ATTITUDE CHANGE AMONG DELINQUENTS

IN A POSITIVE PEER CULTURE PROGRAM

A Thesis

Presented to

the Faculty of Graduate Studies

University of Manitoba

In Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree

Master of Science

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by

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.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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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

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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 lassez-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 anc 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 institution-
alized 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).

Modes of Adaptation	Cultural Goals	Institutionalized Means
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, transigence, 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 guage 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

Family Relationship scale measures the attitudes of the delinquents toward their families, especially toward the authority figures (father and mother) in the family.

Offer's Social Relationship Scale consists of ten items, half of which are positively written and half, negatively written. This scale measures the attitudes of delinquent youths toward their peer group and other people in the society as well as the delinquent's ability to make and get along with friends.

Statement of Problem

On the assumption that the attitudes and values of delinquents are negative, Harry Vorrath developed the PPC treatment program with the specific goal of effecting positive attitude change. Though PPC has been adopted by institutions in the United States and Manitoba, its effectiveness in producing attitude change has not been evaluated. Such an investigation, to be valid, requires measures of change in dispositional variables, specifically, attitude toward self in society. Recidivism rates as used in previous studies are not valid measures of the direct effect of the Positive Peer Culture treatment program. Behavioural changes such as recidivism rates are possible outcomes of the program goals but according to PPC philosophy, only after pro-social changes in attitudes and values of the delinquents has been achieved. As Weeks (1958) describes

> Fundamentally, attitudes and values serve to motivate certain kinds of behaviour and inhibit other kinds. A person who despises the police, feels that laws are totally unfair or apply only to the other fellow, and is antagonistic toward or has no respect for his family or other authority, must be motivated differently from one who has opposite attitudes and values.

Since Positive Peer Culture places emphasis on the change in attitudes rather than overt behaviour, the effectiveness of PPC as a treatment program was measured and evaluated using attitude change as the criteria of success. The problem of this study was, therefore, to assess the change in attitude of delinquents about themselves and society after a period of time in the Positive Peer Culture program.

The null hypothesis of this study was that delinquent adolescents who participate in the Positive Peer Culture program conducted in a juvenile correctional institution show no change in attitude toward self and society over the first three months of committal.

The independent variable in the study was the Positive Peer Culture treatment program and the dependent variable was change in internalized values expressed through attitudes.

CHAPTER 2

METHOD

Design

The design of this study was quasi-experimental (Campbell and
Stanley, 1963; Cook and Campbell, 1979) with one group tested before
and three months after the Positive Peer Culture treatment. The
pre- and posttesting involved the administration of the Rotter Locus
of Control scale, Offer's Mastery of the External World, Impulse
Control, Family Relationship and Social Relationship scales, as well
the Rosenberg's Stability of Self and Sensitivity to Criticism
scales.

Subjects

The subjects in this investigation were juveniles committed by
the Provincial Family Court or the Director of Child Welfare to one
of the long-term treatment institutions during a three month period.
Twenty-three of the juveniles committed to these institutions were
pretested. Due to early release and other factors, only nineteen of
the original sample were posttested. The general characteristics of
this group are described in Table 1.

TABLE 1

SAMPLE CHARACTERISTICS

Characteristic	$\underline{N}$	Mean	Range	$\underline{SD}$
Age (Years)	19	15.7	14-17	0.87
Number of Previous Allegations	19	14.9	0-51	11.38
Number of Committal Allegations	19	6.7	0-22	6.65

Type of Locality	
Urban	Rural
13	6

Ethnic Origin		
White	Native	Metis
12	5	2

Note. Demographic characteristics such as sex, institutional placement, etc. are not included in this table for subject confidentiality reasons.

Instruments

Attitude toward self and change in internalized values were assessed with several existing scales. The principal measure of change in self was the modified (Henderson and Steiner, 1974) Internal-External Locus of Control. Several other scales (the Mastery of the External World, Impulse Control, Stability of Self and Sensitivity to Criticism) were used to obtain supportive data. Attitude toward family was measured by the Family Relationship Scale and attitude toward society was measured by the Social Relationship Scale (See Appendix).

Since the publication of Rotter's monograph containing the I-E scale a substantial amount of research in support of the I-E scale has accumulated. Reliability measures reported for the scale have been fairly consistent. The test-retest reliability scores reported by Rotter for varying samples and for one to two month periods ranged between 0.49 and 0.83 (Rotter, 1966). Hersch and Scheibe (1967) also found test-retest reliability coefficients ranging between 0.48 and 0.84 for a two month period. In a study of psychiatric patients, Harrow and Ferrante (1969) found a test-retest reliability of 0.75 which can be compared favourably with data obtained from normal samples. Internal consistency estimates of reliability have ranged between 0.65 and 0.79 with almost all correlations in the 0.70's.

Good discriminant validity for the I-E scale is indicated by low correlations with variables like intelligence, social desirability, and political affiliation. Hersch and Scheibe (1967)

also found nonsignificant correlations between the I-E total scores
and three different measures of intelligence. Minton (1967) found
no significant relationship between the I-E scores and political
attitudes of sixty-nine males. Reviewing the literature dealing
with the concept of Internal-External Locus of Control indicates
that Rotter's I-E scale has low, but respectable, reliability and
validity.

For this study only the internality scale of the I-E was
scored. This score is based on the number of items on which the
subject chose the internal statement. An internal score could
range from 0 to 23 with the six filler items not included in the
final score.

Mastery of the External World, Impulse Control, Family
Relationship, and Social Relationship, unlike Rotter's scale, have
not been used much for research purposes. However, Offer did pilot
test the internal consistency reliability of his scales using the
generalized alpha formula, and obtained coefficients which ranged
from 0.80 thru 0.52 (Offer, 1969, p. 229). He also checked the
validity of some of his scales by computing correlations between
these scales and the conceptually parallel scales of the Bell
Adjustment Inventory. It showed that the scales are negatively
correlated with the Bell Adjustment scales, with the Family Relation-
ships, r = -.64 and with the Social Relationships, r = -.61.

The scores of these scales are the sum of their positive and
negative items (inverted). The Mastery of the External World,
Impulse Control and Social Relationship scales have 10 items with a

low score of 1 and the highest score being 6 on each item. Therefore the possible scores on these scales can vary from 10 through 60. The Family Relationship Scale contains 20 items with a possible range from 20 through 120.

Stability of Self and Sensitivity to Criticism scales of Rosenberg are Guttman scales, hence, unidimensional and cumulative. The Stability of Self scale has reproducibility of 94%, scalability (items) of 77%, and scalability (individuals) of 77%. The Sensitivity to Criticism has reproducibility of 98%, scalability (items) of 94% and scalability (individuals) of 95% (Rosenberg, 1965, pp. 13-36).

Reid and Ware (1973), following Mirels (1970), factor analyzed the Rotter Locus of Control scale and found two major factors, one they termed fate and the other called social system control. Internal-External scale items with loading factors of .40 and above on either factor were scored in the current study. The two subscales, with five items each, were scored from the original responses on the I-E Locus of Control scale. These subscales were scored in the internal direction with a total subscale score ranging from 0 to 5.

Procedure

Arrangements were made that the investigator was notified immediately upon committal of a juvenile by either the Provincial Family Court or the Director of Child Welfare. All subjects were interviewed in a private office before they entered the PPC treatment institutions. The juvenile was given a copy of the

questionnaire (See Appendix) and asked to record his or her own responses. The interviewer intervened only when the subject could not understand the directions or had difficulty with the definition of a word. For four of the subjects the pretesting questionnaire was administered by a trained interviewer.

The posttest questionnaires were administered at the subjects' respective treatment institution ninety days after the pretest (± 7 days). The interview was conducted in the same manner as for the pretest. For six subjects a trained interviewer conducted the posttest.

Questionnaires used in the pre- and posttests were number coded to protect the identity of the subjects.

Chapter 3

RESULTS

To test the major hypothesis that there would be no recognizable change in personal and social attitude of delinquents who participated in the PPC treatment program for three months, the correlated t-test was applied to pretest and posttest scores for each of the scales administered. The relationships among variables were examined with the Pearson correlation coefficient on all pretest, posttest and change scores. The Mann-Whitney U test was used to explore subject characteristics.

It was expected that attitude as measured by the modified Rotter scale of Internal-External Locus of Control would change in the direction of internality. The secondary scales, which included Offer's Impulse Control, Mastery of the External World, Family Relationships and Social Control, were also expected to show a change toward more appropriate adjustment after three months in the treatment program. Rosenberg's stability of self and sensitivity to criticism scales were predicted to move toward more stability and less sensitivity while the Reid and Ware factors of fate and social system control were predicted to show a decrease in the fate dimension and an increase in the level of perceived social system control.

Accepting the level of significance at the p < .05 level, the correlated t-tests indicate no significant change in mean attitude scores from pretest and posttest (Table 2), with the exception of a decrease on the Offer Social Relationship scale, t = 3.08, df = 18, p < .01.

To examine the consistency of change from pretest to posttest on the scales correlation coefficients were calculated. Table 3 indicates the pretest and posttest scores are positively correlated on all scales except the Stability of Self and the Social System Control factor.

On the pretest the relationships among the scores of the scale are examined (Table 4). As may be expected locus of control is associated with the Reid and Ware fate factor, r = .52, df = 17, p < .05, but not with the Social System Control factor. Offer's Mastery of the External World is correlated with the Social Relationship scale, r = .47, df = 17, p < .05 and Rosenberg's Sensitivity to Criticism scale, r = .51, df = 17, p < .05. Rosenberg's Sensitivity to Criticism scale also correlates with Offer's Family Relationship scale, r = .47, df = 17, p < .05. The relationship of age, number of previous allegations, and number of committal allegations to the pretest scores are not significant.

After three months in the PPC treatment program the Offer Social Relationship scale remains correlated with the Mastery of the External World, r = .72, df = 17, p < .01 and Rosenberg's Sensitivity to Criticism scale, r = .47, df = 17, p < .05 (Table 5). Interestingly the Social Relationship scores are now also correlated

TABLE 2

MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS AND CORRELATED t-VALUES
BETWEEN PRETEST AND POSTTEST SCORES

| | Pretest | | Posttest | | |
Scale	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Correlated t
Rotter: Internal-External Locus of Control	15.3	2.92	16.1	3.81	1.01
Offer: Mastery of the External World	41.1	6.02	43.8	7.27	1.75
Impulse Control	41.0	6.99	40.3	7.12	0.47
Family Relation- ships	77.1	13.61	79.6	16.00	0.81
Social Relation- ships	45.3	7.48	41.7	6.94	3.08**
Rosenberg: Stability of Self	1.6	0.77	1.8	0.83	1.42
Sensitivity to Criticism	2.3	1.10	2.6	1.01	1.33
Reid and Ware: Fate Factor	3.2	1.27	3.5	1.26	0.96
Social System Control Factor	2.7	1.16	3.3	1.45	1.33

*p < .05
**p < .01

TABLE 3

CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS ON PRETEST-POSTTEST SCORES BY SCALE

Scale	r-Value
Rotter: Internal-External Locus of Control	.51*
Offer: Mastery of the External World Impulse Control Family Relationships Social Relationships	.51* .53* .59** .76**
Rosenberg: Stability of Self Sensitivity to Criticism	.34 .50*
Reid and Ware: Fate factor Social System Control factor	.56* -.05

$\underline{df}$ = 17
*$\underline{p}$ < .05
**$\underline{p}$ < .01

TABLE 4

CORRELATIONS AMONG TEST SCORES ON PRETESTING, AND CORRELATIONS WITH AGE NUMBER OF PREVIOUS AND COMMITTAL ALLEGATIONS

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Locus of Control											
2. Mastery of the External World	.15										
3. Impulse Control	.10	-.25									
4. Family Relationships	.40	-.14	.20								
5. Social Relationships	.33	.47*	.35	.31							
6. Stability of Self	.25	-.17	.33	.15	.15						
7. Sensitivity to Criticism	.37	.51*	.30	-.15	.47*	.20					
8. Fate Factor	.52*	.13	.11	.17	.22	.04	.27				
9. Social System Control Factor	.40	-.07	-.06	.02	.11	.11	.03	-.07			
10. Age	.44	.20	-.30	.07	.18	.08	-.09	.45	.24		
11. No. of Previous Allegations	-.23	.00	.09	-.42	.20	.20	.33	.11	.21	-.05	
12. No. of Committal Allegations	.06	.05	-.03	.10	.39	-.02	-.03	.36	.13	.15	.44

*$p < .05$
**$p < .01$

TABLE 5

CORRELATIONS AMONG TEST SCORES ON POSTTESTING, AND CORRELATIONS WITH AGE
NUMBER OF PREVIOUS AND COMMITTAL ALLEGATIONS

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Locus of Control											
2. Mastery of the External World	.35										
3. Impulse Control	.23	.29									
4. Family Relationships	.28	.21	.57*								
5. Social Relationships	.58**	.72**	.51*	.22							
6. Stability of Self	.39	.27	.44	.19	.65**						
7. Sensitivity to Criticism	.58**	.37	.31	-.01	.47*	.39					
8. Fate Factor	.78**	.35	.21	.09	.63**	.45	.13				
9. Social System Control Factor	.72**	.41	.16	.28	.43	.07	.55*	.41			
10. Age	.62**	.07	-.26	-.19	.11	.14	.47*	.42	.50*		
11. No. of Previous Allegations	.12	.09	.30	-.03	-.00	.10	.40	.13	-.03	-.05	
12. No. of Committal Allegations	.26	.41	.15	-.03	.22	-.18	.27	.24	.25	.15	.44

*$p < .05$
**$p < .01$

with the locus of control, r = .58, df = 17, p < .01, impulse control, r = .51, df = 17, p < .05, stability of self, r = .65, df = 17, p < .01, and Reid and Ware's fate factor, r = .63, df = 17, p < .01. The internal-external locus of control continues to correlate with the Reid and Ware fate factor, r = .78, df = 17, p < .01 and also correlates with the sensitivity to criticism scores, r = .58, df = 17, p < .01 and with the Reid and Ware social system control factor, r = .72, df = 17, p < .01. Additional correlations among posttest scores include family relationships with impulse control, r = .57, df = 17, p < .05 and sensitivity to criticism with the social system control factor, r = .55, df = 17, p < .05.

The relationships among subject characteristics and posttest scores are also shown in Table 5. The age of the subjects is now positively correlated with the locus of control scores, r = .62, df = 17, p < .01, the social system control factor, r = .50, df = 17, p < .05 and with the sensitivity to criticism scores, r = .47, df = 17, p < .05. Partialling the effect of age from these correlations indicates that the posttest scores of the locus of control and sensitivity to criticism are no longer significantly associated. However, the correlation between locus of control and the social system control factor with age partialled out remains significant, $r_{12.3}$ = .60, df = 16, p < .01.

Table 6 shows the relationships among change scores derived from the difference between pretest and posttest scores. The locus of control correlates with the social system control factor, r = .66, df = 17, p < .01, family relationships with impulse control,

TABLE 6

CORRELATIONS AMONG CHANGE SCORES FROM PRETEST TO POSTTEST, AND CORRELATIONS
WITH AGE AND NUMBER OF PREVIOUS AND COMMITTAL ALLEGATIONS

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Locus of Control											
2. Mastery of the External World	.30										
3. Impulse Control	.06	.07									
4. Family Relationships	.08	.03	.54*								
5. Social Relationships	.07	.12	-.19	-.31							
6. Stability of Self	-.03	-.05	.13	.22	-.31						
7. Sensitivity to Criticism	.39	.17	.09	-.00	-.13	.07					
8. Fate Factor	.40	.28	.12	.28	-.28	.35	-.13				
9. Social System Control Factor	.66**	.23	-.02	-.29	.11	-.15	.04	.20			
10. Age	.37	-.10	.03	-.38	.12	.04	.58**	-.04	.23		
11. No. of Previous Allegations	.33	.09	.22	.36	.31	-.09	.07	.02	-.16	-.05	
12. No. of Committal Allegations	.23	.40	.19	-.17	.28	-.14	.31	-.12	.11	.15	.44

*p < .05
**p < .01

r = .54, df = 17, p < .05, and age with sensitivity to criticism, r = .58, df = 17, p < .01.

The Mann-Whitney U indicates that ethnic origin and locality (urban or rural) do not significantly influence the pretest, posttest, or change scores.

CHAPTER 4

DISCUSSION

The major hypothesis of this paper was that juvenile delinquents who participated in a Positive Peer Culture treatment program conducted in a juvenile correctional institution would show a change in attitude toward themselves and society over the first three months of committal. Several scales were used to test this hypothesis with the major instrument being the Rotter Internal-External Locus of Control scale as modified by Henderson and Steiner. The other scales were used as supportive measures to the locus of control.

When the t-test was applied between pretest and posttest scores on all scales, no significant differences were found on any scale with the exception of the Social Relationship scale. With only one supportive scale on which a significant change was shown, overall the null hypothesis of this study should be accepted.

Despite the statistically nonsignificant change, all scales did show some change in the expected direction from pretest to posttest. The one significant change obtained on the Social Relationship scale is worthy of comment. As the scores declined from pretest to posttest, one might think that the program not only had no effect, but in fact, may have had a negative effect upon the attitudes of juvenile delinquents. However, as discussed in the

review of the PPC program, one of its goals is to change negative, antisocial attitudes to more positive, prosocial attitudes. Therefore, one interpretation is that rather than the direction of these scores representing a negative effect of the program, the change in attitude toward social relationships is exactly what the program is designed to do. As the delinquents begin to respond to the program they become aware of the influence their peers had on them in the community and begin to question what part those peers may have had in getting them into trouble with the law and eventually being incarcerated. With this reassessment of their community based peer group it is more realistic to expect that juveniles would be less enthusiastic about their social relationships with friends on the outside. As one of the goals of PPC is to help juveniles understand their problems and provide them with the opportunity to change their attitudes, then this research result could be a positive indication that PPC is doing what is expected--beginning the process of eliminating old values or means and clearing the way for new ones to be adopted, somewhat like substituting new acts for old habits.

Both the cultural deviance theories and the strain theories support this notion. The strain theories would suggest that juveniles are not only questioning whether or not society's game is worth playing, but also who can best help them play the game. It seems that these juveniles are having to reconsider goals as well as the means, with social relationships being a very important means to the goal. The cultural deviance theories would suggest that the PPC program provides one positive peer group whose goals and means

the delinquents must conform to if they are to be successful in the institution. In contrast to the outside world where adolescents can choose among peer groups the one that matches their needs and values, the PPC program juveniles have only one set of group values open to them, forcing them to change their personal values if they wish to have peer group acceptance.

An alternative interpretation could be that this decline in response on the Social Relationship scale is due to a normal reaction of incarcerated individuals. It has been suggested in the literature that prisoners undergo a change in interpersonal relationships, not because of any treatment program intervention, but because their normal social relationships have been curtailed and they are forced to seek new ones within the institution. In other words, one must question whether the scores on the Social Relationship scale from pretest to posttest are measuring the same thing. It could be that the pretest measures community based social relationships and the posttest measures institutionally based social relationships.

Through future study the more appropriate explanation could be pursued by examining the specific items on the Social Relationship scale to determine if there is a differential response from pretest to posttest on those items that specify the community reference group or the PPC group.

Therefore, while the specific null hypothesis must be rejected on statistical grounds, there are indications that some changes are taking place within the juveniles in the PPC program. Possibly a
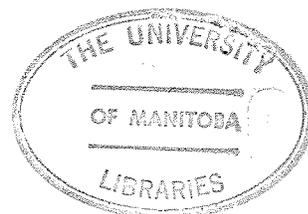
longer period of assessment of program effects would yield more significant results.

This concept of length of time in the program becomes even more relevant when one considers that upon admission to a long-term institution juveniles spend the first month or two becoming comfortable. The juveniles must get to know their new residence: they begin to test the staff and the physical plant, they become aware of the routines, they begin to understand the main treatment program, and they establish themselves as a member of the group. It is generally after such explorations have run to completion that the juveniles begin to show their "true colours" and to profit from the PPC program. Given this situation, perhaps this study was only looking at the initial movement or restructuring juveniles make while in the PPC program. Therefore, it is recommended that further study be undertaken on attitude change with the length of the study extended to perhaps six or nine months.

This recommendation becomes even more poignant in the light of comments from the field. Field workers think there may be an optimal point where juveniles in the program reach a plateau of effective change and any efforts beyond this point then show decreasing returns. This field observation supports the locus of control research which suggests that the more internal one becomes, the less one is affected by outside influences. Thus a further recommendation for future study would be to design the research with an initial pretest prior to admission into the program and several posttests, probably at two month intervals.

The indications of change suggest that the data be explored further. Through examination of correlations among scores and with subject characteristics several other facets of PPC come to light.

The correlations between pretest and posttest scores were high on all measures with the exception of the Stability of Self and the social system control factor. This suggests that most of the scales used were consistently interpreted by the subjects from pretest to posttest.

One explanation for the lack of correlation between pretest and posttest scores relative to the nonsignificant relationships on both the Stability of Self and social system control factor is that two influences are operating simultaneously on the juveniles' feelings of stability/instability and on their feelings of powerfulness and having a say in matters that affect them.

First, at the time the juvenile was selected for the study, he or she has just spent considerable time in a detention centre not knowing what is going to happen to him or her, then they received the committal judgement. Therefore, at the time of the pretest, which was administered immediately upon committal, it is suggested that the juveniles were feeling unstable and certainly would feel they have no power or voice in what happens to them or is of concern to them.

After three months in the institution with structured routines and a definite and known maximum committal time, one would expect the juvenile to be feeling more stable since the time of indecision

and the initial shock of being committed have passed. However, as the "environmental" reasons for the feelings of instability pass, the juvenile is now being forced, through the PPC program, to reassess social relationships with peers and friends, question his or her values and attitudes, and chart a new course of action for him or herself. This whole restructuring of personal life could be leading to a different kind of feeling of instability.

Similarily, over time, one would expect the environmental causes of feelings of powerlessness to decrease. But now the juvenile is being told through the treatment program that he or she has power and has a say in what happens, but that this can only be realized through the PPC group which is not a type of power over environmental factors, but a power over personal decision making. Again, the shift in emphasis from environmental factors to personal factors could result in continuing low scores from pretest to posttest and also account for the lack of correlation between the pre and posttest scores.

Although scores and correlations from pretest to posttest are nonsignificant it is important to consider these findings. Further research into the effectiveness of the PPC program should be designed such that the influence of environmental factors and treatment effects can be discerned in the attitude change that occurs.

Further exploration of the data suggests that several pretest scores correlate significantly from scale to scale. The Mastery of the External World correlated highly with the Social Relationship

scale and also with the Sensitivity to Criticism scale. With Mastery being concerned with self-worth and self-confidence and Social Relationships with friends and peer groups, it follows that these scales would correlate because peer group acceptance or rejection reinforces self-worth and self-confidence. Similarly, if ones' peer group and friends accept the individual and as a result there is a strengthening of feelings of worth and confidence, then it follows that one will be less affected by criticism.

The other correlation among pretest scores was the relationship between the locus of control and the Reid and Ware fate factor. Since the subscale of the fate factor was explored using data from the I-E Locus of Control scale a high correlation could be expected. Furthermore, the data are in the expected direction in that as perceptions of personal control versus control by external events increases in the direction of internality, the fate factor, which examines perceptions of luck and fate versus ability and hard work being the main control in one's life, increases in internality also, suggesting the reliance on fate or luck is being rejected.

It is also interesting to note that none of the pretest results on any of the scales were correlated with age of the subjects, ethnic origin (White, Native, Metis), or locality (urban or rural), and that the number of previous allegations or committal allegations also showed no significant relationship to any of the scales. This finding is similar to Sloan's (1975) who found that age, sex, prior involvements, home life and reason for admission were not related to scores on the locus of control for juveniles admitted to a short-term detention centre.

Across the posttest scores, locus of control is now related to social relationships, suggesting that as the subjects see themselves more internally or being in control, they appear to be falling into line with the PPC program expectations: they are indicating less reliance on negative peer groups or friends for direction, they show less dependence and more independence, and hopefully an eventual perception of positive interdependence through the positive peer group. That internality is now related with sensitivity suggests the more internal a delinquent becomes, the less sensitivity to criticism he or she feels. These are possible indicators of program success because as one becomes a socially confident person, a PPC goal, the less susceptible one would be to criticism.

The locus of control is also related to the fate factor suggesting that as the delinquents become more internal or believe they are in control of their destiny, the less they believe that fate is a major factor in their lives which again coincides with the PPC program goals.

Although the social relationships remain related to Mastery of the External World and Sensitivity to Criticism scales as they did across pretesting, they are now also related to Impulse Control, Stability scores and the fate factor. These results also suggest that change is taking place in the direction the PPC program attempts to guide it. As the social relationships become less important impulse behaviour such as inconsiderateness or aggressive attitudes drop, the individuals become more stable, and realize that fate may have less significance in their lives.

While pretest scores and subject characteristics were not related, after three months in the program, the posttest scores show a different result. Although previous allegations, committal allegations, ethnic origin and locality remain unrelated to posttest scores, age is now correlated with locus of control, sensitivity to criticism, and the social system control factor, suggesting that age, rather than program intervention may be responsible for posttest changes. When age was partialled out, the posttest scores of locus of control and sensitivity were no longer significantly correlated, though the relationship is still substantial. Even more interesting, when age was partialled out of locus of control and the social system control factor, the relationship remains significantly high suggesting that age is not responsible for the posttest scores, but program intervention may be. This lack of significant relationship of subject characteristics and scale scores is very noteworthy. It is often suggested that cultural differences, type of locality and offence patterns are the relevant factors responsible for the different types of responses delinquents have to treatment programs. These factors do not seem to apply to PPC.

Though after three months in the PPC program there were no significant changes, the overall pattern of findings seem to suggest that delinquents begin to change their attitudes and values in a consistent fashion. They appear to be coming together as socially confident persons who can accept the goals and means of society--the ultimate goal of the Positive Peer Culture program.

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY

Although there is an increase in the number of juvenile correctional institutions utilizing the Positive Peer Culture program as their primary form of treatment, very little research has been conducted to evaluate the effectiveness of this program. The main goal of PPC is the substitution of positive attitudes and values for the negative value system found in the delinquent subculture. The means of attaining this goal in PPC requires the involvement of the adolescent in a search for becoming a socially confident person through the culture of the peer group.

In this study, involving 19 juvenile delinquents, the exploratory hypothesis was that delinquent adolescents who participate in the PPC program would show a change in attitude toward themselves and society over the first three months of committal. The modified Rotter I-E scale, Offer's Impulse Control, Family Relationships, Mastery of the External World, and Social Relationships scales, and Rosenberg's Stability of Self and Sensitivity to Criticism scales were administered to all subjects immediately upon committal and again after they had participated in the PPC program for three months.

The pretest to posttest scores indicated a significant change on the Social Relationship scale only, suggesting that overall the null hypothesis of the study should be accepted.

Further data analysis showed several significant correlations among scale scores on pretest and posttest results suggesting that some internalized changes were taking place. Of particular significance was the lack of correlation between test scores with any of the subject characteristics.

Two major suggestions for further research become apparent from this study. First, the length of time of future research in this area should be increased. Secondly, the design should incorporate pretesting and multiple posttesting situations. While this study was not successful in its attempt to demonstrate statistically significant changes in attitudes, the pattern of relationships found in the data suggest further research is warranted.

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APPENDIX

THE QUESTIONNAIRE

QUESTIONNAIRE

I AM PRESENTLY CONDUCTING AN EVALUATION OF THE POSITIVE PEER CULTURE
TREATMENT PROGRAM. I NEED YOUR COOPERATION TO OBTAIN SOME VALUABLE
INFORMATION. THIS IS NOT A TEST; SO THERE ARE NO RIGHT OR WRONG
ANSWERS. I WANT YOU TO ANSWER EACH ITEM IN THIS QUESTIONNAIRE.

YOUR NAME IS OF CONCERN TO ME ONLY FOR THE PURPOSE OF DOING THE
FOLLOW-UP STUDY. THE INFORMATION THAT YOU ARE SUPPLYING ME WITH
WILL BE STRICTLY CONFIDENTIAL AND WILL NOT BE RELEASED TO ANYBODY
OUTSIDE OF MYSELF. NOBODY ELSE WILL HAVE ANY ACCESS TO YOUR
INDIVIDUAL RESPONSES.

****

INSTRUCTIONS

BELOW ARE TWENTY-NINE PAIRS OF STATEMENTS NUMBERED ONE AND TWO. PLEASE SELECT THE ONE STATEMENT OF EACH PAIR (AND ONLY ONE) WHICH YOU MORE STRONGLY BELIEVE TO BE THE CASE AS FAR AS YOU ARE CONCERNED. BE SURE TO SELECT THE ONE YOU ACTUALLY BELIEVE TO BE MORE TRUE RATHER THAN THE ONE YOU THINK YOU SHOULD CHOOSE OR THE ONE YOU WOULD LIKE TO BE TRUE. THIS IS A MEASURE OF PERSONAL BELIEF; OBVIOUSLY THERE ARE NO RIGHT OR WRONG ANSWERS.

PLEASE ANSWER THESE ITEMS CAREFULLY BUT DO NOT SPEND TOO MUCH TIME ON ANY ONE ITEM. BE SURE TO FIND AN ANSWER FOR EVERY CHOICE.

ON SOME INSTANCES YOU MAY DISCOVER THAT YOU BELIEVE BOTH STATEMENTS OR NEITHER ONE. IN SUCH CASES, BE SURE TO SELECT THE ONE YOU MORE STRONGLY BELIEVE TO BE THE CASE AS FAR AS YOU ARE CONCERNED. ALSO TRY TO RESPOND TO EACH ITEM INDEPENDENTLY WHEN MAKING YOUR CHOICE; DO NOT BE INFLUENCED BY YOUR PREVIOUS CHOICES.

IN MARKING YOUR ANSWERS, CIRCLE THE NUMBER (EITHER ONE OR TWO) AT THE RIGHT OF THE STATEMENT FOR EACH SET OF STATEMENTS.

EXAMPLES:

1. GIRLS ARE FUN . . . . ①

    GIRLS ARE NOT FUN 2

2. BOYS ARE FUN 1

    BOYS ARE NOT FUN . . . . ②

****

1. Children get into trouble because their parents punish them
   too much 1

   The trouble with most children nowadays is that their parents
   are too easy with them 2

2. Some people just have bad luck 1

   The bad things that happen to people are because of the
   mistakes they make 2

3. We have wars because not enough people try to stop them . . . 1

   There will always be wars no matter how hard people try to
   stop them 2

4. Usually people get what's coming to them 1

   No matter how hard people try, they never get the breaks . . 2

5. Most teachers are fair to their students 1

   Students that have success get favours from their teachers . . 2

6. A person needs the right breaks to become a leader 1

   Leaders are people who worked hard to make it 2

7. Some people just don't like you no matter how hard you try . . 1

   Some people don't like you because they have not tried to
   understand you 2

8. Heredity (ancestry, nature) plays the major role in
   determining one's personality 1

   It is one's experiences in life which determine what
   they're like 2

9. I have often found that what is going to happen will happen . 1

   Trusting luck does not work as well as trusting my own
   decisions 2

10. The student who has studied can pass most tests 1

    Exam questions are often so unfair that studying ahead of time
    is useless 2

11. People that get good jobs do it through hard work; luck has
    little to do with it 1

    You have to be in the right place at the right time to get a
    good job 2

12. The average person can help make changes in the world 1

    There isn't much the little guy can do to change the way things
    are in the world 2

13. I can make my plans work 1

     I don't plan too far ahead, because I have to change my
          plans all the time 2

14. There are certain people who are just no good 1

     There is some good in everybody 2

15. In my case, luck doesn't get me what I want 1

     I might just as well flip a coin when trying to decide on
          what to choose 2

16. The boss is the man lucky enough to be in the right place
          at the right time 1

     The boss is the man with ability; luck has little to do
          with it 2

17. In the things that happen in the world, we all are the
          victims of things we cannot change or control 1

     By working in groups, I can help change world events 2

18. Most people don't know how much their lives are controlled
          by accidents or changes 1

     There really is no such thing as "luck" 2

19. One should always be willing to admit mistakes 1

     It is usually best to cover up one's mistakes 2

20. It is hard to know whether or not a person really likes you . 1

     How many friends you have depends on how nice a person you are 2

21. In the long run, good or bad things are about the same . . . 1

     Most bad luck is the result of ignorance, laziness or the
          lack of ability 2

22. By working hard, I can help get crooked people out of office . 1

     Nobody can change crooked politicians 2

23. If I study hard, the grades I get will show it 1

     Whether I study hard or not, the grades I get are about the
          same 2

24. A good leader expects people to decide for themselves what
          they should do 1

     A good leader makes it clear to everybody what their jobs are. 2

25. I feel that I have little to say about the things that
    happen to me 1

    I cannot believe that chance or luck help me live my life . . 2

26. If people are (were) friendly, they wouldn't be lonely . . . 1

    Why try to please people; if they like you, they like you;
    if not, they don't 2

27. There is too much emphasis on athletics in school 1

    Team sports are a good way to build character 2

28. What happens to me is my own doing 1

    I feel I cannot control where my life is taking me 2

29. Most of the time I cannot figure how government works 1

    In the long run, the nation as well as Winnipeg is ruled
    by people like me 2

****

INSTRUCTIONS

THIS IS A CONFIDENTIAL SELF-IMAGE QUESTIONNAIRE. THERE ARE
NO RIGHT OR WRONG ANSWERS. PLEASE ANSWER ALL OF THE QUESTIONS.
AFTER EACH STATEMENT YOU WILL HAVE A CHOICE OF SIX ANSWERS. PLEASE
WRITE THE <u>NUMBER</u> OF YOUR ANSWER AT THE END OF EACH STATEMENT.

<u>RESPONSES</u>

DESCRIBES ME VERY WELL	DESCRIBES ME WELL	DESCRIBES ME FAIRLY WELL	DOES NOT QUITE DESCRIBE ME	DOES NOT REALLY DESCRIBE ME	DOES NOT DESCRIBE ME AT ALL
1	2	3	4	5	6

EXAMPLES:

1. I AM HAPPY . . . . <u>2</u>

2. I AM SAD . . . . <u>5</u>

****

Responses:	Describes Me Very Well	Describes Me Well	Describes Me Fairly Well	Does Not Quite Describe Me	Does Not Really Describe Me	Does Not Describe Me At All
	1	2	3	4	5	6

1. Most of the time I think that the world is an exciting place to live in . . . . _____

2. I am fearful of growing up . . . . _____

3. When I decide to do something, I do it . . . . _____

4. I find life an endless series of problems, without solution in sight . . . . _____

5. I feel that I am able to make decisions . . . . _____

6. I feel that I have no talent whatsoever . . . . _____

7. If I put my mind to it, I can learn almost everything . . . _____

8. When I want something, I just sit around wishing I could have it . . . . _____

9. My work, in general, is at least as good as the work of the guy next to me . . . . _____

10. I repeat things continuously to be sure that I am right . . _____

****

1. When I get very angry at a person, I let him (her) know about it . . . . _____

2. I hold many grudges . . . . _____

3. I keep an even temper most of the time . . . . _____

4. I "lose my head" easily . . . . _____

5. Usually I control myself . . . . _____

6. I fear something constantly . . . . _____

7. Even under pressure I manage to remain calm . . . . _____

8. I get violent if I don't get my way . . . . _____

9. I can take criticism without anger . . . . _____

10. At times I have fits of crying and/or laughing that I seem unable to control . . . . _____

****

Responses:	Describes Me Very Well	Describes Me Well	Describes Me Fairly Well	Does Not Quite Describe Me	Does Not Really Describe Me	Does Not Describe Me At All
	1	2	3	4	5	6

1. I can count on my parent(s) most of the time . . . . ____

2. Parents should give children a lot of praise even if they don't deserve it . . . . ____

3. Most of the time my parents are satisfied with me . . . . . ____

4. My parents are ashamed of me . . . . ____

5. My parents are usually patient with me . . . . ____

6. My parents will be disappointed in me in the future . . . . ____

7. I have been carrying a grudge against my parents for years . . . . ____

8. I feel that I have a part in making family decisions . . . . ____

9. I try to stay away from home most of the time . . . . ____

10. Usually I feel that I am a problem at home . . . . ____

11. Most of the time my parents get along well with each other . . . . ____

12. Very often I feel that my father is no good . . . . ____

13. Very often I feel that my mother is no good . . . . ____

14. I think that I will make my parents proud of me in the future . . . . ____

15. I like one parent much better than the other . . . . ____

16. When my parents are strict, I feel that they are right, even if I get angry . . . . ____

17. Understanding my parents is beyond me . . . . ____

18. When I grow up and have a family, it will be in at least a few ways similar to my own . . . . ____

19. My parents are almost always on the side of someone else, for example, my brother and/or sister . . . . . . ____

20. Very often parents do not understand a person because they had an unhappy childhood . . . . ____

****

Responses:	Describes Me Very Well	Describes Me Well	Describes Me Fairly Well	Does Not Quite Describe Me	Does Not Really Describe Me	Does Not Describe Me At All
	1	2	3	4	5	6

1. I enjoy most parties I go to . . . . ____

2. I find it extremely hard to make friends . . . . ____

3. I do not have a particularly difficult time in making friends . . . . ____

4. I usually feel out of place at picnics and parties . . . . . ____

5. I think it is important to have at least one good friend (to confide in) . . . . ____

6. I prefer being alone (than with other kids my own age) . . . ____

7. Being together with other people gives me a good feeling . . . . ____

8. I think that other people just do not like me . . . . ____

9. I do not mind being corrected, since I can learn from it . . . . ____

10. If others disapprove of me I get terribly upset . . . . ____

****

INSTRUCTIONS

THE FOLLOWING STATEMENTS ARE ABOUT YOURSELF. WOULD YOU PLEASE CHECK THE RESPONSE THAT BEST DESCRIBES HOW YOU FEEL ABOUT EACH OF THE STATEMENTS.

EXAMPLE:

ON THE WHOLE, HOW HAPPY WOULD YOU SAY YOU ARE?

1. VERY HAPPY   _____

2. FAIRLY HAPPY   ✓

3. NOT VERY HAPPY   _____

4. VERY HAPPY   _____

****

1. I have noticed that my ideas about myself seem to change very quickly.

       1. Agree   _____

       .2. Disagree   _____

2. Some days I have a very good opinion of myself; other days I have a very poor opinion of myself.

       1. Agree   _____

       2. Disagree   _____

3. Does your opinion of yourself tend to change a good deal, or does it always continue to remain the same?

       1. Changes a great deal _____

       2. Changes somewhat _____

       3. Changes very little _____

       4. Does not change at all _____

4. Do you ever find that on one day you have one opinion of yourself and on another day you have a different opinion?

       1. Yes, this happens often _____

       2. Yes, this happens some-times _____

       3. Yes, this rarely happens _____

       4. No, this never happens _____

****

1. How sensitive are you to criticism?

       1. Extremely sensitive _____

       2. Quite sensitive _____

       3. Somewhat sensitive _____

       4. Not sensitive _____

2. Criticism or scolding hurts me terribly.

       1. Agree   _____

       2. Disagree   _____

3. How disturbed do you feel when anyone laughs at you or blames you for something you have done wrong?

       1. Deeply disturbed _____

       2. Fairly disturbed _____

       3. Not disturbed _____

****