71-17,042

FRANK, Colin Highes, 1941-
THE PREDICTION OF RECIDIVISM AMONG YOUNG ADULT OFFENDERS BY THE RECIDIVISM-REHABILITATION SCALE AND INDEX.

The University of Oklahoma, Ph.D., 1970
Psychology, clinical

University Microfilms, A XEROX Company, Ann Arbor, Michigan

© 1971

COLIN HUGHES FRANK

ALL RIGHTS RESERVED

THIS DISSERTATION HAS BEEN MICROFILMED EXACTLY AS RECEIVED

Downloaded from SHAREOK. Persistent Handle URL: https://hdl.handle.net/11244/2992

THE UNIVERSITY OF OKLAHOMA

GRADUATE COLLEGE

THE PREDICTION OF RECIDIVISM AMONG YOUNG ADULT OFFENDERS BY THE RECIDIVISM-REHABILITATION SCALE AND INDEX

A DISSERTATION

SUBMITTED TO THE GRADUATE FACULTY

in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the

degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

BY

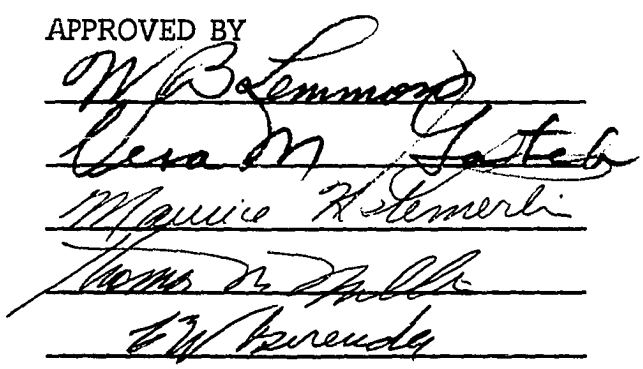
COLIN H. HUGHES FRANK

Norman, Oklahoma

1970

THE PREDICTION OF RECIDIVISM AMONG YOUNG ADULT OFFENDERS BY THE RECIDIVISM-REHABILITATION SCALE AND INDEX

APPROVED BY



DISSERTATION COMMITTEE

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I wish to extend my thanks to the members of my dissertation committee and especially to Dr. William B. Lemmon, chairman.

I am grateful for the encouragement of Dr. Robert Levinson, Chief of Psychological Services for the U.S. Bureau of Prisons. I offer my appreciation to the entire staff of the Federal Reformatory, El Reno, Oklahoma and especially to Mrs. Aloha Morris for help in preparing the manuscript. Special mention is reserved for the help of Mark Fraser and Glen Smith Jr.

This dissertation is respectfully dedicated to Warden Noah L. Alldredge and his career in corrections.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
LIST OF TABLES	v
LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS	vi
Chapter	
I. INTRODUCTION	1
II. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM	19
III. METHOD	22
IV. RESULTS	30
V. DISCUSSION	36
VI. SUMMARY	53
REFERENCES	56
APPENDIX A	
RECIDIVISM-REHABILITATION, HABITUAL CRIMINAL, SOCIAL INTROVERSION, ANXIETY AND REPRESSION SCALE SCORES FOR ALL SUBJECTS	59
APPENDIX B	
TYPE OF CRIME COMMITTED FOR CONVICTION OF EACH SUBJECT	66

LIST OF TABLES

Table		Page
1.	Items of the MMPI test that comprise Black's Recidivism-Rehabilitation scale	10
2.	Comparison of Recidivism-Rehabilitation scale prediction and actual post-release behavior	32
3.	Comparison of Recidivism-Rehabilitation index prediction and actual post-release behavior	33
4.	Recidivism-Rehabilitation scale means and variances and t-test of post-release successes and failures	35
5.	Comparison of the responses of success and failure groups to each Recidivism-Rehabilitation scale item	38

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure		Page
1.	Black's Recidivism-Rehabilitation Inventory	13

THE PREDICTION OF RECIDIVISM AMONG YOUNG ADULT OFFENDERS BY THE RECIDIVISM-REHABILITATION SCALE AND INDEX

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The President's Task Force on Corrections has recognized that accurate prediction of recidivism is a central need of American corrections (1967). Incarceration has been inappropriate and unnecessary to the resocialization of many offenders. On the other hand, society has continued to need protection from certain other individuals. The lack of discrimination between these two groups has cost incalculable amounts in human and material resources.

Parole. Supervised conditional release or parole has served to test predictions of community adjustment while the offender's sentence continues in effect. Ohlin (1951) has stated that, "Parole...is today the most important single type of release employed in returning serious offenders to society," and, "Fully half of the prisoners released from our state and federal penal institutions for adults are released on parole...." More recently the

Task Force (1967) has attested that in 1965 approximately two-thirds of adult offenders under correctional care were being supervised in the community. Evidently these estimates have reflected the widespread acceptance of parole as a major correctional treatment resource.

Parole was introduced as a central feature in the design of the Federal Youth Corrections Act in effect as of 1954 (Glaser, 1961). Under the provisions of this act offenders 17 to 22 years of age may be sentenced to a maximum of six years with a possibility of parole any time after 60 days and normally after four years. Essentially, this legislation has created an indeterminate sentence which has allowed for supervised community testing according to the readiness of the offender.

The Scope of Recidivism. In his volume on the Federal correctional system Glaser (1964) has discussed many of the problems associated with recidivism. For example, he has attempted to counteract the "myth" that two-thirds of offenders return to prison. He speculates that these claims have arisen from partisan sources eager to persuade the public to action. Glaser's own research has shown a considerably lower rate of recidivism than the widely touted two-thirds figure. He has stated, "In the first two to five years after their release, only about a third of all men released from an entire prison system are returned to prison" (1964, p. 504). Similarly,

the Task Force on Corrections has found that, "The best current estimates indicate that, among adult offenders, 35 to 45 percent of those released on parole are subsequently returned to prison" (1967, p. 62). These two sources agree that of the total number of recidivists the majority are returned for parole violations. Of these parole violators approximately one-third were reconvicted of a new felony.

The overall view of youthful offenders has not been as hopeful as that with the adult felons. Ohlin (1951) found, "...that youths are the least predictable of all prisoners," and that their parole violation rates are higher. Glaser (1961) studied the post-release adjustment of all Youth Correction Act offenders released from its inception through June 30, 1958. Forty-nine percent of those paroled subsequently returned to custody, and of these 32 percent had new felonies to their credit. The successful parolees who comprised the remaining 51 percent of Glaser's sample had very few additions to their criminal records. The need for accurate prediction methods was clearly indicated.

Traditional Parole Prediction Methods. Over the past half century several investigators have sought to correlate post institutional adjustment with various inmate traits (Warner, 1923; Bruce et al., 1928; Glueck & Glueck, 1930; Vold, 1931; Mannheim and Wilkins, 1955). Vold's

classic study (1931) isolated those factors whose presence or absence defined a group of releasees with a high (or low) recidivism rate. The general procedure followed by such studies has been characterized by Glaser in this way.

> Prediction tables can be used to divide all cases in a correctional system into "base-expectancy" categories of different parole violation or recidivism risk, so that the post-release record of those receiving a specific treatment can thereby be evaluated in terms of its difference from the record of all those in similar risk categories not receiving that specific treatment (1964, p. 509).

Devised by this procedure, a set of experience tables was actually integrated into the decisions of the Illinois Parole Board from Bruce, Burgess and Harno's study (1928).

Recently, Carney (1966) has carried out a study among inmates of the Massachusetts Correctional Institution at Walpole. He concerned himself with finding base expectancy categories to, "spotlight the type of inmate that is most likely to become a recidivist, as well as the type that is least likely to become one" (p. 1). Obviously the base expectancy technique has been a useful tool for correctional decisions.

Carney (1966), Glaser (1964) and Ohlin (1951) have reported some of the generalizations derived from base expectancy tables. For example, Carney (1966) found that the older offender with a shorter and less serious record would be a better parole risk. Ohlin (1951) summarized that the most efficient predictors are items that, "Define an area of personal and group attitudes towards

criminality" (p. 410). Glaser's (1961) study of the Youth Correction Act offenders was based on expectancy table data and produced many valuable generalizations.

Despite the positive finding of the studies noted above there have been objections to basing decisions on them. Carney (1966) cautions that the categories should not be regarded as a final authority. Two reviews (Schuessler and Cressey, 1950, and Clinard, 1957) have found usable predictive methods wanting. The Task Force on Corrections found that, "No serious authority has proposed the substitution of the statistical method... any individual case may present considerations which must be weighted from the standpoint of fairness" (p. 64). Glaser has voiced similar reservations that "any predictions of the post-release behavior of prisoners are likely to be inaccurate in an appreciable proportion of cases" because of the multiply determined nature of recidivism.

Evidently there have been serious impediments to prediction based on demographic variables. The apparent methodological flaw appears to have been idiographic prediction based on nomothetic data. The percentage of potential recidivists among a group of inmates does not connote the prediction implicit in a regression equation. Therefore, even when the percentage of recidivism from one base expectancy category has been high, no assurance

has been given as to whether or not the individual case was in that failing percentage. Some precision has been gained by using the base expectancy method, but the illusion of idiographic prediction has done a disservice to the correctional process.

Idiographic Prediction Techniques. Several investigators (Clark, 1948; Freeman and Mason, 1952; Panton, 1958a, and 1962a; Monachesi and Hathaway, 1969; Jacobson and Wirt, 1969; and Lanyon, 1968) have striven to uncover personality variables which will correlate with criminal behavior. The Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI) has been a central feature of these studies which have attempted to predict delinquency, reconviction, parole violation, etc. Lanyon (1968) has authored a work entirely devoted to MMPI profiles to illustrate modal score patterns for various populations. He stated that, "One contribution of the handbook is to indicate behavioral and other characteristics that are reflected in MMPI scores with some degree of consistency and also point up characteristics that have little or no effect on the scores" (p. 3). Lanyon included seven profiles under the heading "Delinquency." The Psychopathic deviate scale was the highest average peak in all seven of the studies cited. Of the ten citations in the category of "Prisoners" the Psychopathic deviate scale was again a high point in eight of ten and second highest in the remaining two studies.

The consistency of the relationship of the Psychopathic deviate scale and overt behavior has been demonstrated in the aggregate.

The standard scales of the MMPI have not been able to discriminate recidivist and non-recidivist groups decisively enough for accurate prediction. The first effort to devise a specialized scale for this task was Clark's (1948) Recidivism scale. Clark was able to discriminate between first and multiple AWOL offenders and subsequently was able to show discrimination at the .05 level of significance with AWOL and non-AWOL groups in a basic training class. Freeman and Mason (1952) were not able to achieve significance in their validation attempt with Clark's scale. Their own efforts were ineffective in making a scale of their own.

Panton has had considerable success in predicting recidivism (1958a, 1962a). He first sampled subjects who were clearly recidivist and non-recidivist and found that they differed significantly on group means. Panton was unable, however, to discriminate between the two groups. Combining the discriminative items of the Psychopathic deviate and Prison Adjustment scales he was able to produce a scale that did discriminate the two groups. He named this scale the Habitual Criminal scale (HC) which divided the groups beyond the .01 level of significance. In a further test the Habitual Criminal scale was

found ineffective in identifying recidivists especially among offenders with two or less prior convictions (Panton, 1962a).

Black's Recidivism-Rehabilitation Scale. Black (1967) constructed a 22 item Recidivism-Rehabilitation scale. The scale was devised in the following manner. Fifty convicted felons sentenced to a state reformatory composed two groups of 25 subjects each matched on age, IQ, length of sentence, etc. The first group was composed of inmates who were released and later returned for reconviction or parole violation. The second group was composed of men who had successfully completed at least 14 months without further felony convictions or parole violation.

Black (1967) correlated 28 MMPI scales with post-institutional adjustment. None of the coefficients achieved significance so he selected the two most promising scales, Social Introversion and Habitual Criminal scales. These two scales correlated +.29 and -.24 with the criterion and +.05 with each other. Black selected his 22 items that were common to both the Social introversion and Habitual Criminal scales and which were responded to differentially five or more times by the two groups. The scoring of the items was changed so that a higher score indicated recidivism and the scale was christened the "Recidivism-Rehabilitation" scale. The numbers and text of the MMPI items making up the scale as

well as the scorable answer (true or false) were illustrated in Figure 1. The mean difference of the Recidivism-Rehabilitation scale between groups was significant beyond the .01 level of confidence and the Social introversion scale was significant beyond the .05 level of confidence. Interestingly enough the Habitual Criminal and Psychopathic deviate scales were found to have insignificant differences between groups.

The Recidivism-Rehabilitation Index. Standard cut-off points were established arbitrarily for the Recidivism-Rehabilitation, Habitual Criminal and Social introversion scales in order to devise an actuarial system of prediction. The system was devised so that an individual was given one point for each scale value exceeding the cut-off point. The results of the prediction achieved were unequivocal with index scores of 0, 1 or 3. Scores of 0 or 1 were associated with rehabilitation and a score of 3 was associated with reconviction or parole violation. A score of 2 was found to be indecisive. Index scores of 2 were then referred to the numerical difference between the Anxiety and Repression scales. Those subjects with differences of one through eight and above 24 were recidivists and those with difference scores of 9 through 24 were predicted as rehabilitated.

The Recidivism-Rehabilitation scale correctly identified 43 of the 50 subjects and the actuarial index

TABLE 1

ITEMS OF THE MMPI TEST THAT COMPRISE BLACK'S RECIDIVISM-REHABILITATION SCALE

56. As a youngster I was suspended from school one or more times for cutting up. True (HC, True)

57. I am a good mixer. True (Si, False)

102. My hardest battles are with myself. False (HC, True)

118. In school I was sometimes sent to the principal for cutting up. True (HC, True)

124. Most people will use somewhat unfair means to gain profit or an advantage rather than to lose it. False (Si, True)

143. When I was a child, I belonged to a crowd or gang that tried to stick together through thick and thin. True (HC, True; Si, False)

155. I am neither gaining nor losing weight. False (HC, False)

208. I like to flirt. True (Si, False)

216. There is very little love and companionship in my family as compared to other homes. True (HC, True)

231. I like to talk about sex. True (HC, False; Si, False)

244. My way of doing things is apt to be misunderstood by others. False (HC, True)

278. I have often felt that strangers were looking at me critically. True (Si, True)

304. In school I found it very hard to talk before the class. False (Si, True)

316. I think nearly anyone would tell a lie to keep out of trouble. False (Si, True)

359. Sometimes some unimportant thought will run through my mind and bother me for days. False (Si, False)

TABLE 1-Continued

398.	I often think, "I wish I were a child again." True (Si, True)
400.	If given the chance I could do some things that would be of great benefit to the world. True (Si, False)
415.	If given the chance I would make a good leader of people. True (Si, False)
469.	I have often found people jealous of my good ideas, just because they had not thought of them first. False (Si, True)
485.	When a man is with a woman he is usually thinking about things related to her sex. False (HC, False)
521.	In a group of people I would not be embarrassed to be called upon to start a discussion or give an opinion about something I know well. True (Si, False)
564.	I am apt to pass up something I want to do when others feel that it isn't worth doing. False (Si, True)

identified 45 of the 50. Black then devised a Recidivism-Rehabilitation inventory which included the scales of the index, the standard validity scales and the Psychopathic deviate and Hypomania scales as well. (Refer to Figure 1.)

Rationale for the Recidivism-Rehabilitation Scale and Index. Black (1967) organized the discriminative items of the Recidivism-Rehabilitation scale into conceptual groups to study what the scale might imply about the personality of recidivists. He appraised these item clusters in terms of their apparent content. The first was thought to reflect problems with authority (items 56 and 118). The second cluster represented items about accurate self-appraisal (102, 244, 278, 400 and 415). The third cluster indicated the quality of social comfort and the accurate perception of social events (57, 304, 469, 521 and 564). Cluster four connoted, "childhood, dependency and early deprivation" (143, 216, and 298). The fifth cluster items appeared to reflect male identification and role taking (208, 231 and 485). Cluster six was tentatively defined as "body image and impulse-thought control" items (155 and 359). Cluster seven was composed of items that Black called "pseudo values" and were thought to entail the defense of denial (124 and 316). Each of the clusters was discussed in terms of "autonomy and heteronomy" drawing on the writings of Ausubel, Angyl, and Berne. Black (1967) summarized the characteristics of the recidivists in the

RECIDIVISM - REHABILITATION INVENTORY (RRI)
from
THE MINNESOTA MULTIPHASIC PERSONALITY INVENTORY (MMPI)

NAME_____

NUMBER_____ RACE_____

AGE_____ EDUCATION_____

FSIQ_____ LIQ_____ NLIQ_____

FELONY_____

FIRST OFFENDER_____ PAV_____

RECONVICTION(S)_____

INFRACTIONS_____

ESCAPES_____

DATE_____

NOTES

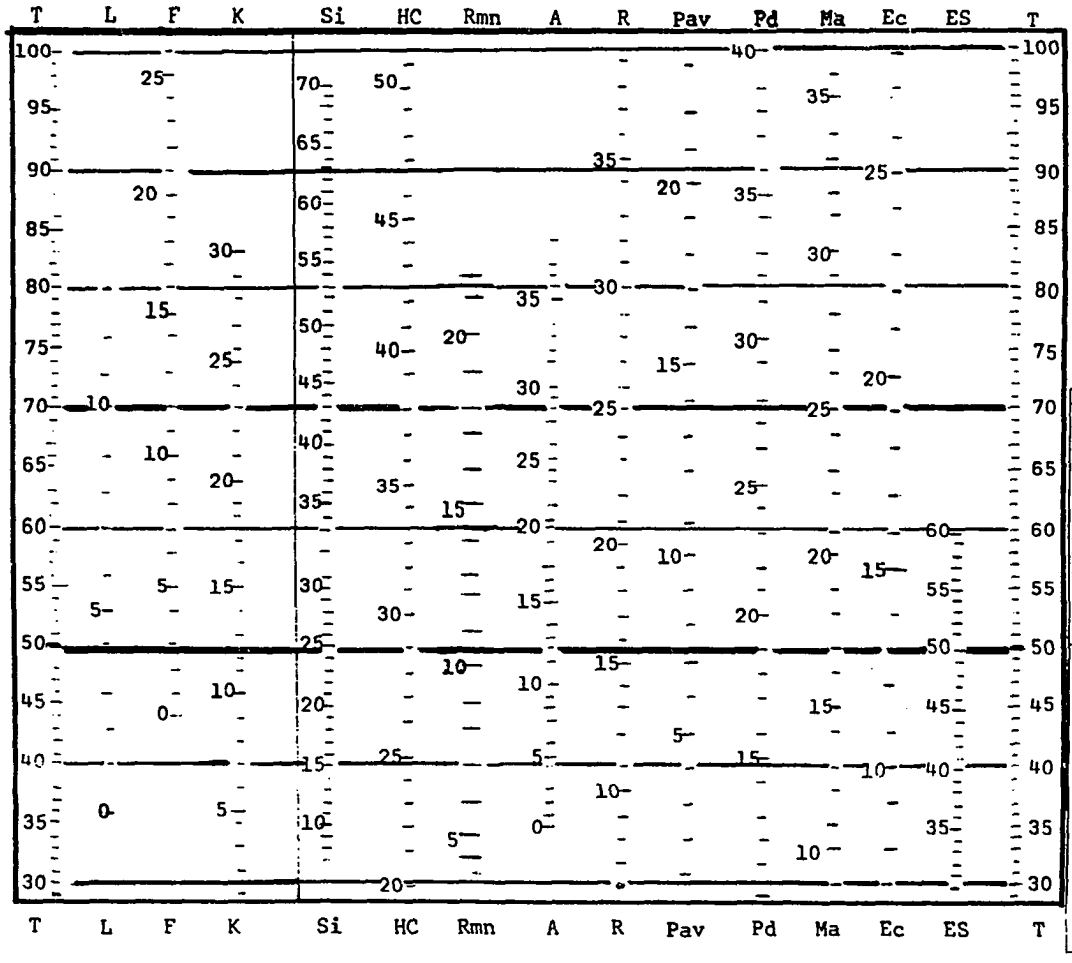


Figure 1. Black's Recidivism-Rehabilitation inventory.

in the following manner,

> In summary, the implied excesses in the direction of aggressive, extroverted, impulsive, and exhibitionistic tendencies affirmed in these items are familiar and synonymous with many previously observed characteristics of youthful offenders with a propensity toward recidivism (p. 78).

Black wondered if the rehabilitated group was "the full polar opposite" of the reconvicted group. If so, he reasoned, the "extreme overcontrol" was correlated highly with rehabilitation. He felt this was not the case, however,

> Rather, they actually seem to have strength in the direction of more accurate self-appraisal, less need to "grind axes" and to prove things at expensive personal prices, and more tolerance for give and take in interpersonal relationships. They externalize their problems less frequently, and they rise above the wounds of the past (1967, p. 79).

An analysis of the Social introversion scale results provided an example of the above principle. Black (1967) had found a significant difference between the means of the rehabilitated and recidivist groups. To say that the reconvicted subjects were more gregarious was an oversimplication since the two distributions overlapped. Black then considered the original Social introversion validation population. The extreme low scorers were seen as "oral, self-indulgent people, unable to delay gratifications, and prone to act with insufficient thought and deliberation" (Black, 1967). They were also shown to react quickly when frustrated and to exhibit guilefulness. The high scorers on the Social introversion scale were

found to be more self-contained, inhibited, responsible and constricted individuals. Rehabilitation necessarily depended on some of these features but not entirely and not to an extreme. Thus the Social introversion dimension was accorded one point, plus or minus on the Recidivism-Rehabilitation index.

The Habitual Criminal scale was also accorded one point in the index (Black, 1967). Black observed that using Panton's cut-off point he matched the original level of discrimination between the rehabilitated and recidivist groups. The difference in responses between the groups concerned, "every basic aspect of development; home, school, social group relations, relationships with women, and bodily development" (1967, p. 82). The path to recidivism was towards "deprivation, antisocial values, and insufficient character" as indicated to Black (1967) by the increasing correlation of the Habitual Criminal scale with further recidivism. This relationship has suggested the reinforcing properties of the recidivist position.

The Anxiety and Repression Scales. As stated above the difference between the Anxiety and Repression scales was used to decide the prediction of rehabilitation or recidivism for individuals with an indecisive index score of two. Black (1967) concluded that the lower quadrant scores on both scales indentified them "as predominantly

in the direction of behavior and character disorder" rather than the psychotic or neurotic patterns. The smaller Anxiety minus Repression differences among the recidivists were thought to represent, "the depressive phase of a total cycle composed of quick, short range gratifications and high emotional tone,--getting caught, chagrin, guilt, experience of punishment,--and reactive depression" (p. 85).

Further MMPI Research on Delinquency. Two recent articles (Jacobson and Wirt, 1969 and Monachesi and Hathaway, 1969) concerned with the MMPI and the prediction of antisocial behavior have shown support for Black's (1967) study. Jacobson and Wirt (1969) have written a review of their several research projects with Minnesota State Prison inmates. One of their chief goals was to develop psychological methods to predict behavior, in the general context of assessing group therapy outcomes. The authors defined an "acceptable" and an "unacceptable" pair of groups depending on post-measurement behavior change such as reconviction, parole violation or rehabilitation. They then correlated 240 MMPI scales with the post-prison adjustment of the combined samples. Nearly a quarter of the scales discriminated significantly between the acceptable groups but the "raw score differences are as small as one item."

Jacobson and Wirt (1967) examined the clustering of the significant scales and found "logically congruent patterns which...explain the recidivism rates." The scales that were found to discriminate at high enough rates were the Psychopathic deviate and Hypomania scales (higher for the unacceptable group) and the Hypochondriasis and Social introversion scales (higher for the acceptable group). Jacobson and Wirt commented,

> As a group, the inmates making acceptable adjustments in the community are, relative to those making unacceptable adjustments, more neurotic and inhibited, while the poorly adjusting individuals are deviant, more psychopathic, and more impulsive (1969, p. 203).

In addition, the unacceptable subjects scored high on scales concerned with social adeptness and the executive ability of high ego strength. The acceptable subjects scored highest on scales of ego over control, rigidity and introversion.

Monachesi and Hathaway (1969) described a longitudinal study of approximately 4000 Minnesota school children. The MMPI served as their major psychometric instrument. The subjects were divided into two groups according to whether or not they had been involved in delinquent behavior. The MMPI profiles of all the subjects were grouped according to their highest scale. Three scales, Social introversion, Depression and Masculinity-femininity, were designated as inhibitory scales and were found to be associated with low rates of delinquency. The Psychopathic

deviate, Schizophrenia and Hypomania scales were labeled excitatory scales and were found to be related to high rates of delinquency.

> The data suggests that boys who tend to be socially introverted, unhappy, sensitive, and feminine are less apt to engage in delinquent behavior than boys who are rebellious, unconventional, aggressive, negative, difficult, expansive, and decisive (Monachesi and Hathaway, 1969, p. 210).

On the basis of their data Monachesi and Hathaway have concluded that there are lawful relationships between patterns of MMPI responses and subsequent delinquent behavior.

CHAPTER II

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

J. Douglas Grant (1962) of the California Department of Corrections has stated that,

> Any correctional agency not using a prediction procedure to study the effectiveness of its decisions and operations is perpetuating a crime against the taxpayer (p. 259).

Grant's call has been echoed in the words of the President's Task Force on Corrections (1967),

> A core responsibility found in all phases of the correctional process is the requirement of gathering and analyzing information about the offender that will provide an adequate basis to predicate the series of correctional decisions (p. 14).

The preceding remarks have expressed central needs of American correctional institutions. Chapter I has detailed the increased use of parole and the facts of recidivism. There has been a strong need for psychometric instruments to implement parole decisions. The advent of base expectancy tables has aided the understanding of the type of inmate most likely to succeed (or fail) on parole. Unfortunately, the individual inmate may have been among the small percentage of the wrong "type" who did not act according to the group rate. The costs associated with

this kind of misperception are either costly incarceration or additional felonies.

Clinard (1957) reviewed the existing prediction techniques and found them inadequate. One of his criticisms was the fact that there had been little use of the MMPI test. The earlier trials at predicting recidivism (Clark, 1948, and Freeman and Mason, 1952) with a specially devised scale had failed to achieve significance in cross-validation. Panton's Habitual Criminal scale (1962a) had achieved a modicum of success with older recidivists; however it was not as efficient with the younger, less confirmed offenders.

Black (1967) has devised a Recidivism-Rehabilitation scale and index which were able to identify respectively 43 and 45 of 50 post release adjustments. A content analysis of the Recidivism-Rehabilitation scale and the response patterns among the three index scales was carried out. The results of that analysis were summarized in the following list of characteristics of the recidivist:

1. emotional deprivation in childhood
2. pessimism and resentment
3. "Loser" self-concept
4. faulty integration of the self-system
5. extroverted orientation
6. antisocial values
7. externalization of sources of conflict and control of their behavior (1967).

Black's Recidivism-Rehabilitation scale (1967) was derived from a post hoc analysis of the data, "It has no cross

validity, however, and it is untested by experience" (p. 98).

The validation of the Recidivism-Rehabilitation scale and actuarial index was the primary objective of the present study. A second goal was the task of refining the theoretical basis of the Recidivism-Rehabilitation through its efficacy as a predictor of behavior and to find points of correspondence with other views of recidivism.

According to the objectives stated above it was decided to test the Recidivism-Rehabilitation scale and index in predicting the post-institutional adjustment of inmates released from the Federal Reformatory, El Reno, Oklahoma. Four major hypotheses were formulated.

Hypothesis one: The Recidivism-Rehabilitation scale would discriminate significantly between recidivists and rehabilitated releasees.

Hypothesis two: The Recidivism-Rehabilitation index would discriminate significantly between recidivists and rehabilitated releasees.

Hypothesis three: The Recidivism-Rehabilitation index would discriminate potential recidivists with greater precision than the Recidivism-Rehabilitation scale alone.

Hypothesis four: The Recidivism-Rehabilitation scale means would differ significantly between recidivist and rehabilitated groups.

CHAPTER III

METHOD

Pilot Study. In order to assess the feasibility of a large scale investigation, a pilot study was carried out to pre-test the predictive powers of the Recidivism-Rehabilitation scale and actuarial index. The MMPI test has been administered routinely to all incoming inmates of the Federal Reformatory, El Reno, Oklahoma. Upon the release of the inmates, the MMPI has remained in the "dead file" indefinitely for use in the case of parole violation or reconviction to Federal custody.

The classification and parole "jacket" of the released inmate has also been placed in a "dead file." These files are kept for a number of years and then retired to a warehouse. In case of parole violation or reconviction the dead file has been reactivated. In case the releasee has been reconvicted to an authority other than Federal, requests for information have been sent to El Reno concerning the inmates prior convictions, institutional adjustment, etc. These requests have been routinely filed along with the inmates file. In addition the Federal Bureau of Investigation finger-print records were often

sent to El Reno and placed in the inmate's inactive file in case he was fingerprinted at another locale and if El Reno were designated as an interested party.

For inmates on parole, reports from their parole officer were filed routinely in the "dead file." Parole reports have included such information as number and type of arrests in addition to relevant material concerning employment, family matters, etc. In the case of Youth Corrections Act offenders, the record of action setting aside conviction has been filed routinely as well.

MMPI records from the pilot study were drawn from the inactive file beginning with the lowest register number (earliest commitment) and continuing through the file in numerical order. A sample of 50 MMPI answer sheets and profiles was secured for individuals with intact records in the classification inactive file. Of these 50 subjects, seven were rejected because they did not meet acceptable validity limits.

The remaining 43 pilot subjects were then scored for the Recidivism-Rehabilitation scale (Black, 1967) and the additional four scales comprising the actuarial index. Following the method described below predictions of rehabilitation or recidivism were derived from the raw scores for the Recidivism-Rehabilitation scale and then the index.

The post-institutional adjustment of each of the 47 pilot subjects was evaluated by reference to their classification inactive file. Those subjects with no further record of conviction or parole violation were designated "successes." Those subjects with parole violation and/or a record of reconviction were designated "failures." There were 20 successes and 23 failures among the 43 subjects.

Fourteen of the 20 successes and 15 of the 23 failures were correctly predicted by the scale alone. With the addition of the additional scales the Rmn actuarial index was able to correctly predict 3 additional successes and one additional failure. The index was thus able to correctly predict 17 of 20 successful post-institutional adjustments and 16 of 23 failures in post-institutional adjustment.

Problems with the Pilot Study. The results of the pilot study were encouraging yet they illustrated several problems which would have been a serious impediment to data collection. 1. The register number (and hence the data of commitment) was not an accurate guide to the date of release except within very broad limits. 2. Negative evidence or the absence of any record of reconviction was not an accurate indicator of post-institutional adjustment. Cross-checking a number of pilot cases showed that several individuals were inappropriately labeled "success"

or "failure" due to incomplete information in the inactive file. 3. In many cases the classification materials corresponding to a particular MMPI profile were not present, and vice versa. Cases where the inmate was transferred leaving the MMPI test behind or where psychological files were missing despite complete parole reports for three years frequently caused rejection. 4. As was indicated above the MMPI answer sheets and profiles were often found to be invalid for a number of reasons. This sort of impediment made it necessary to examine approximately 250 individual records to find the final sample of 50. Even at that rate of rejection there was some question about the accuracy of the post-institutional adjustment of the remaining 43 subjects.

Subjects. The subjects for the present study were all convicted felons committed to the Federal Reformatory at El Reno, Oklahoma. This reformatory serves as a medium security institution for young men generally from 18 to 26 years old. A large percentage of the current 1000 man population have been sentenced under provisions of the Federal Youth Corrections Act (Glaser, 1964). Others are sentenced by the usual "adult" sentencing procedures. Subjects were selected for this study without regard to such demographic variables as intelligence, age, length of sentence following Black's (1967) finding

that these factors were poor predictors of recidivism or rehabilitation.

Criteria for Recidivism or Rehabilitation. The criteria for recidivism or rehabilitation were chosen to provide positive identification. The first dimension of the criteria was evidence of a clean record or recidivism by parole violation and/or a new conviction. Parole reports claiming that no arrests for felonies were the criterion of success or rehabilitation. Notation of Federal parole violation and/or conviction or notice of a felony conviction from a state agency served as the criterion of failure or recidivism.

The other dimension of the criteria for success and failure was the length of time from release to follow-up observation. Black (1967) used a criterion of 14 months or more. There have been considerable data to indicate that two years is an optimal post-release period. For example, Glaser (1961) found that 83.2 percent of the parole violators on the Youth Corrections Act sentences had done so within the first two years after their release. Panton (1962a) used a one year minimum follow-up period and the Task Force on Corrections (1967) noted that over 60 percent of known recidivism occurs within this first year. Carney's sample (1966) corroborated this 60 percent figure and added that 83.7% of the potential recidivists in a four year follow up have been returned within two

years. The follow up period for this study was two years from the date of release. Combining both dimensions of the criteria, successes and failures were defined in the following manner. A "success" was a subject who had completed two years on parole without any arrests or convictions for felonies noted in his parole reports covering the entire two years. A "failure" was a subject whose parole had been revoked or who had been convicted of a new felony or both within two years after his release from custody. Evidence of failure was shown to be readmission to Federal custody or notice of incarceration from another correctional authority.

Procedure. In all, approximately 2500 inactive files were examined to locate the 180 subjects in this study. The 180 were equally divided into two groups of 90 successes and 90 failures each, according to the criteria outlined above. They had all been released at least two years prior to April, 1970, and the earliest in October, 1965. The 90 successes exhausted the available supply of subjects that met both dimensions of the criterion--parole reports covering at least two years from the date of their release. The 90 failures were selected randomly from a total population of nearly 300.

Each of the 180 subjects were further identified by a completed MMPI answer sheet and profile from their admission screening test battery, either from El Reno or

from the Federal institution where they were first committed. All the MMPI profiles were within the acceptable validity limits set by Black (1967). Validity scales were not to exceed an L score of 75, an F score of 80 or a K score of 70.

Once the entire sample had been completed the two groups were given identifying numbers. The successes were numbered S1 through S90 and the failures were numbered F1 through F90. This numbering system provided positive identification without revealing the actual identity of the subjects.

The entire sample of 180 valid MMPI tests were scored for the additional scales of the Recidivism-Rehabilitation inventory (Black, 1967). Each subject in both groups was then evaluated by the Recidivism-Rehabilitation scale in the following way. Each subject with a Recidivism-Rehabilitation scale score of 50 or less (raw score of 10 or less) was predicted as a success. Each subject with a Recidivism-Rehabilitation scale score of more than 50 (raw score of 11 or above) was predicted to be a failure.

All 180 subjects were then evaluated by the entire Recidivism-Rehabilitation actuarial index (Black, 1967). This procedure was carried out by assigning one point to a subject whose Recidivism-Rehabilitation, Habitual Criminal and Social introversion scale scores passed the cut-off point in the direction predicting failure or

recidivism. As before the Recidivism-Rehabilitation value had to exceed a scale score of 50. The Habitual Criminal score had to exceed a scale score of 58 (raw score of 33). In the case of the Social introversion score failure was predicted by a scale score below 54 (or a raw score of 33).

Each subject then had a score of 1 or 0 for each of the three scales. A total Recidivism-Rehabilitation index score for each subject was arrived at by adding his three scale scores together. For subjects with a resulting index total of 0 or 1 a prediction of success was made. All of those subjects with an index score of 3 were predicted as failures.

For all those subjects with a Recidivism-Rehabilitation index score of 2 an additional step was required to complete the prediction. For each of these subjects the difference between their Anxiety and Repression scales was computed. All subjects with difference scores of 1 through 8 or in excess of 24 were predicted as failures. The remaining subjects with Anxiety minus Repression differences of 9 through 24 were predicted as successes.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

A prediction of post institutional adjustment for each of the 180 subjects was made by use of the Recidivism Rehabilitation scale and by the Recidivism-Rehabilitation actuarial index (Black, 1967). As described in Chapter III, predictions of success or failure were based on the Recidivism-Rehabilitation, Social introversion, Habitual Criminal, Anxiety, and Repression scales of the MMPI test. Appendix A lists the T scores achieved by each subject on each of these scales. T score values which exceeded the criterion cut-off points for the Recidivism-Rehabilitation actuarial index score equaled two. Anxiety and Repression scale scores were also underlined if their difference predicted failure. The predictive power of the Recidivism-Rehabilitation scale and index was tested separately according to hypotheses one and two.

Analysis of the prediction of the Recidivism-Rehabilitation scale. The first hypothesis stated that the Recidivism-Rehabilitation scale would discriminate significantly between successes and failures. Of the 90 successes the Recidivism-Rehabilitation scale correctly

predicted 68 or 75.5 per cent. Of the 90 failures the Recidivism-Rehabilitation scale correctly predicted 62 cases or 68.8 per cent. In the aggregate the Recidivism-Rehabilitation scale correctly predicted 130 of the total sample of 180 post institutional adjustments, or 72.2 per cent.

The discrimination of the Recidivism-Rehabilitation scale was tested by use of a chi-square test of significance. These data were shown in Table 2. The value of the chi-square was equal to 36.3 which was significant beyond the .0001 level of confidence.

Analysis of the prediction of the Recidivism-Rehabilitation index. The second hypothesis stated that the Recidivism-Rehabilitation actuarial index would discriminate significantly between successes and failures. Of the 90 successes the index predicted 72 correctly or 80.0 per cent. The index correctly predicted 49 or 54.4 per cent of the 90 failures. In all, the Recidivism-Rehabilitation index correctly predicted 121 of the 180 post institutional adjustments or 67.2 per cent.

A chi-square statistic was computed to test the accuracy of the prediction of the Recidivism-Rehabilitation index. These data were shown in Table 3. The chi-square equaled 33.1, which was significant beyond the .0001 level of confidence.

TABLE 2

COMPARISON OF RECIDIVISM-REHABILITATION SCALE PREDICTION AND ACTUAL POST-RELEASE BEHAVIOR

Group	Actual Successes	Actual Failures
Predicted Successes	68	28
Predicted Failures	22	62

X^2 = 36.3 (df=1) significant beyond the .0001 level of confidence

TABLE 3

COMPARISON OF RECIDIVISM-REHABILITATION INDEX PREDICTION AND ACTUAL POST-RELEASE BEHAVIOR

Group	Actual Successes	Actual Failures
Predicted Successes	72	41
Predicted Failures	18	49

X^2 = 33.1 (df=1) significant beyond the .0001 level of confidence

Comparison of the Recidivism-Rehabilitation scale and index. The third hypothesis stated that the Recidivism-Rehabilitation actuarial index would discriminate potential successes and failures with greater precision than the Recidivism-Rehabilitation scale alone. Among the 90 successes the index correctly predicted four more subjects than the scale alone. Among the 90 failures the index correctly predicted 13 fewer cases than the scale alone. In the aggregate the Recidivism-Rehabilitation actuarial index correctly predicted nine fewer cases than the scale alone. This loss in precision was reflected by the chi-square statistics shown in Tables 2 and 3.

Comparison of Recidivism-Rehabilitation mean scores between groups. The fourth hypothesis stated that there would be significant differences between the Recidivism-Rehabilitation scale means of the successes and the failures. These mean scores, variances and t test were shown in Table 4. The t statistics was equal to 5.2 which was significant beyond the .001 level of confidence.

TABLE 4

RECIDIVISM-REHABILITATION SCALE MEANS AND VARIANCES AND T-TEST OF POST-RELEASE SUCCESSES AND FAILURES

Group	S^2	Mean	t	p
Successes (N=90)	37.8	46.7		
			5.2	.001*
Failures (N=90)	46.9	51.7		

*Two-tailed test

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

Three major hypotheses supported. Three of the four hypotheses stated in Chapter II were supported at high levels of significance, while the remaining hypothesis was not supported. Each of the three supported hypotheses was interpreted singly, and then as a group. The rejected hypothesis was then examined for its implications about the other three. The meaning of the Recidivism-Rehabilitation scale and index was then examined in light of existing literature and synthesized in terms of recent concepts in transactional analysis (Berne, 1964).

The Recidivism-Rehabilitation scale. Hypothesis one posited that the Recidivism-Rehabilitation scale would successfully discriminate potential successes and failures in post institutional adjustment. The discriminatory precision of the scale exceeded prediction by chance beyond the .0001 level of confidence. The correct identification of 72.2 per cent of 180 adjustments clearly established the usefulness of the scale in predicting overt behavior. To date the Recidivism-Rehabilitation scale has achieved the greatest success of any predictor

in identifying the young adult recidivist (Panton, 1962a; Black, 1967).

An item analysis of the Rmn scale. An item analysis of the Recidivism-Rehabilitation scale was carried out to illustrate its properties more clearly. This analysis, which appears in Table 5, presents the item number, its scorable response (True or False), and the relative proportions of True or False responses for both groups. An examination of Table 5 reveals several items that were answered one way by a majority of subjects. For example, item 216 was answered False by 72 of the 90 successes and 70 times by the failures. Items 124 and 359 were responded to in a similarly "lop-sided" fashion by both groups. Although a preponderance of subjects responded differentially within groups these proportions were not such to discriminate between groups.

No single item or group of items could be identified as more efficient discriminators than the scale as a whole. This lack of single item decisiveness suggested the following. Since the Recidivism-Rehabilitation scale was able to successfully discriminate between successes and failures, and there were significant differences between group means, it must have been the absolute number of scorable items that accounted for the scale's success. Therefore, there was reason to support the notion that the Recidivism-Rehabilitation scale taps a recidivist

TABLE 5

COMPARISON OF THE RESPONSES OF SUCCESS AND FAILURE GROUPS TO EACH RECIDIVISM-REHABILITATION SCALE ITEM

Item number	Success group		Recidivism-Rehabilitation scorable response	Failure group	
	True	False		True	False
56	57	33	True	63	27
57	27	63	True	43	47
102	63	27	False	50	50
118	33	57	True	62	28
124	71	19	False	69	21
143	26	64	True	43	47
155	51	39	False	53	37
208	39	51	True	46	44
216	18	72	True	20	70
231	45	45	True	45	45
244	45	45	False	47	43
278	31	59	True	37	53
304	50	40	False	36	54
317	65	25	False	57	33
359	27	63	False	19	71
398	34	56	True	42	48
400	41	49	True	45	45
415	32	58	True	41	49
469	21	69	False	30	60
485	53	37	False	49	41
521	52	38	True	66	24
564	30	60	False	21	69

"syndrome," a personality dimension with overt MMPI response tendencies.

The Recidivism-Rehabilitation actuarial index. The second hypothesis predicted that the Recidivism-Rehabilitation actuarial index would discriminate potential successes and failures at a significant level. Correct predictions in 121 of the total 180 cases, or 67.2 per cent, confirmed this expectation beyond the .0001 level of confidence. The index was differentially sensitive to the prediction of successes and failures. Eighty per cent of the successes were correctly identified, yet only 54.4 per cent of the failures were predicted. The Recidivism-Rehabilitation scale was also differentially sensitive to successes and failures with six more correct identifications among the successes. The discrimination of failures by the index, however, was low enough to have negligible value. Since the Recidivism-Rehabilitation scale alone was considerably more effective with the failure group, further examination of the remaining index scales was indicated.

Discrepancy in Recidivism-Rehabilitation scale and index. The third hypothesis predicted that the Recidivism-Rehabilitation actuarial index would discriminate potential successes and failures with greater precision than the scale alone. As was suggested above, greater precision was achieved by the index among the successes.

Thirteen fewer failures were identified, however, for a net loss in precision of nine cases. Examination of the Social introversion, Habitual Criminal and Anxiety Repression difference provided some clues as to how the index failed to surpass the scale as well as pointing out some contradictions between them.

The Recidivism-Rehabilitation scale correctly identified four successes that the index subsequently misidentified as failures (S10, 15, 22, and 69). Fifteen failures (F3, 5, 10, 13, 27, 31, 47, 62, 63, 71, 74, 77, 79, and 82) were predicted correctly by the scale and then incorrectly predicted by the index. In all the index contradicted the originally correct prediction of the scale 19 times. Eleven of these 19 cases were incorrectly identified by the Social introversion scale and 16 were incorrectly identified by the Habitual Criminal scale. All of these 19 contradictory cases were also those with index scores of two, equivocal predictions in Black's sample as well (1967). Reference to the Anxiety minus Repression scale difference showed 15 incorrect predictions out of 19.

For the 19 discrepant cases incorrect predictions were made most often by the Habitual Criminal scale (16 cases), next by the Anxiety minus Repression difference (15 cases) and by the Social introversion scale (11 cases). The most parsimonious explanation, cederus parabis, would

point to the Anxiety minus Repression difference as the cause of the mistaken identities. Difference scores have been notoriously unreliable measures. In addition, Black's (1967) sample was small, small enough so that a chance variation could have accounted for the improbable pattern of Anxiety minus Repression differences.

Significant Recidivism-Rehabilitation mean differences between groups. The fourth hypothesis forecast that there would be significant differences between the means of the success and failure groups. This contention was supported beyond the .001 level of confidence. This finding reinforced the notion that the Recidivism-Rehabilitation scale has reflected a valid measure of recidivism. In connection with this claim of validity, it was useful to examine the variances of the two groups.

As shown in Table 3, the variance of the Success group was 37.8, and that of the Failure group 46.9. An F ratio was computed in order to select the appropriate *t*-test. Although the ratio did not reflect a statistically significant difference it did approach the .05 level of confidence. The larger variability of response associated with the Failure group helped to explain the lower precision in identifying its members.

Incorrect predictions. The Rmn scale has emerged as the best predictor of recidivism among the 180 young adult offenders in the present sample. However, 50 of this

sample were predicted incorrectly. There was one striking difference in the present study and Black's (1967) construction of the scale. Black's subjects were tested just prior to their release from incarceration, as applicants for Vocational Rehabilitation services. The subjects in the present study were all tested as part of an intake process at the reformatory. This variable may have had crucial effects that should not be neglected.

Of the 50 incorrect predictions, the Recidivism-Rehabilitation scale identified 22 Successes to fail and 28 Failures to succeed. It was assumed for purposes of discussion that at the moment of testing these predictions were accurate. If this were true then these inmates changed sometime before their release from the reformatory, or during their post-institutional follow up period. The factor of incarceration was a major difference between the present sample and the point at which Black's (1967) subjects made application for Vocational Rehabilitation services. This chain of reasoning led to the conclusion that some incorrect predictions were due to the fact that the effects of the rehabilitation program were not taken into account. Some inmates profit from their experience in custody; some use the experience to confirm themselves as social outcasts. It has remained a moot point whether or not the Recidivism-Rehabilitation scale would have predicted as well, worse, or better if the inmates were tested just prior to release.

Several other factors may have been responsible for the 50 incorrect predictions. There were several records that approached the validity scale limits set forth in Black's study (1967). These records exhibited high scores on the L scale, the F scale or the K scale, but seldom on more than one. Thus the mean differences between the 50 incorrect predictions and the remaining 130 were negligible.

The relationship between invalid MMPI tests has been demonstrated by Monachesi and Hathaway, who commented: "It's of interest that the boys who scored high on F and/or L scales, thus rendering their MMPI protocols invalid, had the highest delinquency rate" (1969). In Black's sample, "only one case had an F score above 70, a 76, and only one case had a K score above 70, a 74" (1967). The present sample was composed of several individuals whose validity scores exceeded those reported by Black. The observed differences between the validity scales of the two studies were attributed to attitudes at the time of testing, either at the beginning or ending of incarceration. The point was not that higher validity scores necessarily meant greater recidivism but that they also lowered the credibility of the other scales.

It was not the task of the present study to evaluate the prediction of demographic variables. In fact Chapter I defined why such variables were not used as

predictors. The factor of length of incarceration has been shown by Glaser (1964) to have an important relationship (although not causally related as yet) to the success on parole of car thieves committed under the Youth Corrections Act. The present sample was composed of approximately 60 per cent of this type of violator. It was noted that relationships such as this could account for several of the failures to predict. (Refer to Appendix B.)

The foregoing sections of this chapter have detailed the effectiveness of the Recidivism-Rehabilitation scale and actuarial index for the prediction of recidivism among young adult offenders. In general, the Recidivism-Rehabilitation scale has shown itself to be the single most efficient predictor of recidivism among young adult offenders. Several reasons have been advanced for its failure to predict 50 cases from the total sample of 180. The accuracy of the remaining 130 predictions led to the conclusion that the Recidivism-Rehabilitation scale did represent the tendency to be reconvicted and/or to parole violate. The following material was included to illustrate how the scale may be interpreted and integrated into existing conceptions of deviant behavior and a systematic treatment of the recidivist.

Oppression and the "Loser Syndrome." Several studies (Grygier, 1954; Halleck, 1967; Spiva, 1968; and Schwartzburd, 1968) have related the concept of oppression to deviant

behavior. Grygier's (1954) research centered on the hypothesis that extrapunitive behavior stems from oppressive treatment, especially oppression during early formative years. At the same time delinquents were thought to experience themselves as victims. Grygier (1954) demonstrated his hypothesis by the use of the Rosenzweig Picture Frustration Study as a measure of overt response tendency, and the Thematic Apperception Test to measure fantasy activity. Schwartzburd (1968) was able to affirm the relationship between extrapunitiveness measured by the Rosenzweig test and overt behavior using a control for self-censorship. These data defined how early experience may have distorted the delinquent's phenomenal view of the world in a manner which justifies his antisocial actions.

Halleck (1967) developed a systematic view of deviant behavior which places central emphasis on dealing with the feeling of helplessness brought on by oppression. Halleck identified oppression as that, "which is perceived but which may not have an immediate source in the observable environment" as well as objectively measurable oppression. In his view there were two different types of adaptation subsumed under the heading of criminal behavior. The first sort was "criminality" which was thought of as a successful criminal career. A second sort of adaptation Halleck called "psychotic behavior which involves

breaking the rules of society," behavior of the mentally ill, and unreasonable compared to goal directed criminal behavior. This unreasonable behavior was understood as a way to reduce the feeling of helplessness in the face of felt oppression.

Spiva (1968) executed a study which illustrated the "Loser Syndrome" as a well defined clinical entity. Spiva derived his view from Halleck that delinquency or criminality was a way for the individual to deal with feelings of oppression and helplessness.

> This study will explore the loser syndrome as a personality configuration, aspects of which exist on a continuum. The lower syndrome has been characterized as including a view of the world as an oppressive place which does not provide adequate gratification. The loser experiences a profound sense of helplessness, internal turmoil, and more closely resembles the so-called psychotic offender. The loser subscribes to an underlying belief that his life is determined by such factors as chance, fate, and luck. Underlying his perception of himself is the assumption of a destiny to fail. The loser has difficulty in testing reality; further, he may be unable to control his aggressive impulses.
>
> The above may be stated in the form of three general propositions:
>
> 1. A group of adolescents who have been identified as losers will be severely limited in their ability to organize and control their experiences. Ego functions will be poorly integrated.
>
> 2. A group of adolescents who have been identified as losers will appear to have the subjective feeling of helplessness. They will not conceive of themselves as the active agents of their own behavior.
>
> 3. A group of adolescents who have been identified as losers will respond to frustration in an extrapunitive manner. They will behave as if there is no alternative but to direct aggression immediately onto the perceived source of frustration (Spiva, 1968, pp. 17-18).

These propositions were borne out in the study.

Spiva (1968) identified "winners" and "losers" from among a training school population by the use of staff and inmate ratings. Clinical psychologists were able to discriminate between winners and losers by use of projective test data according to criteria which operationalized Spiva's three propositions.

Spiva tied his results to differences in self-concept between the group of winners and the group of losers. The winners saw themselves as, more adequate, "less likely to feel themselves as mere victims and they express a higher aspiration level." Winners were able to express themselves better, were "more critical" in their judgments and express a greater recognition of the need of impulse control. The losers were, more deficient in ego functioning, had less of a feeling of autonomy and were less able to manage and control their aggressive impulses. The losers were also more stereotyped in their type of responses.

"Cops and Robbers" and beyond. The progression of the preceding paragraphs has shown a relationship between oppression and delinquent behavior. A further question was what are the dynamics of the process that creates and sustains the delinquent orientation? Black (1967) made use of Berne's "Cops and Robbers" game from the volume Games People Play (1964) to lend coherence to the qualities of recidivists identified from an item analysis of the Recidivism-Rehabilitation scale. In "Cops and

Robbers" Berne pointed out the active nature of the criminal in eliciting chase behavior from the authorities, and at the same time their naive view of themselves as victims. The game aspect of this behavior was thought to be the unhappy surprise ending to the criminal who was unaware of his role in bringing about his tragic fate. An effort was made here to capitalize on more recent developments in Berne's Transactional Analysis (1964) and apply them to the present data. These concepts have proven valuable in the clinical experience of the author in dealing with the reformatory population. It was acknowledged that the following discussion represents a speculative extension of the Recidivism-Rehabilitation scale item content.

Perhaps central to the notion of recidivism have been cases where the offender does not appear to learn from experience. This repetitiousness has been recognized in transactional analysis as a life "script."

> Nearly all human activity is programmed by an ongoing script dating from early childhood, so that the feeling of autonomy is nearly always an illusion--an illusion which is the greatest affliction of the human race because it makes awareness, honesty, creativity, and intimacy possible for only a few fortunate individuals. For the rest of humanity, other people are seen mainly as objects to be manipulated. They must be invited, persuaded, seduced, bribed, or coerced into playing the proper roles to reinforce the protagonist's position and fulfill his script, and his preoccupation with these efforts keeps him from torquing in with the real world and his own possibilities in it (Berne, 1966, p. 310).

A "tragic script" is one that was "written" from the early life experiences of children.

> A foolish message from the Child ego state in your mother and father is called a "witch message" because it is the kind of message that advises you to develop a harmful life script. It is not always put into words. For example, your mother may have helped you not "grow up" by never letting you finish a job, even though she might have thought she was being good to you (McCormick and Campos, 1969, p. 17).

This example has shown the indirect and perhaps non-verbal manner in which children may be inculcated with feelings of worthlessness. While the "script" was written so as to render it unconscious, or out of awareness, the child frequently has been exposed to a series of pious rationalizations. These verbal formulations form what has been labeled as a "counterscript" (Harris, 1969). The "counterscript" determined the specious good intentions which the recidivist believed and yet could not live up to.

Harris (1969) has concluded that children early in life make a decision about their basic worth vis a vis the world. This decision determined the form of the "script" and "counterscript" according to the duplicitous communications of the parents. The child's decision was seen as taking one of four "existential positions."

1. I'm Ok-You're Ok.
2. I'm Ok-You're not Ok.
3. I'm not Ok-You're Ok.
4. I'm not Ok-You're not Ok.(Harris, 1969).

Position one, Harris felt, was a healthy position and positions two, three and four were thought of as various

unhealthy ways to cope with oppressive child rearing.

The emotional economy of the recidivist was best illustrated by reference to the concept of "strokes" (Berne, 1964). Berne considered "strokes" to be a basic need and the simplest unit of human transactions. Strokes derived from the physical stroking of infants and generalized into all forms of symbolic recognition. "Positive strokes," "negative strokes" and a position of "zero strokes" have been distinguished (Black, 1970). "Positive" and "negative strokes" were seen as comforting and abusive respectively. "Zero strokes" defined a state of being ignored and was considered a worse alternative than "negative strokes."

A recidivist was characterized as an individual who had made a childhood decision to accept an existential position of two, three or four. These positions implied that the individual did not deserve to send or receive "positive strokes." Desirous of "strokes" but not feeling worthy of positive ones, the recidivist became a "negative stroke" gatherer--rather than be ignored ("zero strokes").

Integration of transactional analysis and the Recidivism-Rehabilitation scale. Black (1967) posited the following items as personality characteristics of the recidivist from the content of the Recidivism-Rehabilitation scale:

1. Emotional deprivation in childhood
2. Pessimism and resentment

3. "Loser" self-concept
4. Faulty integration of the self-system
5. Extroverted orientation
6. Antisocial values
7. Externalization of sources of conflict and control of his behavior (1967).

The foregoing concepts of transactional analysis have been applied to Black's seven elements in the following manner.

Emotional deprivation in childhood (#1) was equated with the process of parental "witch messages" leading to an existential position of two, three or four. Negative stroking has been substituted as a goal instead of positive stroking. This behavior has begun to reinforce the "existential position." Pessimism and resentment (#2) were thought to represent the feelings of the recidivist who was unaware of his "tragic script" and disappointed that he could not live up to his counterfeit "counter-script" version of himself.

The "loser" self concept (#3) and the externalization of causality (#7) have evolved as ways for the recidivist to account for his propensity to fail despite his good intentions. Obviously his self-system (#4) has remained unintegrated because of its basic contradictions. The extroverted orientation (#5) carried the recidivist forward seeking "strokes" in each new relationship.

The antisocial values (#6) were believed to be the belief system of a not-ok milieu, the delinquent peer group. The antisocial values maintained a "we're ok--

they're not ok" orientation in the face of continued negative stroking in the form of arrest, conviction and confinement.

The transactional analysis model of delinquent or recidivist behavior has shown how the individual will react to gain control in the face of oppression by adapting to a basic existential position of "I'm not ok--you're ok." Despite the fact that the recidivist has been able to maintain an "I'm ok--you're not ok" orientation among his peers he continues to elicit negative stroking from systems of criminal justice. Eric Berne (1964) was adamant that the object of "Cops and Robbers" was to be caught. The Recidivism-Rehabilitation scale was thought to represent the response tendencies of young adult males who exhibit the "tragic script" explicated above.

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY

This study was executed to test the predictive power of the Recidivism-Rehabilitation scale and actuarial index for the MMPI test. The need of accurate prediction methods was thought to be implied by the widespread use of parole throughout the United States. A review of current sources showed a lack of psychometric instruments adequate to the demand of correctional systems. The use of experience tables based on demographic variables was cited as an example of prediction methods now in use. There seemed to be an inherent flaw in these methods since they purported to make idiographic predictions based on nomothetic data. Recent advances in personality testing have shown the MMPI test to have been a promising tool in many applications. Several keys have been devised for the MMPI with a modicum of success in predicting recidivism.

The Recidivism-Rehabilitation scale and actuarial index were derived from a post-hoc correlation between MMPI scales and post-release behavior of inmates from a state reformatory population. The positive results were believed to reflect identifiable personality characteristics

of young adult recidivists. The present study was similarly based on the concept that recidivists could be identified and predicted by their personality as exhibited in MMPI responses. These expectations were drawn in the form of four hypotheses. The first predicted significant discrimination of recidivists and non-recidivists by the Recidivism-Rehabilitation scale. The second hypothesis predicted significant discrimination between the two groups by the Recidivism-Rehabilitation index. The third hypothesis predicted better discrimination by the index than the scale alone. The fourth hypothesis predicted significance between the Recidivism-Rehabilitation scale means of recidivists and non-recidivists.

One hundred eighty young adult felons released from the Federal Reformatory, El Reno, Oklahoma served as subjects in this study. The criterion for success or failure was the presence or absence of parole violation and/or reconviction during a two year follow up period. There were 90 subjects in each group. Successful prediction was made in 130 cases (72.2 per cent) by the Recidivism-Rehabilitation scale alone and in 121 cases (67.2 per cent) by the actuarial index. Both of these predictors discriminated between failures and successes beyond the .0001 level of significance. A t-test between the Recidivism-Rehabilitation scale means of the successes and failures showed them to differ beyond the .001 level of significance.

The Recidivism-Rehabilitation actuarial index did not discriminate better than the scale alone, thus disconfirming only one of the four hypotheses.

The three hypotheses that were confirmed at high levels of significance led to the following conclusions. The Recidivism-Rehabilitation scale was a significant predictor of recidivism among young adult offenders. The failures of prediction were accounted for by reference to the fact that the subjects were tested at their entrance to confinement. Changes due to their experience in the institution were not taken into account.

The general success of the Recidivism-Rehabilitation scale was thought to reflect a personality profile of the recidivist. This profile was discussed in light of several sources that related oppression during childhood to subsequent delinquent behavior. The recidivist was defined as an individual who thought of himself as a victim and yet who continued his antisocial behavior. Several concepts of transactional analysis were discussed to elucidate how the recidivist could embody feelings of low self-worth that would lead to his perpetuating his delinquency. Arrest, conviction and confinement were then defined as the goal of his activity.

REFERENCES

Berne, E. Games people play. New York: Grove Press, 1964.

Berne, E. Principles of group treatment. New York: Oxford University Press, 1966.

Black, W. G. The description and prediction of recidivism among youthful offenders by the use of the minnesota multiphasic personality inventory. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Oklahoma, 1967.

Black, W. G. Personal Communication. 1970.

Bruce, A. A., Burgess, E. W., & Harno, A. J. The working of the indeterminate sentence law and the parole system in Illinois. Springfield: Illinois State Printing Office, 1928.

Carney, F. G., Predicting recidivism in a maximum security correctional institution: some emerging generalizations. Massachusetts Department of Correction, Publication number 602, 1966.

Clark, A. H. Application of the MMPI in differentiating AWOL recidivists from non-recidivists. J. Psychol., 1948, 26, 229-234.

Clinard, M. Sociology of deviant behavior. New York: Rinehart and Co., 1957.

Freeman, R. A. & Mason, H. M. Construction of a key to determine recidivists from non-recidivists using the MMPI. J. clin. Psychol., 1952, 8, 207-208.

Glaser, D. Research on the federal correctional system. University of Illinois-Ford Foundation, May, 1961.

Glaser, D. The effectiveness of a prison and parole system. New York: The Bobbs-Merril Co., 1964.

Glueck, S. & Glueck, Eleanor. 500 criminal careers. New York: A. Knopf, 1930.

Glueck, S. & Glueck, Eleanor. Unraveling juvenile delinquency. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1950.

Grant, J. D. It's time to start counting. Crime and Delinquency, July, 1962, p. 259.

Grygier, T. Oppression. A study in social and criminal psychology. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul Ltd., 1954.

Halleck, S. L. Psychiatry and the dilemmas of crime. New York: Harper and Row, 1967.

Harris, T. A. I'm ok-you're ok: a practical guide to transactional analysis. New York: Harper and Row, 1967.

Jacobsen, J. L. & Wirt, R. D. MMPI profiles associated with outcomes of group psychotherapy with prisoners. Chapter 9 in Butcher, J. N. (Ed.), MMPI: research developments and clinical applications. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1969.

Lanyon, R. I. A handbook of MMPI group profiles. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1968.

Mannheim, H. & Wilkins, L. T. Prediction methods in relation to borstal training. London: HMSO, 1955.

McCormick, P. & Campos, L. Introduce yourself to transactional analysis. Stockton, California: San Joaquin ta study group, 1969.

Monachesi, E. D. & Hathaway, S. R. The personality of delinquents. Chapter 10 in Butcher, J. N. (Ed.), MMPI: research developments and clinical applications. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1969.

Ohlin, L. E. Selection for parole. New York: Russel Sage Foundation, 1951.

Panton, J. H. MMPI profile configurations among crime classification groups. J. clin. Psychol., 1958, 14, 305-308. (a)

Panton, J. H. The identification of habitual criminalism with the MMPI. J. clin. Psychol., 1962, 2, 133-136. (a)

Scheussler, K. & Cressey, D. Personality characteristics of criminals. Amer. J. Sociol., 50, March 1950, pp. 476 ff.

Schwartzburd, L. A method of administering the rosenzweig picture frustration study to control for self-censorship. Unpublished master's thesis, University of Oklahoma, 1968.

Spiva, P. G. The loser syndrome in juvenile delinquents. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Oklahoma, 1968.

Task Force on Corrections. Task force report: corrections. The president's commission on law enforcement and administration of justice, Washington: U.S. Government printing office, 1967.

Vold, G. B. Prediction methods and parole, a study of factors involved in the violation or non-violation of parole in a group of Minnesota adult males. Hanover, N. H.: The Sociological Press, 1931.

Warner, S. B. Factors determining parole from the Massachusetts reformatory. J. Crim. L., 14, 1923, p. 172 ff.

APPENDIX A

RECIDIVISM-REHABILITATION, HABITUAL CRIMINAL, SOCIAL INTROVERSION, ANXIETY AND REPRESSION SCALE SCORES FOR ALL SUBJECTS

Number	Failures Si	HC	Rmn		A	R
F 1	55	79	56	*	38	66
F 2	71	63	47		71	57
F 3	68	48	51		47	49
F 4	55	62	51	*	37	76
F 5	34	47	54		51	37
F 6	38	50	42		40	38
F 7	51	77	56	*	43	63
F 8	40	68	46		35	47
F 9	49	50	59	*	53	49
F 10	48	55	67		55	43
F 11	50	68	52	*	49	51
F 12	55	79	49		46	47
F 13	55	43	54		36	38
F 14	56	46	38		59	45
F 15	45	59	51	*	42	49
F 16	47	43	57		37	59
F 17	53	66	45		67	47
F 18	51	73	49		60	45
F 19	40	43	56	*	40	47
F 20	43	70	59	*	45	49
F 21	49	70	51	*	45	47
F 22	49	73	43		45	55
F 23	61	70	43		55	58
F 24	43	59	63	*	38	53
F 25	37	56	54	*	43	40
F 26	61	66	40		72	46
F 27	46	41	51		37	49
F 28	44	53	51	*	43	40
F 29	53	73	53	*	53	99
F 30	29	85	51	*	71	67

___ predictive of recidivism

* index predicts recidivism

Failures

Number	Si	HC	Rmn		A	R
F 31	50	50	56		43	57
F 32	53	63	62	*	61	38
F 33	60	63	51	*	42	50
F 34	46	63	52	*	39	52
F 35	55	87	56	*	53	47
F 36	58	49	49		37	61
F 37	40	72	51	*	40	35
F 38	43	54	59	*	50	49
F 39	62	74	54	*	72	30
F 40	43	55	54	*	42	47
F 41	52	62	51	*	61	52
F 42	42	63	62	*	40	55
F 43	48	50	51		49	53
F 44	50	54	43		45	49
F 45	45	61	52	*	40	57
F 46	55	67	45		63	42
F 47	53	54	51		42	57
F 48	55	70	48		49	45
F 49	37	62	45		39	50
F 50	39	74	68	*	47	43
F 51	38	49	40		42	41
F 52	63	46	45		53	47
F 53	65	73	45		46	64
F 54	65	50	40		50	68
F 55	50	59	45	*	53	53
F 56	44	76	49		40	54
F 57	51	52	40		37	67
F 58	44	57	54	*	40	65
F 59	69	59	55	*	62	57
F 60	41	55	56	*	45	51

Failures

Number	Si	HC	Rmn		A	R
F 61	40	58	55	*	38	40
F 62	65	59	51		64	45
F 63	42	54	53		41	57
F 64	45	73	54	*	35	54
F 65	62	59	54	*	52	57
F 66	49	99	54	*	52	40
F 67	50	33	43		50	38
F 68	45	82	61	*	56	53
F 69	61	64	62	*	57	49
F 70	38	62	73	*	41	52
F 71	46	54	54		42	55
F 72	52	98	47	*	52	57
F 73	43	79	49		54	43
F 74	56	74	54		67	49
F 75	37	88	62	*	44	61
F 76	62	58	40		63	49
F 77	68	77	54		66	45
F 78	53	63	59	*	64	47
F 79	55	56	51		59	54
F 80	48	63	54	*	65	49
F 81	39	64	54	*	37	54
F 82	55	47	51		49	46
F 83	43	59	51	*	47	55
F 84	43	63	55	*	52	34
F 85	61	63	52	*	74	38
F 86	49	66	49	*	37	80
F 87	44	57	56	*	35	68
F 88	50	68	46		67	49
F 89	43	25	56	*	40	43
F 90	47	59	54	*	55	42

	Successes				
Number	Si	HC	Rmn	A	R
1	64	67	44	50	68
2	66	59	40	63	46
3	51	40	54	43	59
4	47	37	49	37	60
5	69	50	49	55	63
6	76	40	37	61	57
7	40	41	49	36	49
8	45	41	45	42	47
9	47	50	43	54	40
10	49	59	43 *	47	45
11	77	39	32	69	68
12	72	63	40	72	61
13	52	55	43	61	47
14	50	30	45	43	57
15	46	68	33 *	58	51
16	51	57	46	52	61
17	49	43	40	36	62
18	43	53	49	35	55
19	54	73	46	54	38
20	43	53	45	47	34
21	65	55	44	46	72
22	44	63	43 *	45	44
23	39	38	49	38	45
24	53	50	49	40	57
25	44	57	46	45	43
26	37	48	36	56	45
27	58	39	45	46	47
28	46	73	49	60	40
29	53	68	51 *	51	59
30	48	69	57 *	45	38

Number	Successes Si	HC	Rmn		A	R
31	43	73	54	*	38	62
32	45	59	51	*	43	44
33	40	57	59		52	43
34	72	54	40		44	33
35	51	42	55	*	41	40
36	44	35	51	*	46	50
37	54	64	42		64	29
38	66	50	36		50	62
39	45	47	51	*	38	60
40	64	40	42		41	65
41	46	29	45		36	57
42	42	55	48		37	50
43	49	55	45		37	49
44	45	50	51		54	38
45	55	53	48		46	48
46	45	77	54	*	55	38
47	52	59	62	*	69	36
48	58	41	52		40	57
49	51	43	40		50	49
50	55	57	45		46	54
51	52	37	49		40	53
52	53	43	37		56	47
53	60	50	40		50	63
54	43	45	43		38	55
55	52	40	37		38	59
56	54	40	44		54	42
57	61	42	40		53	45
58	70	59	49		69	45
59	66	53	48		57	56
60	39	61	55	*	36	51

Successes

Number	Si	HC	Rmn	A	R
61	44	68	54 *	36	61
62	40	21	56	34	57
63	44	53	51 *	50	47
64	63	39	37	65	55
65	62	54	59	63	53
66	50	61	45	34	56
67	55	50	56	51	44
68	76	67	44	69	29
69	51	66	49 *	52	50
70	55	64	42	37	73
71	55	65	46	47	54
72	64	49	45	64	37
73	72	56	49	54	77
74	42	53	45	45	49
75	40	65	62 *	38	44
76	50	45	45	40	59
77	70	65	43	80	57
78	41	70	53 *	49	64
79	43	75	49	40	52
80	63	70	43	61	52
81	50	55	46	47	49
82	56	68	46	50	58
83	55	55	46	59	51
84	56	65	49	53	52
85	52	29	44	42	44
86	47	62	43	43	58
87	40	53	45	42	47
88	40	54	54	37	47
89	62	65	62	62	51
90	38	43	49	45	43

APPENDIX B

TYPE OF CRIME COMMITTED FOR CONVICTION OF EACH SUBJECT

Number	Crime
S 1	*ITSV
S 2	ITSV
S 3	ITSV
S 4	ITSV
S 5	ITSV
S 6	bank burglary
S 7	Voluntary Manslaughter on a Govt. Reservation
S 8	ITSV
S 9	ITSV
S 10	Poss. Goods stolen from I/S shipment
S 11	ITSV
S 12	ITSV
S 13	ITSV
S 14	Post Office burglary-theft of U.S. Property
S 15	ITSV
S 16	ITSV
S 17	**SSA-Failure to report for civilian work
S 18	ITSV
S 19	ITSV
S 20	Unlawfully sell heroin
S 21	Poss. stolen U.S. Mail
S 22	Unlawfully sell Heroin
S 23	Embezzle U.S. Mail
S 24	ITSV
S 25	ITSV
S 26	ITSV
S 27	Possession of Marihuana
S 28	ITSV
S 29	ITSV
S 30	Mail Theft
S 31	ITSV
S 32	ITSV
S 33	ITSV
S 34	ITSV
S 35	ITSV
S 36	ITSV
S 37	Theft from U.S. insured bank
S 38	ITSV
S 39	Bank Burglary
S 40	ITSV
S 41	ITSV
S 42	ITSV
S 43	IST stolen property
S 44	IST of Forged Securities
S 45	Bank Robbery

*ITSV-interstate transportation of a stolen vehicle
**SSA-Selective Service Act

Number	Crime
S 46	ITSV
S 47	ITSV
S 48	Failure to report /S.S.A./ for induction
S 49	Theft of Mail
S 50	SSA-Refusing to be inducted into Armed Forces
S 51	SSA-Failure to comply with order of Local Board
S 52	ITSV
S 53	Rape on Govt. Reservation
S 54	ITSV
S 55	ITSV
S 56	Insufficient Fund checks on Govt. Res.-ITSV
S 57	ITSV
S 58	ITSV
S 59	Theft of Govt. Property
S 60	ITSV
S 61	ITSV
S 62	ITSV
S 63	Robbery of Federal Savings and Loan
S 64	Embezzle from U.S. Mail on Govt. Res.
S 65	Theft of Govt. Property
S 66	ITSV
S 67	Pass counterfeit Federal Reserve Note
S 68	*IST of Forged Securities
S 69	ITSV
S 70	ITSV
S 71	ITSV
S 72	Forgery of a U.S. Check
S 73	Conspiracy to ITSV
S 74	ITSV
S 75	ITSV
S 76	Embezzlement from National Bank
S 77	ITSV
S 78	ITSV
S 79	ITSV
S 80	ITSV
S 81	ITSV
S 82	Unlawfully Sell Heroin
S 83	Unlawful sale of Narcotics
S 84	ITSV
S 85	SSA Refuse to report for civilian work
S 86	Bank Robbery
S 87	ITSV
S 88	IST Counterfeiting equipment
S 89	ITSV
S 90	Attempted Bank Robbery

*IST-Interstate Transportation

Number	Crime
F 1	ITSV
F 2	ITSV
F 3	ITSV
F 4	Theft from IS shipment
F 5	ITSV
F 6	ITSV
F 7	ITSV
F 8	ITSV
F 9	Unlawfully Sell Heroin
F 10	ISTV
F 11	Violation of Marihuana Tax Act and Failure to Register
F 12	ITSV
F 13	Utter and Publish U.S. Check
F 14	Unlawfully Possess SS Reg. Certificate
F 15	Breaking Seal on Railroad Car
F 16	ITSV
F 17	ITSV
F 18	Mail Theft
F 19	ITSV
F 20	IST of Firearm while fugitive from justice
F 21	ITSV
F 22	Embezzling Mail
F 23	ITSV
F 24	Possession of Stolen Mail
F 25	ITSV
F 26	ITSV
F 26	ITSV
F 28	Attempted Mail theft
F 29	ITSV
F 30	Unlawfully Possess & Sell stimulating drugs
F 31	Failure to register as narcotic user leaving U.S.
F 32	ITSV
F 33	Theft of Personal Property on a Govt. Reservation
F 34	Unlawfully Purchase heroin
F 35	Possess stolen mail
F 36	Bank Burglary
F 37	Possess stolen mail-forge U.S. Check
F 38	ITSV
F 39	ITSV
F 40	Removing goods from customs custody
F 41	Post Office burglary
F 42	Possess money stolen from Fed. Savings and Loan
F 43	Unlawfully Possess marihuana
F 44	ITSV
F 45	ITSV

Number	Crime
F 46	ITSV
F 47	ITSV
F 48	Assault on a Govt. Reservation
F 49	ITSV
F 50	Theft of Govt. Funds
F 51	ITSV
F 52	ITSV
F 53	ITSV
F 54	Unlawfully sell Narcotics
F 55	ITSV
F 56	ITSV
F 57	Assault on Indian Reservation with dangerous weapon
F 58	ITSV
F 59	ITSV
F 60	ITSV
F 61	Larceny from a Bank
F 62	Mail Theft
F 63	ITSV
F 64	ITSV
F 65	ITSV
F 66	ITSV
F 67	ITSV
F 68	ITSV
F 69	ITSV
F 70	ITSV
F 71	Accessory after the fact-Postal Bruglary
F 72	Bank Robbery
F 73	ITSV
F 74	ITSV
F 75	ITSV
F 76	ITSV
F 77	ITSV
F 78	ITSV
F 79	ITSV
F 80	Armed Robbery on a Govt. Reservation
F 81	ITSV
F 82	Possess Stolen Mail
F 83	Unlawfully transport and conceal Marihuana
F 84	ITSV
F 85	ITSV
F 86	Burglary on a Govt. Reservation
F 87	ITSV
F 88	Bank Burglary and Theft from a Bank
F 89	ITSV
F 90	Unlawfully Sell Narcotics