

ATTITUDE CHANGE AMONG DELINQUENTS
IN A POSITIVE PEER CULTURE PROGRAM

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Master of Science

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Terence William White
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ABSTRACT

Very little research has been conducted assessing the assumption that Positive Peer Culture as a treatment modality for delinquent youth is effective in changing delinquent attitudes. In this study 19 delinquent juveniles committed to long-term treatment institutions by juvenile authorities were pretested immediately upon committal and retested after a three month period in the Positive Peer Culture program. The instruments used for pre and posttesting included the modified Rotter I-E, Offer's Impulse Control, Mastery of the External World, Family Relationships and Social Relationship scales along with Rosenberg's Stability of Self and Sensitivity to Criticism scales. The data indicate there was no significant change in attitude except on the Social Relationships scale which showed a decline. Subject characteristics such as age, locality (rural vs urban), ethnic origin, number of previous or committal allegations did not correlate with any of the scale scores obtained.

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Chapter 1

There are three juvenile correctional institutions in Manitoba which are operated by the provincial government. One is a short-term detention facility housing juveniles from the entire province who are admitted under the Juvenile Delinquents Act (federal) or the Child Welfare Act (provincial) pending judicial disposition. Another houses delinquent male adolescents and male adolescents admitted under the Child Welfare Act upon committal by the Provincial Family Court or the Provincial Director of Child Welfare. A third institution provides accommodation for both male and female adolescents who are either delinquents or the Child Welfare Act juveniles who are also committed by the Family Court or the Director of Child Welfare. The two long-term institutions have adopted a group treatment program which is based on the concept of Positive Peer Culture (PPC).

The PPC orientated program was introduced into the two juvenile institutions with the assumption that it is an effective treatment program for delinquents. There have been some studies related to PPC, most of which looked at the Guided Group Interaction type of program, however, very little research has been conducted with PPC type of group program. In light of this general lack of research on PPC and in view of the absence of any evaluation of the

program in Manitoba, the present exploratory study was undertaken to evaluate a specific area of effectiveness of the PPC, namely, attitude change.

Positive Peer Culture Program

The idea of structured group sessions was first introduced into army correctional institutions during World War II by Lloyd McCorkle (1949). After the war he and F. L. Bixby introduced the concept at the Highfields residential treatment centre in New Jersey (McCorkle, Elias, and Bixby, 1958). Out of the group treatment method used for the rehabilitation of juvenile delinquents at Highfields, a modified form of group treatment called Guided Group Interaction was developed (Weeks, 1958). This type of treatment program for delinquent adolescents uses

free discussion in a friendly supportive atmosphere to re-educate the delinquent to accept the restrictions of society by finding greater personal satisfaction in conforming to social rules than following delinquent patterns (Finckenauer, 1974, p. 111).

PPC grew out of the Guided Group Interaction program which Vorrath started at the Minnesota State Training School, Redwing, Minnesota, in 1968 (Vorrath, 1972).

There are some major differences between the Highfields program and the Minnesota program. The Highfields was an open facility dealing with a population of approximately twenty while the Minnesota facility was closed and accommodated a few hundred young offenders. Furthermore, the Highfields, which was an exploratory project, did not have any clearly defined objectives whereas the

Minnesota program was designed to deal with some specific behaviours and attitudes of the delinquents.

The goal of PPC is the substitution of positive values for the negative value system found in the delinquent subculture. The means of attaining this goal is the involvement of the delinquent adolescent in a search for being a "socially confident person" through the culture of the peer group (Vorrath, 1972).

The basic philosophy of PPC is that delinquent behaviour can be contained and modified by giving the individual a positive role in a group process and subculture specifically designed to help young people help themselves. The peer group is considered the agent of change. The motivation to change is subsumed in the view of moral man and his tendency to conform. If man is so motivated the peer group is available to provide both immediate rewards for prosocial sentiments and immediate controls when antisocial behaviour is demonstrated. The group is vested with the responsibility of defining for each member his or her antisocial behaviour, problems, and then helping one another replace the antisocial values and means with prosocial values and means. The underlying assumption is that there exists a universal desire of man to be of service to his fellow man.

As a treatment program for delinquent adolescents PPC centres around the theme that each delinquent has one or more "problems" or they would not be in the institution. A problem is defined as "anything that damages oneself or another person" (Vorrath and

Brendtro, 1974, p. 36). Sharing a problem is regarded as a positive action because it indicates recognition by the adolescent of their need for help. On the other hand, hiding a problem or not doing anything about a problem is considered as a negative action.

PPC sees problems as normal. The existence of problems should not greatly embarrass anyone. People with problems are in no way viewed as abnormal. The important consideration is that a person be aware of his problems and do something to solve them (Vorrath and Brendtro, 1974, p. 23).

Among the problems that delinquent adolescents experience, PPC identifies the following as major areas.

1. Low Self-Image: has a poor opinion of self; often feels put down or of little worth.
2. Inconsiderate of Others: does things that are damaging to others.
3. Inconsiderate of Self: does things that are damaging to self.
4. Authority Problem: does not want to be managed by anyone.
5. Misleads Others: draws others into negative behaviour.
6. Easily Misled: is drawn into negative behaviour by others.
7. Aggravates Others: treats people in a negative, hostile way.
8. Easily Aggravated: is often irritated or provoked, or has tantrums.
9. Stealing: takes things that belong to others.
10. Alcohol or Drug Problems: misuses substances that could hurt self.
11. Lying: cannot be trusted to tell the truth.
12. Fronting: puts on an act rather than being real.

These problems are classified into two groups: (i) general problems include the first three of the problems mentioned above and (ii) specific problems include the last nine problems. General problems are all-pervasive whereas specific problems refer to particular patterns of troublesome behaviour which occur quite frequently among youth. None of the general problems are discrete, in other words, they overlap each other. There is also a connection between the general problems and the specific problems. For example, an adolescent who is easily misled may really have a low self-image.

PPC departs decisively from traditional approaches and charts a new course in the field of corrections. Traditional institutions for delinquents concentrate only on controlling problems whereas PPC works toward the goal of solving broad patterns of problems. PPC does not deny the necessity of controlling problems but it makes a distinction between solving problems and controlling problems.

The principles of PPC are implemented through the use of a peer group guided by a group leader. The group functions within a well defined structure. It has a unique format and a definite procedure of action.

The group structure of the therapy group is small in size (nine or ten members) and homogeneous. The members of the group should be of the same sex and should be similar in intelligence, physical size, age, and educational level. Personality or psychological similarities or differences are not an issue in

forming a group. The group meets daily for ninety minutes five days a week under the supervision of a staff member called the group leader.

The PPC group exists as a unit; the group members live, work, play and go to school together. This constant closeness of group members makes the group autonomous, helps to remove basic distrust, and encourages the intimate sharing of thoughts and feelings. The contents of the meeting are kept confidential. When new members arrive they are introduced to the group method by the older members. The latter are responsible for helping the new members to become a part of the group.

Within the format for meetings a specific agenda is followed. "The meeting is not operated in a laissez-faire manner but is structured for efficient problem solving" (Vorrath and Brendtro, 1974, p. 85). The group leader is always present in the meetings to guide the youth. There is scope for free exchange of ideas and thoughts within the meeting. A few weeks after joining the group new members have to tell their life histories to the group. The life history of the youth is actually "a social history as viewed by the youth with particular emphasis on those events which contributed to the youth's becoming involved in the delinquent escapades which brought him to the institution" (Vorrath, 1972, p. 4).

The meeting consists of four different parts:

- (i) Reporting problems - During the first part of the meeting each member reports on the problems he or she encountered since the last session. The problem telling session lasts for about fifteen minutes.

- (ii) Awarding the meeting - After the problem session is over, the group decides who will "have the meeting". This decision is taken on the basis of "who needs help most that day". This session takes only five minutes.
- (iii) Problem solving - This is the most important part of the group meeting and usually lasts for an hour. Here the group members concentrate on one member's problems and try to help solve them.
- (iv) The summary - Here the group leader takes an active role by providing feedback to the group on how the members performed in helping one another, and also suggests how the members can be more effective in their meetings.

Group procedures in PPC include "identifying problems", "working on problems", "checking group members", and "solving problems".

- (i) Identifying problems - When an adolescent tells his or her life story in the group meeting the group identifies his or her problems. Once the youth is cognizant of his or her problems, then his or her goal is to understand why he or she has these problems and how they handle themselves to indicate that they have those problems.
- (ii) Working on problems - After the problems of a youth are identified and the person becomes aware of his or her problems, the group begins to explore the ways of solving these problems. The process of "working on problems" is similar to the therapeutic approach of self-analysis, interpretation, reappraisal, and uncovering feelings. The youth becomes seriously concerned about their negative behaviour and seek

positive alternatives.

- (iii) Check yourself - The aim of the Positive Peer Culture treatment program is to bring about more socially acceptable and self-satisfying behaviour, therefore one of the first steps in "working on problems" is to get troublesome behaviours of the group members "under control". Group members say, "Check yourself." when some of the members of the group show problems. Then they tell each other what the problems are and how to handle those problems.
- (iv) Problem solved - When an adolescent has a problem it has to be solved. A problem cannot be solved unless it is controlled first. The troublesome youth may use a number of devices to control himself - projection, redirection, sublimation, rationalization, etc. It is the group which decides whether the youth has solved his or her problems. In the group meeting, each member of the group has to tell why they thought that the youth had a problem, what they have seen the youth do to control his or her problem, and finally whether the youth has been able to solve the problem.

The role of group leader is very important in directing and managing the group. A group leader should be well-trained in handling delinquent adolescents and aware and conscious of the problems and needs of these adolescents. It is the duty of a group leader to encourage and support the helping atmosphere of PPC by redirecting the group when it is necessary and guiding it in picking the problems. The primary aim of this kind of therapy program is to help the delinquent find the strength to function as a social human

being in an on-going community. When a youth feels ready to return to the community, he or she asks the group to recommend his or her release. The recommendation is a very important matter which is very carefully scrutinized by the group leader. When the group leader is satisfied that the youth has benefited from the group therapy program and can function as a socially confident person in the community without the help of the group, the recommendation is allowed and brought to the attention of the staff of the institution (Vorrath and Brendtro, 1974, pp. 35-118).

Theoretical Background

The PPC program is not theory based but was developed as a means of dealing with delinquents. However in the sociological literature the strain theories (Cloward and Ohlin, 1960; Merton, 1957; Parsons, 1951, pp. 249-325) and the cultural deviance theories (Glaser, 1958, 1974; Sutherland and Cressey, 1970), are concerned with issues similar to those of PPC.

Strain Theories

These theories suggest that all men accept the norms and values of society. According to strain theories, deviance is a consequent of either the inability of individuals to use institutionalized means in attaining societal goals or the inadequate definition of the means. This results in individuals inventing their own means. Two explanations of the means-goals schism are offered. First, a society which professes equality for all, e.g., all roads lead to leadership of the country, but in fact demonstrates inequality by establishing goals without providing the means, will cause those in

the lower class to become deviant. In many cases the institutionalized means are formally blocked and totally inaccessible to specified groups within the society. The second explanation accounts for upper class deviance. In this stratum deviance occurs when society places such a great emphasis upon goals that the individual is never certain if he has achieved them. For example, wealth as a goal has been displaced to a certain extent by the goal of accumulation of money. Because money can be accumulated indefinitely one is never quite sure when the goal has been successfully reached. In this type of social structure, failure is seen in the individual rather than as a social phenomenon.

According to strain theories, individuals become anomic and are alienated from the dominant society due to the lack of opportunity. The assumption is that all members of society hold the values and norms of society. The point of contention is that means to the goals are not equally provided to all members of society. Thus, strain occurs when people find avenues other than the socially defined means to reach goals closed to them. According to strain theory the major factor leading to deviance is that society provides both goals and institutionalized means to all of its members who derive satisfaction from playing the game according to the rules. When people begin to play simply for the goals and ignore the legitimate means, a state of anomie is reached and deviance is experienced.

The various ways people play society's game are summarized in Merton's typology of adaptation (1957).

<u>Modes of Adaptation</u>	<u>Cultural Goals</u>	<u>Institutionalized Means</u>
I. Conformity	+	+
II. Innovation	+	-
III. Ritualism	-	+
IV. Retreatism	-	-
V. Rebellion	±	±

(+ = acceptance, - = rejection, ± = rejection of prevailing values and substitution of new values.)

The conformist accepts both the cultural goals and the institutionalized means. This is the most prevalent type of adaptation and signifies a stable society. The innovator is characterized as having assimilated the cultural goals, but not having internalized the institutionalized means. Thus, the individual views wealth and power as attractive goals, but cannot see beginning with manual labour in his climb to the top. Rather, these goals can be achieved much more quickly and with more status if they are gained by running numbers or loansharking for organized crime. The businessman can sell more goods if they are marked "ON SALE", no matter if the price was lowered or raised.

The ritualist defines the cultural goals as unattainable and that makes him retract them to what is viewed as reasonably achievable. Even though the individual has refused to "hang in there" he adheres to the institutionalized means. Unlike the innovator, the ritualist will not take a risk; in fact, he almost compulsively abides by the institutionalized norms. It is rather a subjective decision which would define the ritualist as deviant. Merton contends that individuals in this type will often break out of their

superconformity and utilize illicit means to make gains.

Psychologically the ultra-conformist is likely to be subject to a great deal of anxiety over illicit acts which they have perpetuated against their usual over-compliance.

Merton suggests that the retreatist is the most uncommon typology. Deviance which this is to explain includes vagrants, psychotics, tramps, chronic drunkards and drug addicts. The retreatist has likely assimilated the cultural goals and internalized the institutional means but found that success was not forthcoming due to being shut off from the means. The individual then escapes the requirements of society by adopting mechanisms of defeatism and resignation. This type does not resort to illicit means to attain the goals because of his conviction to using the institutional means.

The rebel typically views the cultural standards for success as arbitrary. Hence, he wishes to have some other way which demands a new social structure based upon merit rather than social position. He thinks that the support for the current social system must be withdrawn and transferred to another. The rebel will seldom use the institutional means since the goals are different from the current social structure.

Merton goes on to say that the social structure produces strain toward anomie and deviant behaviour when the competitive factor is minimized and the emphasis is solely upon the ends. When this happens in the extreme the social control mechanism becomes ineffective.

In essence, strain theories view man as a moral being striving for success within the confines of the social structure. When efforts to reach cultural goals with institutionalized means are found to be inefficient or illusory the individual deviates or turns to crime to gain what he views as rightfully his.

Many lower-class adolescents experience desperation born of the certainty that their position in the economic structure is relatively fixed and immutable - a desperation made all the more poignant by their exposure to a cultural ideology in which failure to orient oneself upward is regarded as a moral defect and failure to become mobile as proof of it (Cloward and Ohlin, 1960, pp. 106-107).

The support which strain theories give to PPC is the consistency of their assumptions and major concepts. Both are concerned with the socialization process or the breakdown of that process. Delinquents have either refuted institutional means and adopted illicit means to reach the cultural goals which often are manifested by chronic alcohol and drug misuse, transience, and vandalism, or they feel worthless, have low self-esteem, and hold little stock in the reality of being successful in society's game.

According to this line of thought, delinquent behaviour can be solved through convincing the adolescent that not only is the game worth playing, but the worthwhile player will play by the rules, which is satisfying in itself. Thus the maxim is not if you win or lose, but how you play the game.

Cultural Deviance Theories

This second area of support for PPC derives from group theories which suggests that subcultures are the amalgamation of individuals facing similar situations and holding congenial views on how to

solve their problems. Thus, a subculture is a reference group within which the individual's behaviour and attitudes conform. Cohen (1955) views the social process as involving activities carried out by individuals in search of a reference group with attitudes and behavioural patterns consistent with theirs. For this search to be successful, the situation or social milieu of the individual and the reference group must coincide with one another. If the views and/or behaviour differ, then the individual must conform to the current reference group by expressing the correct views and exhibiting acceptable behaviour or the group will either chastise the member into conformity or expel the member from the group.

Group theories assume that everyone wants to be a member in good standing of some groups. If these group memberships are important to us, we will be motivated to incorporate the signs of the group into our behaviour. Our group membership is also contingent upon the consistency of our norms and beliefs with those of the group. It is difficult to be comfortable and candid with people who do not agree with our beliefs. In making evaluations of others we gauge their worth by the standards of our reference group. In other words, the crucial question is: Are you one of us? With many delinquents it is a situation with no middle ground.

The value of the reference group concept in studying pluralistic societies which profess equality is that the discovery of lack of opportunities is instrumental in the development of subcultures. Within subcultures, innovative means to achieve unreachable pro-social goals become conforming behaviour rather than anti-social behaviour.

The world of crime is also structured into subcultures whereby thieves, drug addicts, prostitutes, and other deviant groups learn their trades and develop a professional status. Each group not only designates appropriate-inappropriate behaviour, but adheres to a specific lexicon of verbal and non-verbal communication, a status stratification, meeting and business places, recruiting procedures, and a set of ethics.

Similarly, subcultures influence the operation and social organization of correctional institutions (Glaser, 1958; McCorkle and Korn, 1954; Sykes and Messinger, 1960). Sykes and Messinger (1960) explain inmate organization in terms of functional adjustment to deprivations of institutional living, among which is the denial of dignity and self-worth. McCorkle and Korn (1954) suggest that the crucial factor is the inmate's adjustment to rejection which generates adaptive behaviour designed to enable the inmates to avoid self-rejection.

The subcultural theories establish that delinquents maintain membership in deviant subcultures due to the reinforcement they receive from that reference group. The inability to cope with the system of cultural goals and institutionalized means has caused them to seek out people similarly trapped. They, as a group of individuals confronted with similar situations, devise a new set of standards which can be internalized by all.

This same process is proposed to be the factor which renders individualized counselling ineffective in correctional institutions. The peer pressure is greater and more attractive than the system pressure; the two are opposed to each other. The inmate finds status

with peers that cannot be found by identifying with the prison authorities. In fact, the inmate culture establishes the rules for interaction with the authorities.

Evaluations of Positive Peer Culture

Although there is very little evaluative research available on the PPC treatment program per se, there are some studies concerning the Guided Group Interaction program out of which PPC program was developed. It should be noted that most of these studies were concerned with overt behaviour change, whereas PPC places emphasis on the change of attitudes and values.

A study which drew much attention at the time it was published is the evaluation of the effectiveness of the short-term treatment program for delinquent boys at Highfields, New Jersey (Weeks, 1958). The treatment program at Highfields employed the techniques of Guided Group Interaction. The objective of the research was to ascertain whether a greater number of youthful offenders subjected to the treatment would be rehabilitated than among those subjected to other forms of treatment. This longitudinal study measured recidivism rates, attitude change, and personality structure as criteria for determining the effectiveness of the treatment program. The experimental and control groups were comparable but unfortunately the subjects were not randomly selected. The results indicated that the short-term institutional treatment program produces fewer recidivists than traditional correctional programs.

A four-year longitudinal study at Southfields (Miller, 1970) examined whether the Highfields study could be successfully replicated in a different part of the United States. Using the definition of recidivism provided by the Highfields study, Miller compared recidivism rates for 191 delinquent boys admitted to Southfields with rates for two comparable delinquent groups, one placed on probation and the other admitted to a traditional correctional institution, Kentucky Village. Southfields obtained results similar to those of the Highfields study and higher than the Kentucky Village's. However, the psychometric measures used in this study could not predict which boys would successfully complete the Southfields program.

The Guided Group Interaction program employed in both Highfields and Southfields was modified and introduced in the State Training School (STS) in Redwing, Minnesota under the label Positive Peer Culture. The researchers in the Minnesota Department of Corrections evaluated the PPC program at Redwing utilizing recidivism as the sole measure of program effectiveness (Minnesota Department of Corrections, 1972, 1974). This longitudinal study was designed to follow-up the STS boys paroled in 1970, 1971, and 1972. No control groups were included in the study. The findings suggested that some boys respond to the PPC program better than others. For example, boys from metro-urban areas tended to remain on parole a longer period of time before revocation than boys from rural areas. Urban American Indians, Blacks, and boys from severely disrupted families were more likely to have their paroles revoked than boys from other backgrounds.

The PPC program was also evaluated in Michigan in 1973. In the Michigan study both behaviour and attitude criteria were used as indicators of program success. The researchers also collected data on the juveniles' reinvolvement in delinquency. The behavioural checklist instrument included to examine the treatment process posed methodological problems because of its inconsistent use by the staff. The Michigan study did indicate, however, that the PPC treatment program is successful especially with delinquent female adolescents.

In a Missouri evaluation of PPC, the researchers concentrated on the factors which account for the observed change resulting from the treatment program. Specifically, the study examined the relationship among antecedent factors (race, age, offense, time in treatment, court contacts, type of facility), intermediate program goals (group experience, positive impact, social climate, PPC achieved), and program impact (critical indicators, self-esteem, law and police). The absence of an experimental design complete with both a treatment group and a control group and random assignment of delinquent youths limited the ability of researchers to assess the real impact of the program. However, the study indicated a statistically significant increase in positive attitudes toward police, self-esteem, and critical indicators between time of entry and time of release. On the other hand, the youths demonstrated a less favourable attitude toward the law at the time of release than at the time of entry. This study also found no relationship between the antecedent factors and the youths' attitude change but the program goals are related to program impact.

With the exception of the Missouri investigation, the studies have focused primarily on behaviour change as the criterion of program effectiveness. However, PPC emphasizes attitude change relative to self in society. Consequently, an assessment of its effectiveness would require a specific focus on measuring attitudes directly rather than inferring change from such behavioural indices as recidivism, committal time, etc.

The Scales

Though many scales are available which measure attitude change, only those which deal with the problem areas defined by the PPC program could be considered relevant. These include the Internal-External Locus of Control scales developed by Rotter (1954), Offer's (1969) Mastery of the External World, Impulse Control, Family Relationship and Social Relationship scales, the Rosenberg scales of Stability of Self and Sensitivity to Criticism (Rosenberg, 1965) and two subscales of the Locus of Control developed by Reid and Ware (1973).

The Internal-External Locus of Control scale developed by Rotter (1954) is based on social learning theory. This scale (often referred to as the I-E Scale) was designed to measure the internal-external control individuals perceive they have, or do not have, over the events in their lives (Rotter, 1966, pp. 206-220). It is a twenty-nine item forced choice test including six filler items. These six items were included in Rotter's scale in order to make the purpose of the test more ambiguous. Each of the items consists of preferences for both internal and external control.

There have been innumerable studies using the I-E scale as a measurement tool. The twenty-nine forced choice scale has been related to many criteria such as level of aspiration (Lefcourt, 1967; Lefcourt, Lewis and Silverman, 1968), anxiety (Feather, 1967; Liberty, Bernstein and Moulton, 1966; Tolor and Reznikoff, 1967), attempts to control the environment (Davis and Phares, 1967; Hersch and Scheibe, 1967), achievement motivation (McGhee and Crandall, 1968; Gurin et al, 1969; Lao, 1970), reactions to frustration (Butterfield, 1964). The population groups which were taken into consideration consisted of mostly college students and adults.

The I-E scale has also been used to investigate the possible relationship between delinquency and Internal-External locus of control. Rotter (1966) suggested the amount of insight and internal control of adult prisoners is not significantly related. Henderson and Steiner (1974) studied the internal versus external control of adult defendants in a probation setting. They revised the original Rotter's scale in order to make the questionnaire comprehensible for the criminals with low grade education, and found, with adults, that increases in multiple offences and age were directly related to increased internalized scores. Sloan (1975) used the I-E scale to measure the locus of control of youths admitted to a juvenile detention centre and found no significant relationships between the I-E score and age, sex, prior involvements, home life and reason for admission.

Reid and Ware (1973) factor analyzed the I-E scale using the same procedures as Mirels (1970). Both of these studies found that the I-E may be a multidimensional construct with two major factors. One factor, called fatalism, appeared to be measuring perceptions that luck, fate and fortune rather than ability, hard work and personal responsibility determine one's outcomes. The second factor, called social system control, seemed to be measuring the belief that people are controlled by social system forces rather than having effective personal control. Since several of the problem areas of PPC are concerned with personal responsibility and social system control, these factors are of interest in an evaluation of attitudinal change produced by the program.

The Mastery of the External World Scale is one of the eleven scales in Offer's self-image questionnaire developed for assessing the feelings and behaviour of normal teenagers (1969). Unlike Rotter's I-E scale, the Mastery of the External World scale has been used very little if at all in research. The Mastery of the External World scale was developed to measure juveniles' self-confidence and sense of worth, problem areas with which PPC treatment programs are also concerned. The scale consists of ten items which are answered on a six-point scale from "Describes me very well" to "Does not describe me at all". Half of the items are written positively and the other half negatively.

The Impulse Control Scale was also developed by Offer (1969). Like the previous scale, this is a six-point, ten-item scale. The scale includes items like, "I get violent if I don't get my way", "I hold many grudges". Problem areas of PPC include inconsiderate and aggressive attitude of juveniles which are similar to the items contained in this scale.

The Stability of Self Scale is a part of Rosenberg's Self-Image questionnaire developed for the purpose of measuring self-attitudes in adolescents (Rosenberg, 1965). The self attitudes of the delinquents are a major concern of the PPC treatment program. The delinquent youths, according to Vorrath, have a poor self-image and are low in self-confidence, they mislead others and are misled by others, they put on an act and do certain things which are damaging to self. The PPC program aims at changing these negative attitudes of the delinquents and at turning them into "socially confident persons". A person can be socially confident if along with other achievements he achieves some stability of self. This aspect of the PPC program is similar to the content of Rosenberg's five-item scale which measures the stability of self.

The Sensitivity to Criticism Scale, also developed by Rosenberg, consists of three items designed to measure self-control and aggressive attitudes of the juveniles' areas of concern in the PPC treatment program.

The Family Relationship Scale is a twenty-item scale developed by Offer (1969). Like Offer's other scales, these are also six-point scales with both positive and negative items. The