

133104

133104

U.S. Department of Justice
National Institute of Justice

This document has been reproduced exactly as received from the person or organization originating it. Points of view or opinions stated in this document are those of the authors and do not necessarily represent the official position or policies of the National Institute of Justice.

Permission to reproduce this ~~copyrighted~~ material has been granted by

Public Domain/NIJ

U.S. Department of Justice

to the National Criminal Justice Reference Service (NCJRS).

Further reproduction outside of the NCJRS system requires permission of the ~~copyright~~ owner.

Psychological Classification

of the Adult Male

Prison Inmate

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Patricia Van Voorhis, Ph.D.
Principal Investigator
Department of Criminal Justice
ML 108
University of Cincinnati
Cincinnati, OH 45221
(513) 556-5831

NCJRS

DEC 4 1991

ACQUISITIONS

This research was supported by the National Institute of Justice Program on Offender Classification and Prediction of Criminal Behavior (#85-IJ-CX-0063). The content of this monograph is attributable to the author and does not reflect the official position or policies of the United States Department of Justice.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The author wishes to acknowledge numerous people for their help and expertise on this project. They include the project staff: on-site interviewers and research analysts Kathy Heffner-Grinley, John Simurdak, and Bruce Erdmann; University of Cincinnati graduate assistants, Faith Lutze, Darlene Porter, Rene Kopache, Dorothy Crusham, and Slavitz Begovic; data consultants Nancy Wilson, Edwin Megargee, Marge Reitsma-Street, Stuart Alcock, Phil Harris, and Ted Palmer; copy editor Karen Feinberg, and statistical consultants Zaid Ansari and Neil Ritchey. I would also like to thank the Psychology Department at the Federal Penitentiary in Terre Haute: Drs. Cindy Williams, William Elliot, and especially Dr. John Ramer, who served as an invaluable liaison between the project staff and the Federal Bureau of Prisons. Other FBOP staff members who assisted us include FBOP Office of Research staff members Peter Nacci and Harriet Lebowitz and Terre Haute staff members Rick Veach, Gordon Pleus, Steve Heffner-Grinley, and the case managers, counselors, and work supervisors who assisted in completing inmate rating forms.

Most notably, the overwhelming majority of the inmates who were asked to participate in this study consented; they willingly gave hours of their time to interviews, tests, and surveys. We were not able to offer compensation for their services, but could

only suggest that their participation might improve our understanding of prison inmates and correctional classification. Their cooperation was both impressive and invaluable to the successful completion of this project.

Finally, I would like to thank Dr. Richard Laymon, Program Manager at NIJ, for his constructive assistance in monitoring this research and maintaining an exciting research agenda for the Program on Offender Classification and Prediction of Criminal Behavior.

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

I. Introduction

This research addresses a growing demand for sound methods of internal classification of adult correctional populations. At the outset the rationale for this study was the recognition of rapid increases in the size of these populations and of shifts in their composition (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 1985). Adult male inmate populations seemingly were becoming more violent (Irwin, 1980), and the increasing proportion of mentally ill or seriously troubled inmates was causing concern for policy makers and practitioners (Cohen, 1985; Jemelka, Trupin, & Chiles, 1989; McCarthy, 1985). In addition, several court decisions had mandated improved, uniformly applied systems of classification as a means of reducing prison problems (e.g., Laaman v. Helgemoe, 1977; Palmaqiano v. Garrahy, 1977; Pugh v. Locke, 1977).

Internal classification, a fairly recent concept in the field of corrections, is the product of a decision made within the four-tiered scheme illustrated in Figure 1. According to this model, the first classification decision is predicated upon security considerations. This decision, of course, is standard procedure for adult male inmates (Clements, 1981; Levinson, 1982, 1988), who are assigned to maximum-, medium-, or minimum-security facilities shortly after sentencing. Increasingly this decision is facilitated by security-based or risk assessment

classification instruments that operationalize "risk" according to strong empirical predictors such as severity of offense, prior record, age at first arrest, drug and alcohol history, prior prison escapes or probation/parole revocations, and history of violent behavior (see Andrews, 1982; Bonta & Motiuk, 1985; Gottfredson, Wilkins, & Hoffman, 1978; Hoffman & Beck, 1985; Hoffman & Stone-Meierhoefer, 1979; Kane & Saylor, 1983; NIC, 1982).

-Figure 1 about here-

Internal classification systems represent a second attempt to classify members of correctional populations after they receive the security-based assignment to a given institutional or community setting. Although this concept is new for adult corrections, it has been a common practice with juveniles. These systems classify according to either psychological criteria or needs-based criteria; the psychological systems are of interest to this research. Numerous agencies throughout the United States and Canada have employed psychological systems such as I-level (Harris, 1988), Conceptual Level (Reitsma-Street & Leschied, 1988), Moral Development (Kohlberg, Colby, Gibbs, Speicher-Dubin, & Candee, 1978), and Quay's Behavioral Classification System (Quay & Parsons, 1972) in order to assign youths to housing units or to match them to appropriate treatment options.

The rationale for using such a process with adults is an obvious one; not all correctional inmates are alike, even after separation into different security levels. They still can be

differentiated according to adjustment patterns that are identifiable by psychological classification models (e.g., predatory versus dependent behaviors, levels of stress and adjustment) (Megargee & Bohn, 1979; Quay, 1984; Van Voorhis, 1988). Further, rates of serious incidents have decreased in institutions that separate inmates according to these criteria (see Austin et al., in press; Bohn 1979, 1980; Levinson, 1988; Quay, 1984). In addition, some sources have noted that internal classification systems could be useful for treatment purposes (Megargee & Bohn, 1979); with adults, however, treatment applications are underutilized. This latter point is unfortunate because, as will be explained shortly, this research has observed numerous findings relevant to correctional treatment.

Also unfortunately, the support for correctional classification has grown faster than the technology, which remains in an unrefined state. Several state systems have implemented internal systems of classifying inmates according to psychological criteria; the classification and prediction literature continues to proliferate;² and empirical evaluations of the effect of internal classification in reducing dysfunctional inmate behaviors have shown favorable results (see Austin, Holien, Chan, & Baird, in press; Bohn, 1979, 1980; Levinson, 1988; Quay, 1984). Still, many questions remain.

This research endeavors to address certain shortcomings in the developing technology of correctional classification through a comparative assessment of the viability of five psychological

systems for classifying offender populations:

1. Megargee's MMPI-Based Criminal Classification System (Megargee & Bohn, 1979);
2. Interpersonal Maturity Level (I-level) (Sullivan, Grant, & Grant, 1957; Warren and staff of the Community Treatment Project, 1966);
3. Quay's Adult Internal Management System (AIMS) (Quay, 1983, 1984);
4. The Jesness Inventory Classification System (Jesness & Wedge, 1983);
5. Conceptual Level (CL) (Hunt, Butler, Noy, & Rosser, 1978).

Indeed, three of the five systems -- I-level, the Jesness Inventory, and Conceptual Level -- were developed for juvenile correctional systems and have not been tested sufficiently in adult offender settings. Existing research has been confined to the refinement of single systems, and has neglected any comparison among the various systems. Thus, prior research has not established (a) which systems or combination of systems could be used most effectively with this population, (b) what procedures (e.g., interview, paper-and-pencil test, staff assessment, or combination) would assure maximum efficiency without compromising psychometric precision, or (c) how the systems compare with one another or what their commonalities and differences could tell us about the specific systems and about general classification issues pertinent to this population. Implementation typically has consisted of the premature adoption of one system, selected (quite understandably) on the basis of cost and ease of administration. Yet questions remain about the number of personality or

behavioral types that such a system should identify (Megargee & Bohn, 1979), what specific characteristics should be represented by each personality type, and about the reliability and the predictive and construct validity of each system.

II. Research Questions

The research presented in this report was both a series of tests of single classification systems and a comparison among systems. The research questions are specific to each system:

1. Does the classification typology divide the inmate population into a practical number of subgroups? Is the variability in the distribution of inmates across these subgroups adequate for using the system effectively for management and administration?
2. Do the diagnostic categories identified by each system separate inmates into categories that predict meaningful distinctions in behavior and adjustment?
3. Is the classification system complete -- that is, able to classify all inmates -- or does it result in a large proportion of inmates who do not fit into any of the diagnostic categories?
4. Are the psychometric qualities of the systems adequate?
5. Can the types be defined more precisely?
6. Do the answers to the above questions hold true across types of institutional settings?

The following questions address the comparison among the classification systems:

7. How do the systems compare in efficiency, cost of administration, and psychometric precision?
8. Does the comparison of systems show instances in

which a specific type of inmate is identified more adequately by one system than by another? Similarly, do any "unclassified" inmates represent an important psychological, personality, or behavioral dimension that is not identified by one system but appears to be identified by another?

9. What does the comparison teach us about general classification and assessment issues for this population?

III. Description of the Classification Typologies

The five systems enumerated above differ somewhat in methods of assessment, type of psychological construct considered by the typology, and extent of use and research among adult inmates. As stated above, only two of the systems -- the Quay AIMS and the Megargee MMPI-based Criminal Classification System -- were developed for adult males. All of the systems except Conceptual Level specify categories of a personality based typology. Many of these types are similar across systems; this similarity provides a useful way to test the construct validity of many of the types.

In addition, three of the systems (Conceptual Level and the two I-level systems) separate groups on the basis of cognitive developmental characteristics. These types are based in cognitive developmental theory, ego psychology, cognitive complexity, social cognition, and other such constructs. Such systems classify individuals according to the structural organization of their reasoning -- how they think rather than what they think. The systems share the following assumptions: (a) The underlying logic employed at a given stage or level of development appears to be consistent across situations; although the subject

(content) of actual choices may differ, the structure of the reasoning is similar. (b) The stages described by the respective systems follow an invariant order. (c) No stage can be skipped in the course of development. (d) Each stage is more complex than the preceding one. (e) Each stage is based on the preceding one and prepares for the following one.

More detailed descriptions of each system and of the types included in each are provided in Appendix A, in Chapter 1, and in the profile types formulated from the findings of this research and discussed near the end of this summary. Thus the following overview is brief.

Quay Adult Inmate Management System (AIMS) (Quay, 1983, 1984)

This system was developed for adults but is based on a system designed for juveniles (see Quay & Parsons, 1972). The assessment instruments consist of two behavioral checklists that staff members complete upon interviewing the inmate and then observing him in the prison setting. Five personality types are specified: Asocial Aggressive, Immature Dependent, Neurotic Anxious, Manipulative, and Situational (crime is situation-specific for this type, usually the result of poor coping patterns rather than of psychological disturbance or a criminal lifestyle).

Megargee MMPI-Based Criminal Classification System (Megargee & Bohn, 1979)

This system classifies inmates according to common profile configurations shown for results of the widely used Minnesota

Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI). Megargee and others developed the system in an extensive study conducted at the Federal Correctional Institution in Tallahassee. Of the five systems studied in this research, the MMPI-based system appears to be the most widely tested among adults. Inmates complete the 566-question MMPI; approximately two-thirds of the results can be scored by computer, and the remaining are assessed clinically. Ten types are included in the system: Able (impulsive, manipulative, with tendencies toward character disorder, but usually well-adjusted in prison settings), Baker (inadequate, anxious), Charlie (hostile, alienated, aggressive, with an antisocial criminal lifestyle), Delta (amoral, impulsive, egocentric, and often bright), Easy (bright, stable, and adjusts well), Foxtrot (tough criminal lifestyle, often shows poor prison adjustment), George (anxious, hardworking, and submissive), How (unstable, agitated, and often psychologically disturbed), Item (stable and well-adjusted), and Jupiter (adjusts well, but evidences some anxiety and often evidences a disadvantaged background).

Conceptual Level (Hunt, Butler, Noy, & Rosser (1978))

This system has been used widely in juvenile facilities throughout Canada, but not, to our knowledge, among adults. The system classifies offenders according to three levels of cognitive development or complexity. The assessment process entails a sentence completion test containing six sentence stems, requiring at least a three-sentence response from each. Results must be

scored clinically by trained raters. The three levels are as follows: CL-1: concerned with social acceptance; applies stereotypes, formulas, and dichotomous thinking to decision making; CL-2: independence is a primary concern but the individual also considers alternatives and viewpoints of others, showing some tolerance for ambiguity and diversity; and CL-3: open to a variety of viewpoints and decision making processes show an ability to compromise, although not for the purpose of pleasing others or compromising values.

Interpersonal Maturity Level (I-level)(Interview Method)
(Warren et al., 1966)

I-level was developed by Marguerite Q. Warren and her associates (1966) for use in the California Community Treatment Project during the 1960s. The levels are based on cognitive development and range in offender populations from the very concrete reasoning shown at I₂ (mostly among children) to the more flexible thinking patterns of an I₅ individual. In addition, 13 personality types are observed: two at I₂, three at I₃, four at I₄, and four at I₅. Diagnosing I-level is more time-consuming than formulating classifications for the other systems, because it requires a lengthy interview and clinical assessment of the results. Because we observed only I₄ and I₅ inmates, our descriptions are limited to those levels and subtypes (see Harris, 1988; Warren, 1983). I₄ individuals are described as evidencing an internalized value system, but as somewhat overconcerned with meeting ideal standards of the self. They seem

more self-centered than others; they take an "I have arrived" position and tend to judge others according to ideal standards, which may be either prosocial or antisocial. Among offenders, there are four personality subtypes: Neurotic Anxious (poor self-image, nervous, worried, guilty); Neurotic Acting-out (acts out underlying negative self-image in a defended manner); Situational (somewhat naive, but does not evidence negative self-image; feels bad about an offense, which is often situation-specific); and Cultural Identifier (has internalized the values of a criminal lifestyle and subculture). I₅ individuals are more likely to see others as complex individuals, a quality that supports their ability to empathize and to tolerate ambiguity. I₅s are more tolerant of themselves and of others than are I₄s. The subtypes for I₅s are identical to those for I₄s.

Jesness Inventory I-level (Jesness & Wedge, 1983, 1985)

This is a more efficiently obtained measure of I-level, which involves administering the 155-item Jesness Inventory. Results then are sent to Consulting Psychologists Press for computer scoring. Alternatively, they can be scored by hand. The system delineates three cognitive developmental levels -- I₂, I₃, and I₄ -- which are similar, though not identical, to the I-level interview descriptions. There are nine personality subtypes: two at I₂, three at I₃, and four at I₄. Descriptions are as follows: I₂ Asocial Aggressive (Aa) (deprived background, hostile, aggressive, delinquent value system); I₂ Asocial Passive (Ap)

(deprived background, nonconforming, inappropriate behavior, negative self-concept); I₃ Immature Conformist (Cfm) (positive attitudes, but often dependent and conforms easily, uncritical self-concept); I₃ Cultural Conformist (Cfc) (low motivation, negative attitudes, hostile, criminal lifestyle and self-concept); I₃ Manipulator (Mp) (positive attitudes and self-concept, manipulative); I₄ Neurotic Acting-out (Na) (negative attitudes, conflicts in relationships, presents self as adequate and independent, but appears cynical, outspoken, high self-reported crime); I₄ Neurotic Anxious (Nx) (dependent, anxious, insecure, noncriminal orientation, conforming); I₄ Situational (Se) (positive attitudes toward others, achievement-oriented, noncriminal self-concept and lifestyle, conforming, but naive); and I₄ Cultural Identifier (Ci) (motivated, positive, self-confident, noncriminal orientation, unlike interview Ci).

IV. Research Setting and Design Overview

The study was conducted at the Federal Penitentiary and the Federal Prison Camp at Terre Haute, Indiana between September 1986 and July 1988. The penitentiary is designated Level 4/5 on the Federal Bureau of Prisons security continuum; it also could be termed a low maximum- or high medium-security facility. The prison camp is a minimum-security or Level 1 facility in the federal system.

A total of 190 camp inmates and 179 penitentiary inmates

participated in the study. At the time of the study, inmates were assigned to institutions according to security criteria provided by the FBOP Security Designation/Custody Classification System (Kane & Saylor, 1983). They were not classified further within the institution according to any system for internal classification, and our research provided no means for doing so.

The study employed both a time-series and a correlational design. At intake, project staff members collected both classification/diagnostic information and social, demographic, and criminal history background data. Inmates were tracked for 6 months or until their release date, if they were required to serve less than 6 months. Follow-up data consisted of official reports of disciplinary infractions or victimizations, staff members' assessment of prison adjustment and work performance (The Megargee Work Performance Rating Form and the Megargee Prison Adjustment Rating Form; Megargee, 1972), and an inmate self-report survey of prison experiences that formed indexes measuring prison disciplinary infractions and adjustment difficulties.

V. Characteristics of the Sample

The prison camp inmates were slightly older than the penitentiary inmates, more likely to have families, and predominantly white. The average age of the penitentiary inmates was 33 (median=32), whereas the average age of the camp inmates was 37 (median=36). Educational, employment, and economic histories of

the two groups differed dramatically. At the time of their arrests, the penitentiary inmates were far more likely to have been unemployed and to have reported either no occupation or a criminal occupation. Most of the camp inmates (75%) had at least a high school education or a GED, whereas only 53% of the penitentiary inmates had completed high school requirements. Although most of the inmates had records of prior criminal involvements, the most distinguishing difference between the two groups concerned their prior prison experience. The majority of penitentiary inmates (72%) had served a prior prison term, whereas only 18% of the prison camp inmates had done so. In addition, among those penitentiary inmates who had prior records, a substantial proportion also had records of violations of the conditions of prior sanctions. The length and seriousness of the prior criminal records, of course, was much greater for the penitentiary inmates than for the prison camp inmates. Conviction on a drug-related charge, particularly possession with intent to distribute, characterized a large proportion of the offenses. Among prison camp inmates, drug offenses represented the modal offense category. For penitentiary inmates, the proportion of drug convictions (26%) was surpassed only by the proportion of offenders convicted of bank crimes (27%), specifically armed and unarmed bank robbery. As would be expected, some of the penitentiary inmates (16%) were convicted for violent offenses, whereas none of the camp inmates had such a conviction. Offenses committed by the camp inmates were more likely to

involve illegal operations (12%) and other forms of fraud (15%).

VI. Summary of Research Findings

Overall this study amassed numerous findings pertinent to specific psychological classification systems, classification technology, and correctional research. This section highlights those findings in the context of the research questions presented in Section II. We begin with findings relevant to the technical concerns of psychological classification in general. Then we address matters pertaining to the specifics of each system.

Four questions speak to the psychological classification issues of adult male inmates, regardless of the system that may be chosen. These concern (a) the distribution of inmates across types specified by each system, (b) the optimum number of types needed for this population, (c) the efficiency of procedures for administering the systems, and (d) differences between institutional settings.

Does the classification typology divide the inmate population into a practical number of subgroups? Is there enough variability in the distribution of inmates across these subgroups to use the system effectively for management and administration?

The distributions of subjects across the various classification categories are shown in Table 1. Generally, findings for I-level (interview method) and AIMS are not similar to those of the few available comparison studies, including the pilot study for this research. (In Chapter 4 we discuss several reasons for this discrepancy). Distributions for the Megargee

MMPI-based system and Conceptual Level, however, are similar to those observed for the pilot study and for the Megargee types, the distributions are remarkably similar to those observed in several other studies (see Megargee & Bohn, 1979). We had no basis of comparison for the Jesness Inventory types.

- Table 1 about here-

Our central question, however, concerned whether or not the classification types subdivided correctional populations into a practical number of categories that make sense from an administrative standpoint. From this perspective, the Quay AIMS system was more meaningful in the penitentiary than in the prison camp. In the prison camp, the distribution of inmates across categories was highly uneven: most of the inmates were classified as Situational. Certainly the ability to differentiate the inmate population into useful subgroups requires (among other things) that there be several groups of some sufficient size. In the prison camp we were close to having one large group and three small groups, each classifying 7% or less of the sample. One could argue that this was the case because in fact there were more situational inmates in the prison camp than in the penitentiary. In support of this position, other systems also found more situational inmates in the prison camp than in the penitentiary; those systems, however, also were more likely than the AIMS system to detect neurotic, dependent, and immature types. Thus it is likely that staff observation methods may be less sensitive to personality distinctions than methods that involve

direct input by inmates in the form of an interview or an inventory.

We also note several types that classified few inmates (e.g., Megargee's Jupiter, Jesness I₂ types). In these instances, however, the rationale for dismissing the system because it provides some "impractical" categories appears unfounded. Although we were unable to draw definitive conclusions regarding these inmates because of limited category frequencies, we learned that many of the less frequently observed types nevertheless included troubled inmates. Instead of recommending system revisions that might incorporate these inmates into larger, related, and more efficient groupings, we recommend more careful study of the less frequent types and greater attention to treatment models pertinent to their needs. Unfortunately, our research design did not afford enough cases to make this possible.

What does the comparison among systems show us about the number of types that are needed to classify these populations in an optimal manner according to psychological criteria?

This question emerges from a construct validity analysis presented in Chapter 5. This analysis examined the extent to which a total of 32 types (across systems) converged or were reduced into personality clusters which were most common and most clearly identified in these institutional settings. We found four such clusters for the penitentiary and three for the prison camp. These do not exhaust all possible types, but merely identify the most common and those which are most likely to have

been identified across systems. Indeed, the systems themselves provided from 5 to 10 types, depending on the system.

The four penitentiary types consisted of (a) a committed criminal type, as exemplified by Quay's Asocial Aggressive, Megargee's Charlie and Foxtrot, Jesness's Cultural Conformist (Cfc), and the I-level (interview) I₄ Cultural Identifier; (b) a situational type, as exemplified by Quay's Situational, Megargee's Easy and Item, Jesness's Situational and Ci (adaptive), and the I-level (interview) I₄ and I₅ Situational; (c) a neurotic anxious/high-anxiety type (e.g., Quay's Na, Megargee's George and Jupiter, Jesness's Neurotic Anxious, and the I-level Neurotic Anxious types), a construct which also was observed to converge with type How (disturbed) and with immature types; and (d) a character disordered or secondary psychopath type, as shown in Megargee's Able and Delta, and in all of the I-level neurotic acting-out types.

These groupings were similar for the prison camp except that the neurotic/high-anxiety convergences were stronger than those observed for the penitentiary; also no committed criminal cluster was present in this minimum-security setting.

The systems provide for other personality dimensions, such as immaturity/dependency and manipulative tendencies. These did not converge well, however, and our understanding of these inmates is less clear. Moreover, these types were more likely to converge with other dimensions (e.g., with the neurotic and disturbed for the immature dependent types or with committed criminal types for

the manipulative types) than with similarly defined types on other systems. Yet, immature types and manipulative measures sometimes were correlated with disciplinary and treatment behaviors. Because these types help us to differentiate inmates, it would be misleading to suggest that they are unimportant.

Another important type, Megargee's How, describes a mentally disturbed inmate who is taken into account on the Megargee system but on none of the other systems. That How is correlated with neurotic and dependent types on other systems suggests that systems which do not account for mental disturbance will find the disturbed inmate in the neurotic and immature classifications. In some ways this situation becomes problematic because the needs of a disturbed inmate can be quite different from those of a dependent or a neurotic inmate, as defined by these type descriptions.

In sum, if we were to integrate the findings of the predictive analyses with those of the construct validity analysis, we would recommend provision for the following in medium- to maximum-security settings: (a) committed criminal, (b) immature dependent (though further development is needed for this type), (c) character-disordered, (d) situational, (e) neurotic, and (f) disturbed (How). In minimum-security settings, all but the committed criminal type should be important considerations. This is not to recommend omission of committed criminal types in minimum security settings, but fewer of these types were found in those setting and both the convergent and the predictive findings were

less consistent with hypotheses that one might form on the basis of the committed criminal type descriptions.

Cognitive developmental types also converged strongly. They were more likely to differentiate inmates according to treatment issues, however, than according to behaviors relevant to disciplinary or management matters. Thus their use would relate to the purpose of classification.

The contribution of these findings to the construct validity of specific constructs (e.g., cognitive development, committed criminal, neurotic anxious, situational, and character disordered) should not be understated. The importance of these findings is underscored by the fact that construct validity has received insufficient attention in correctional classification research conducted to date.

What types of test assessment procedures are most efficient and most useful in these settings?

At the current stage in the technology of correctional classification, we do not find long, inefficient procedures to be superior to the shorter assessments in terms of reliability, or construct and predictive validity. This situation might change with the formulation of recommended changes in assessment procedures, but at the present, little is gained by a longer test or interview and assessment process. In this study, for example, we invested a great deal of time in a rather lengthy I-level interview. Although correctional practitioners might regard an

interview as an important first step in a treatment process and although the I-level interview would be ideal in certain settings, choice of the I-level should not reflect desire for an optimal predictor. Other, more efficient systems were equally effective from the standpoint of prediction.

This observation should not be taken to an extreme, however, because brevity also can pose problems. We anticipated, for example, that the staff behavioral checklists for the Quay AIMS test would be easy to obtain, given the structure of the checklist format. It is easily obtainable, but this fact in itself warrants some caution. The structure of staff observation built into the AIMS test forms may not be the best option for an overcrowded facility, where staff members do not have sufficient opportunity to know inmates well enough to offer a valid assessment of their behavior. Yet in view of our difficulties with an overburdened staff, we were not expecting the AIMS classification to show the clear predictive correlates that it showed. Thus we are far from recommending against its continued use.

On the basis of our experience, the following precautions should enhance the validity and reliability of the AIMS classifications: (a) Consider completing checklist forms in smaller diagnostic and classification units rather than upon the inmates' admission to a larger population. (b) Anticipate and prepare for resistance among staff members, (c) Encourage staff members to return the lists if they do not know the inmate well,

and ask another staff member (possibly a work supervisor) to complete the forms. (d) Check completed test forms for response biases (e.g., checking identical options throughout). (e) Anticipate staff members' reluctance to record negative ratings about an inmate.³ Stated simply, practitioners should not be misled by the apparent efficiency of this system.

For our purposes, the Jesness Inventory, was one of the easiest to administer. It afforded procedures that are amenable to overcrowded facilities because it obtains the diagnoses through direct input from the inmate in the form of a short test rather than through assessment by staff. Moreover, assessment of the results does not require a clinical assessment or reading of the results, but is obtained from a computerized scoring service. The Jesness Inventory and the Quay AIMS instruments, in fact, are the only systems that would not require a clinical service or unit to score results or to evaluate transitional or dual diagnoses.

Are there important differences between institutional settings that must be considered in using psychological classification systems?

The findings point consistently to a need to consider institutional conditions and needs in the choice of a psychological classification system. The most obvious difference occurs in the observed distribution of inmates in the two settings. Not surprisingly, proportionately more prison camp inmates than penitentiary inmates were classified as situational or as least

disturbed according to the I-level interview, the Megargee MMPI-based typology, and the Quay AIMS typology. These systems also identified more committed criminal types in the penitentiary than in the prison camp. Distributions for the developmental types were similar across settings, except for the Conceptual Level tests which identified proportionately more high-CL inmates at the prison camp than at the penitentiary.

Another difference across institutional settings may support a need to norm the systems to specific types of facilities. As the following type profiles will show, a situational type in a minimum-security setting is different from a situational type in a maximum-security setting; in most cases, the differences were so important that we generated institution-specific profiles. In addition, types that show poor adjustment to some settings adjust very well to other settings, thus rendering institution-specific any predictions we might make for that type. Unfortunately, the field of corrections has ignored the notion of norming or validating classifications and tests to specific populations. This neglect may greatly affect the validity of our measures and, in all likelihood, the correctness of our case management decisions (Van Voorhis, 1987; Wright, Clear, & Dickson, 1984).

Classification Profiles

We address the remaining research question as they pertain to each system. In the following sections we present an overview of each system, discussing its efficiency, utility, reliability,

and predictive merits. This discussion is accompanied by profiles of each type, which also incorporate findings of the study.

Quay Adult Inmate Management System (AIMS). As stated above, our initial experience taught us that the professed efficiency of the system did not promise staff compliance.⁴ Nevertheless, when we addressed the staff's initial reluctance and when we omitted test results known to be invalid, we were able to assess this system fairly comprehensively.

Our analysis of the system's interrater reliability produced results that were similar to those for I-level but nevertheless were somewhat low (67%). It is quite possible, however, that these figures would be higher in situations where the test was administered in smaller prison classification/observation units rather than in overcrowded situations, where staff members do not have sufficient opportunity to become knowledgeable about the inmates. In addition, this system might benefit from the development of a manual defining the terminology of checklist items.

Notwithstanding these concerns, which we believe can be corrected, the system correlated with similarly defined types, disciplinary behaviors, prison experiences, and prison adjustment measures. These are integrated into the type profiles shown in Table 2.

-Table 2 about here-

Megargee's MMPI-Based Criminal Classification System: Overall we observed stronger correlates with disciplinary behaviors and adjustment experiences for the other four classification systems than for this system. Yet for the Megargee systems we found numerous expected differences among types that simply did not reach significance. But while it is likely that these differences would have proved significant in a larger sample, we cannot ignore the fact that observed differences among types on many outcome behaviors often were not strong (nor had they been strong in the pilot study). Construct validity findings (reported in Chapter 5) showed stronger results for several of the types as they correlated with similarly defined types on other systems. The latter set of findings helped to allay concerns that disappointing results for the predictive tests may have been due to flawed assessment procedures.

The system is fairly efficient to administer. The test is longer than others (566 questions), but securing inmates' cooperation was not unduly difficult. Results were scored by computer. This procedure required us to send tests to a service at Florida State University, but programs have been developed for use with personal computers. Agencies using the system must provide for the fact that a portion of the test results (approximately 33%) cannot be scored mechanically and requires clinical assistance. A staff clinician experienced in the use of the MMPI, however, should be able to learn to perform this task.

Although our results were not ideal, we observed some valuable

findings for some of the Megargee types. As with the other systems, our most conclusive findings are for types that classified a number sufficient to permit meaningful statistical analyses. Observations are summarized in Table 3.

-Table 3 about here-

Conceptual Level. This study did not conduct a reliability assessment of Conceptual Level, but we sent results to a scoring service that had established strong reliability. The sentence completion test proved efficient to administer and was completed within 15 to 18 minutes by most inmates. The rater reported no difficulties with the results furnished for these inmates.

As with the two I-level measures, construct validity tests were conducted for the system as a whole rather than type by type, as with the personality constructs. As indicated earlier, results for the developmental constructs were strong.

In addition, we observed a number of correlates with disciplinary and adjustment measures. Most important, the lowest CL types correlated either directly with a measure tapping the individual's need for structure or with other measures relevant to such a need. Such findings validated one of the central tenets of conceptual level theory (Reitsma-Street & Leschied, 1988). Type descriptions are summarized in the profiles presented in Table 4.

-Table 4 about here-

Jesness Inventory (I-level). Because this system was developed for juveniles and was tested here with no modifications, we were somewhat surprised by the overall construct and predictive validity of some of the I-level types. Moreover, the Jesness Inventory was efficient to administer. Test sessions were brief (155 items), and the results were sent to Consulting Psychologists Press for scoring.

At present, no clinical assessment procedures are required in order to use this system. In developing the system for use with adults, however, refinements to the I₂ types may have to be considered. These will warrant a thorough understanding of who the I₂ inmate is (an assessment that we are reluctant to make with so few I₂ inmates) and the formation of assessment and treatment procedures. These developments may result in recommendation of more intense clinical attention to these rare but apparently troubled types.

We did not conduct a reliability assessment of the Jesness I-level types. Jesness and his colleagues have devoted considerable attention to reliability of the instrument; we relied upon their figures in the interests of efficiency. Nevertheless, because these populations differ considerably from those used in most of Jesness's research, further developments of this system should examine psychometric qualities.

As with the Conceptual level, tests of the construct validity of cognitive development measures were conducted for the system rather than for each type. The Jesness Inventory I-level

measures converged strongly with other developmental constructs. This finding is important for this actuarial measure in particular: cognitive development, as a measure of social cognition that taps thought patterns and worldviews, is typically obtained through observation of those thought processes. Such observation usually involves administering open-ended questions for either verbal or written responses. Simply stated, we must observe thought processes to classify thought processes; several authorities have expressed skepticism about the possibility of classifying cognitive development through a series of objective questions requiring yes or no answers. Thus, it is notable that these objective paper-and-pencil tests formulated developmental measures that correlated with observational open-ended measures.

The profiles for the I-level personality types are shown in Table 5; I-level profiles are shown in Table 6.

-Table 5 about here-

-Table 6 about here-

I-level (Interview Method). When Marguerite Warren and her associates at the California Community Treatment Project designed the I-level assessment and treatment package, the promotion of intensive treatment-related interactions with offenders was a desired and a workable intent. Indeed, intake interviews are a commendable first step for treatment that endeavors to work with therapeutic relationships. Moreover, the notion of getting to

know a client and obtaining a psychological assessment that will guide the treatment of the client has sound foundations in mental health practice. Thus small treatment-intensive correctional facilities would be served well by the system, particularly if the assessment process could be refined. No other system provided interviewers with a richer understanding of the inmate than that afforded by the I-level interview, and the construct and predictive validity of the system was reasonably strong.

Even so, we would not recommend the use of this system in large, crowded facilities. Our experience with the I-level interview was time-consuming and expensive, and practitioners for large correctional facilities quite realistically, do not have the time that was afforded our research staff to formulate the I-level classifications.

Interrater reliability was 74% for level and 51% for subtype. These figures, particularly for subtype, are not strong, but they are in keeping with the reliability measures obtained in other research (see Harris, 1988). On the basis of our experience in using the system, we identified several sources of difficulty in arriving at a reliable assessment. Most important, the system needs greater standardization, particularly rules for breaking multiple classifications. Raters in our study, for example, often were able to recognize the same levels and subtypes in the subjects' statements but could not agree on a final classification when more than one type had been heard. The system also could benefit from an updated manual of prototypical

statements for each type and level.

In spite of the inefficiency and the difficulties with reliability, the system offered valuable predictions to disciplinary and adjustment-related behaviors. Type profiles are shown in Table 7 and the profiles for the two I-levels, I_4 and I_5 , are shown in Table 8.

-Table 7 about here-

-Table 8 about here-

VII. Research and Policy Implications

The policy and research implications put forward in this report emerge from the most important observation made throughout: There are compelling psychological differences among inmates with regard to their experiences of the prison environment. These differences influence most of the important aspects of prison life, including communication and interactions with others, participation in prison programs, stress, fear, and vulnerability, as well as the difficulties that these inmates pose for others. Most important, the differences can be identified systematically.

Although psychological classification of adult inmates for correctional treatment may seem to have no place in current policy deliberations, the two components -- treatment and

classification -- separately have made significant strides. Against a backdrop of pessimism and perhaps poor research (Petersilia (1991), a number of scholars have produced results from more recent treatment evaluation literature that successfully challenge the ineffectiveness argument (e.g., Garrett, 1985; Gendreau & Ross, 1987; Greenwood & Zimring, 1985; Hubbard et al., 1989; Van Voorhis, 1987). Further, despite restrictive funding agendas, public support for constructive treatment intervention with offenders is strong (see Cullen, Skovron, Scott, & Burton, 1990; Public Agenda Foundation, 1987). Finally, interest in classification has grown, as shown by the emergence of several reviews of the technology (e.g., Andrews, Bonta, & Hoge, 1990; Farrington & Tarling, 1985; Gottfredson & Tonry, 1987; Posey, 1988; Sechrest, 1987; Van Voorhis, 1991), by the ongoing development of new systems (e.g., Andrews, 1982; Megargee & Bohn, 1979; Quay, 1984), and by several court decisions that mandate classification.

Yet, an integration of these two trends, in the form of support for psychological classification as a tool for both treatment and management of adult correctional populations, is not an obvious policy direction. Indeed, much of the technology of predicting and classifying such populations has been committed to the development and implementation of risk assessment instruments (e.g., Baird, Heinz, & Bemus, 1979; Kane & Saylor, 1983; NIC, 1982). Presumably the popularity of risk assessment systems reflects the correctional priority of security concerns

and the assumption that such a system provides the optimal means of predicting and preventing dysfunctional behaviors. At the beginning of this research we offered a similar assumption: the psychological systems would correlate with their more proximate outcome measures, those which were related to treatment and prison adjustment rather than to prison infractions. Instead, we found that the psychological systems predicted both disciplinary infractions and prison adjustment or treatment-related problems.

This observation should help to dispel previously formulated, albeit neat, compartmentalizations of the classification technology into systems that speak to risk or management and systems that speak to treatment (see Farrington & Tarling, 1985; MacKenzie, Posey, & Rapaport, 1988; Van Voorhis, 1991). Differences probably have been overstated. Indeed, our results support Andrews's assertion that the two may be more interchangeable than assumed previously (Andrews et al., 1990).⁵

Although this study generally supports the viability of psychological classification, showing that the systems differentiate among inmates in important ways, it does not take us to the next step, that of identifying programmatic ways to incorporate the differences identified by the systems. The study clearly supports that step, however. That is, one of our clearest research and policy implications is in favor of differential treatment, or incorporating identified psychological differences into the ways in which agencies plan treatments and the ways in which staff members interact with inmates.

Unfortunately, as policy recommendations go, systematic differential treatment is far from innovative. Convincing consistency across studies has taught us that the success of given treatment modalities depends strongly upon the client's amenability to the treatment in question (Andrews et al. 1990; Gendreau & Ross, 1987; Palmer, 1978; Van Voorhis, 1987; Warren, 1971). The studies themselves found that important factors (e.g., personality and developmental characteristics, program conditions, supervisors' characteristics, treatment modality, or treatment environment and conditions) interact with psychological factors in ways that influence the success or failure of both clients and programs (for foundations see Andrews & Kiessling, 1980; Palmer, 1974; Warren, 1969). For the most part, however, this body of research is limited (a) to experimental efforts that seldom are adopted as systemwide correctional policy, and (b) to juveniles. Among adults, the notion of differential treatment guided by psychological typologies has received little attention.

From a policy and programmatic standpoint, the alternative is to treat all offenders as if they were alike. Innovative programs are administered to agencies or to categories of need, with no concern for psychological differences among clients. According to one supporter of the policy of differentiation, administrators, practitioners, and researchers routinely "mask the treatment effect" (Palmer, 1978); the success of clients assigned to treatments that match their individual needs and characteristics is likely to be canceled out by the failure of those who

were assigned to options which aggravated their individual problems.

As for the implications of the present study, future research should pose questions relevant to findings observed for specific types. What types of strategies might be used to confront anti-social values espoused by committed criminal types? Can these direct approaches be used with neurotic clients whose acting-out behaviors are triggered by confrontation or by direct reminders of personal difficulties? How can we help inmates such as situational types to make adjustments to prison environments? Do all inmates need similar assistance? Will interventions designed to deal with anxiety prompted by adjustment difficulties help those neurotic inmates whose anxiety is far more integral to their psychological make-up? Which inmates need help with issues of self-esteem and self-image? Who will benefit, who will be hurt, and who will exploit the various treatment options that have been proposed or will be proposed? The next steps in treatment policy research also should include tests of the differential effects of specific treatment strategies (e.g., cognitive or behavioral) and program conditions.

Most of the recent studies of differential practice have taken place in Canadian correctional systems (see Andrews et al., 1990). Indeed, none of the systems examined in this research have been evaluated among adults in the United States for their interactions with specific treatment modalities. We know only that assignment to living units on the basis of psychological

characteristics has been found to reduce infractions among adult male inmates (Austin et al., in press; Bohn, 1979, 1980; Levinson, 1988; Quay, 1984), but this finding appears to address management and custody considerations rather than broader treatment issues.

If a well-controlled evaluation study of differential treatment effects seems to be beyond the resources of most correctional agencies, a less costly but still valuable alternative issue concerns the effect of case managers' and counselors' awareness of psychological typologies on correctional outcomes. In such a situation, the only treatment effect being tested would be the treaters trained awareness of key psychological differences among clients.

In view of the current state of staffing for correctional treatment, the outcomes of such a study could be fairly dramatic. The typical adult correctional facility, for example, employs few full-time psychologists. Even those services are so heavily overwhelmed by crisis management that few resources are left for the treatment needs of inmates (Schrink, 1991). In addition, some observers have asserted that the field of "psychology has been at best neutral if not adverse to the notion of training clinical and social psychologists in the criminal justice area" (Andrews et al., 1990). Simply stated, case managers and counselors in most adult correctional facilities are not trained clinicians. In some systems, such positions are steps on a hierarchy from custodial to administrative careers. In most

systems, however, trained clinicians are neither affordable nor available to correctional facilities in adequate numbers (Braswell, Lester, & Van Voorhis, 1991). Therein lies a clear value of psychological classification systems: The systems may provide a valuable means of teaching nonclinically trained treatment staff members constructive ways of thinking about important personality and developmental differences among their clients.⁶

Another important program and treatment implication of this study concerns implementation, staff training, and organizational monitoring procedures. Our experience in administering these systems has caused us to look askance at any promises for easy implementation of any classification system, whether risk assessment or psychological. Unfortunately, many systems were developed and were touted as easy and efficient to administer. Although efficiency is important, it must be viewed in proper perspective.

Attention to a system's appropriateness to certain organizational characteristics is also important. For optimum effectiveness, facilities should plan to integrate classification clearly into the treatment and management functions of the facility. That is, classification must be linked to important case management decisions throughout the correctional term in order to receive proper attention from prison staff. This procedure may involve (for example) citation of classification measures in report preparation and team meetings. To do other-

wise invites the familiar situation in which assessments are filed and are not used.

Assessment and classification procedures themselves also must fit the organizational and environmental structure of a facility. Overcrowded situations, for example, which do not afford adequate observation opportunities, are not ideal settings in which to require staff members with high caseloads to complete behavioral observation forms, inmate by inmate. In addition, even easy systems generate more mistakes (e.g., Austin, 1986) and higher estimated overrides (Schneider, 1991) than one might expect. These potential problems perhaps are addressed most effectively by forming a classification unit with responsibility for training, retraining, and monitoring for accuracy, response bias, excessive use of overrides, and noncompliance. Such a unit also could check for reliability by conducting periodic empirical tests of the consistency of the classification assessments.

Finally, greater attention to the psychometric considerations must be considered vital to the prospects of using these systems in a sound manner. If we were using these tests and measurement procedures in another field, such as education, mental health, or medicine, we seldom would use an instrument that (a) had not been normed to our population, unless we chose, out of our own ignorance, to use an inappropriate assessment; (b) had not published adequate assurances regarding construct and predictive validity; and (c) had not published results of various reliability tests. We also would be entitled to expect that the

preliminary tests of the psychometric qualities of the systems had led to refinements, which in turn had improved the construct and predictive validity of the systems. With few exceptions, correctional diagnosis, assessment, and classification have not reached this point. For both risk and psychological systems, this problem is compounded by the fact that most systems were developed with government funds and remain "in the public domain." Thus no mechanism is available for preventing widespread misapplication of systems that still need refinement.

Our recommendations are not unlike those made by Wright et al. (1984) with regard to risk assessment measures, which typically are not validated to specific jurisdictions. Quite likely, failures to norm and validate instruments to specific types of populations contribute greatly to problems of overprediction and to setting inappropriate cutoff points for assignment to correctional options (Clear, 1988). Such mistakes place tremendous strains on existing resources.⁷

VIII. Implications for Correctional Research

A number of correctional and prediction scholars have warned that prediction is more than a function of sound independent (classification/predictor) measures. Criterion or dependent measures also are crucial to the prediction problem (Gottfredson, 1987). In response, a number of sources advocate multiple measures of outcome (see Farrington, 1987; Poole & Regoli, 1980). This study incorporates that suggestion. Even so, we were

surprised at the extent of the differences in results across criterion measures (e.g., self-report, official, and staff ratings). Most notably, if official measures of prison infractions had been our only criterion measure, they would have left us with a very misleading picture of the importance of psychological classification. Unfortunately, much of the literature on prison inmates limits analysis to official citations for disciplinary infractions (Light, 1990).

Regardless of the measure employed, interpretations of findings should reflect knowledge of the data source. Official record data (such as official crime arrest data, for example) reflect the biases or selective reporting and citation patterns. Official prison data specifically may reflect the discretionary decision-making practices of line-level correctional staff members. Thus measures can be marred by organizational pressures in favor of handling infractions informally, by administrative practices, by difficulty in detecting certain inmate behaviors, and by the staff members' own perceptions (Light, 1990). In any event, official prison record data tend to underestimate the prevalence of certain inmate behaviors and experiences (Poole & Regoli, 1980).

In Chapter 6 we speculated that in a number of situations our self-report data were affected by inmates' perceptions of attribution and by their differential concepts of acceptable and unacceptable behavior. Thus there may be instances where some individuals report more infractions because they are more

introspective than others about their own behavior. This point, of course, is more pertinent to minor than to serious infractions. Finally, although staff data generally are adequate to our research needs, the staff members showed a tendency to rate most inmates at the norm and to underrate behaviors that inmates might need to hide, such as anxiety. The former tendency, a reluctance to issue negative evaluations unless they are extremely negative, reflects (as some employees told us) heightened concern about inmates' litigation against staff members. The latter tendency is understandable in view of inmates' well-founded concerns about the types of behaviors that are likely to place them in a vulnerable position with respect to other inmates (see Bowker, 1980).

Our final observation concerns another direction for future research, which diverges somewhat from the applied focus of this study. We have placed this study in the context of serving as a test of the effects of practitioner-oriented psychological classification systems on behaviors relevant to prison management and treatment. In another sense, however, every test we conducted also assessed of the importance of personality and cognitive psychological constructs in the adjustment and prisonization of prison inmates; this notion also fits a less applied, more basic, and theoretical approach. That part of the research also was successful and should recommend a more differential focus to the prisonization literature. Unfortunately, however, with the exception of the work of Hans Toch (e.g., Toch, 1977;

Toch, Adams & Grant, 1989) such differential patterns of prisonization and prison adjustment are seldom put forward.

Psychological considerations, particularly those regarding personality, have been undervalued in recent years as a means of understanding criminal behavior and prison experiences. Early research on the role of personality in crime was equivocal, but even that literature suggested that personality differences among criminals were nevertheless substantial (Vold, 1980). One recent observer of this trend asserted that the "psychology of criminal conduct has been discounted for years within major sectors of mainstream criminology" (Andrews & Wormith, 1989). Instead of reflecting concern for variations among individuals research has focused on understanding aggregate crime rates, assessing the impact of structural inequality, and overstating the ineffectiveness of clinical interventions with individuals alone or in their family and peer groups. The result has served to destroy knowledge with the implication that an understanding of variation in individual traits has little bearing on much-needed understandings of offending behaviors. The findings presented in this research appear to support the assertions put forward by Andrews and Wormith.

Notes

1. Most notably, the Federal Bureau of Prisons has implemented Quay's Adult Internal Management System (AIMS; Quay, 1984) in some federal facilities and Megargee's MMPI-Based Criminal Classification System (Megargee & Bohn, 1979) in others. State systems, including facilities in South Carolina, Washington, and Wisconsin, also have used both of these systems or a similar system, Prisoner Management Classification (PMC) (see Austin, Holien, Chan, & Baird, in press; Levinson, 1988; Zager, 1988).
2. Several comprehensive reviews and discussions of classification and prediction technology have been published. Most notably, Gottfredson and Tonry (1987) compiled a series of papers that span a broad array of methodological and policy issues. In addition, a 1988 edition of Criminal Justice and Behavior presents overviews of major systems of psychological classification of correctional populations.
3. This point refers to an emerging concern about litigation against staff members brought by inmates who disagree with negative ratings or unfavorable classifications. This concern has the potential to affect classification practices and other forms of institutional record-keeping.
4. This conclusion is emerging from other studies of classification instruments designed to be administered quickly. Risk assessment instruments, for example, are observed to evidence surprisingly high error rates and a substantial number of estimated overrides (Schneider, 1990). A related concern is whether the instruments require enough thought from practitioners to receive the attention they need in order to be completed validly (VanVoorhis, 1990).
5. In fact, in another analysis of these data, we compared one of the psychological predictors to traditional institutional risk measures on outcome measures such as official disciplinary rates, self-reported prison infractions, and staff ratings of aggression and inmates' needs for supervision. Depending upon the criterion measure, we found that the psychological measure (in this case the Jesness Inventory I-level), accounted for as much variation as the risk measure, and sometimes more (Van Voorhis, 1990). Comparisons similar to this will be addressed in future analyses of these data.

6. Throughout the course of this research, several psychologists questioned whether the systems were "rich enough" to provide them with the information needed to treat problem clients. From the standpoint of a clinician, particularly one who is trained in the use of a variety of assessment and clinical techniques, this question is probably important. It is less relevant, however, when we consider the users and the purposes of these systems. Indeed, the systems make more sense for nonclinically trained treatment personnel and for decisionmaking for large numbers.

7. Our critique here is relevant to Quay AIMS system, which has been studied among several inmate populations but has not received the necessary additional attention and development in recent years, and to both of the I-level systems and the Conceptual Level, which only now are being applied to adults. The Megargee MMPI system is currently being revised to examine the applicability of the MMPI-2. The validation research for this revision is being conducted in several inmate populations, including a sample of female inmates. All systems could benefit from more centralized reporting of psychometric values for adult populations, as well as from more careful attention to administrative procedures.

References

- Andrews, D. (1982). The Level of Supervision Inventory (LSI). Toronto: Ontario Ministry of Correctional Services.
- Andrews, D., Bonta, J., & Hoge, R. (1990). Classification for effective rehabilitation: Rediscovering psychology. Criminal Justice and Behavior, 17(1), 19-52.
- Andrews, D. & Kiessling, J. (1980). Program structure and effective correctional practices: A summary of CaVIC research. In R. Ross & P. Gendreau (Eds.), Effective correctional treatment. (pp. 441-463). Toronto: Butterworth.
- Andrews, D. & Wormith, J. (1989). Personality and crime: Knowledge destruction and construction in criminology. Justice Quarterly, 6(3), 289-310.
- Austin, J. (1986). Evaluating how well your classification system is operating: A practical approach. Crime and Delinquency, 32(3), 302-322.
- Austin, J., Holien, D., Chan, L., & Baird, C. (forthcoming). Reducing prison violence by more effective inmate management: An experimental field test of the Prisoner Management Classification (PMC). Washington, DC: Department of Justice.
- Baird, S., Heinz, R., & Bemus, B. (1979). Project Report 14: A two-year follow-up. Milwaukee, WI: Department of Health and Social Services.
- Bohn, M. (1979). Classification of offenders in an institution for young adults. FCI Research Reports, 9, 1-31.
- _____. (1980). Inmate classification and the reduction of institution violence. Corrections Today, 42(4), 8ff.
- Bonta, J., & Motiuk, L. (1985). Utilization of an interview-based classification instrument: A study of correctional halfway houses. Criminal Justice and Behavior, 12(3), 333-352.
- Bowker, L. (1980). Prison victimization. New York: Elsevier.
- Braswell, M., Lester, D., & Van Voorhis, P. (1991). Correctional counseling. Cincinnati: Anderson.
- Bureau of Justice Statistics. (1985). Prisoners in 1984, U.S. Washington, DC: Department of Justice.
- Clear, T. (1988). Statistical prediction in corrections. Research in Corrections, 1(1): 1-39.

- Clements, C. (1981). The future of offender classification: Some cautions and prospects. Criminal Justice and Behavior, 8(1), 15-35.
- Cohen, F. (1985). Legal issues and the mentally disordered inmate, In United States Department of Justice, Sourcebook on the mentally disordered prisoner, Part 2, pp. 14-30, Washington, DC: Department of Justice.
- Cullen, F., Skovron, S., Scott, J. & Burton, V. (1990). Public support for correctional treatment: The tenacity of rehabilitative ideology. Criminal Justice and Behavior, 17(1), 6-18.
- Farrington, D. (1987). Predicting individual crime rates. In D. Gottfredson & M. Tonry (Eds.), Prediction and classification: Criminal justice decision-making. (pp. 53-101). Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Farrington, D., & Tarling, R. (1985). Prediction in criminology. Albany: State University of New York Press.
- Garrett, C. (1985). Effects of residential treatment on adjudicated delinquents: A meta-analysis. Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency, 22(4), 287-308.
- Gendreau, P. & Ross, R. (1987). Revivification of rehabilitation: Evidence from the 1980s. Justice Quarterly, 4(3), 349-407.
- Gibbons, D. (1975). Offender typologies--two decades later. British Journal of Criminology, 15(2), 140-156.
- Gottfredson, S. (1987). Prediction: An overview of selected methodological issues. In D. Gottfredson & M. Tonry (Eds.), Prediction and classification: Criminal justice decision-making. (pp. 21-51). Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Gottfredson, D., & Tonry, M. (1987). Prediction and classification: Criminal justice decision-making. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Gottfredson, D., Wilkins, L., & Hoffman, P. (1978). Guidelines for parole and sentencing. Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.
- Greenwood, P., & Zimring, F. (1985). One more chance: The pursuit of promising strategies for chronic juvenile offenders. Santa Monica: Rand Corporation.

- Harris, P. (1988). The Interpersonal Maturity Level Classification System: I-level, Criminal Justice and Behavior, 15(1), 58-77.
- Harvey, O., Hunt, D. & Schroder, H. (1961). Conceptual systems and personality organization. New York: John Wiley.
- Hoffman, P. & Beck, J. (1985). Recidivism among released federal prisoners: Salient Factor Score and five-year follow-up. Criminal Justice and Behavior, 12(4), 501-507.
- Hoffman, P., & Stone-Meierhoefer, B. (1979). Post release arrest experiences of federal prisoners. Journal of Criminal Justice, 7(3), 193-216.
- Hubbard, R., Marden, M., Rachal, J., Harwood, H., Cavanaugh, E. & Ginzburg, H. (1989). Drug abuse treatment: A national study of effectiveness. Chapel Hill: The University of North Carolina Press.
- Hunt, D., Butler, L., Noy, J., & Rosser, M. (1978). Assessing Conceptual Level by the Paragraph Completion Method. Toronto: Ontario's Institute for Studies in Education.
- Irwin, J. (1980). Prisons in turmoil. Toronto: Little, Brown.
- Jemelka, R., Trupin, E., & Chiles, J. (1989). The mentally ill in prisons: A review. Hospital and Community Psychiatry, 40(4), 481-491.
- Jesness, C. (1981). Jesness Inventory Classification System. Criminal Justice and Behavior, 15(1), 78-91.
- Jesness, C., & Wedge, R. (1983). Classifying offenders: The Jesness Inventory Classification System. Sacramento: California Youth Authority.
- Kane, T., & Saylor, W. (1983). Security Designation/Custody Classification of Inmates. Unpublished manuscript. Washington, DC: Department of Justice.
- Kohlberg, L., Colby, A., Gibbs, J., Speicher-Dubin, B. & Candee, D. (1978). Standard form scoring manual. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.
- Laaman v. Helgemoe, 347 F. Supp 269,275 (1977).
- Levinson, R. (1982). A clarification of classification. Criminal Justice and Behavior, 9(2), 133-142.
- _____. (1988). Development in the classification process. Criminal Justice and Behavior, 15(1), 24-38.

- Light, S. (1990). Measurement error in official statistics: Prison rule infraction data. Federal Probation, 54(4), 63-68.
- MacKenzie, D., Posey C., & Rapaport, K. (1988). A theoretical revolution in corrections: Varied purposes for classification. Criminal Justice and Behavior, 15(1), 125-136.
- McCarthy, B. (1985). Mentally ill and mentally retarded offenders in corrections, In the United States Department of Justice, Sourcebook on the mentally disordered prisoner, Part 2, (pp 14-30). Washington, DC: Department of Justice.
- Megargee, E. (1972). Standardized reports of work performance and inmate adjustment for use in correctional settings. Correctional Psychologist, 5: 48-54.
- Megargee, E., & Bohn, M. (1979). Classifying criminal offenders: A new system based on the MMPI. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.
- National Institute of Corrections (NIC) (1982). Classification: Principles, models, and guidelines. Washington, DC: Department of Justice.
- Palmagiano v. Garrahy, 443 F. Supp 956 (1977).
- Palmer, T. (1974). The Youth Authority's Community Treatment Project. Federal Probation, 38(1), 3-13.
- _____ (1978). Correctional intervention and research: Current issues and future prospects. Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.
- Petersilia, J. (1991). The value of corrections research: Learning what works. Federal Probation, 55(2): 24-26.
- Poole, E. & Regoli, R. (1980). Race, institutional rule breaking and disciplinary response: A study of discretionary decision-making in prison. Law and Society Review, 14(4), 931-946.
- Posey, C. (1988). Introduction. Criminal Justice and Behavior, 15(1), 5-7.
- Public Agenda Foundation (1987). Crime and punishment: The public's view. New York: Edna McConnell Clark Foundation.
- Pugh v. Locke, 406 F. Supp 318 (1977).
- Quay, H. (1983). Technical manual for the Behavioral Classifications System for Adult Offenders. Washington, DC: Department of Justice.

- Quay, H. (1984). Managing adult inmates: Classification for housing and program assignments. College Park, MD: American Correctional Association.
- Quay, H. & Parsons, L. (1972). The differential behavioral classification of the juvenile offender. Washington, DC: Department of Justice.
- Reitsma-Street, M. & Leschied, A. (1988). The Conceptual Matching Model in corrections. Criminal Justice and Behavior, 15(1), 92-108.
- Rest, J. (1976). New approaches in the assessment of moral development., In T. Lickona (Ed.), Moral development and behavior: Theory, research, and social issues. (pp. 198-218). New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston.
- Schnieder, A. (1990, April). Report to the NIJ grantees' meeting Offender Classification and Prediction of Criminal Behavior Program, Tempe, AZ.
- Schrink, J. (1991). Understanding the correctional counselor. In M. Braswell, D. Lester, & P. Van Voorhis, P. (Eds.) Correctional counseling. Cincinnati, Anderson.
- Sechrest, L. (1987) Classification for treatment. In D. Gottfredson & M. Tonry (Eds.), Prediction and classification: Criminal justice decision-making. (pp. 293-322). Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Sullivan, C. Grant, M.Q., & Grant, D. (1957). The development of Interpersonal Maturity: An application to delinquency. Psychiatry, 20, 373-386.
- Toch, H. (1977). Living in Prison. New York: Free Press.
- Toch, H., Adams, K., & Grant, D. (1989). Coping: Maladaptation in prisons. New Brunswick: Transaction.
- Van Voorhis, P. (1987). Correctional effectiveness: The high cost of ignoring success. Federal Probation, 51(1), 56-62.
- _____ (1988). A cross classification of five offender typologies: Issues of construct and predictive validity. Criminal Justice and Behavior, 15(1), 24-38.
- _____ (1990). A comparison of five psychological classification systems among adult, male, prison inmates. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Society of Criminology, Cincinnati.

- Van Voorhis, P. (1991). Offender classification as a tool for effective treatment, decision-making, and supervision. In M. Braswell, D. Lester, & P. Van Voorhis. (Eds.), Correctional counseling. Cincinnati, Anderson.
- Vold, G. (1980). Theoretical Criminology (2nd ed.). New York: Oxford University Press.
- Warren, M.Q. (1969). The case for differential treatment of delinquents. Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, 381(1), 47-59.
- Warren, M.Q. (1971). Classification of offenders as an aid to efficient management and effective treatment. Journal of Criminal Law, Criminology and Police Science, 62(1), 239-268.
- _____ (1983). Applications of Interpersonal Maturity Theory to offender populations. In W.S. Laufer & J. M. Day (Eds.), Personality Theory, Moral Development, and Criminal Behavior. (pp. 23-50). Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.
- _____ & the staff of the Community Treatment Project (1966). Interpersonal Maturity Level classification: Diagnosis and treatment of low, middle, and high maturity delinquents. Sacramento: California Youth Authority.
- Wright, K., Clear, T., & Dickson, P. (1984). Universal application of probation risk-assessment instruments: A critique. Criminology, 22(1), 113-134.
- Zager, L. (1988). MMPI-based criminal classification system: A review, current status, and future directions. Criminal Justice and Behavior, 15(1), 39-57.

Appendix A

Descriptions of the

Five Classification Systems

I. Interpersonal Maturity (I-level)

I-level (Warren et al., 1966) is a classification system and treatment model which focuses on the ways in which people view themselves and others as well as the ways in which they interact with others. The classification scheme consists of five levels which characterize individuals on a cognitive developmental scheme pertaining to self and interpersonal perspective. This system began with the theoretical work of Sullivan, Grant & Grant (1957) and developed into a classification system for use with juvenile offenders in the California Youth Authority during the 1960's and 1970's (Warren et al., 1966, Warren, 1983). In addition to the five levels, the offender classification system also has personality subtypes within three of the levels.

The levels of interpersonal development range from the least mature stage of the newborn infant to an ideal stage of interpersonal maturity which is seldom reached in our culture. A description of the social frame of reference which characterizes each level shows how individual perceptions of and reactions to others and the environment change with the development of the personality. Warren refers to the frame of reference embodied in each level as a "relatively consistent set of expectations and attitudes, a kind of interpreting and working philosophy of life." This, way of making sense of one's environment, then, is relatively consistent across situations until the individual matures into the next level, where a new frame of reference is integrated with previous experiences and perspectives.

Although seven levels have been set forth in the theoretical work of Sullivan, Grant & Grant (1957), only four levels have applicability to delinquent and offender populations. Harris's (1988) abbreviated description of levels 2 (I_2), 3 (I_3), 4 (I_4), and 5 (I_5) follows. More detailed accounts are available in Marguerite Q. Warren's writings (1969, 1971, 1983).

I_2 is a stage typical of very young children. Major concerns center on differentiating persons from objects. Other persons are viewed solely as sources of gratification (e.g., as "givers" and "takers", evidencing no understanding of or ability to predict or influence the behavior of others).

Appendix A, I-level, continued.

I₃ youths have learned that they have power; Their behaviors affect the responses they receive from others. Much of their activity centers around learning how power is structured. They tend to apply stereotyped rules and simple formulas when interacting with others.

I₄ youths operate from a set of internalized values. They are aware of feelings and motives in themselves and in others and the relevance of these motive and feelings to communication and relationships with others. They tend to be rigid in their application of rules and to be concerned with their own uniqueness.

I₅ individuals are considerably less rigid in their application of rules than are (persons) at Stage 4; they tend to see grey areas in situations and are tolerant of viewpoints different from their own. Role conflict is a major concern of such (persons). The most distinguishing characteristic of this stage is empathy-the capacity to experience the world from the perspective of another person.

The I-level system offers a subtype diagnosis in addition to the I-level classification. The subtypes are neither theoretically derived nor developmental but rather empirically identified personality-based subtypes of the four levels described above. They might also be termed the personality-based adaptations found to be evidenced at each of these levels. Harris's (1988) descriptions are as follows:

I₂: Asocial Passive: Responds to unmet demand by withdrawing, whining, or complaining.

Asocial Aggressive: Responds to unmet needs with open aggression.

I₃: Immature Conformist: conforms to whomever has the power at the moment and sees self as less powerful than others.

Cultural Conformist: Conforms exclusively to a specific group of peers.

Manipulator: Counteractive to any source of power, adult or peer. Extremely distrustful of others.

I₄ & I₅: Neurotic Acting-Out: Internally conflicted due to negative self-image. Responds to internal conflict by putting up a facade of superadequacy and maintaining a high level of activity. Attempts to keep others at a distance through distracting behavior or

Appendix A, I-level, continued.

verbal attack, even though he or she may be very sociable.

Neurotic Anxious: Also internally conflicted due to a negative self-image. Responds to internal conflict with guilt, anxiety, or depression. Tends to be introspective and frequently attempts to engage others in gaining self-understanding. Self-analysis is not genuine; it is an attempt to reduce anxiety while preserving both positive and negative parts of self-identity.

Cultural Identifier: As part of his or her socialization process, certain values were internalized that permit a range of delinquent acts.

Situational-emotional Reaction: Responds to a current crises, situation, or an emotional change that is recent in origin.

II. The Jesness Inventory (I-level) System

The Jesness Inventory Classification System (Jesness & Wedge, 1983) might be described as a combination of the heuristic and the empirical methods because it has been portrayed as an actuarial method of assessing I-level. It is a paper-and-pencil test developed for use with delinquents, but more recent research has produced adult norms (Jesness, 1988). The Jesness Inventory yields scores on 11 trait scales (e.g., social maladjustment, manifest aggression) and nine scales that correspond to the I-level subtype scales. Although the designer of this test claims to offer a more efficient and less costly method of assessing I-level (Jesness, 1988), it is not clear that the Jesness I-level subtype definitions are entirely comparable to the interview subtype definitions, especially for adults. For one reason, the Jesness I-level diagnosis does not incorporate the I₅ type. Jesness' type descriptions, below identify similar but not identical traits (Jesness, 1988):

I₂ Aa (Asocial Aggressive): From deprived background; negative attitudes toward authority, family, and school; unpredictable, nonconforming, aggressive, and obtrusive behavior; delinquent orientation; and high self-reported delinquency.

I₂ Ap (Asocial Passive): From deprived home background; negative attitudes toward family and school; low verbal aptitude, nonconforming, inappropriate behavior; poor peer relations; and negative self-concept.

Appendix A, Jesness Inventory I-level, continued.

I₃ Cfm (Immature Conformist): Positive attitudes toward home, school, and authority; conforming behavior; often dependent (follower); positive, uncritical self-concept, and low self-reported delinquency.

I₃ Cfc (Cultural Conformist): From deprived background; low motivation, poor achievement, and negative attitudes toward school; alienated, distrustful, and hostile toward adults and authority; delinquently oriented friends; delinquent self concept; and high self-reported delinquency.

I₃ Mp (Manipulator): Generally positive attitudes toward school; positive self-concept; manipulative, sometimes intrusive behavior; and inconsistency between self-evaluations and objective measures (e.g., official versus self-reported delinquency).

I₄ Na (Neurotic Acting-Out): Above average verbal aptitude; behavior problems in school; negative attitudes toward authority; family conflicts; self-presentation as adequate and independent, but somewhat cynical and disenchanted; often provocative, outspoken, and non-conforming; and high self-reported delinquency.

I₄ Nx (Neurotic Anxious): Mostly positive attitudes toward school; conforming; somewhat perturbable, dependent, anxious, and insecure; nondelinquent orientation; family and interpersonal conflicts; and low official delinquency.

I₄ Se (Situational): Above average socioeconomic background; positive attitudes toward school and family; positive nondelinquent self-concept; confident; naive; conforming; good interpersonal relationships; and low self-reported and official delinquency.

I₄ Ci (Cultural Identifier): High verbal aptitude; highly motivated for school; positive attitudes toward authority, school, parents, and self; confident; good inter-personal relationships; nondelinquent orientation; and low self-reported and official delinquency.

III. Conceptual Level

This system builds upon Conceptual Systems Theory (Harvey, Hunt, & Schroder, 1961) which was first put forth as a general theory of personality development. The theory positions indivi-

Appendix A, Conceptual Level, continued.

duals on a developmental hierarchy of increasing conceptual complexity, social maturity, self-responsibility and independence. Conceptual development progresses through a maximum of four conceptual levels. Descriptions of the scores assigned to responses to the Paragraph Completion Method (Hunt et al., 1978) are as follows:

Score 0: This individual is self-centered and unconcerned with the thoughts and needs of others. When the person fails to achieve his or her wants he or she reacts either in an unsocialized, hostile, and impulsive manner, or in a passive pattern of withdrawal.

Score 1: This individual is concerned with social acceptance. He or she applies stereotypes, formulas, and dichotomous thinking to decision-making. Decisions and evaluations are typically predicated upon concerns for social acceptance and the expectations of authority figures.

Score 2: Independence is a primary concern. The individual diagnosed at this score considers alternatives, and other viewpoints, but focuses on an independent resolution. He or she reveals some tolerance for ambiguity and diverse opinions.

Score 3: Like the Score 2 individual, this person is open to a variety of viewpoints. The decision-making of this individual, however, shows a greater ability to compromise and to integrate the view-points of others. They are secure in their independence but do not compromise values to please others. They are willing to accept full responsibility for the consequences of their behavior.

Scores for the responses to the sentence stems of the PCM are averaged. While CL is viewed as a continuum, applications of the system require the formulations of types. The types developed for use with delinquents are: (a) Stage A, a person who is characteristically egocentric and cognitively concrete; (b) Stage B, the individual who shows an intermediate degree of cognitive complexity and norm orientation; and (c) Stage C, one who is interpersonally mature and cognitively complex (Reitsma-Street & Leschied, 1988).

Appendix A, continued.

IV. Megargee's MMPI-Based Typology

The Megargee MMPI-Based typology (Megargee & Bohn, 1979) was developed for use with youthful and adult offenders. As the title implies, the classifications are obtained from results of the MMPI (Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory) one of the most widely used psychodiagnostic instruments in the field of mental health. The classification system was developed by Edwin Megargee by separating MMPI profiles into ten categories on the bases of profile configurations, slopes, shapes, and elevations. The scoring rules for doing this are available in a book titled Classifying Criminal Offenders (Megargee & Bohn, 1979). Computer scoring programs and scoring services are also available. Most agencies can classify roughly 67 percent of the profiles by computer. The remaining 33 percent of the cases must be classified clinically in order to break tied diagnoses and assign diagnoses to profiles that the computer designates as "unclassified" (Zager, 1988).

The ten types are described below along with a brief description of the MMPI profile associated with the type. Megargee gave each type a non-descript name (e.g., Able, Baker, Charlie, etc.) in order to allow an empirical process of identifying the behavioral characteristics of each type, thereby discouraging any biasing effects from preconceived labels. Zager's (1988) description of each of the types, in order from least to most disturbed, follows:

Item: The MMPI profile lacks elevation with scales generally under 70. "Items" are described as a generally stable, well-adjusted group with minimal problems or conflicts with authorities.

Easy: The profile has low elevations with the top scale below 80 and often below 70. Scales that often are elevated are 4 and 3 and the profile slopes down to the right. Easys are described as bright, stable, with good adjustment, personal resources, and interpersonal relationships. Many are underachievers.

Baker: The profile has moderate elevations, with typical elevations on scales 4 and 2 and sloping down to the right. Bakers are described as inadequate, anxious, constricted, and dogmatic, with a tendency to abuse alcohol.

Able: The profile has moderate elevations, typically on scales 4 and 9. Ables are described as charming, impulsive, and manipulative. They are achievement-

Appendix A, Megargee MMPI-Based Typology, continued.

oriented and often adjust well to incarceration.

George: The profile has moderate evaluations similar to Baker but scales 1, 2, and 3 are more elevated. Georges are described as hardworking, submissive, and anxious, with learned criminal values. They often take advantage of educational and vocational programs.

Delta: The profile has moderate to high elevation on scale 4, with other scales below 70. Deltas are described as amoral, hedonistic, egocentric, manipulative, and bright. They are impulsive sensation seekers who have poor relations with peers and authorities.

Jupiter: The profile has moderate to high elevations sloping up to the right with elevations typically on scales 8, 9, and 7. Jupiters are described as over-coming deprived backgrounds to do better than expected in prison and upon release.

Foxtrot: The profile has high elevations with the top scale over 80 and others over 70. It slopes up to the right with scales 8, 9, and 4, the top three scales. foxtrots are described as tough, streetwise, cynical and antisocial. They have deficits in most areas, extensive criminal histories and poor prison adjustment.

Charlie: The profile has high elevations with the highest scale above 80 and several scales above 70, typically peaking on scales 8, 6, 4, and sloping to the right. Charlies are described as hostile, misanthropic, alienated, aggressive, and antisocial. They have extensive histories of poor adjustment, criminal convictions, and mixed substance abuse.

How: The profile has very high elevations with at least three scales above a T-score of 70, and is characterized by multiple elevations rather than individual scale elevations. Hows are described as unstable, agitated, and disturbed, mental health cases. They have extensive needs and function ineffectively in major areas.

Appendix A, continued.

V. Quay's Adult Inmate Management System (AIMS)

This is the only one of the four systems which does not require an inmate's written or verbal response. Two objective instruments are used: one is completed by a correctional staff person who has knowledge of the inmate's behavior; and the other is completed by a staff member upon examining the inmates background reports and interviewing him. Scores on five dimensions result: Asocial Aggressive, Immature Dependent, Manipulative, Neurotic Anxious, and Situational (Quay, 1983; 1984). Research using this system has taken place primarily among adult male inmates. The characteristics of each type are as follows. (Descriptions are taken from items found on the behavioral checklists.)

Asocial Aggressive: Gets along with "hoods", uses leisure time to cause trouble, frequent use of profane language, cannot be trusted, victimizes weaker inmates, impulsive, unpredictable, seeks excitement, talks aggressively, blameless, quick-tempered, holds grudges, seeks to get even, tries to form cliques, openly defies rules and regulations, stirs up trouble among inmates, aids or abets in breaking rules, uncontrollable as a child, antisocial values supporting criminal behavior, irregular work history, tough, defiant, physically aggressive, guiltless, braggart, lack of concern for others.

Immature-Dependent: Tries but can't follow directions, socially withdrawn, takes little pleasure in anything, sluggish, drowsy, moody, brooding, seems dull and unintelligent, never seems happy, passive, easily led, daydreams, seems mentally off in space, inattentive, reluctant to participate, has few, if any friends, easily led, difficulty managing everyday problems in living, depressed.

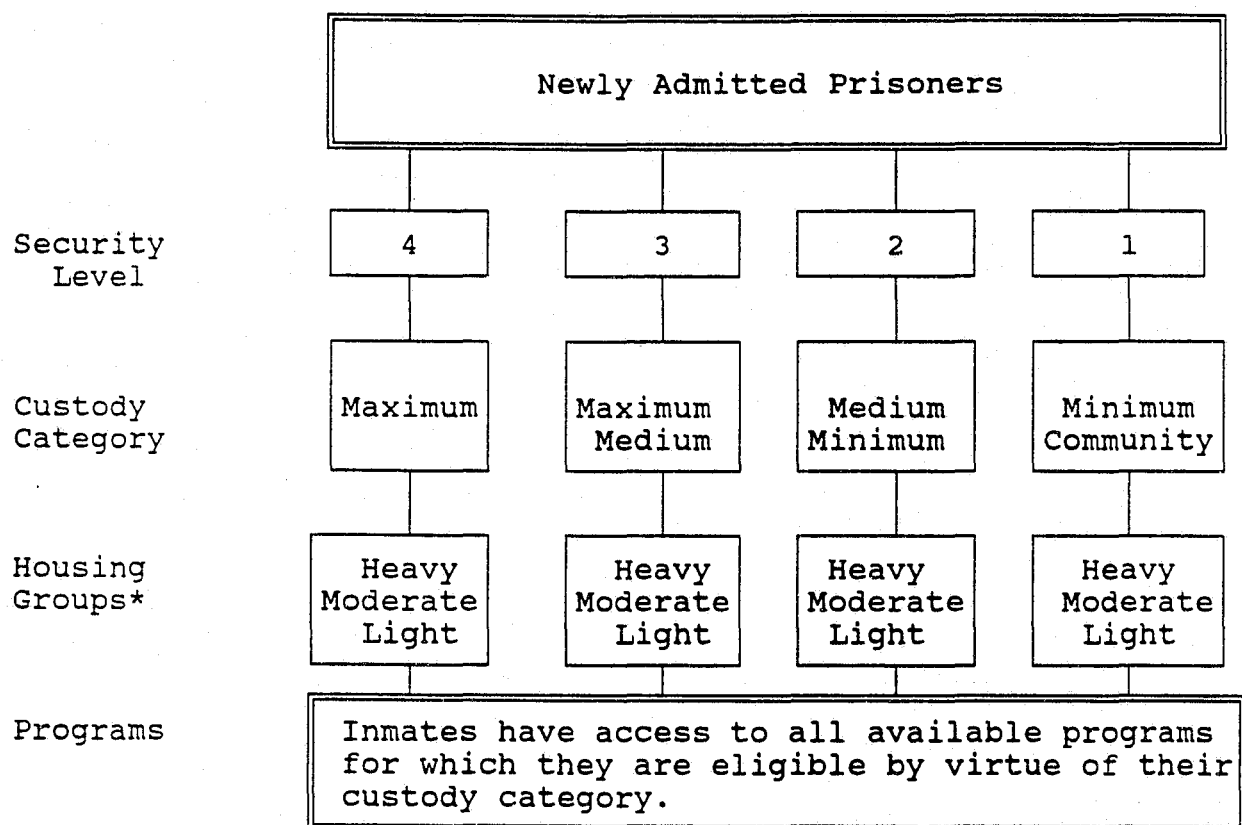
Situational: Has expressed guilt, expresses a need to improve, supported wife and children, claims offense was motivated by family problems, single marriage, suffered financial reverses.

Manipulative: Continually tries to con staff, doesn't trust staff, complains of unfairness, feels unjustly confined, plays one staff member against another.

Appendix A, Quay AIMS, continued.

Neurotic Anxious: Worried anxious, tense unable to relax, continually asks for help, seems afraid, easily upset, afraid of other inmates, often sad and depressed.

Figure 1
Classification Flow Chart and Continuum



Source: Levinson, 1988.

* Point of internal classification.

Table 1
Frequency and Percent Distribution of Classification Types

Typology	<u>Penitentiary</u>		<u>Prison Camp</u>	
	N	Percent ^a	N	Percent ^a
<u>Jesness Inventory I-level</u>				
I2-Aa	5	3	2	1
I2-Ap	3	2	5	3
I3-Cfm	20	13	28	16
I3-Mp	32	21	37	21
I3-Cfc	43	24	33	19
I4-Se	21	14	29	17
I4-Na	19	12	17	10
I4-Nx	7	5	16	9
I4-Ci	3	2	6	3
	153	100	173	100
<u>I-level (Interview Method)</u>				
I4-Na	38	22	48	26
I4-Nx	30	17	19	10
I4-Se	16	9	36	19
I4-Ci	17	10	21	11
I4-N	2	1	0	0
I5-Na	18	10	11	6
I5-Nx	23	13	24	13
I5-Se	11	6	26	14
I5-Ci	21	12	2	1
I5-N	1	1	1	1
	177	100	188	100
<u>Conceptual Level-CL3</u>				
.5-.9	10	7	5	3
1.0-1.4	81	54	72	41
1.5-1.9	48	32	74	42
2.0 +	11	7	25	14
	150	100	176	100
<u>Conceptual Level-CL5</u>				
.5-.9	27	18	17	10
1.0-1.4	94	62	88	50
1.5-1.9	25	17	59	34
2.0 +	4	3	11	6
	150	100	175	100

(continued)

Table 1, continued.

Typology	<u>Penitentiary</u>		<u>Prison Camp</u>	
	N	Percent ^a	N	Percent ^a
<u>Quay AIMS</u>				
Asocial Aggressive	21	14	9	7
Immature Dependent	10	7	6	5
Neurotic Anxious	23	15	3	3
Manipulator	42	28	22	18
Situational	<u>54</u>	<u>36</u>	<u>82</u>	<u>67</u>
	150	100	122	100
<u>Megargee MMPI-Based System</u>				
Able	32	20	27	16
Baker	6	4	6	4
Charlie	13	8	7	4
Delta	23	13	8	5
Easy	11	7	17	10
Foxtrot	11	7	4	2
George	14	8	18	10
How	23	14	16	9
Item	27	16	65	38
Jupiter	<u>5</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>2</u>
	164	100	171	100

^aPercentages may not sum to 100 because of rounding.

Table 2
Profiles of Quay AIMS Types

Asocial Aggressive

Penitentiary

Construct validity was supported by convergent correlations with other committed criminal types. Asocial aggressives self-reported more aggressive behaviors than other inmates. They were rated by staff as (a) more aggressive than other inmates, (b) having difficulties in their relationships with other inmates, (c) needing supervision, and (d) as having poor emotional control. Raters considered their interviews as more likely to show institutionalized traits than the interviews of others, except Immature Dependent inmates. Staff rated them as having poor emotional control. Self-report measures reflected relatively high levels of participation in programs.

Prison Camp

As with the penitentiary inmates, this type correlated with other types defined as committed criminals on other systems. Asocial aggressives were rare in this minimum-security setting and were more likely to be identified by other systems than by staff observation. Nevertheless, minimum-security Asocial Aggressive inmates, along with Manipulative, and Immature Dependent inmates, were more likely than others to receive citations for insubordination. As a group, staff tended to rate them as (a) having difficulties in their relationships with other inmates, (b) uncooperative, (c) needing supervision, (d) immature, and (e) having poor emotional control. Many of these findings are similar to those observed for the penitentiary inmates; we did not observe correlates with measures of aggression, however.

Immature Dependent

Penitentiary

This type was not validated by consistent convergent correlations with other immature types. Moreover, the Immature Dependent type tended to correlate with high-anxiety and disturbed types on other systems. Either this type appears to be rare and difficult to establish empirically among adult, male inmate or its validity is questionable. Nevertheless, unstable correlates identified these inmates as more likely than others to become involved in drug and alcohol infractions. Staff rated them as having difficulties in their relationships with other men and likely to follow a crowd. Their self-report and interviews found them more likely than others to (a) be institutionalized, (b) have few friends, (c) evidence high stress, (d) participate in programs, and (e) need social stimulation. Again, these conclusions are tentative because cell sizes were small.

(continued)

Table 2. continued.

Prison Camp

Only 6 inmates were classified Immature Dependent in the Prison Camp. Somewhat unstable construct validity tests suggest conclusions similar to those reported for the penitentiary. Immature dependent measures correlated positively with official measures of insubordination and with staff reports of poor emotional control and difficulties in responding to supervision. Unlike Immature Dependent types in the penitentiary, these inmates evidenced limited levels of program participation. They also showed a limited need for institutional programmatic support.

Neurotic Anxious

Penitentiary

This type converged with other neurotic measures, both neurotic anxious and neurotic acting-out. The fact that the Na measure also correlated with Megargee Able and I, Ci suggests character-disordered dimensions. Neurotic anxious inmates self-reported more aggressive tendencies, a finding that may reflect greater levels of anger among these inmates (particularly when we consider the lack of relationship to any of the official or staff measures of aggression). Staff rated these inmates as needing more intense supervision than inmates diagnosed as Situational or Immature Dependent. Staff measures for the group also evidenced problems with immaturity, emotional control, and some tendencies to "follow the crowd." Their interviews showed a need for programmatic support, and surveys taken later in their prison terms showed that they participated in programs more than some of the other groups. Surveys also showed that these inmates formed few friendships with other inmates.

Prison Camp

Findings that conflict strongly with the penitentiary data may be attributable to the instability of the tests. Surprisingly, only three prison camp inmates were classified Neurotic Anxious. On construct validity tests, the type converged with only one other neurotic anxious measure (I,Nx), but correlated with Megargee's How and Jesness's Cfm, suggesting a somewhat troubled group of inmates. Few additional correlations were observed, except that the prison camp inmates, along with the immature dependent group, showed a limited need for programmatic support and limited participation in programs. These findings must be viewed with caution.

(continued)

Table 2. continued

Manipulative

Penitentiary

This type failed to converge with any manipulative types on the other systems. At the same time, its correlation with How. Jesness Ci. and I,Ci makes interpretation difficult because these correlations show few patterns. Yet Manipulative inmates, as identified by this system, were more likely than others to be cited for insubordination. They were noted by staff as having difficult relationships with other men and as needing supervision. Their surveys suggested limited participation in programs and limited communication with staff.

Prison Camp

This measure converged with only one other manipulative measure, Megargee's Delta. Still, manipulative inmates evidenced relatively high rates of insubordination. Staff rated them as (a) having poor relationships with other men and with authority, (b) uncooperative, (c) needing more supervision, (d) responding relatively poorly to supervision, and (e) showing poor emotional control. Thus, although this type appears to have some behavioral problems in the prison setting, the personality dimensions represented by "manipulative" are unclear.

Situational

Penitentiary

The situational construct was one of the strongest in the study. Quay Situational converges with less mature situational types on other systems (e.g., I,Se), suggesting a naive inmate. Although they displayed no criminal value system, neurotic traits, or mental disturbance, these inmates had a difficult time during the period monitored by our study. Their self-reports indicated victimizing and threatening experiences, high stress, limited participation and communication with staff, and a need for programmatic support, but revealed a belief that others were willing to help. Interviews expressed a need for safety and privacy. At the same time, these inmates looked good to staff and tended, as a group, to receive the highest ratings. We anticipate that most difficulties stem from the Situationals' relatively limited prison experience. A longer follow-up period might have shown some improvement in their adjustment.

(continued)

Table 2. continued

Prison Camp

Results of tests of construct validity produced results similar to those found for the AIMS Situationals in the penitentiary, but these inmates had an easier time adjusting to the minimum-security environment. Staff ratings were consistently favorable; as a group, these inmates showed no difficulties with stress, victimization, or other negative experiences. This environment does not require the same degree and type of experience as the penitentiary environment.

Table 3:
Profiles of Megargee MMPI-Based Types

Able	
<u>Penitentiary</u>	This type did not converge well with the matches that were hypothesized to correlate with Able. Other correlates, however, formed a valuable pattern. In construct validity tests, Able correlated most strongly with neurotic acting-out types and less strongly with committed criminal types. These findings portray Able as a character-disordered type with neurotic, defended characteristics. The type diverged from situational, dependent, and neurotic anxious types. Ables were among the types receiving relatively high overall citations for disciplinary infractions, particularly for insubordination. Self-report measures supported the official record data, indicating high incidence of nonaggressive infractions. There were no correlates, favorable or unfavorable, to prison needs, participation, formation of friendships, stress, or other adjustment factors.
<u>Prison Camp</u>	Results for the construct validity tests reveal a description similar to that reported for the penitentiary inmates. In this setting, however, Ables appeared to report relatively frequent aggressive behaviors, as well as experience with the threatening behaviors of other inmates. There were no correlates to staff ratings, but self report stress measures found that Ables were experiencing less stress than other types.
Baker	
<u>Penitentiary and Prison Camp</u>	Few inmates were classified as Baker. As a result, most tests were unstable, and the research offers few conclusions for either the penitentiary or the prison camp inmates. The only correlates found Bakers in the penitentiary indicating a high need for programmatic support. In the prison they reported limited communication with staff.
Charlie	
<u>Penitentiary</u>	Type Charlie converged strongly with other committed criminal types. Moreover, correlates with official and self-report disciplinary measures were observed. Charlies correlated with overall disciplinary rates, insubordination, and self-report nonaggressive incidents. The only treatment-related correlate found Charlies more likely to be "institutionalized," reflecting long criminal careers and extensive prison experience.

(continued)

Table 3. continued

<u>Prison Camp</u>	In contrast to findings for the penitentiary, Charlie <u>did not</u> correlate with other committed criminal types in this setting. Instead, correlates with neurotic types were observed. Correlates to self-report measures of aggression <u>and</u> victimization experiences were noted. Charlies in the prison camp, however, were also found to be oriented to rehabilitation goals, and saw others as willing to help. Staff rated them as relatively immature. Overall the findings suggest that inmates classified as Charlie were not adjusting and behaving according to descriptions set forth for this type.
Delta	
<u>Penitentiary</u>	Delta did not correlate with other manipulative types and, unlike Able, did not correlate with neurotic acting-out types. Deltas had relatively high rates of disciplinary infractions and self-reported high rates of non-nonaggressive behaviors. There were no correlates to treatment-related measures.
<u>Prison Camp</u>	Findings were similar to those observed for type Able. This type was more likely to correlate with neurotic types than with manipulative types. They reported relatively high rates of aggression and threatening experiences. Staff rated them as immature and as evidencing poor emotional control.
Easy	
<u>Penitentiary</u>	The description of Easy as a well-adjusted, benign type was validated in this study. The type correlated strongly with other situational measures, particularly less mature types. Easy also correlated with Jesness Cfm in both samples, suggesting that these inmates, although not evidencing a criminal value system or high anxiety patterns, nevertheless may be quite naive. There were no correlates to official, self-report, or staff ratings of disciplinary behaviors, nor were there any adjustment difficulties noted.
<u>Prison Camp</u>	Construct validity tests produced the same results for the prison camp as for the penitentiary sample. Although there were no correlations with disciplinary measures, inmates classified as Easy were more likely to report experiencing threats from other inmates. In contrast to Ables, Charlies, Foxtrots, and Hows, these threats were not likely to have been provoked. These inmates' only treatment-related distinction was a significantly greater need for privacy than expressed by other types.

(continued)

Table 3, continued

Foxtrot

Penitentiary

This measure converged with other committed criminal types, but not as strongly as for Charlie. There were also some anomalous correlations to situational and neurotic types. The latter finding is not surprising, in view of the high Sc and Ma scale scores needed to classify an inmate as Foxtrot. Unlike type Charlie, Foxtrots did not evidence high rates of disciplinary infractions, but self-report indexes tapping nonaggressive infractions were high. On adjustment measures, these inmates reported having few friends. Staff gave them low ratings for motivation.

Prison Camp

In terms of construct validity, tests in the prison camp correlates did not converge or form any patterns leading to meaningful interpretations. Foxtrots evidenced high self-reported aggressive tendencies and more threats from other inmates. Staff rated them as significantly more likely to have poor relationships with other men, to need supervision, and to respond poorly to supervision.

George

Penitentiary

This type correlated with Quay Immature dependent but with few of the other neurotic types. No correlates with record, self-report, or staff ratings of disciplinary behaviors were observed. Correlations with treatment-related prison adjustment ratings were favorable: these inmates indicated a need for program support, formed friendships, saw others as willing to help, and showed high initiative.

Prison Camp

In contrast to the penitentiary findings, type George converged with other neurotic types in the prison camp. There were no correlates to any official or self-report disciplinary measures or to unfavorable staff ratings. Adjustment measures indicated that these inmates might be somewhat isolated (e.g., limited communication with staff and few friends).

(continued)

Table 3. continued

How	
<u>Penitentiary</u>	Because How is described as psychologically disturbed rather than by personality traits per se, no matches were hypothesized. Type How correlated with neurotic and dependent types, however. Hows were among the groups with higher disciplinary infractions. They had relatively high ratings on self-reports of nonaggressive behaviors. They had by far the highest stress scores of all the Megargee types, and also evidenced a good deal of fear of others and limited communication with staff. Surprisingly, their surveys suggested that they had more friends in the prison setting than all other groups except Item.
<u>Prison Camp</u>	Again, type How correlated with neurotic and dependent types. Self-report measures indicated aggressive tendencies and threats from other inmates. The surveys also showed adjustment difficulties such as high stress, need for privacy, limited communication with staff, and a belief that they could not get help from others.
Item	
<u>Penitentiary</u>	Type Item converged with other situational types, particularly more mature I, Ses. There were correlates to official citations for disciplinary infractions, but correlations with self-report infractions or with unfavorable staff ratings were not significant. Adjustment appeared to be favorable. Items reported supportive friendships, and staff rated them as motivated.
<u>Prison Camp</u>	Converged with situational types but also (anomalously) with criminal and neurotic acting-out measures. No correlates to official or self-reported disciplinary behaviors were found, but Items reported problems with threats from other inmates.
Jupiter	
<u>Penitentiary</u>	Converged with neurotic types, but few cases were identified and tests are limited. No correlations with disciplinary infractions or unfavorable staff ratings were found. Adjustment appeared favorable; the only correlate was to a tendency to see others as willing to help.

(continued)

Table 3, continued

Prison Camp

Converged with only one other neurotic type, but (as in the penitentiary) very few cases were identified in this setting. No correlates to disciplinary problems, unfavorable staff ratings, or adjustment difficulties were found.

Table 4
Profiles of Conceptual Level Types¹

Conceptual Level 1 (CL-1)

Penitentiary

Although no correlates to official disciplinary infractions were noted, inmates classified as CL-1 reported relatively few instances of aggressive behaviors and less tendency to be victimized by the threatening behaviors of other inmates. Staff, however, rated these inmates unfavorably on several measures, including (a) relations with other men, (b) relations with authority, (c) cooperation, (d) need for supervision, and (e) response to supervision. Their adjustment difficulties were numerous. They evidenced high stress and high fear, and raters reported that many expressed concern for their safety. On a number of measures, they appeared to be amenable to treatment, indicating (a) a need for programmatic support, (b) an orientation to correctional rehabilitation goals, and (c) a tendency to participate in programs. Even so, staff rated them as unmotivated.

Prison Camp

Weak relationships were observed between the CL measures and official disciplinary measures: CL-1 inmates were found less likely than the other inmates to be cited for acts of insubordination. Staff rated them as having difficulties with authority, as immature, and as evidencing poor emotional control. At the same time, they evidenced a need for structure and appeared to favor correctional rehabilitation intentions.

Conceptual Level 2 (CL-2)

Penitentiary

CL-2 inmates reported more frequent aggressive behavior and more frequent threats from other inmates than did CL-1 inmates. Staff ratings showed that CL-2 inmates also evidenced some difficulties in their relationships with other inmates. They also rated the CL-2 inmates as needing supervision. CL-2 inmates showed a greater need for privacy than the CL-1 inmates and a greater need for safety than inmates classified as CL-3. Even though they appeared oriented to notions of rehabilitation at intake, the subsequent follow-up survey showed minimal participation in prison programs.

Prison Camp

CL-2 inmates at the prison camp showed a slightly greater tendency than CL-1 inmates to be cited for acts of insubordination. Staff ratings of problem behaviors showed no conclusive results. The interview indicated a need for structure and an orientation to rehabilitation.

(continued)

Table 4. continued.

Conceptual Level (CL-3)

Penitentiary

CL-3 inmates reported relatively frequent instances of aggressive behaviors and experience with victimizing, threatening behavior from other inmates. Yet staff rated them favorably as, mature, motivated, and having good emotional control. At intake they showed needs for privacy, social stimulation, and programmatic support, but the follow-up survey showed limited participation in programs.

Prison Camp

CL-3 and CL-2 inmates showed somewhat more acts of insubordination than CL-1 inmates. Staff rated these inmates as mature and generally viewed them favorably on other measures. In their interviews they did not appear oriented to notions of rehabilitation and were not likely to seek help from others. Their participation in programs was limited. Surprisingly, they expressed some fear of the prison environment.

* This table combines results of CL3 and CL5 tests.

Table 5
Profiles of Jesness Inventory I-level Types

I₁Aa (Asocial Aggressive)

Penitentiary

Because only 5 inmates were identified, our conclusions about this type are quite tentative. Construct validity tests found correlates with troubled, immature, and high anxiety types (e.g., How, Quay Id, and I₁Nx). I₁ inmates as a group evidenced higher self-report nonaggressive incidents than I₁ inmates. Most of their behavioral problems, however, appeared on staff ratings. Staff rated these inmates as: (a) having poor relationships with other inmates and with authority figures. (b) aggressive. (c) uncooperative. (d) in need of supervision. (e) showing poor response to supervision, and (f) immature. Prison adjustment measures suggested that these inmates were institutionalized and evidenced a need for programmatic support. Again, these results must be viewed with caution.

Prison Camp

Only two inmates were classified I₁Aa in this setting. As a result, statistical tests for this type could not be conducted.

I₁ Ap (Asocial Passive)

Penitentiary

Only 3 inmates were identified. Construct validity tests were not meaningful. These three inmates were not evident as behavioral problems on official, self-report, or staff measures, but they showed some need for programmatic support and evidenced some difficulty with stress. Staff ratings, however, appeared favorable.

Prison Camp

Five inmates were classified Asocial Passive. This type correlates with How, suggesting a troubled group of inmates. These inmates also were cited for more disciplinary infractions than others. They scored very high on stress measures but evidenced limited use of prison programs as a coping strategy. At intake, however, interviewers rated these inmates as oriented to rehabilitation, as seeing others as willing to help, and as having a high need for structure and programmatic support.

(continued)

Table 5, continued

I, Cfm (Immature Conformist)

Penitentiary

Immature types did not converge well in either setting. The Jesness Cfm type, nevertheless, correlated strongly with How and situational types in the penitentiary. Divergent correlations were observed with committed criminal types. These findings render Cfms somewhat difficult to describe. They do not appear to evidence a criminal value system and would appear somewhat benign on the basis of correlations with situational types; yet the correlation with How suggests a somewhat troubled, but not troublesome, inmate. Subsequent tests confirm this description: there were no correlates to official or self-report disciplinary behaviors. Staff believed, however, that these inmates were having difficulties in their relationships with other inmates. Prison adjustment measures showed that these men had few friends and rather high stress scores, but the relationship was not statistically significant. They evidenced a strong need for safety and programmatic support, and viewed others as willing to help.

Prison Camp

Correlates were found with situational and neurotic measures but not with other immature or dependent types. Cfms showed higher rates of official disciplinary citations than others, but staff reports and self-report measures were favorable. No adjustment difficulties were observed. Cfms evidenced only a need for programmatic support at intake but on follow-up actually evidenced limited participation.

I, Cfc (Cultural Conformist)

Penitentiary

This type converged strongly with other committed criminal types and diverged from situational and high-anxiety measures. We also noted a correlation with neurotic acting-out types. Cfcs showed no correlates to official disciplinary reports, but they were more likely than others to self-report nonaggressive behavioral problems. Staff ratings were unfavorable, finding that Cfcs (a) showed poor relationships with other inmates, (b) were aggressive, (c) were uncooperative, (d) needed supervision, and (e) responded poorly to supervision. Adjustment measures were favorable; these inmates were not loners (according to staff) and formed friendships (according to their surveys). They also expressed a need for safety early in their prison terms and showed few tendencies to participate in prison programs.

Prison Camp

Committed criminal types did not converge well in the prison camp setting, but the Cfc type was correlated with Quay's Asocial Aggressive and with Able. Cfcs were observed to show relatively high rates of official disciplinary citations and self-reported aggressive behaviors. Staff ratings and adjustment measures were favorable.

(continued)

Table 5. continued

I, Mp (Manipulator)

Penitentiary

This was the only manipulative measure to converge with others and to show no stronger anomalous correlations with unrelated types. The type is divergent from (negatively related to) situational, committed criminal (Charlie), and disturbed types. Mps scored relatively high on self-report nonaggressive infractions and poorly on some of the staff ratings. Staff observed them as (a) having poor relationships with other inmates, (b) aggressive, (c) uncooperative, (d) in need of supervision, (e) responding poorly to supervision, (f) unmotivated, and (g) having poor emotional control. In their interviews they showed a need for safety. Their survey disclosed limited program participation but revealed an ability to form supportive friendships.

Prison Camp

Mp measures for this group converged with one other manipulative measure (Able) and diverged from disturbed, committed criminal, and neurotic anxious types. These inmates showed relatively high rates of official disciplinary infractions and insubordination. Self-report measures of aggressive behaviors were also high. Staff reports and adjustment ratings were favorable.

I, Na (Neurotic Acting-Out)

Penitentiary

This type does not converge with other neurotic types in this setting; instead it correlates with committed criminal and character-disordered types. Nevertheless, neurotic dimensions were apparent in the high stress scores detected for this group. These results are not surprising in view of the defended aspects of neurotic acting-out behavior. Self-reports of nonaggressive infractions were relatively high. Staff rated these inmates as aggressive, but favorably on other measures. Nas expressed a need for programmatic support and did not form supportive friendships.

Prison Camp

In contrast to findings for the penitentiary, we found correlates to other neurotic types, such as George and I, Na (interview method). Nas showed significantly higher disciplinary citations and citations for insubordination. They also scored high on self-report measures of aggression. Staff ratings were favorable. As was among the penitentiary inmates, however, stress scores were high.

(continued)

Table 5, continued

I, Nx (Neurotic Anxious)

Penitentiary

This type converged with MMPI neurotic types but not with Quay or I-level (interview) types. Self-report measures of nonaggressive infractions were high. Staff rated these inmates as having difficulties with authority. On other measures, however, their ratings were favorable, including ability to learn and motivation. Adjustment difficulties were noted in high stress scores, which the type description would predict. Finally, these inmates expressed needs for safety and for programmatic support.

Prison Camp

This type converged weakly with other neurotic types but strongly with How, a sign of disturbed qualities which also were shown in high stress scores. These inmates scored high on self-report aggression but did not receive unfavorable staff ratings or atypically high rates of official citations.

I, Ci (Adaptive)

Penitentiary

Only 3 inmates were classified Ci on this system; therefore results are tentative. In contrast to the I-level Ci described by the interview system, the Jesness Ci is described as a type comparable to situational offenders. In the penitentiary, this type converged with other situational measures, and no correlates to disciplinary infractions were observed. Most staff ratings were favorable; correlates were observed to good emotional control, high initiative, and high ability to learn. Their participation in programs, however, appeared limited.

Prison Camp

Only one correlate to another situational measure was observed, but this type diverged from committed criminal and neurotic acting-out measures. No disciplinary or adjustment correlates were noted. These inmates expressed a need for programmatic support at the beginning of their stay, but the follow-up survey found their participation in prison programs to be limited.

(continued)

Table 5, continued

I, Se (Situational)

Penitentiary

The type converged strongly with other situational types, but seems to identify perhaps a less sophisticated inmate than the Ci type. Ses also diverged clearly from committed criminal, neurotic acting-out, and disturbed types. The type correlated with self-report nonaggressive infractions, but not with official citations. Staff ratings and adjustment were favorable. These inmates showed low stress scores, and staff found them to evidence maturity, good emotional control, initiative, and a high ability to learn. They were rated as loners and showed limited participation in programs, however.

Prison Camp

Construct validity test results were similar to those observed for the penitentiary inmates. We observed no correlates to adjustment or disciplinary problems, but like the Cis these inmates showed a need for programmatic support at the beginning of their stay, but evidenced little actual participation upon follow-up.

Table 6:
Profiles of Jesness Inventory I-level Types

I₁

Penitentiary

Only 8 inmates were classified I₁ in the penitentiary. Although, as a result, we can offer few generalizations about this group, we suggest that their adjustments to prison life may have been difficult. Staff ratings showed that they were uncooperative and needed to be supervised. There were no correlates to official disciplinary infractions, but self-reports indicated high infractions. Most of the correlations were to adjustment difficulties. These inmates were more likely than others to be rated as "institutionalized." They displayed tendencies toward high stress, limited participation, and few friends. Yet at intake, these inmates also tended to view others as willing to help.

Prison Camp

Seven inmates were classified I₁. These inmates were more likely to incur disciplinary citations, but we observed no unfavorable staff ratings. Interviews suggested that these inmates needed structure, programmatic support, and emotional feedback. They saw others as willing to help, and were oriented to the notion of rehabilitation. The survey also indicated that fear and stress were high.

I₂

Penitentiary

I₂ inmates showed significantly fewer self-report disciplinary infractions than either the I₁ inmates or the I₃ inmates. Staff, however, rated them as more aggressive than other inmates and as uncooperative, more likely than others to have difficult relationships with others, needing supervision, and likely to respond unfavorably to supervision. No adjustment difficulties were observed.

Prison Camp

I₂ and I₃ inmates showed higher rates of official citations for disciplinary infractions than I₁ inmates in the prison camp. Staff ratings and adjustment measures were favorable, however.

(continued)

Table 6. continued

-4-

Penitentiary

These inmates indicated relatively high rates of self-report nonaggressive infractions. Staff ratings were favorable, showing good emotional control, high motivation, maturity, and ability to learn. Upon intake, interviews with I₄s indicated a need for emotional feedback.

Prison Camp

I₄ inmates in the prison camp received favorable ratings on all adjustment and disciplinary measures.

Table 7
Profiles of I-level Personality Types (Interview Method)

I, Na (Neurotic Acting-Out)

Penitentiary

We found convergent correlations with committed criminal types and with Ables, but no correlations with other neurotic types. Also, we did not observe high stress scores. I, Nas were high on self-report aggressive behaviors but the relationship was not significant. Staff ratings of relations with authority, emotional control, ability to learn, and need for supervision were unfavorable.

Prison Camp

Na measures converged better for prison camp inmates than for the penitentiary inmates. This type was correlated with Megargee George and Jesness Na, as well as with the committed criminal types. I, Nas did not evidence stress-related problems, but self-report measures of aggression were high.

I, Nx (Neurotic Anxious)

Penitentiary

This type did not converge well with other neurotic types in the penitentiary. Instead the measure correlated with measures of immature types. These inmates, however, showed some adjustment difficulties (e.g., high stress and poor emotional control). Their interviews showed a need for emotional feedback: their surveys showed that they were participating in prison programs. They scored relatively low on staff ratings of their need for supervision.

Prison Camp

I, Nx measures converged much better in the prison camp than in the penitentiary, with at least one other neurotic type on each of the other systems. Nx inmates showed high stress scores and appeared unlikely to form supportive friendships. They evidenced a need for programmatic support, and staff considered them motivated. Staff also rated these inmates as aggressive, but this was not reflected in self-report aggression measures.

(continued)

Table 7, continued

I, Se (Situational)

Penitentiary

I, Ses converged with Quay Si and anomalously with Jesness Cfm, suggesting a relatively immature, naive individual. This type also diverged from neurotic and committed criminal types. These inmates appear to be inexperienced in coping with prison life. At intake they indicated a need for safety and emotional feedback, and felt that others would be willing to help. Upon follow-up, their surveys indicated high scores on fear and stress measures, and a reluctance to participate. They showed the highest rates of official citations for insubordination; yet staff ratings were favorable. In Chapters 6 and 7 we speculated that these inmates simply do not know how to do time (i.e., to stay out of trouble and to cope with prison life). If this is the case, we would expect to find improved adjustment over time in subsequent follow-ups.

Prison Camp

Convergent validity (correlations with other situational types) was strong. Construct validity tests also showed correlations with Jesness Cfm and divergent correlations with neurotic and committed criminal types. Like the penitentiary I, Se inmates, these inmates appear to be immature, but they do not experience the same disciplinary-related difficulties. We note that their stress scores were high, but in this setting they were also found (a) to seek help from others, (b) to form friendships, and (c) to communicate with staff.

I, Ci (Cultural Identifier)

Penitentiary

This type converged strongly with other committed criminal measures, but we also found anomalous correlations to situational and neurotic measures. Cis had high overall disciplinary rates and significantly more citations for insubordination than other inmates. Staff reported that this group needed more supervision than other inmates. They showed high stress and fear scores and communicated with staff, but also showed a greater tendency to be institutionalized than other types. The latter finding was not significant, however.

Prison Camp

Committed criminal types did not converge as strongly in the prison camp as in the penitentiary, and there was an anomalous correlation with Able. No disciplinary-related problems were observed, and staff ratings were favorable. Staff rated these inmates as highly motivated, for example. Stress measures were low. If there were any adjustment difficulties, they showed consistently on measures tapping the inmates' level of interaction with others. I, Ci inmates, for example, did not seek help from others, had few friends, and showed limited communication with staff.

(continued)

Table 7, continued

I, Na (Neurotic Acting-Out)	
<u>Penitentiary</u>	As with the I, Nas, this type converged with Able but not with other neurotic types. I, Na inmates showed high overall rates of insubordination. Self-report measures of aggression also were higher than for other I, types but not as high as for their I, counterparts. Staff ratings for these inmates generally were unfavorable. As a group, they received lower scores on (a) relations with authority, (b) aggressiveness and (c) need for supervision. Adjustment measures showed high fear scores and some learning difficulties, but revealed a willingness to communicate with staff.
<u>Prison Camp</u>	Construct validity tests were similar to those observed for the penitentiary. I, Nas showed high aggression scores, and staff rated them as aggressive. No additional adjustment difficulties were observed for these inmates, although they appeared to form few friendships.
I, Nx (Neurotic Anxious)	
<u>Penitentiary</u>	This type converged with Quay and MMPI neurotic types. Staff and disciplinary measures were favorable. Nevertheless, these inmates showed adjustment difficulties in the form of stress, fear, and needs for emotional feedback and programmatic support. Follow-up surveys showed that they were participating in programs.
<u>Prison Camp</u>	The measure did not converge well in this setting. Self-report aggression results were high, as were stress scores. Nevertheless, the group indicated a need for programmatic support, and staff rated them as motivated and adept at learning.
I, Se (Situational)	
<u>Penitentiary</u>	This type converged with situational measures of more highly functioning types. Difficulties were not observed on disciplinary-related measures; staff rated these inmates quite favorably, as motivated and as demonstrating good emotional control and an ability to learn. Nevertheless, these inmates experienced some difficulties, such as high stress, limited participation in programs, and needs for safety and emotional feedback.

(continued)

Table 7. continued

Prison Camp

Measures converged with other high-functioning situational types. No correlates to disciplinary behaviors were observed; staff rated them favorably, as motivated and able to learn. Their intake interviews generally indicated a need for programmatic support and a willingness to seek help from others. Follow-up surveys showed that these inmates had formed friendships and were willing to communicate with staff.

I, Ci (Cultural Identifier)

Penitentiary

This measure failed to converge with other committed criminal measures, and correlated only with type Able. These inmates incurred a high number of disciplinary citations and significantly higher rates of self-report, nonaggressive infractions. Staff reported a relatively high need for supervision as well as good emotional control and a high ability to learn.

Prison Camp

Only two inmates were diagnosed I, Ci in the prison camp. Thus the results cannot be interpreted.

Table 8:
Profiles of I-level Types (Interview Method)

I₁

Penitentiary

I₁ inmates evidenced significantly more self-report aggressive infractions than their I₁ counterparts. Staff also rated them significantly more aggressive than the I₁ inmates and found them to be less cooperative and more likely to have poor relationships with their fellow inmates. Not surprisingly, I₁s made difficult adjustments to prison. They were more likely to evidence "institutionalized" patterns, and showed high fear and stress and poor emotional control.

Prison Camp

These inmates were no more likely than I₁ inmates to incur disciplinary infractions, but staff reported that they were slightly more likely to need supervision. They also showed poor emotional control and a tendency to form few friendships.

I₂

Penitentiary

I₂ inmates evidenced more self-reported nonaggressive infractions, but showed favorable adjustments on other measures. They indicated a need for programmatic support and appeared to be oriented to rehabilitation. Staff reported that these inmates were motivated and showed a high ability to learn new skills.

Prison Camp

In spite of favorable staff reports, these inmates indicated high fear and a tendency to report more instances of being threatened by other inmates. Yet, they were also found (a) to be willing to seek help from others, (b) to be willing to communicate with staff, (c) to be mature, (d) to be motivated, and (e) to evidence strong learning skills.
