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Abstract

Forty-eight inmates housed at the maximum security institution at Marion, Illinois, volunteered to individually complete the Incomplete Sentences Blank (I.S.B.). Part of the group (22) had received assignment of at least nine months to a specialized housing unit due to dangerousness or acts of violence. The other group (26), while considered dangerous, had not received assignment to this specialized unit, nor had they ever acted out while confined, in such a manner that would be considered cause for assignment to this specialized unit. The purpose of the study was to ascertain the value of the I.S.B. in screening inmates who were considered dangerous while housed in a maximum security setting. The results indicate that the I.S.B. can be a valuable instrument for the collection of data pertinent to violent behavior of adult male inmates housed in the maximum security setting.

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INTERNAL-EXTERNAL FOCUS OF CONTROL AND THE COMPARISON OF PRISON SOCIAL ENVIRONMENTS

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USE OF THE INCOMPLETE SENTENCES BLANK IN SCREENING OFFENDERS FOR ACTING OUT POTENTIAL

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It appears that there will be a never-ending discussion of the ability to predict human behavior. It also seems that the growing concern over crime and violence has become a major influence in daily living. The synthesis of these concerns, that is, the ability to predict criminal and violent behavior, is a basic component of any formula for crime prevention and control. In the larger society, concern over the prediction of violent behavior is characterized by extreme emotionally-charged positions. The purpose of this study was more narrow but is as important as the questions raised by the statements above. The issue to be considered was the value of the Incomplete Sentences Blank (I.S.B.) in generating data which might lead to the ability to predict dangerous behavior of individuals confined in a maximum security penal institution.

Experts in the field of corrections seem to have developed their ideas in regard to predicting dangerous behavior beyond those existing in the larger society. Megargee (1976) suggested that "one would expect better prediction of violence inside institutions where the environment is similar for all, than in community settings, which are more variable (p. 24)." Likewise,

given the prior experience of the population generally found in a maximum security penal institution, it was assumed that this group would offer a more concentrated resource for studying violence. In fact, it was felt that the only population from which accurate prediction might emerge is the type of population found in a maximum security penal institution.. Kozol et al. (1972) indicated this by stating, "No one can predict dangerous acting out (p. 2)." Megargee (1976) also felt that "mental health professionals should limit themselves to predicting dangerous behavior in high base-rate populations such as those who have already engaged in repeated violence (p. 24)." However, there are those who maintain, with some qualification, that the prediction of who is or may be dangerous cannot be accomplished.

Steadman and Cocozza (1976) quoted numerous studies concerned with the evaluation of mental patients and criminals. They inferred that the mental health professional prefers to safely judge his client to be dangerous rather than risk the consequences of an inaccurate determination that his client was not dangerous. According to Steadman and Cocozza, this was based on the professional's assumption that since some patients had proven to be dangerous, all could be. The authors, however, generally qualified

their position by indicating that certain groups, such as "multiple felony offenders and young black males (p. 34)" suggested a potential for dangerous future behavior.

Piri Thomas (1975), an ex-convict, indicated his acceptance of "statistics" showing that somewhere near 10% of all imprisoned persons, a "hard core group", need to be in a maximum security prison (p. 161). Thomas implied that members of this group could not be trusted or relied upon to function with others. They were, in other words, dangerous.

Others feel that the prison setting is responsible for the dangerousness of the people in it, and in essence, predicted the behavior of the individual inmate on the treatment received from prison staff. Frank Rondel, a psychiatrist, quoted by Wayne Sage (1975), stated that, "What I saw at Soledad would leave no doubt whatsoever that the behavior of those men labeled violent and aggressive and destructive . . . was in large part a response to the procedures and practices of the institution (p. 59)."

Much more has been written attempting to explain dangerous people and their acts. However, very little of what is written is based on empirically gained knowledge. Much of it is based on emotional arguments in support of or in conflict with the current criminal justice system.

Attempts at defining "dangerousness" have shown it to be a troublesome term. Megargee (1976) offered the most flexible description and one that was functionally usable for this work. Using the term interchangeably with violence, Megargee's definition of dangerousness included the criminal acts of "homicide, mayhem, aggravated assault, forcible rape, battery, robbery, arson, extortion (p. 34)." These crimes, plus the acts of escape and attempted escape, were used as an operational definition of dangerous behavior for this work. Escape and attempted escape were included since an escape situation always offers the potential for bodily injury suffered by the inmate and/or staff in a maximum security setting.

An assumption of this paper was that aggression, whatever the motivation, is always a preceding factor in a dangerous act. That is, aggression based on hostility is an integral part of the personality make-up of the dangerous person. Much has been written concerning "dangerousness" under the heading of aggression. For the sake of this presentation, the concept of aggressiveness was felt to be a preceding, but not necessarily a continuing, personality trait in the dangerous person. It was also insignificant to this work if the aggression was "angry aggression" or "instrumental aggression" (Megargee 1976, p. 7). By

observation, experience and research, it is clear that both types of aggression are more common within the maximum security setting. It is not uncommon to find that most "angry aggression" is the result of manipulation, or attempted manipulation, in the fullest meaning of "instrumental aggression," for example, one inmate attempting to extort another for sex, cigarettes, and job assignments, with threats of violence.

Some of the current discussion regarding aggressive persons surrounds the projected personality or character type that eventually acts out and performs mass murders. Bach and Goldberg (1974) made a case for the surpressed aggressive. This personality type, according to Bach and Goldberg, presents himself as a gentle, passive and polite individual who is regarded as a pillar of the community until he commits a mass murder. The authors contended that this type of personality is extremely self-controlled and rigid in expressing feelings to anyone. However, the clue seems to be that the suppressed aggressive individual has an obsessional interest with "violence in fantasy (p. 121)."

Megargee (1976) found in his research instances of what Bach and Goldberg contend was the rule rather than the exception with aggressive (dangerous) individuals. During 1962, Megargee and Mendelsohn reported that assaultive inmates were much better controlled (demonstrated by their behavior) than were inmates

who had no previous record of assaultive behavior. The instrument used in the research by Megargee and Mendelsohn (1962) was the MMPI, as well as variations of the hostility and control indices.

During 1966, Megargee, using the California Personality Inventory (C.P.I.) with a group of assaultive youths (males) and a group of non-assaultives, ascertained that the assaultive group showed a higher degree of self-control. As a result of this research, Megargee (1966) offered the view that at least two types of identifiable aggressive personalities exist; the "undercontrolled aggressive," who is lacking in control, and the "overcontrolled aggressive" who is extremely controlled most of the time. The undercontrolled individual will, most likely, involve himself in moderate assaultive acting-out behavior; the overcontrolled individual, when he loses control, acts out in a most assaultive manner that results in mass murders, and various other physical crimes against other people.

Megargee et al. (1975), offered an annotated bibliography of numerous works which dealt with the full range of prediction and behavioral problems in the correctional setting. Their reports dealt mainly with youths or young adults in a federal medium security facility located at Tallahassee, Florida. The significance of the above cited work is that the data,

being collected and measured, indicates a positive approach in the development of identifying personalities that show potential for "dangerousness." The bulk of the work by Megargee et al, however, tends to rely on the MMPI and CPI as the major psychometric devices. These devices were rejected by the participants in this study along with other projective techniques and tests. The inmate subjects felt that they could not express their real feelings with these devices, nor would the instruments offered (MMPI, Rotter I.E., CPI) measure, to any degree, their internal attitudes. The inmate subjects felt and expressed the need to respond in their own words to any attempt to determine the implications of their adjustment, or maladjustment.

A full understanding of the role aggression plays in violent behavior may never be known. Some feel that aggression is working constantly within all of our personality frames of reference. Singer (1971) indicated that aggression may be easily observed in an individual or it may be a hidden feeling lingering within a person. It may well find its way into physical acts or verbalizations, or a combination of both.

Another aspect of aggression-violence is its relation to organic defectiveness or physical damage to the brain. In a general discussion of medicine's

role in juvenile corrections, Kohler (1976) stated "It is felt that approximately 30% of murderers have some definite clinical psychopathic condition with epilepsy counting for less than 1% of all violent acts (p. 11)." Kohler also offered the opinion that " . . . in general, medical therapeutic regimens have been unsuccessful in treating aggression. Pharmacologic agents have met with mixed success. Neurosurgical treatment of aggression has been carried out with some success, but has met with a great deal of social hostility (p. 11)."

Further exploration of the medical position was provided by Loeffelholz (1975) in his general review of the concept of dangerousness. He stated " . . . in most cases, psychiatry has little to offer as the profession does not have the answer for most of society's problems. To pretend to have the answer for the person who behaves dangerously is a denial of reality. As noted, laws are written so as to help society obtain relief from those who behave dangerously. We should expect that the systems use its law, or otherwise change the social rules of conduct."

The relationship between aggression and violence in the literature appears at times confused, particularly in regard to its origin (instinctive or learned behavior) in the human being. For the purposes of this work,

the description of violence by Ho (1975) was generally felt to be the most functional. "Violence is destructive aggression resulting from mislearning (p. 27)."

In summary, the acts of murder, mayhem, aggravated assault, forcible rape, battery, robbery, arson, extortion, escape and attempted escape described what was meant by violence in this work. It was also accepted that aggression was very much related to violence. For this work, "dangerous" described the individual who has previously acted in a violent manner and continues to offer overt signs of hostility, indicating that he has the potential to become violent again.

It was the intent of this work to investigate the value of a specific instrument as a contribution to the prediction of violence or dangerous behavior. As Megargee (1976) and others very adequately point out, the accuracy of most personality assessment instruments leaves something to be desired. However, the failing or weakness of a particular method or technique of measuring should not act as the final word in the pursuit of additional information.

The hypothesis tested was that there would be a significant difference in adjustment to incarceration, as measured by the Incomplete Sentences Blank, between inmates who had completed long assignments in highly controlled unit situations and inmates who had not been assigned to this special unit.

Method

Instrument

In addition to the general unwillingness of inmates to cooperate with administration of psychological tests more commonly used in corrections (MMPI, Beta, CPI), the Incomplete Sentences Blank (I.S.B.) was selected for two reasons. First, it was the only projective instrument of its kind with which either author had had a working experience with other populations. Second, it had a developed scoring structure and manual that proved to be quite efficient within the context of this study.

Generally, the sentence completion method is, in the words of Murstein (1965), "probably the most valid of all the projective techniques reported in the literature (p. 777)." Murstein went on to point out that the sentence completion method appeared to be useful in various areas, including as a valid measure of adjustment in adults. Meltzoff's (1965) research, however, raised a question of response validity, when he

indicated that college students were able to control their responses to sentence completion test stems to such a degree that they did not reveal important aspects of their personality.

The Incomplete Sentences Blank, developed by Rotter and Rafferty (1950), however, reported considerable validity. In one study, Rotter et al. (1965) reported high validity coefficients in their use of the I.S.B. with military personnel and college students. By using a cutting score of 135 in their validity studies, Rotter and his associates accurately identified 68% of a group of maladjusted female subjects, as well as 80% of the adjusted females. Accurate identification of males was somewhat higher; 69% of the maladjusted and 89% of the adjusted males. Rotter and Rafferty (1950) indicated in their manual that the I.S.B. was to be used "as a gross screening instrument not intended to provide ratings in finer diagnostic terms (p. 3)." The authors pointed out that the instrument was a "projective technique" which, by its construction, provided a degree of structure within which "the subject reflects his own wishes, desires, fears, attitudes, etc. (p. 3)."

Rotter and Rafferty also offered in their manual a checklist of their perceptions of the advantages and disadvantages of the I.S.B.:

The general advantages of the sentence completion method can be summarized as follows.

1. There is freedom of response. That is, the subject is not forced to answer yes, no or ? to the examiner's question. He may respond, instead, in any way he desires.

2. Some disguise in the purpose of the test is present. Although the subject may be aware of the general intent, what constitutes a "good" or "bad" answer is not readily apparent to most subjects.

3. Group administration is relatively efficient. Most incomplete sentences tests can be given to a group of any size without apparent loss of validity.

4. No special training is ordinarily necessary for administration. Interpretation depends on the examiner's general clinical experience, although the examiner does not need specific training in the use of this method.

5. The sentence completion method lends itself easily to objective scoring for screening or experimental purposes. Although objective scoring has not been attempted in many tests of this type described in the literature, the Incomplete Sentences Blank demonstrates the ease with which relatively objective scoring may be done.

6. The time of administration tends to be shorter than for most tests and the time of scoring or analysis tends to be shorter than for most projective techniques.

7. The method is extremely flexible in that new sentence beginnings can be constructed or "tailor made" for a variety of clinical, applied and experimental purposes.

On the other hand, the method has three major disadvantages as compared to other personality measures.

1. Although susceptible to semi-objective scoring, it cannot be machine scored and requires general skill and knowledge of personality analysis for clinical appraisal and interpretation.

> 2. There is not as much disguise of purpose as in other projective methods. Consequently, a sophisticated subject may be able to keep the examiner from knowing what he does not wish to reveal.
>
> 3. Insufficient material is obtained in some cases, particularly from illiterate, disturbed or uncooperative subjects. Application of the method as a group test also requires writing and language skills and has not yet been adequately evaluated for potential clinical usefulness for younger children. (p. 4)

Furthermore, Rotter and Rafferty (1950) provided a good general discussion of the history and development of the manual. The authors described the rationale and populations used in establishing the validity of the I.S.B., as well as a description of its reliability measures. According to them, the two main intents of the I.S.B. were to provide an instrument "which could be used objectively for screening and experimental purposes," and also "a second goal was to obtain information of other specific diagnostic value for treatment purposes (p. 5).

In their manual, Rotter and Rafferty (1950) stated that they had achieved a split-half reliability of .84 and inter-scorer reliabilities of .91 and .96. Churchill and Crandall (1965), in their work with the I.S.B., also reported the establishment of an acceptable test-retest reliability over a period of three years. Their work indicated that the I.S.B. measures more than just passing or transient response patterns.

Cofer (1951), writing in the Fourth Mental Measurements Yearbook, expressed doubts as to the validity of the I.S.B. based on the number of cases utilized. However, he noted, "nevertheless, some clearly presented evidence that the test has some validity as an indicator of maladjustment (p. 243). Cofer also felt that it was unwise "to establish a specific cutting score for all groups and that a score should be established for the particular group that is to be subjected to the I.S.B.

The current literature did not provide specific references that could be utilized as a comparison for this particular work. No research was found dealing with inmates in a maximum security penal setting who had been tested with the I.S.B. For that matter, there was little available data usable as a reference for inmate responses to sentence completion stems, generally. It appeared, from reviewing the literature that inmates do not make the best subjects when attempting to apply projective techniques. There were, however, studies which provided information about the I.S.B. and its use for this study.

The Incomplete Sentences Blank has been utilized in a variety of experimental settings. Prentice (1961) used the I.S.B. as a measure of self-referent neuroticism. Rinner, Maher, and Campbell (1962) were "encouraged" by the potential of the I.S.B. for indicating such personality

factors as anxiety, dependence, and hostility. A relationship between imbalance within a need structure and generally poor adjustment was found by Jelsson, Liverant, and Opochinsky (1963) using the I.S.B. as a measure of adjustment. Similarly, Bieri, Blackarsky, and Reid (1955) tested the hypothesis that there existed a relationship between personal adjustment and predictive behavior.

Goldberg (1965), in a comprehensive review of the sentence completion method, concluded that the I.S.B. was a "valuable instrument." However, since most research utilized captive groups such as college students, psychiatric patients, and military personnel, Goldberg expressed some concern over failures in standardization and scope as a result of population selection. Woltman (1951) noted the I.S.B.'s value in allowing for humor in scoring responses. Woltman also offered his personal recommendations to psychologists and psychiatrists in using the I.S.B. as a means of efficient information gathering about patients.

In their manual, Rotter and Rafferty provided for a cutting score of 135 (p. 10) to discriminate between adjusted and maladjusted persons on the I.S.B., but they also pointed out that this figure should not be viewed absolutely. Rather, the population and setting to the study should control the value of the cutting score. With this in mind and having knowledge of the situational

influence of incarceration, the overall cutting score was raised to 150 for this study. It was anticipated that a large number of conflict responses would be received from this population.

As a result of the situational influence of incarceration, scoring the instruments involved a number of considerations unique to work with institutionalized offenders. For example, strong external controls indigenous to a maximum security penitentiary have an undeniable inhibiting effect on all inmate actions, including the taking of psychological tests. The very structure of institutional life forces habits to change and new behaviors develop. It was also assumed that the prison setting creates frustration and hostile feelings among inmates simply because it severely limits their mobility. Another factor was the existence of a very pronounced subculture that at least approves of or condones behavior not acceptable in the general society. All these elements were accommodated for in scoring the I.S.B.

The intents of the I.S.B., as described above by Rotter and Rafferty, were the same for our study. We sought information and/or an instrument that would provide data useful to the possible prediction of violence in a population confined in a maximum security penal institution. It was also felt that the data obtained would provide insight into the inmates involved so that a more

encompassing diagnostic method might be developed on a broader scale.

Design

For this study a post-test only, control group design (Campbell and Stanley, 1963) was employed. The practical and operational ramifications of due process requirements contingent on assignment to Control Unit status made pretesting extremely difficult. Since assignment to a unit of greater control is a reaction to a preceding act of violence, pretesting would have to occur subsequent to assignment, but prior to actual quartering, in the Control Unit. The assignee protected by law from being forced to take any test, may volunteer, but such factors as anxiousness, hostility, and attempts to manipulate staff favor create nearly insurmountable barriers to unbiased data collection. While selection of the post-test only, control group design places certain limitations on statistical analysis, it was judged to be quite sufficient for our exploratory efforts.

The treatment group subjects (former control unit assignees) were selected at random from the individuals who comprised this group within the general population of the United States Penitentiary, Marion, Illinois. The individuals needed to have been assigned to the

Control Unit at Marion, or to have been assigned to a similar unit within the penal facilities that make up the Bureau of Prisons. After being asked to participate, the subjects finally selected to be included in the study had all served nine or more months in the Control Unit at the Marion facility.

The Control Unit at the Marion facility was designed to accept assignment of inmates from within the Bureau of Prisons. The basic purpose of the unit is to accommodate the individual who cannot or will not exercise the minimum of social control required within various state and federal penal facilities. That is, such men were charged with multiple incidents of rule violation of a serious nature, often including assault, murder, etc. At times, other inmates had been assigned directly from county jails and other holding units. For the most part such men were involved in crimes that included the wanton taking of lives and, as such, were considered infamous and dangerous by the courts. All of the individuals assigned to this unit had been evaluated by the staff of the Bureau of Prisons and, as a consequence of such evaluation, were considered dangerous. This evaluation by staff, based on behavior, in effect stated that these persons could not function within the general prison population because they were a threat to peers and/or staff.

The treatment group subjects all secured their release from the Control Unit by consistent acceptable behavior over a time period of at least 90 days. These individuals, while assigned to the unit provided, on a monthly basis, behavior that was acceptable and in accordance with institutional rules and regulations, as well as the various laws.

Likewise, the control group was formed by randomly choosing inmates asked to volunteer. This group of inmates who volunteered from the general population at the Marion institution could not have been assigned to the Control Unit or any comparable unit in any prison and they had to have served at least three or more years at some time in prison.

Individuals in both groups were approached and asked to volunteer for a research study that focused on the use of an instrument which provided them a written means of expressing how they really felt; using the stems of the I.S.B. as an invoking or soliciting agent. They were also informed that a comparison would be made between former Control Unit assignees and the individuals who had never been assigned to a control unit. They were assured that their names would not be used nor would any of the data collected by entered into their prison files.

The I.S.B. was given to some 65 different inmates on an individual basis. After discarding the tests which

were too incomplete to use as well as the ones not meeting the other previously mentioned criteria, the final total number was narrowed to 48. The 48 included 22 former Control Unit assignees and 26 from the general population who had never received assignment to a control unit. Everyone included in this total group had been incarcerated for at least three years, and all those included in the Control Unit group had incidents of at least one act that is considered to be violent and/or dangerous. (In fact, all had been charged formally at least twice.)

Matching of the two groups in terms of inmates' current offense convictions was briefly attempted, but abandoned due to the inability to accurately match two relatively small samples.

Results

The primary purpose of this work was to determine the usefulness of the Incomplete Sentences Blank (Rotter and Rafferty, 1950) in discriminating between inmates with prior records of extreme acting out and inmates with relatively subdued histories. Treatment and control groups were comparable with respect to all measured demographic variables. Mean age for both groups was approximately 35 and no significant correlation was found between age and score on the I.S.B. The ratio of whites to blacks was about 3:2 for both groups.

Data was also collected on type of crime for which subjects were currently imprisoned, but, except for "Bank Robbery", no offense was common enough to allow for meaningful analysis. Interestingly, of the 48 subjects, 22 had been convicted of Bank Robbery. The other 26 subjects were charged with crimes dispersed among eight different categories: Murder, 3; Kidnapping, 6; Narcotics, 4; Fraud, 6; Armed Robbery, 2; Firearms Violation, 2; Motor Vehicle Law Violations, 2; Escape, 1.

A two-tailed t test of the data showed a significant difference between treatment and control groups. Total I.S.B. scores for previous Control Unit inmates were significantly higher ($p < .05$) than total scores of inmates never assigned to the control unit.

A bivariate analysis of variance showed the effect of the inmate group variable (treatment vs. control group) to be statistically significant, while race had little effect in determining total I.S.B. score. Table 1 summarizes the analysis of variance.

Table 1
Analysis of Variance

Source	df	MS	F
Inmate Group Status (S)	1	2742.464	7.126*
Race (R)	1	121.570	0.316
S x R	1	118.226	0.307

*$p < .01$

The results clearly indicated that high I.S.B. scores were solely related to previous assignment to the Control Unit. No other measured variable had any consistent significant effect on total I.S.B. score.

A discriminant analysis was performed as an attempt to statistically distinguish the two groups of subjects. The pool of potentially discriminating variables included race, age, and total I.S.B. score. The mathematical objective of a discriminant analysis is to weigh the discriminating variables and linearly combine them in such a way that the two groups are as distinct as possible. Once the variables have been optimally weighed and combined, analysis provides a measure of success with which these discriminant functions actually discriminate between groups (Klecka, 1975).

The results of the discriminant analysis showed total I.S.B. score to be the single most influential discriminating variable. That is, I.S.B. score was the best predictor of inmate group status. Although much less influential, age and lastly race provided some additional discriminating power. On the basis of this analysis, our data was optimally capable of identifying accurately 65.4% of the inmates previously assigned to the Control Unit and 54.5 of those who have never been assigned to the Control Unit.

In summary, our results indicated that the treatment group (previous Control Unit assignees) scored significantly higher on the I.S.B. than the control group. Additionally, score on the I.S.B. was found to be a good indicator of an inmate's group status.

Discussion

In exploring the usefulness of the Incomplete Sentences Blank, we were additionally interested in several secondary analyses of the responses. Pearson product-moment correlations were performed between each I.S.B. item and the I.S.B. total score. This "item analysis" showed 32 of the 40 items significantly correlating ($p < .05$) with total score. These results suggest consistent measurement of a particular dimension between items and between total score and items.

In addition to differences between inmate group total I.S.B. scores, responses to specific types of stems were also analyzed. The I.S.B. was arbitrarily divided into clusters of stems along several criteria. One division combined positive stems such as "I like . . ." and "The best . . ." Similarly, negative stems were items like "I regret . . ." and "My greatest fear . . ." A third group of items referred to other people and a fourth cluster elicited responses to places and times.

Bivariate analysis of variance for these four subscores revealed a significant effect for inmate group status on positive stem scores ($p < .01$) and other person stem scores ($p < .05$). In both cases, previous Control Unit assignees scored more maladjusted, as measured by the I.S.B. than the control group inmates. As expected, subjects' scores reflected considerable conflict, especially in response to negative stems. This was true of both inmate groups. But considerable difference was found between groups, on responses to positive stems. The control group mean score for these stems indicated that positive stems elicited positive responses. "Twisted responses" (Rotter and Rafferty, 1950, p. 16) were the norm, however, for the experimental group as mean score showed negative responses to positive stems. This difference between groups was highly significant and is especially dramatic since only four positive stems are included on the I.S.B.

As mentioned earlier in this paper, there exists considerable heated debate around the general topics of dangerousness and the prediction of violence. Much of the problem results from a failure to adequately define violence. Even when operationalized, it has been infrequently subjected to empirical study. For this project, violence was defined as behavior, committed

by a person while in prison, which violated certain criminal laws and institutional rules and was characterized by harming or threatening any person. A person who performed this behavior was seen as dangerous. Having access to a group of individuals who fit this definition of dangerousness and a similar group who did not, we sought a psychological instrument which would be able to discriminate between these groups.

The Incomplete Sentences Blank was chosen for its brevity, its standard scoring method, and its ready reception by the population studied. The I.S.B. is generally accepted as a useful indicator of adjustment and has been used in a wide variety of studies. In scoring the instrument, accommodations were made for situational stress present in all the subjects due to the nature of their environment.

Results showed that the I.S.B. was responded to differently by the two inmate groups. Generally, those persons defined as dangerous were more maladjusted, as measured by the I.S.B. Using a cutting score of 150, the I.S.B. was capable of accurately discriminating between almost 60% of the combined inmate groups.

For our purposes, the I.S.B. seems to be a useful tool as a method of screening inmates for their acting-out potential. More importantly, our future use of the

I.S.B. is a consequence of empirically testing its utility. Using similar methods it is possible to study any number of psychological instruments to determine their effectiveness within a penitentiary setting.

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