(19.0)	(7.2)	(1.2)	(100)			
3-5	2	7	7	11	2	3	1	33			
3-5	(6.1)	(21.2)	(21.2)	(33.3)	(6.1)	(9.1)	(3.0)	(100)			
6-8	3	4	5	5	3	1	1	22			
6-8	(13.7)	(18.2)	(22.7)	(22.7)	(13.7)	(4.5)	(4.5)	(100)			
9-11	1	4	5	5	6	1	-	22			
9-11	(4.5)	(18.2)	(22.7)	(22.7)	(27.4)	(4.5)	-	(100)			
12 15	2	3	2	2	6	2	-	17			
12-15	(11.8)	(17.6)	(11.8)	(11.8)	(35.2)	(11.8)	-	(100)			
After	2	2	11	3	5	-	-	23			
Age 15	(8.7)	(8.7)	(47.8)	(13.1)	(21.7)	-	-	(100)			

r = -.032



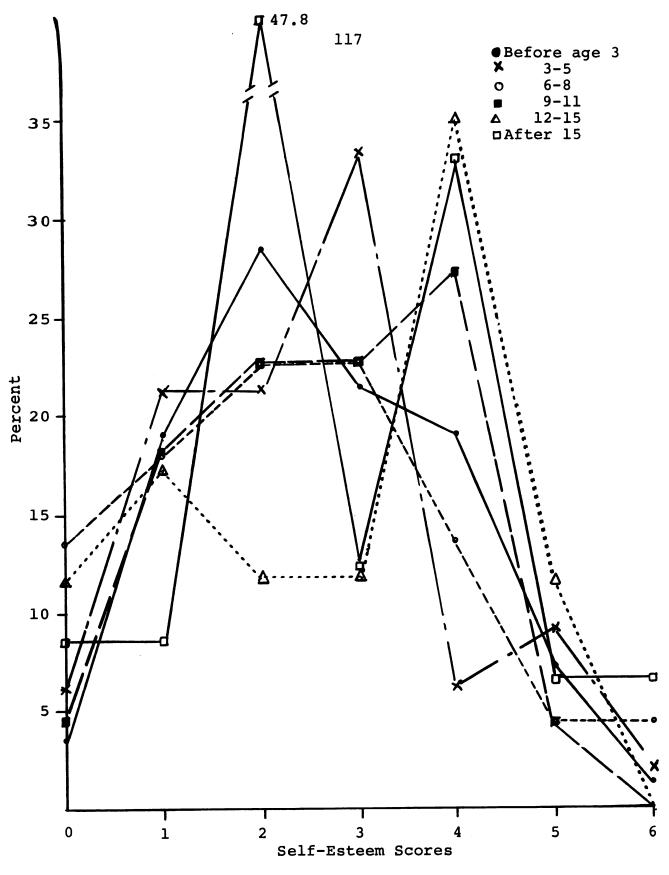
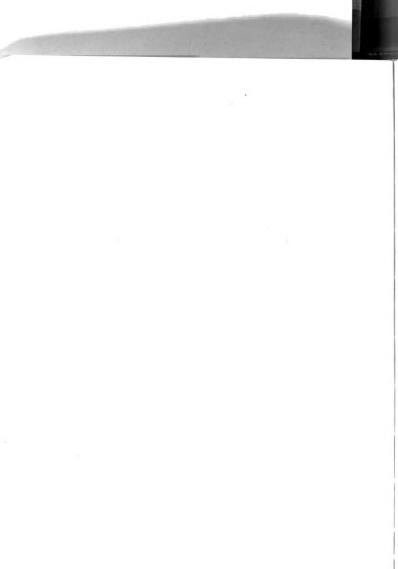


Figure 5.10 Distribution of scores on the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale of inmates whose homes were broken by their age at the time their homes were broken, with frequencies converted to percentages.



variables, age at which delinquency began and self-esteem scores. The relationship is such that the age at which delinquency began appears to have had almost no relationship to self-esteem scores. The distribution of inmate self-esteem scores by the age at which delinquency began is shown in Table 5.11. The similarity of distributions is demonstrated in Figure 5.11. This minor correlation can best be attributed to chance. Small numbers of those under ten years (N = 15), those nineteen and twenty (N = 15), and those over twenty (N = 1), probably account for the variations in those distributions.

#### Question 12

What correlation exists between self-esteem scores and length of time served in penal institutions as juve-niles prior to current committal?

The correlation coefficient, r = -.018, suggests a very slight negative linear relationship between the two variables, length of time served in penal institutions as juveniles prior to current committal and self-esteem scores. The relationship is such that length of time served in penal institutions as juveniles appears to have had almost no influence on self-esteem scores. The distribution of self-esteem scores by length of time previously served is shown in Table 5.12. The similarity

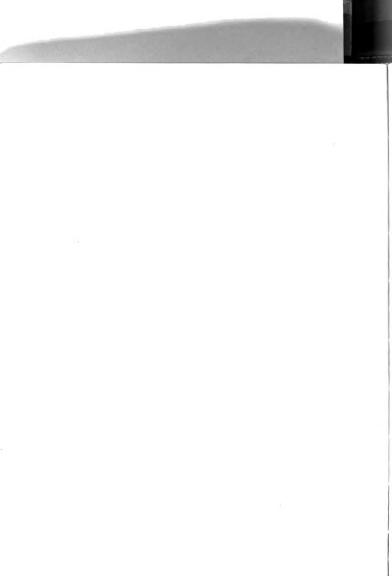
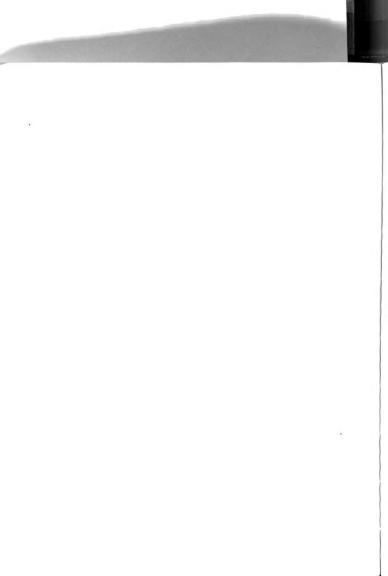


Table 5.11 Frequencies of scores, and frequencies as percents, on the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale for inmates by age at their first recorded delinquency.

Age at First	Self-Esteem Scores									
Attention	n 0	1	2	3	4	5	6	Totals		
	1	3	4	3	4	-	-	15		
Under 10	(6.6)	(20.0)	(26.7)	(20.0)	(26.7)	-	-	(100)		
10-12	6	11	15	2,7	8	3	-	70		
10-12	(8.6)	(15.7)	(21.4)	(38.6)	(11.4)	(4.3)	-	(100)		
13-14	9	17	22	25	16	1	1	91		
13-14	(9.9)	(18.7)	(24.2)	(27.4)	(17.6)	(1.1)	(1.1)	(100)		
15-16	6	23	26	25	10	10	1	101		
12-10	(5.9)	(22.8)	(25.7)	(24.8)	(9.9)	(9.9)	(1.0)	(100)		
17-18	3	5	10	6	6	6	-	36		
17-18	(8.3)	(13.9)	(27.7)	(16.7)	(16.7)	(16.7)	-	(100)		
10.00	1	4	1	2	5	1	1	15		
19-20	(6.7)	(26.6)	(6.7)	(13.3)	(33.3)	(6.7)	(6.7)	(100)		
0 20	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1		
Over 20	(100)	-	-	-	-	-	-	(100)		

r = .046





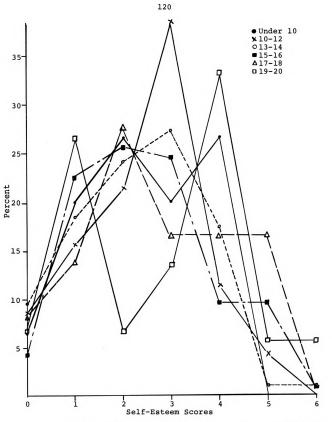
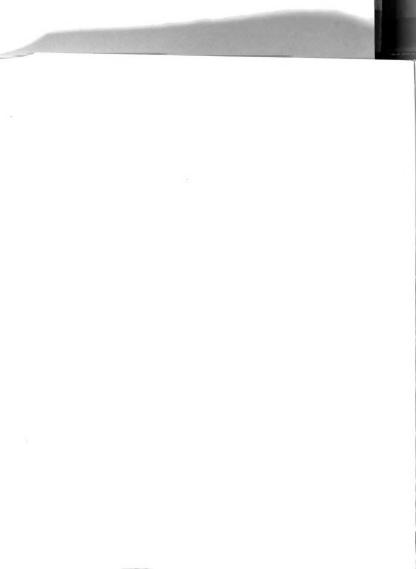


Figure 5.11 Distribution of scores on the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale of inmates by age of their recorded deliquency, with frequencies converted to percentages.





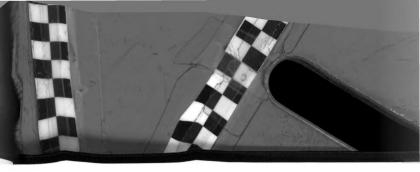
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of the distributions of the scores of inmates by the length of their earlier institutionalization is seen in Figure 5.12. This minor correlation can best be attributed to chance.

Table 5.12 Frequencies of scores, and frequencies as percents, on the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale for inmates by length of time institutionalized as juveniles.

Time Pre-	- Self-Esteem Scores									
viously Served	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	Total		
N	17	25	32	30	18	7	3	132		
None	(12.9)	(18.9)	(24.3)	(22.7)	(13.6)	(5.3)	(2.3)	(100		
Under	4	17	23	33	19	12	-	108		
l yr.	(3.7)	(15.7)	(21.3)	(30.6)	(17.6)	(11.1)	-	(100		
1 2	4	16	19	18	11	3	-	71		
1-3 yrs.	(5.6)	(22.5)	(26.8)	(25.4)	(15.5)	(4.2)	-	(100)		
2.5	2	5	4	3	2	-	-	16		
3-5 yrs.	(12.5)	(31.2)	(25.0)	(18.8)	(12.5)	-	-	(100		
5-10 yrs.	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	1		
	_	_	(100)	-	_	_	_	(100)		





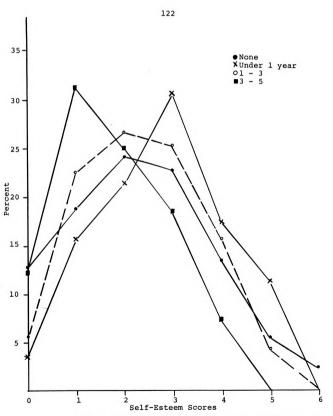


Figure 5.12 Distribution scores on the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale of inmates by length of time instutionalized as juveniles, with frequencies converted to percentages.





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## Question 13

What correlation exists between self-esteem scores and minimum sentence?

The correlation coefficient, r = .059, suggests a very slight positive relationship between the two variables, minimum sentence and self-esteem scores. The relationship is such that minimum sentence appears to have had almost no influence on inmate's self-esteem scores. The distribution of inmate self-esteem scores by minimum sentence is shown in Table 5.13. Reference to Figure 5.13 reveals the similarity in the distribution of self-esteem scores of inmates by length of minimum sentence. This minor correlation can best be attributed to chance. Because the small numbers render meaningless the graphing of the scores of those sentenced for periods of over three years, those numbers were not graphed.

#### Summary

Answers were sought to questions regarding the self-esteem of inmates. Data and the results of statistical analyses relevant to the particular questions were presented.

In answer to the first question, the null hypothesis that no difference exists between the distribution of self-esteem scores of newly incarcerated white inmates and the distribution of self-esteem scores of a white civilian population of twelfth grade males, was not rejected.

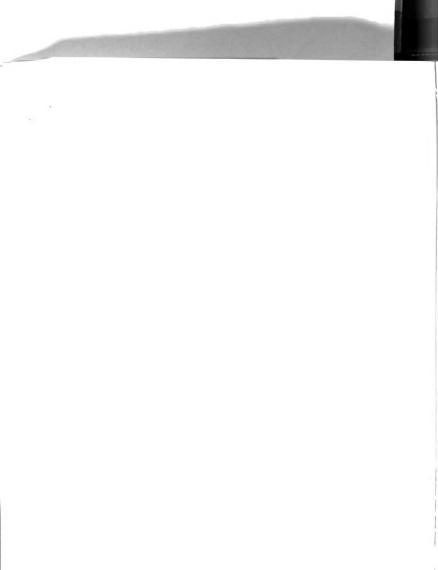
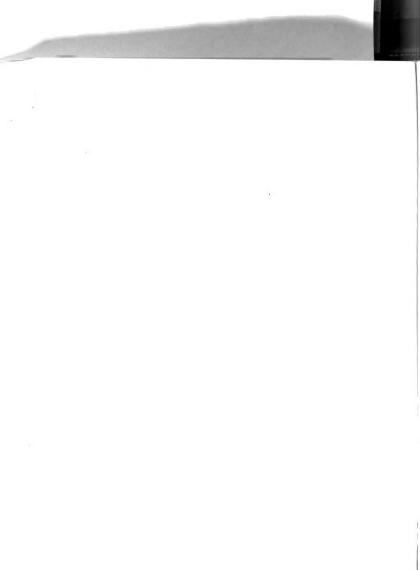
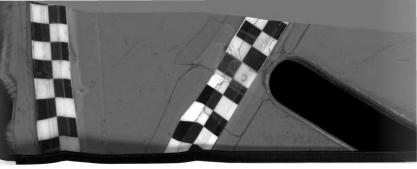


Table 5.13 Frequencies of scores, and frequencies as percents, on the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale for inmates by the length of their current minimum sentence.

Length of										
Minimum Sentence in Years	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	Totals		
l yr. & under	2 (3.5)	13 (22.4)	14 (24.1)	20 (34.5)	3 (5.2)	6 (10.3)	-	58 (100)		
1.1-1.5	5 (7.4)	12 (17.9)	17 (25.4)	17 (25.4)	11 (16.4)	4 (6.0)	1 (1.5)	67 (100)		
1.6-2.0	6 (8.0)	14 (18.7)	18 (24.0)	19 (25.3)	15 (20.0)	2 (2.7)	1 (1.3)	75 (100)		
2.1-2.5	4 (12.5)	5 (15.6)	6 (18.7)	5 (15.6)	10 (31.3)	2 (6.3)	<u>-</u>	32 (100)		
2.6-3.0	3 (7.0)	9 (20.9)	11 (25.6)	15 (34.9)	2 (4.6)	3 (7.0)	<u>-</u>	43 (100)		
3.1-3.5	-	1 (14.3)	2 (28.6)	3 (42.8)	- -	1 (14.3)	<u>-</u>	7 (100)		
3.6-4.0		2 (16.7)				-	1 (8.2)	12 (100)		
4.1-5.0	2 (10.5)	4 (21.0)	4 (21.0)	3 (15.9)	5 (26.3)	1 (5.3)	- -	19 (100)		
5.1-7.5	3 (27.3)	3 (27.3)	1 (9.1)	1 (9.1)	2 (18.1)	1 (9.1)	- -	11 (100)		
7.6-10.0	<u>-</u>	1(20.0)	1 (20.0)	2 (40.0)	1(20.0)	-	<u>-</u>	5 (100)		
10.1-15.0	) <u>-</u>	- -	<u>-</u>	1 (50.0)	_	1 (50.0)	_	2 (100)		
99.0	<del>-</del> -	<u>-</u> -	1 (50.0)	<del>-</del> -	<del>-</del> -	1 (50.0)	- -	(100)		





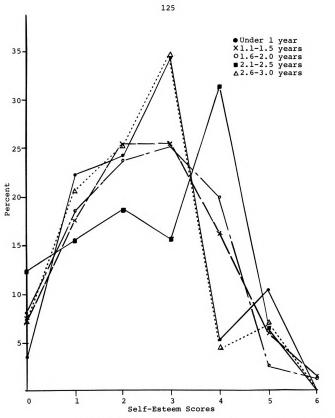
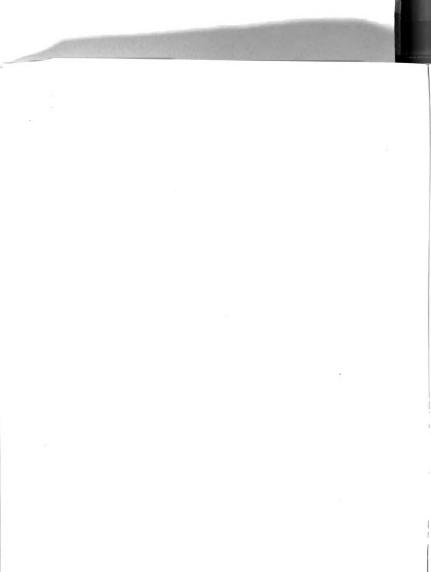


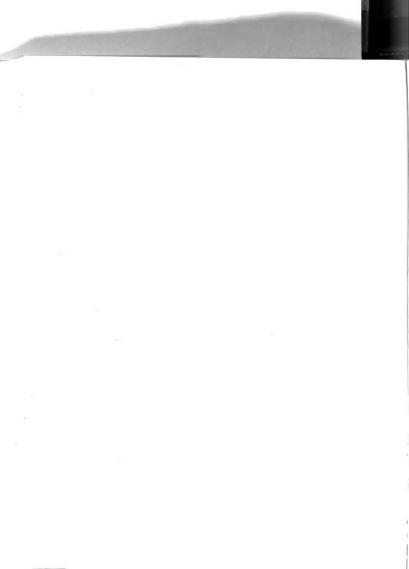
Figure 5.13 Distribution of scores on the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale of inmates by length of their current minimum sentence, with frequencies converted to percentages.



In answer to the questions regarding the relationship of inmate self-esteem scores to inmate background factors the correlation coefficients in Table 5.14 were found. Only slight relationships were found to exist between inmate self-esteem scores and the background factors selected for study.

Table 5.14 Summary of correlation coefficients showing relationships between self-esteem scores and background factors of inmates.

Inmate Background Factors	Correlation Coefficient (r)	N
Race	069	335
Age	.031	335
Work Experience	.032	335
School Grade Level	119	329
Mother's attitude toward inmate	.029	328
Father's attitude toward inmate	002	327
Family Cohesiveness	004	317
Marital Status of Parents	.076	327
Age When Parental Home Broken	032	201
Age When Delinquency Began	.046	329
Prior Time Served	018	328
Minimum Sentence	.059	333



#### CHAPTER VI

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

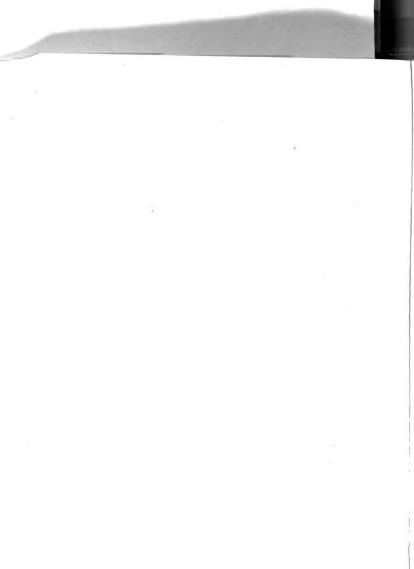
The entire study is summarized and the conclusions are presented in this chapter. A discussion interpreting the findings and drawing implications from the results follows.

## Summary

One purpose of this study was to examine the assumption that the self-esteem of inmates is low when compared with the self-esteem of a similar civilian population.

A second purpose was to examine twelve inmate background factors which might influence inmate self-esteem at the time of incarceration.

These two purposes produced the objectives of the research reported here. The first was to compare the distribution of self-esteem scores of young adult male offenders at the time of their incarceration into a correctional institution with that of a reasonably representative civilian population of twelfth grade males. The second was to examine the relationships that exist between inmate self-esteem scores and twelve selected background factors.

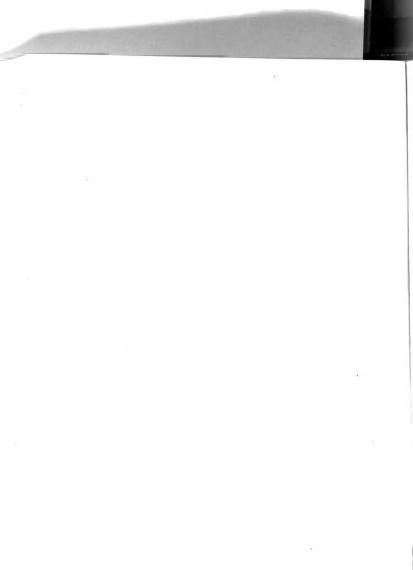


These objectives were restated as thirteen questions to be investigated in this study.

Self-esteem is defined as that element of the self-configuration which results from positive or negative self-valuing with the goals and ideals of the person as a standard of reference. It is seen as a strong motivational factor in behavior change and hence an important consideration in the design of correctional education programs for adults.

Self-esteem was measured through the use of the Rosenberg Self-Esteem scale. This measure is a seven-point Guttman type scale of ten items. As evidence of the scale's reliability, Rosenberg claims a reproducibility of 92% and a scalability of 72%. He demonstrated the validity of the scale by relating self-esteem scores in a "theoretically meaningful way" with data produced in measuring related constructs. The close similarity between Rosenberg's definition of self-esteem and the one developed in this study; its reproducibility, scalability, and validity; and its brevity and usefulness in the context of this study, led to the selection of Rosenberg's scale as the instrument for establishing self-esteem scores.

The scale was administered to all inmates who entered Michigan Reformatory between September 1, 1965 and June 1, 1966 at the time of their incarceration.



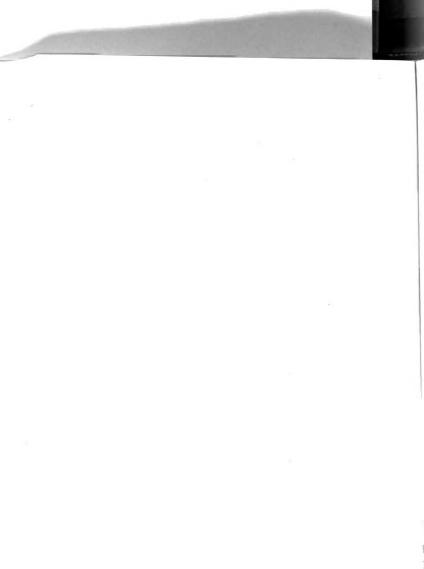
The inmate population used in this study consisted of 153 Negro and 182 white "first-timers" entering the Reformatory. The inmates ranged from seventeen through twenty-two years of age. Recidivists, inmates of races other than Negro and white, and those whose ages were not in the defined limits of seventeen through twenty-two years were screened out.

The civilian population used for comparison with the white inmate population consisted of 390 white twelfth grade males from three high schools located in a Michigan city not far from the Reformatory. This population was administered the self-esteem scale in September, 1965 by members of Brookover's Project teams from Michigan State University.

Data for inmate background factors derived from the inmate classification process of its Reception-Diagnostic Center were supplied by the Michigan Department of Corrections.

The Mann-Whitney U test was used to compare the distributions of self-esteem scores of the inmate and civilian populations. Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients were calculated to describe the relationships between inmate self-esteem scores and the twelve inmate background factors.

The analyses of the data resulted in the following findings.

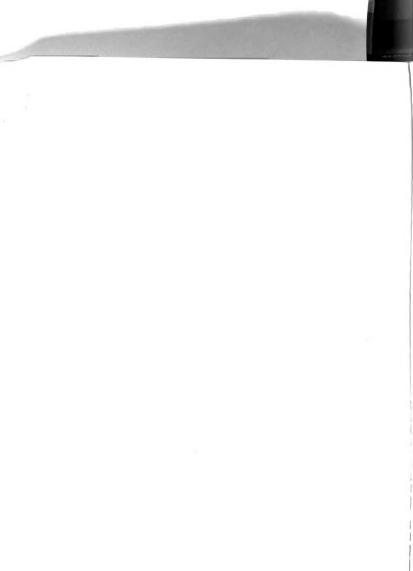


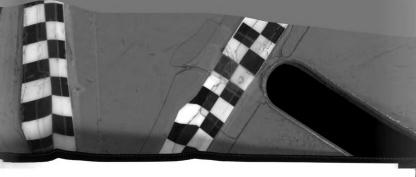
- 1. The distribution of the self-esteem scores of the inmate white population did not differ significantly from the distribution of the self-esteem scores of the white civilian population of twelfth grade males.
- 2. Such very slight relationships between inmate self-esteem and the inmate background factors were indicated by the correlation coefficients that each of the background factors appeared to have almost no influence on the self-esteem scores. The correlation coefficients ranged from r = -.002 for the variable, father's attitude toward inmates, to r = -.119, for the variable school grade level attained by inmates.

# Conclusions

The findings of this study lead to the following conclusions.

- 1. The data do not support the assumption that inmate self-esteem at the time of incarceration is lower than the self-esteem of the civilian population used in this study. The two populations cannot be differentiated on the bases of self-esteem scores.
- The data do not support the assumption that the self-esteem of Negro inmates is lower than the selfesteem of white inmates.
- The data support the assumptions made in chapter two that no relationship would be found between inmate





self-esteem and age of inmates, the marital status of inmates' parents, and the age of inmates at the time when the breaking of the parental marriage occurred in cases of inmates from broken homes.

- 4. The data do not support the assumptions made in Chapter two that relationships would be found between the self-esteem of inmates and the school level attained, work experience, the attitudes of mothers or of fathers toward the inmate during childhood, the cohesiveness of the family home, the age at which the inmate's delinquency began, the prior time served by the inmate, or the seriousness of the crime for which the inmate was committed as indicated by his minimum sentence.
- 5. The background factors studied do not account for the observed variation in self-esteem scores.

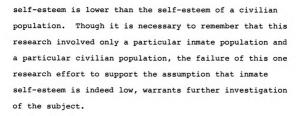
# Discussion of Results

Interpretations of the results of this study and the implications derived from them are discussed in two sections. The first section considers the comparison of inmate and civilian self-esteem and is followed by a section considering relationship of inmate self-esteem and the twelve background factors studied.

# Inmate and Civilian Self-Esteem

The decision not to reject the null form of Question 1 fails to support the commonly held assumption that inmate

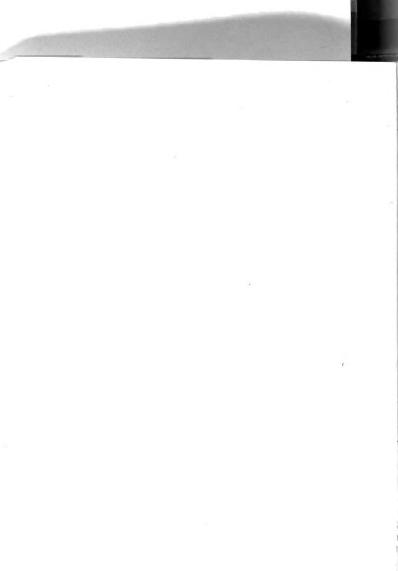




It is possible to argue that the measure of selfesteem did not measure actual self-esteem of the inmates
because of the theoretical need of the individual to enhance his self-valuation. The influence of a person's
defensive mechanisms working to protect one's self-concept
has been discussed in Chapter two. However, it is the
presenting self-esteem of the inmate that is important to
us because this is the immediate phenomenon with which
the correctional staff must begin to work in the design
of the educational program for the rehabilitation of the
inmate.

It is possible that self-esteem might change over time as a result of incarceration or treatment programs. Research might be undertaken to measure such possible changes and to study the implications for modifications in treatment programs.

The possible dissonance between presenting selfesteem and actual self-esteem might also suggest further research. If dissonance actually exists efforts might





be made to modify self-esteem in the direction of the optimum level for motivation to behavior change. If no dissonance were found then existing correctional treatment programs designed to enhance the individual's self-esteem should be reevaluated.

The appropriateness of the use of a Guttman type self-esteem scale for measuring the self-esteem of inmates might also be questioned. The validity of the scale for inmates might be checked by studies relating the scale to measures of the depressive affect of inmates, symptoms of anxiety or "neuroticism" of inmates, peer group reputational studies of inmates, and related self-concent scales. This study assumed that the scale would measure the self-esteem of inmates.

It might also be argued that the population of twelfth grade males was not sufficiently similar to the inmate population to justify comparison. Although practical limitations prevented the drawing of a completely representative population of civilians, white inmate cases were separated from Negro inmate cases and compared with the white civilian population. Further, it should be noted that the ages of the twelfth grade males were similar to the younger members of the inmate population, and that Rosenberg reported that "age was virtually unrelated to self-esteem" in his study. <sup>1</sup> Future researchers

<sup>1</sup> Rosenberg letter, op. cit.





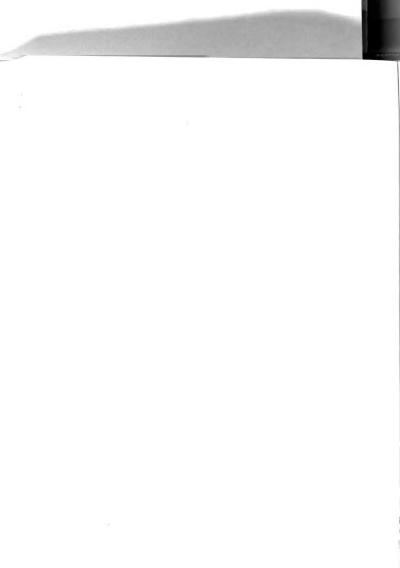
conducting this type of study might benefit, however, by attempting to draw a more representative sample of civilians for comparison with the inmates.

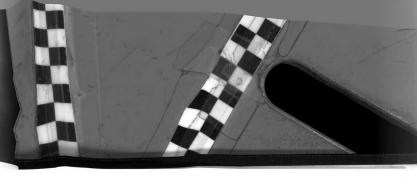
Self-esteem as used in this research has been taken to mean the valuation placed on the individual's global self. Brookover and his project teams at Michigan State University have demonstrated the wisdom of a different approach in their study of a particularized conception of self, the self-concept of academic ability. Individuals concerned with correctional studies might pursue the esteeming of such conceptualizations of self as the self as inmate, the self as a rehabilitating inmate, or the self as recidivist. Studies of the evaluation or esteeming of particularized concepts of self might prove to be more fruitful than the general approach taken in this study.

Inmate Self-Esteem and Background Factors

This study found only the slightest influence on self esteem by the background factors studied. The most surprising finding was that race did not appear to greatly influence self-esteem. Though the majority of studies lead to the assumption that Negro self-esteem would be lower than white self-esteem, recent discussions by Clark and Pettigrew were reported which indicated a change in

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Brookover, op. cit.





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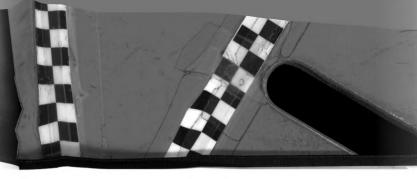
the Negro's view of himself. These discussions credited recent civil rights legislation for the change. Though their comments were not based on empirical testing, the results of this study allow for the possibility that this factor is at work and warrants further investigation to keep pace with the changing social climate in the United States.

The finding that virtually no relationship exists between age and self-esteem supports the report by Rosenberg in his study of 5000 high school juniors and seniors that self-esteem appeared virtually unrelated to age.

Though the studies reported in the literature indicate a relationship between both failure to progress in school and lack of work experience and criminal activity, the findings of this study indicate very little relationship between these variables and self-esteem. This suggests that work experience and school grade level attained do not function as critical elements in inmates' self-valuing processes.

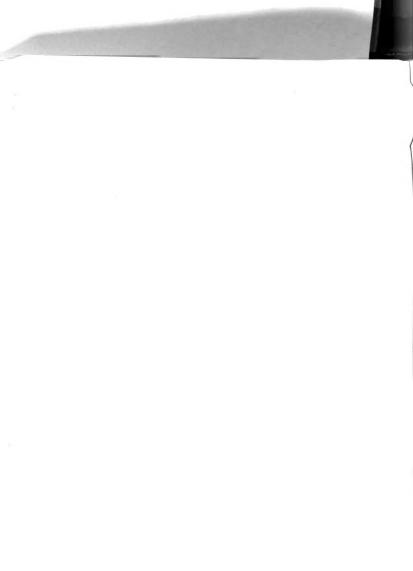
Similarly, the findings do not suggest that family and early home influences function importantly in the inmate's self-esteeming. The influence of mothers' or fathers' attitudes toward the inmate, family cohesiveness, the marital status of parents and for those inmates whose homes were broken, the age of the inmate at the time the home was broken, had extremely small influence on self-esteem.





If these elements of home and family life functioned at one time as significant influences in the lives of the inmates the findings of this study indicate that they no longer function strongly in relation to self-esteem. This suggests that studies might be undertaken to examine other possible significant persons' influences in inmates' lives in relation to self-esteem. Such studies might include members of peer groups, teachers, neighborhood leaders, family members other than mothers or fathers, or other supposed influential persons.

The effort to investigate the criminal history of the inmate as an element in the inmates' system of environmental influences revealed only the slightest influence of the criminal history of the inmate on self-esteem. The inmate's criminal history was studied by examining the age at which official delinquency began, the length of time served in penal institutions as a juvenile, and the seriousness of the type of crime as judged by the minimum sentence given the inmate. Studies of other elements in the systems of environmental factors influencing inmates in relation to their self-esteem might also be undertaken including the socio-economic milieu of the inmate, the educational system in which he was involved, his relation with the law enforcement community, or his participation in a delinquent subculture.

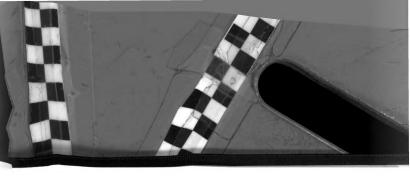




This study used institutional records as its source of data related to the background factors studied. This limitation posed problems for the investigation. Operational definitions of the background factors as a result were those used by the Reception-Diagnostic Center in its data collection. The data were also gathered by a number of probation officers in many parts of the state as described in Chapter III. There is no assurance that these probation officers interpreted the definitions in the same way. Investigators studying institutionalized inmate populations should endeavor to secure permission from institutional authorities to enable gathering data on inmates and their backgrounds through direct questioning of inmates, their family members, and home community acquaintances. Though the questions of inmate privacy and financing of such a project would need to be resolved, such a procedure would enable the researcher to establish his own operational definitions and be more certain about the consistency of his data.

This study was undertaken to contribute to the understanding of inmate self-esteem as compared to that of a civilian population, and the influence of twelve background factors on inmate self-esteem. It is hoped that this research, its findings, and the suggestions made will encourage further research efforts contributing to the understanding of inmates and their rehabilitation.

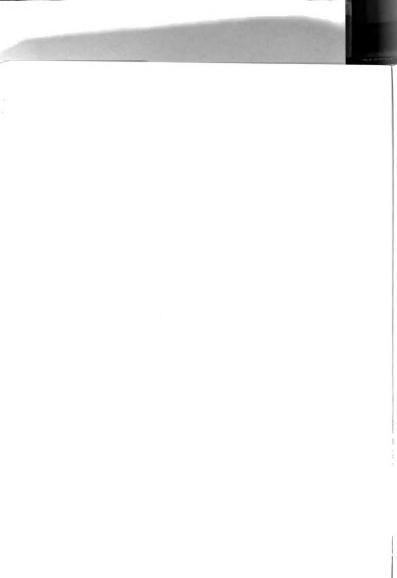




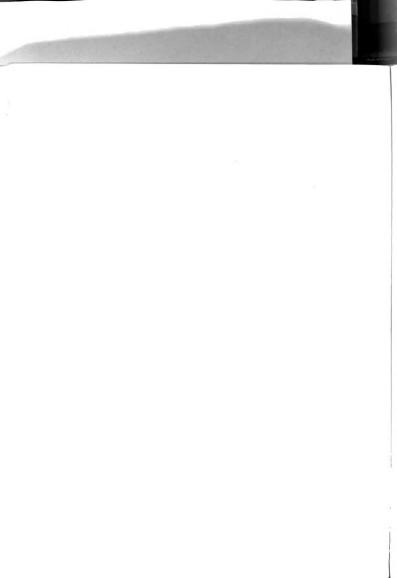
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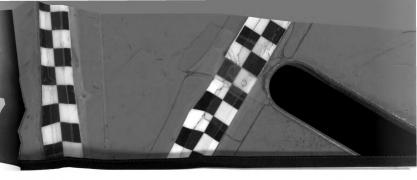
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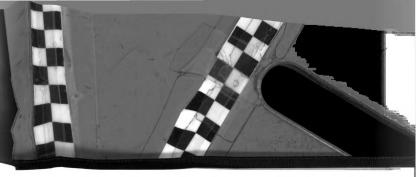


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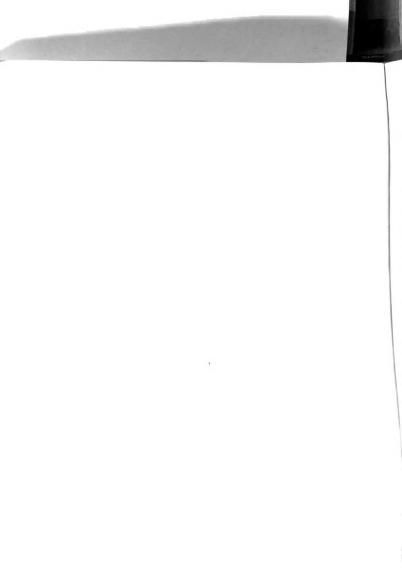


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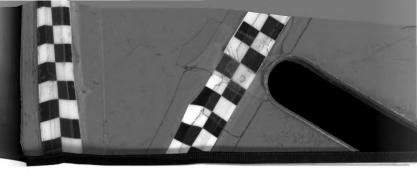


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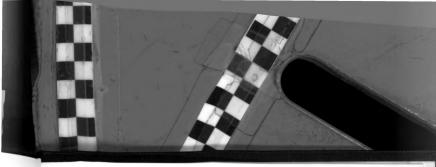


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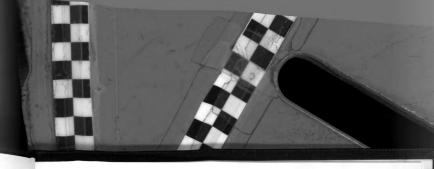
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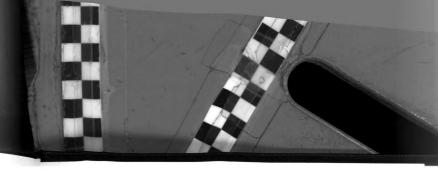
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### APPENDIX A: ROSENBERG SELF-ESTEEM SCALE

Name:		
Number:	Date:	
	Mo.Day	Yr

THIS IS NOT A TEST. THERE IS NO GRADE OR OTHER MARK. IT ASKS ONLY FOR  $\underline{YOUR}$   $\underline{OPINIONS}.$ 

In this questionnaire we are interested in learning how young men think about themselves. The only answer is your OWN OPINION, your OWN FEELINGS. Please be frank in your answer.

The information we collect will be used only for scientific research purposes.  $% \left\{ 1,2,\ldots,n\right\}$ 

WORK QUICKLY. DO NOT MULL OVER ANY QUESTION. If you are doubtful, give whatever answer is closest to your own opinion or feeling and move on quickly to the next question.

Below is a list of statements dealing with YOUR GENERAL FEELINGS ABOUT YOURSELF. If you STRONGLY AGREE, circle SA. If you AGREE with the statement, circle A. If you DISAGREE, circle D. If you DISAGREE, circle D. If you DISAGREE, circle D. If you DISAGREE and D. If you D STRONGLY DISAGREE, circle SD. 1 2 3 Strongly Dis- Strongly Agree Agree agree Disagree On the whole, I am satisfied with SA Α D SD myself. At times I think I am no good at all. SA A D SD 3. I feel that I have a number of good qualities. SD SA D 4. I wish I could believe in myself more than I do. SA A D SD 5. I am able to do things as well as most other people. D SD SA Α I feel I do not have much to be proud of. SA Α D SD I do not like to put my abilities to the test. SA D SD A I certainly feel useless at times. SA SD A I feel that I'm a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others. SA Α D SD 10. I wish I could have more respect for myself. SA A D SD 11. All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure. SA A SD I take a positive attitude toward myself. SA Α D SD 13. I seem to have feelings of inferiority. SA A D SD 14. I have noticed that my ideas about

SD

Α

D

myself seem to change very quickly. SA

