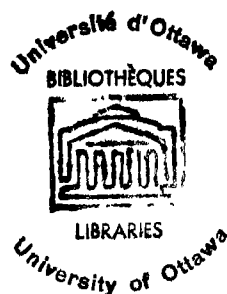


STAFF-STUDENT RELATIONSHIPS AT ONTARIO JUVENILE
DELINQUENT CENTRES - CORRELATES OF SELF-ESTEEM

by

Frederick P. Luciani

Thesis submitted to the School of Graduate Studies
of the University of Ottawa, in partial fulfilment
of the requirements for the degree of Master of
Arts in the Department of Criminology.



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if,   if it's mine
      it's me ..... 7
if (1234133215511325136625135)
if it's me, it's mine ..... 4
if it's mine it's not me .. 1
then  if it's not me it's not mine}
hence,
      if it's not mine it's me .....8
      if it's not mine it's me .. 8
      if (1..... 577413)
      if it's me
          it's mine .....4
      if it's mine it's not mine..6
      if it's not mine it's not me2
      if it's not me
          it's mine ..... 5
then

```

Knots

by R.D. Laing

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INTRODUCTION

The proliferation in the past decade of published research in the area of counsellor-client relationships has exposed a number of counsellor-specific dimensions facilitative⁽¹⁾ of positive client adjustment. High levels of respect, warmth, genuineness, trust, empathy, patience, communicated by the counsellor, to mention only a few, have been shown to be significantly associated with changes in relevant client dimensions such as insight, self-esteem, self-exploration, openness and interpersonal skills in general.

Correctional officials and correctional researchers have long been aware of the association between institutional adaptation and post-release experience, and the quality of staff-inmate relationships. Successful ex-inmates have often attributed their success to a close personal relationship with an institutional staff member. Little, however, is known of the specific conditions in staff-inmate relationships that are relevant to acceptable social development of the inmate. Furthermore, the "communicators" of conditions

(1) The author is aware that the term "facilitative" is not found in any recognized English dictionary. However, it has been extensively used by C.B. Truax and R.P. Carkhuff (Toward Effective Counselling and Psychotherapy, Chicago: Aldine, 1967) and will be used in this study.

related to inmate adjustment do not appear to be uniquely conditioned by prior training, status or requisites of role performance but rather this ability appears to be distributed generally throughout the institutional staff population.

The present research focuses on both the perception of interpersonal conditions facilitative of inmate self-esteem and on the distribution and comparative ability to communicate these perceived conditions among staff members at three Ontario juvenile delinquent centres.

In Chapter I the tripartite review of the literature attempts: (a) to develop and operationalize a self-esteem construct; (b) to explore the influence of social relationship on self-esteem and (c) to examine the expected relationship between staff-inmate relations and inmate self-esteem. Chapter II presents a description of the sample, instruments employed to test hypotheses and procedure followed in the collection and analysis of the data. In Chapter III the results are presented, interpreted and discussed. The summary and conclusions of the thesis follow.

CHAPTER I

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

A. The Self, Self-Concept and Self-Esteem

1. Introduction

The philosophical and psycho-sociological literature is full of epistemological formulations of the term "self" (62): its function in personality development (2; 61), its physical and social antecedents (18; 60; 80) and its behavioural correlates (37; 38; 41). The popularity of the self factor is attributed to inaccuracies in predicting human behaviour with sole reference to observable antecedents external to the subject (106, p. 731), and a recognition of the self factor as a prime individual correlate of behaviour (76, p. 494). The difficulty in reviewing critically a multi-disciplinary topic such as the self lies in the abundance of available materials and in the often disparate use of terms, which make the undertaking dependent on the selectivity and private interpretations of the writer.

In view of the potential pitfalls, the limited objective of the following review is intended to be neither "exhaustive" nor "synthetic". A construct must be judged by its usefulness and ease in scientific application. To this

end, I hope to isolate from the abundant literary and denotative descriptions of the term "self", distinct derivatives of the terms "self", "self-concept" and "self-esteem", and explore the prerequisites of operationalizing self-esteem.

2. The Self: Philosophical Origins

Long before it became fashionable in modern psychology, philosophy grappled, and continues to grapple, with the notion of a central, continuous, co-ordinating agent, of which the self referents "I", "me", "mine", provide the most expedient and compelling evidence. The notion of a "self" appears in the writings of Descartes (62, p. 16), who conceived of himself as composed of a mind and a body, but reserved his "self" in a form not identical, yet associated with, his mind and his body. Kant (60, p. 129) talks of an object self to which we have access and can observe, and a knowing self of which we can catch glimpses, but never fully experience. Hume, on the other hand, could not dissociate the idea of self from his perceptions and experiences. "When I enter most intimately into who I call myself," writes Hume (45, p. 301), "I always stumble on some particular perception or other." Yet another approach regards the self as an agent of causality or center of personal energy. Meyers

(62, p. 24) suggests that the self is a "non-bodily something", in possession of a body and a mind, the activities and processes of which the self initiates and controls.

From the perspective of scientific tenability, Meyers' interpretation highlights the essential dilemma that many of the above and subsequent opinions share; Meyers attributes behavioural or mental causality to an inapprehensible or unobservable "something", a return to the elusive homunculus. Consistent throughout philosophical thought, and indeed prevailing and refined in recent formulations, is the intimate relationship of the self to the total physical and mental constituents of the person. The self factor is very much a part of the person, yet it is removed from experience in a way that our bodily and mental functions are not.

At least two other frequently expressed ideas are evident or recur in philosophical literature. The self, or the undifferentiated self, may be dichotomized according to two distinct experiences we encounter; a self as an ubiquitous agent of personal causality - "the knower" - and the self presented as the object of knowledge and repository of personal experience. While we may be aware of the former only fleetingly, the object self is never far removed from conscious experience. Secondly, implicit in the above opinions is the notion that experience or knowledge of the undifferentiated

self is reflexive: that by making the self an object of its own awareness, one can obtain factual information about oneself as an object.

3. The Self: Psychological Elaboration

The psychological development of the self of William James (47, p. 317) retained the essential dual nature of the undifferentiated self. Distinguishable within the undifferentiated self are two dimensions which he labels the "I" and the "me". The "I", synonymous with the self as the knower, perceives the world about it and co-ordinates reactions to changing contingencies. The "me", on the other hand, is the self that is observed along three distinct dimensions - material, social and spiritual.

Cooley's (17, p. 169) concern focuses primarily on the object self, or "empirical self" to use his term, which "can be apprehended and verified by ordinary observation". He describes the empirical self as ideas that begin at birth and become refined with experience. These ideas spring from muscular, visual and other sensations which can then be "appropriated", or incorporated, into an individual sense of identity or ownership. Allport (2, p. 127) chose the term "proprium" to refer to the object self and equates its development with gradual transition from consciousness to self consciousness.

The child gradually learns to differentiate an object self from the rest of his environment on the basis of those sensations, initially pain or hunger, which have their immediate locus within his body. Symonds (98, p. 4), restricts the undifferentiated self to a "phase" of the individual's personality, of which the "I" or "ego" are described as responsible for attaining satisfaction dictated by inner drives. The object self, to which Symonds refers simply as the "self", describes the way in which the individual reacts to himself, and what he thinks of himself, as well as how he values and enhances or defends himself.

Although the "ego" and the "self" are experienced as distinct, they may be dynamically interrelated. According to Symonds (98, p. 5) perception is one of the functions of the "ego" and distortions in the perceptual process may lead to inaccurate self observations, while inappropriate self-perceptions may cause or reinforce distorted "ego" functions.

In spite of the obvious relevance of ego functions to self perception they are not of focal interest in the present study, which uses the subject's statements as data without examining the validity of these statements. Consequently, in the next two sections only the self as an object will be considered further.

4. The Self-Concept - Organization and Function

Not all environmental stimuli (such as those which are below threshold) are perceived; not all perceptions become conscious, (some are routine, for example the pressure of the chair against the buttocks); and not everything to which we have conscious access is "appropriated" into, or remains part of, the object self. Of those life experiences that are incorporated into the object self, even fewer describe at any one time the self-concept of the person. The ideas that form the object self consist of a periphery and a distinct, stable, organized core. Snygg and Combs (90, p.112) have labelled this core the self-concept, and they describe it as "those parts of the phenomenal field which the individual has differentiated as definite and fairly stable characteristics of himself." The self-concept appears to fall into the category of "self schemata", described by McClelland (61, p. 542) as ideas a person holds about the world and, most importantly, about himself and his relationship to the world. The "self schema" is described as a consistent and integrated internal structure consisting essentially of a cluster of memories centered around the person himself.

The ideas a person has about himself can be arranged along a gradient, traced from those self ideas that form the core of a person's identity to those at the periphery, following

a "hierarchy of response tendencies of different strengths" (61, p. 541). The self ideas such as name, kinship, age, residence etc. that most immediately and intimately establish the identity of an individual are at the top of the hierarchy, and have the strongest response tendencies. It is these self ideas, which ellicit the strongest responses, that form the core of the object self. They, in turn, encompass those composite ideas that outline the person's self-concept.

While the portion of the object self which becomes differentiated as the self-concept remains an essentially stable constellation of recurring self ideas (80, p. 5), refinement and addition, as well as deletion, are possible. The self-concept is based on the experiential reality of the person and, as such, it is sensitive to the changing conditions of his experience. New experiences provide a source of new self ideas which can be added to the self-concept or reinforce existing self-concepts.

Allport (2, p. 118) notes that the need for (self) autonomy as an outstanding mark of selfhood is already prominent in the second and third years of life. It would appear that the "proprieate strivings" are generally believed to be the expression of inborn drives that motivate the individual in the direction of "self-autonomy", "self-realization", "self-actualization", "self-consistency" or any one of the many

diverse forms, purported to manifest latent personal potentialities (106, p. 736). The "proprieate striving" emerges as the infant gradually becomes aware of the "separatness" of his person from the surrounding environment. The need to control his environment by co-ordinating his activities, in order to satisfy his primary needs initiates the development of the infant's self-concept.

The "proprieate striving" remains a life-long fixation, although the means by which personal potentialities are realized, and what constitutes self-fulfillment, vary with different authors. Lecky (56, p. 138), for example, emphasizes that "all pleasures appear to trace back to the primary motive of unification". The personality is viewed as an organization of self values which are felt to be consistent with one another, while the individual's behaviour "expresses the effort to maintain the integrity and the unity of the organization" (56, p. 152). Epstein (27, p. 407), on the other hand, postulates that self-concept is really a "self theory", - a personal blueprint about the nature of the world, the self and the interaction of the two. The function of the self theory is to maximize the predictability of one's behaviour in order to "optimize the pleasure/pain balance of the individual..., to facilitate the maintenance of self-esteem... and to organize the data of experience in a manner that can be coped with

effectively." However the formula or blueprint is described, it is generally conceded that the emerging self-esteem is not random but follows a definite "purposeness" or "directedness".

5. The Self-Concept - Content Dimensions

The ideas which the person incorporates as his self-concept, whether motivated by the pleasure derived from "unification" or from being more efficient in "coping" with environment, form a mosaic of experientially distinct, inter-related content dimensions. Each content dimension acts as a particular frame of reference, within which the person may evaluate himself on a group of related or similar self ideas. The person's self-concept may then be sub-divided into content dimensions whose interrelated sum delineates his self-concept.

Although the number of discriminations among content dimensions is disputed by writers, their overall descriptions are similar. Fitts and Hammer (31, p. 3), for example, isolate three internal frames of reference on which the person may base his description of himself. These are the "Basic Identity", or how he perceives himself at his most basic level, "Self-Satisfaction", or how he feels about himself, and "Behaviour" or what he does. They include five external frames of reference that an individual may employ to describe himself in relation to physical self, moral-

ethical self, personal self, family self, and social self.

James (48, p. 291) designates three broad content dimensions or "constituents" of self-experience within which all the other discriminations may be included. These are the material self, the social self and the spiritual self.

The material self describes those ideas that relate to the physical body and material possessions that the person describes as "mine". The bodily self is the first aspect of selfhood to evolve. The continuous and recurring stream of organic sensations from the muscles, joints and external organs define for the infant the limits of his physical existence. This initial bodily sense of "me" is a basic experience and remains a life-long anchor of self-awareness.

The "social self" is perhaps the most dominant in that it represents the opinions of our parents and peers over the total structure of the object self. Mead (60) contends that the all-self ideas are the product of social influences since any information or evaluation with respect to self ideas represents the responses to a person's behaviour from his significant others. These responses provide the informational basis for conceptions of self.

The "spiritual self" consists of the person's characteristic thoughts, dispositions and psychological

activities. For example, when a person feels elated or depressed he regards that elation or depression as intrinsically bound up in his self and "his" in the same sense that a car or a house may be his. Other aspects of the self-concept within the "spiritual self" include the continuing sense of "self-identity", "self-acceptance" and "self-satisfaction". Self-esteem, the person's characteristic evaluation of himself, also forms a subcategory of the self-concept and may be considered within the realm of the "spiritual self".

6. Self-Esteem - Formulations

Bennett, Sorensen and Forshay (8, p. 3) stress that the study of self-esteem must solve, among others, the basic problem of an adequate definition of self-esteem as distinct from other related aspects of personality. With this point in mind, a number of distinct self dimensions were reviewed in an attempt to isolate self-esteem as it relates to the overall sense from other self constructs. The undifferentiated self was dichotomized as the "ego" and the "object self", abandoning the former. Those self ideas which form the "core" of the object self were described as the "self-concept" and further subdivided into a number of related content dimensions. It was suggested that self-esteem falls within one of these latter dimensions.

Values are assigned to those apprehensible experiences that are designated as the self-concept. According to Rogers (76, p. 498) these values may be experienced either directly by the person or acquired from others. They generally reflect immediate cultural standards. While the person strives for "unity" or "enhancement", the development of self-esteem and its maintenance are necessary for the fulfilment of personal potentialities. James (49, p. 291) wrote that what every man craves most is "praise", while self-esteem was described by Allport (1, p. 169) as "man's most coveted experience". More recently, Allport (2, p. 119) has reaffirmed his belief in the universal need for self-esteem and a similar theme is repeated in the writings of Syngg and Combs (90, p. 238) and can be inferred from the works of other personality theorists (see, for example, Angyal 3; Laing 55; Munroe 67; Rogers 76).

Self-esteem, or the process of evaluation, extends with varying emphasis over the total configuration of self ideas. It is frequently expressed as the relationship between the person's actual and ideal self (11; 47; 88). The ideal self refers, generally, to how the person would ideally like to be while his actual self is the self that the person experiences. The person's self-esteem increases progressively as he is able to realize or achieve ideals on which he places

high value. Consequently, the satisfaction of the need for self-esteem follows the narrowing of the gap between the person's aspirations and his experience of himself. The result is the acquisition of a personal sense of value.

In the foregoing discussion we have maintained that the formulation of self ideas is reflexive. Self-esteem is described as an "attitude of evaluation" directed towards an object, person or idea (18, p. 22). The attitudinal object in the case of self-esteem is the phenomenal self or, more precisely, the self that can be made the object of its own awareness. This limits the attitudinal evaluation to the "object self". Finally, a definition of self-esteem should take into account at least one other commonly reported condition associated with the person's self-esteem. It has been found that some time after early adolescence self-evaluation becomes relatively enduring (12). The adolescent develops a characteristic level of self-esteem that tends to remain fairly stable throughout the life of the individual.

The definition advanced by Geland was found sufficiently accommodating as far as the above considerations were concerned and therefore it was adopted in the present study. Geland (33, p. 260) defines self-esteem as:

"A person's characteristic evaluation of himself and what he thinks of himself as an individual; low self esteem is characterized by a sense of personal inadequacy (valuelessness) and an inability to achieve need satisfaction in the past, high self esteem is defined by a sense of personal adequacy (value) and a sense of having achieved need satisfaction in the past".

7. Self-esteem - Measurement

The literature describes many methods and instruments for assessing self-esteem and related self variables (105). Methods vary depending on theoretical interpretations of self-esteem, but this variance is often obscured by overlapping and intertwining definitions. Instruments developed in one study are seldom used again in further research and adequate validity procedures are often not recorded (88). What follows is a brief description of some of the more popular techniques of assessing self-esteem.

Perhaps the most popular method of assessing self-esteem is based on the measurement of the actual-ideal self discrepancy, which can be derived from Q-sorts, rating scales or adjective check lists. This approach envisages the administration of two tests in which the subject is asked to respond to the stimulus materials as these relate to his actual and ideal self. High self-esteem is believed to be expressed by either a moderate or low discrepancy, or a

high correlation between the two (88, p. 1026).

Economy precludes a more detailed discussion of the various operations and stimulus materials involved in the discrepancy methods. Q-sort methodology (91), however, has had wide exposure and merits further elaboration. One hundred self-referent statements derived from therapy introduced by Butler and Haight (11) have been frequently used as stimulus materials applied in the assessment of object self by means of Q-sort. The subject is required to sort the statements in nine piles arranged along a continuum according to the degree to which these describe the subject's actual and ideal self-concept. The number of items placed in each pile is regulated so as to produce a quasi-normal distribution. Each item in the actual and ideal sort is assigned a value from one to nine, according to the pile in which it is placed, and a measurement of self-esteem is obtained either from the absolute discrepancy between scores of the two sorts, or by the correlation between them.

The one hundred items cover a broad range of self-conceptions but doubts have been expressed as to the validity of the self-esteem construct (106) obtained by this method. One problem in the discrepancy measure is the forced sorting of items into the quasi-normal distribution. Subjects not required to sort items to obtain this quasi-normal distri-

bution have been found to favour a U-shaped distribution. Forced sorting tends to moderate or preclude extreme scores, leaving the authenticity of the results in question (105).

A different approach, offered by Tippitt and Silber (88), is based on modifications of the "Role Repertory Test" (54). It enables the subjects to rate themselves within their own frame of reference. The subject is instructed to list twenty significant persons in his life (mother, best friend, etc.) and then to consider successive combinations of three of these people, deciding in what way two of them are similar, and different from the third. The subject's profile is expressed through the development of twenty bipolar construct dimensions, or modes of constructing others.

The self-esteem measure, designated as "Subjective Satisfaction", is derived by having the subject rate himself as to his degree of satisfaction on each of the twenty dimensions. A second self-esteem measure is also derived from the discrepancy score. It is obtained by having the subject rate himself on these same dimensions with reference to his actual and ideal self.

It appears that the first self-esteem measure, "Subjective Satisfaction", assumes that self-esteem and self-satisfaction are interchangeable. It has been suggested

that, although an individual may feel quite satisfied with himself, this is not necessarily synonymous with high self-esteem (8). It also appears possible that satisfaction may exist in association with low self-esteem (85, 86).

Depending on the size and nature of the sample involved, methods that emphasize economy of administration such as adjective check lists or questionnaires are successful with some groups. In this respect there is merit in Rosenberg's use of a ten-item scale because of its administrative simplicity (80). Subjects are asked to agree strongly in response to self-esteem items which display high face validity, as opposed to the items in the above methods which involve global self-conceptions of less obvious face validity. Furthermore, each item is scored on the basis of the subject's response being consistent with high self-esteem. Thus the level or strength of self-esteem is expressed directly in relation to the degree to which the subject acknowledges its presence and does not rest on the assumption of a relationship between actual and ideal self.

Four basic criteria guided the selection of an instrument to measure self-esteem in the present study. The basic difficulty in measuring phenomenal self-concepts is that, by definition, they cannot be observed directly by the investigator. It is important to have some indication

of construct validity for instruments whose purpose is the assessment of constructs which cannot be observed directly (19). This basic criterion, however, is very seldom met or even attempted by the great majority of instruments used at present to measure self-concepts (106, p. 756). Preference, then, should be given to instruments that have demonstrated some indication of construct validation. Secondly, it would be more economic to use instruments which make the least number of assumptions. Thirdly, bearing in mind the number and nature of the present sample, demands on the respondents should be kept to a minimum. Finally, in accordance with the "common sense" approach of Coopersmith, Rosenburg, and Bennet, Sorensen and Forshay, it seems appropriate that, if one wants to know something about a subject that is known only to him, one should ask the subject directly. Coopersmith's (18, p. 265) "Self Esteem Inventory", which will be described in more detail later, was employed with some modifications in the present study because it meets the above qualifications.

B. Origins of Conceptions of Self

1. Self-Concept: Physical Influence

The developmental nature of the undifferentiated self is implied or alluded to by most theorists who have used this concept. The sense of selfhood is seldom believed to be present at birth (53, p. 87). It is also generally held that self-conceptions are learned, and the principle of reinforcement is often emphasized as the primary determinant of what self-concepts are learned. In the Freudian interpretation, for example, exploration and manipulation of bodily constructions is seen as a source of libidinal discharge and thus it is rewarding. An infant learns that his lips may be pleasurably stimulated by his finger but that his fingernail may cause pain to the lip. In the process of exploration, the infant experiences his bodily configuration and the distinctions between his members. The physical environment holds many clues which provoke experiences that, in turn, give form to the person's selfhood. Through an early process of trial and error, the infant discovers those clues, most intimate to his person, and he gradually learns to sort and seek out of the labyrinth of sensations and experiences those clues which define and, later, confirm his sense of self (2; 106).

2. Self-Concept: Social Influences

Purely physical clues play only a relatively rudimentary role in the formation of conceptions of self. The more crucial impact on the evolution of self-conceptions comes from social interaction and internalization of ideals and values. Perhaps the most forceful statement of this position is formulated by Cooley (17) and Mead (60). According to Cooley and Mead, we discover an image of ourselves through the responses that our behaviour elicits from others. The esteem in which we hold another will determine the influence that this person will have on shaping our self-image. Hence a highly significant other, such as mother or a highly esteemed associate, will be more influential, through his responses, in determining how a person conceives of his self, than an "other" of low esteem. Alternatively, an individual feels that a belief or value is "proper" or "valid" to the extent to which it is confirmed by others. In the words of Festinger (29, p.5) "... if there are other people around him who believe the same thing, then his opinion is to him, valid. If there are not ... then his opinions in the same sense (are) not valid". Similarly, those opinions and values which an individual holds of his self are open to public scrutiny (i.e. responses) and may, if confirmed, be held as valid and, if not confirmed, as invalid and cause him to question and possibly to modify

his self-belief. Social response, then, provides a constant source of interpersonal clues as to the image that others may hold of us. This, in turn, influences the character of the self-image that we come to accept. The idea of the importance of social impact on self-concepts is also in accordance with the writings of Horney (41), Newcomb (69), Rogers (76), Snyggs and Combs (90) and Sullivan (93), to mention only a few.

Illustrative of the empirical support for the theory of social impact on self-conceptions are studies by Helper (4), Manis (57) and Miyamoto and Dormbusch (63). They demonstrate that an individual's "self-rating" on specific attributes correlates positively and significantly with the ratings of him made by his associates. However, it is still open to question whether others' reactions are necessarily antecedent conditions of self-ratings. The study of Videbeck (103) suggests an answer: subjects changed their "actual self-rating" to correspond more closely to their "ideal self-rating" when specific attributes were given approval by their confederates. As expected, under conditions of "disapproval" subjects changed their "actual self-ratings" to a point further away from their "ideal self-ratings", while no marked changes occurred under ambiguous conditions.

3. Self-Esteem: Social Influences - General Considerations

Inasmuch as it has been shown that self-conceptions are affected by social interaction, it would not be unreasonable to expect attitudes of self-esteem or worthiness to be equally affected. Rogers (77, p. 498) and Sullivan (93, p. 168) suggest that value connotations in the labels "good boy" and "bad boy" make a young child aware at an early age of the esteem in which certain behaviour is socially held. These values are subsequently accepted by the individual as attributable to himself as a whole. Later, learned cultural standards continue as the yardstick against which self value is measured. In a culture, for example, in which physical prowess is held in high esteem, the physically adroit individual would acquire a sense of self-esteem corresponding to that cultural value. On the other hand, the self-esteem of a physically lethargic person would suffer under the same conditions.

Speculation about the processes involved in the interpersonal generation and maintenance of self-esteem focuses on the general principle of reinforcement, accepting that self-esteem is a basic need. Rogers (76; 78) postulates that attitudes communicated towards a person which give him a feeling of being respected and accepted should induce

similar attitudes in him: that is, that he should consider himself to be worthy and of value. Through the "principle of reciprocal affect" Truax and Carkhuff (99, p. 151) suggest that "in any interpersonal situation the affect elicited in one person is in kind and proportion to the affect communicated by the other". Hence, the nature and degree of esteem communicated to a person will correspond to the nature and degree of esteem he will attribute to himself. The principle of reciprocal affect, as it is applied to therapist-client relationships, is believed to effect positive client change in four modalities: reinforcement of positive aspects of the client's self-concept; self-reinforcement of self-exploratory behaviour; reduction of anxiety or fear, and reinforcement of human relating and interacting. The cumulative effects of improvement in the four modalities increase the client's future potential for self-reinforcement.

It is predicted (23) that people will respond favourably (i.e. like, interact with) to positive evaluation of themselves because such evaluations satisfy self-esteem needs; they will respond unfavourably (i.e. dislike, avoid) to negative evaluations which would tend to intensify these needs. Data from a variety of social-psychological studies including, for example, studies of social influences (43),

self-presentation (50) and social comparison (65) support the theory of the direct relation between self-esteem needs and clear social acceptance or rejection.

The relationship between social attraction and self-esteem has drawn attention to the possible conflict between explanations of the association between social influence and self-esteem.

On the assumption that self-esteem represents a basic need, Dittes (23), Videbeck (103) and Cartwright and Zander (14) postulated that one person's attraction to another may be considered a function of the extent to which his particular needs are satisfied by the other, and of the strength of his needs. It follows, as Dittes has argued, that because a rejecting "other" should thwart a greater need in low self-esteem individuals than in high self-esteem persons, and because an accepting "other" should satisfy a greater need in low self-esteem individuals, an attractive "other" should be liked more by individuals low in self-esteem than by those high in self-esteem. These hypotheses were supported by Dittes and Walster (104) and results of their research attest to the varying response to social reinforcement by persons with different levels of self-esteem. (Although it appears that persons low in self-esteem display a greater need, it may also be that these same individuals,

because of their low self-esteem and corresponding behaviour, are less equipped to enhance their self-esteem (43, p. 115; 20. p. 169)).

Cognitive consistency theorists (85; 86), who assume that the need for consistent self-concepts can override the need for self-esteem, have predicted and demonstrated results contradictory to those reported by Dittes and Walster. They propose that the need for congruency among self ideas motivates the individual to interact with others, whose behaviour validates the individual's self-concept, to such an extent that low self-esteemers will react favourably to rejection. Consequently, the prediction from a self-consistency standpoint is that high self-esteem individuals will react more favourably to approval (i.e. consistency) than to disapproval (i.e. inconsistency) and, inversely, low self-esteem individuals will react more favourably to disapproval (i.e. consistency) than to approval (i.e. inconsistency). In effect, low esteemers select negative social stimuli, subordinating the need to improve their self-esteem to the satisfaction of their need for self-consistency.

Jones (51) introduced the concept of "personalism" in order to resolve the apparent conflict between the postulates of self-esteem and self-consistency. Accordingly, when a

"relevant action", one that affects self-esteem, is communicated to a "perceiver", the perceiver must decide whether the action was uniquely conditioned by the fact that he was its target, or by some cause unrelated to himself. An "actor" that affects the "perceiver", positively or negatively, shares a "personalistic" relationship with him only if the selection of that particular "perceiver" as a worthy (or unworthy) beneficiary was made while there existed opportunities to select other targets or other action. In other words, thinking "He likes me because of the kind of person I am," is undoubtedly more rewarding than thinking "He likes me because he is the kind of person who likes everybody" (51, p. 195).

Self-consistency can be reformulated as an attribute of personalism: the more the actor's evaluations are self-consistent and consistent with those of the perceiver, the more likely the perceiver is to regard this consistency as evidence that the actor's evaluations are uniquely conditioned by the fact that the perceiver is the target. Thus self-consistency is not considered a motivational state per se, but rather it is seen by the perceiver as evidence of personalism which, in turn, facilitates interpersonal reinforcement.

In support of the principle of personalism, Jones (51) reported positive findings for the hypothesis that when an

individual thinks he is accepted or liked by others, the more consistent their evaluation of his characteristics is with his own, the more he is attracted to them; but when an individual is rejected or disliked by others, the more consistent their evaluations are with his own, the less he is attracted to them. According to Jones, the preference for inconsistent evaluations (i.e. no personalism) when an individual finds himself disliked "strongly indicates that esteem enhancement and not maintenance of stable cognitions is the motivational force operating in these social relations" (51, p. 196). The study thus supports the assumption that personalism, as evidenced by consistent evaluations from the other, increases the impact of the other's responses on the perceiver in the direction predicted by self-esteem needs.

4. Self-Esteem: Social Antecedents

Parent-Child Research

The nature of investigations into the social antecedents of self-esteem have been generally correlational, often retrospective. Findings from broad independent research tend to confirm that subject self-esteem is influenced by highly similar interpersonal antecedents.

The reinforcement of levels of self-esteem in individuals may come from many sources. Important from the standpoint of interpersonal antecedents of self-esteem is the finding that there seems to be significant correlation between self-esteem and conditions of parent-child relationships. Rosenberg (80), for example, reports that adolescents who have closer relationships with their fathers are higher in self-esteem than those with more distant, impersonal relationships. Similarly, Coopersmith (18, p. 236) found positive, significant correlations between the child's self-esteem and (a) mother's self-esteem; (b) mother's acceptance of her role; (c) mother's use of reward rather than punishment to discipline, and (d) father's aspirations for his son. In general, according to Coopersmith, parental antecedents of child self-esteem can be traced to a total or nearly total acceptance of the child, clearly defined and enforced limits of regulating child behaviour and respect and latitude for individual action that exists within the defined limits.

Antecedents of child self-esteem reported by Sears (84) also focus on conditions of parental acceptance as well as warmth. This study varies from the previous one in one significant respect: while Rosenberg and Coopersmith measured conditions of parent-child relationships and child self-esteem

concurrently, the Sears measures of parental responses were obtained seven years before the self-concept measures. Of the four major factors of parent-child relationships assessed (permissiveness, family adjustment, warmth and child training orientation), warmth, whether measured at age five or age twelve for a comparable sample was found to be the factor most significantly related to children's self-esteem.

Although the above studies point to a direct relationship between such parental attitudes as warmth and acceptance and child self-esteem, collectively they remain incapable of determining whether parental responses precede or are a consequence of child self-esteem. Indeed, it is possible that the direction of causality may be reversed, in which case it is the child's high self-esteem that produces parental responses of warmth and acceptance (7, 64).

Clinical Research

Client responses to specific conditions of his therapeutic experience, while supporting the results from parent-child relationships, provide evidence as to the sequence of causality in the interpersonal correlates of self-esteem.

The work of C. Truax and R. Carkhuff and associates, following closely the Rogerian theoretical perspective, represents the most theoretically consistent and empirically directed effort in determining interpersonal conditions relevant to self-concept changes. Central to the Truax-Carkhuff (99, p. 31) model is the finding that:

"the theories of practitioners who represent a variety of therapeutic and counselling approaches converge upon the central therapeutic ingredients of a 'helping relationship'... the central ingredients of empathy, warmth and genuineness do not merely represent 'technique' of therapy or counselling but are interpersonal skills that counsellor and therapists employ in applying his technique or expert knowledge."

Accordingly, the constant which transcends diverse counselling models and perspectives are the interpersonal conditions of the 'helping relationship' - genuineness, empathy, and warmth. A number of studies by a variety of researchers, reported on by Truax and Carkhuff (99, Chapter 3), have consistently found that, regardless of the method of determining success or the type of client, counsellors who, in the interpersonal relationship with their clients, conveyed higher levels of these conditions demonstrated correspondingly higher rates of success. Among the criteria of success facilitated by conditions of interpersonal relationships were positive changes in self-concept and self-esteem, as

measured by reduction in actual-ideal self discrepancies. Included in the types of clients were institutionalized juvenile delinquents.

A study by Truax, Wargo and Silber (101) illustrates the research being carried out on the relationship between changes in client self-esteem and facilitative conditions of client-therapist relationship. Institutionalized female delinquents at a Kentucky institution, between the ages of fourteen and eighteen, were randomly assigned to experimental (n=40) and control (n=30) groups. The experimental group engaged for three months in bi-weekly sessions of group psychotherapy with previously assessed therapists offering high levels of accurate empathy and non-possessive warmth. The control group did not take part in psychotherapy but participated in the regular institutional programme.

Post-therapy assessment of the experimental therapists supported the original assumption of their ability to convey high levels of the specified relationship conditions. Following completion of therapy, both groups were assessed on outcome criteria that included self-concept changes, delinquency-proneness and family relations, to mention only a few. The experimental group demonstrated a statistically significant increase in self-ideal correlation while the control group showed no change. The experimental group

also demonstrated significant reduction in delinquency-proneness and more compatible family relationships.

The studies reported by Truax and Carkhuff and their associates support and extend to therapist-client relationships the general results of parent-child relationships with respect to the interpersonal conditions relating to self-esteem. In the particular study described, the principle of social reinforcement of self-esteem is confirmed utilizing groups of institutionalized, middle-adolescent female delinquents. A similar study utilizing institutionalized delinquent boys also found positive self-concept changes significantly related to high therapist conditions (99, p. 137). Furthermore, research in the areas of client response to therapeutic experiences emphasizes the specific facilitative conditions of genuineness, empathy and warmth, while the results of the control-designed study tend to support the antecedent role of the facilitative conditions. The belief that these conditions precede changes in subject self-esteem is further advanced in studies in which experimental manipulations in the offered levels of genuineness, empathy and warmth correspond to predicted fluctuations in subjects' self-concepts (100). It remains to be explored whether a similar association between the levels of the facilitative conditions and conceptions of the self can be generalized

with respect to extra-parental or extra-clinical interpersonal relationships - between any two individuals in a general social interaction.

5. Self-Esteem: Extension of the Principle of Interpersonal Reinforcement

Prerequisite to the above association is the assumption that the conditions of clinical or parental interpersonal relationships, which have been shown to be related to conceptions of the self, are not limited to client-therapist or parent-child interaction but, rather, are available and operative in the general population. Shoben (87, p. 126) suggests that the attributes of an ideal therapeutic relationship are not unique to the therapist but are the prerequisites of any desirable human relationship. Indeed, some researchers (13) have noted that professional training in counselling may prevent the development of, and even erode, prior levels of genuineness, empathy and warmth considered essential to a successful therapeutic relationship. It is assumed, for the purposes of this research, that the facilitative conditions effecting favourable self-conceptions are not unique to either parent-child or therapist-client relationships, but present in a general social context.

Secondly, are the conditions of the relationship alone

sufficient to induce and maintain self-concepts? It is evident in counselling and psychotherapy literature that great importance is attached to the quality of the client-therapist relationship. According to Black (9, p. 98), the lack of understanding of the process of therapy may be the result of preoccupation with technique to the neglect of the interpersonal relationship, which "may well account for the most significant share of behavioural changes produced by psychotherapy."

Rogers (77; 78) has also consistently maintained that the counsellor's ability to communicate empathic understanding and unconditional positive regard for the client, and his being a genuine person in the relationship are not only "necessary" but indeed "sufficient" conditions for therapeutic change. Indicative of the essentials of client-centered therapy is the emphasis on providing the "conditions" facilitative of personality and behavioural change. The agreement of many theories of counselling on the central role of the facilitative conditions of client-therapist relationships leads us to agree with Rogers, that the quality of interpersonal relations is sufficient to influence the individual recipient of these conditions.

If it can be assumed that both the availability and sufficiency of the antecedents of self-esteem reported in

parental and clinical relationships are universal, it follows that social relationships in general are endowed with the potential to reinforce self-concepts. Interpersonal relationship in which high levels of facilitative conditions are communicated would be expected to correlate with relatively high levels of self-esteem in a recipient. Furthermore, if we accept that the maintenance of adequate self-esteem is a universal need, then we would also expect the individual to gravitate towards and utilize those environmental stimuli (i.e. persons), regardless of their role or status, which satisfy that need. Specifically, it would be expected that the individual will be attracted to, or select as companions, persons who communicate high levels of the facilitative conditions - genuineness, empathy and warmth - which, by enhancing self-esteem, satisfy this need.

It would also be expected that, if the facilitative conditions are universal human conditions of interpersonal relationship and not the unique attributes of one particular group such as psychotherapists, then potential communicators should be distributed throughout a given population. In the case of a family or hospital, for example, the number of social reinforcers of self-esteem could be potentially extended to include any or all members of the family or hospital staff who have contact with the individual.

6. The Nature of Genuineness, Empathy and Warmth

In its broadest context one may look upon a relationship, specifically at an interpersonal relationship, as on any process through which someone else enters into one's conscious awareness, or vice versa. To regard the term "relationship" in this way, in its broadest context, is to acknowledge that the possible modes of interaction between individuals are virtually unlimited. Nor are these possibilities diminished by focusing on only some parameters of social relationships, or even by limiting them to conditions relevant to changes in self-esteem. However, having thus acknowledged this extreme range of possibilities that may exist in an interpersonal relationship, it should also be reiterated that the facilitative conditions which have been shown to influence changes in self-esteem during therapy and which are believed to be available in extra-clinical interactions are the very relationship conditions which are believed to be optimally associated with self-esteem in a general social context. Hence, limiting the definition of interpersonal relationship to the facilitative conditions of genuineness, empathy and warmth expresses the belief in the importance of their function in influencing the development of self-esteem.

Genuineness:

Truax and Carkhuff (99, p. 32) suggest that "genuineness implies most basically a direct personal encounter, a meeting on a person-to-person basis without defensiveness, or a retreat into facades or roles and so in this sense an openness to experience". We generally take for granted genuineness in our everyday relationships with others and we are most often aware of it by its absence. Lack of genuineness may be experienced, for example, in inconsistency between what an individual says and what he does. Also indications of discomfort, tensions or anxiety may be considered to be less direct evidence of the absence of genuineness.

Empathy:

Fliess (32, p. 212) describes empathic understanding as, essentially, the ability to put oneself in another's place, "to step into his shoes and to obtain in this way inside knowledge, knowledge that is almost firsthand". Empathic understanding includes the desire to know the full present and changing awareness of another person and to translate another's words and signs into one's own experiential meaning, similar to the other's own experience. Behaviourally, empathy represents the ability to perceive, translate and relate back to the person his feelings and reality.

Warmth:

Warmth is possibly the most difficult of the three facilitative conditions to describe. Rogers (79, p. 222) referred to warmth as "prizing" another person's feeling and opinion and the non-possessive caring for and acceptance of an individual as a separate person having worth in his own right. Warmth is generally the affective aspect of one person's response to another that may be communicated through respect, liking, appreciation and affection.

There are at least two relationship inventories the purpose of which is to measure, among other interpersonal variables, genuineness, empathy and warmth. These are Barrett-Lennard (6, p. 109) and Truax and Carkhuff (99, p.74) relationship inventories. The latter was selected for use in the present research because of its more frequent use with delinquents, its economy and comprehensibility. It will be described in the following chapter.

C. Self-Esteem and Institutionalization

1. Self-Concept and Delinquency

A number of studies have found that delinquents can be differentiated from non-delinquents by the relative "unfavourability" (21; 24; 73; 74; 75) or relative "negativity" (26; 28; 31; 66) of their conceptions of self. It has also been experimentally demonstrated (4; 25) that levels of self-esteem are inversely related to the probability of delinquent actions or, specifically, that high self-esteem acts as an "insulator" against delinquencies because such actions are inconsistent with high self-esteem. Low self-esteem is not inconsistent with delinquent acts, hence the psychological restraints against these acts are not experienced as intensely by low self-esteem individuals. Given that the level of self-evaluation relates to the probability of delinquent behaviour, then the institutional commitment of the offender must be assessed taking into account the degree to which institutionalization of offenders enhances or depresses self-evaluation.

1. Institutionalization and Inmate Reaction

The most persistent and recurring theoretical perspective from which institutional behaviour is explained involves what may euphemistically be described as a deprivation/

pain-reaction/restoration hypothesis (15; 16; 35; 94). Essentially the explanation is as follows: institutional deprivation causes a number of severe physical and psychological pains which result in restorative reactions that attempt to compensate for the deprivation and result in a reduction of the pain of institutionalization. Patterns of inmate behaviour and social structure evolve a sequential process of deprivation/pain-reaction/restoration.

Deprivation/Pain: Encroachments on Self-Esteem

The pains of imprisonment are intrinsically associated with encroachments on self-conceptions which find their antecedents in institutional deprivations. Goffman's (35) process of "self-mortification" aptly describes the systematic erosion of the inmate's self image. Institutional placement symbolically reinforces the social unacceptability or rejection of the inmate, while the futility of prison routine, which largely restricts opportunities to gratify essential physical, social and psychological needs, erodes inmate self-esteem and delays the realization of personal potentialities.

Confinement to a prison is described as spatial deprivation in two dimensions - the prisoner is restricted by the boundaries of the prison walls, as well as within his

own cell (95). Restriction of movement disrupts his emotional relationships with his family and actively eliminates heterosexual relationships. While confinement represents a moral rejection by the free community, the loss of heterosexual relations, coupled with the loss of familial responsibilities represent a "moral castration", to use McCorkle's term. By limiting the inmate's exercise or expression of his masculinity, imprisonment in effect limits his conception of manhood and, in eliminating vital supporting roles, deprives him of self-autonomy.

Given the harmful impact of institutionalization on the inmate's conceptions of self, one would expect that the need for, and subsequent attraction to self-supportive stimuli would be increased in an attempt to avoid self-debasements. In this respect the prison regime offers two distinct sources from which the inmate may draw to preserve and enhance conceptions of self - the official one of "treatment" and the anti-official one of "inmate culture" (70).

Reaction/Restoration: Mechanisms of Self-Esteem Enhancements

Institutional adaptation must inherently reflect the conditions and climate from which it evolves. Simply stated,

the behaviour of inmates in the prison community reflects the pain, or threat of pain caused by the deprivations of imprisonment and prison routine. Although this over-simplifies the case, it does not overlook the fact that inmate behaviour may reflect residual pre-commitment values (46); rather, it recognizes that a more pervasive account of institutional behaviour relates to conditions unique to prison.

According to Goffman (35), the individual inmate may adopt any number of surrogate roles in order to arrest the process of self-mortification. These defensive responses need not necessarily enhance the self-image but rather serve to preserve a stable, functioning core. "Situational withdrawal", as evidenced by minimal participation in prison activities, can be seen as an attempt to avoid some of the unpleasant features of prison. The inmate may refuse to cooperate with institutional regulations and, in doing so, retain a form of self-determination. The "colonized" inmate draws what few amenities the institution may have to offer, while the "conversion" type plays the perfect inmate role of ingratiating himself with institutional officials. Finally, there are those inmates who, by "playing it cool", are able to take advantage of other inmates to obtain goods and services from them. In each case, Goffman's postulated typologies represent an adjustive role designed to lessen

the deprivation/pain response and prevent inconsistencies in the inmate's self-image. Although it has also been found that inmates may use other inmates as a base for comparison in order to restore self-esteem (41), most of the sting of incarceration is alleviated through the adoption of individualized surrogate roles which support the inmates' self-image, such as those described above and by Sykes and Messinger (97) and Schrag (83).

More importantly, it is through these individual adaptive functions that the fabric of the inmate culture is woven. The indoctrination with a sense of common injustice and common fate draws together inmates for the purpose of mutual support. Acculturation of an inmate's morale and background solidifies group sentiment (15). Inmate types are intertwined in a status structure based on physical aggression and institutional experience (82) rigidly enforced by a set of internal controls. Sykes and Messinger (97, p. 708) add that, as a population of prisoners moves in the direction of solidarity demanded by the inmate code, the pains of imprisonment become less severe. Solidarity may neutralize many of the consequences of deprivation and, most importantly, it provides a united front against the internalization of social rejection and drift towards self-rejection (59).

3. Social Structure of the Juvenile Training School

To what extent do the social structure and behavioural processes of the institution described by Clemmer, Sykes, Goffman and Cloward correspond to conditions found in juvenile training centres? Although one should be careful not to attribute to the delinquent detention centre general features commonly associated with adult imprisonment, it is largely unavoidable. Individual patterns of responses and social behaviour which evolve in the training school do bear a resemblance to their adult counterpart, due to structural similarities and to procedures that cause the juvenile to be placed there.

On the other hand, treatment of juvenile offenders differs from adult treatment both philosophically and in actual practice. Notwithstanding the removal of the youthful offender from society, institutional placement is characterized by policies of treatment and development, while strict custodial discipline, common to all in varying degrees, is reserved for cases of severe behavioural disorders or overt aggression. However, there is disagreement as to the meaning of and the means by which treatment, development and custody are to be achieved. Street, Vinter and Perrow (92) describe three basic types of institutional strategies conceived to meet the objectives of juvenile care. They comprise a rigid "obedience/

conformity" approach, an intermediary strategy of "re-education/development" and a relatively freer "treatment" model. These strategies reflect the extent to which official controls are employed, the prevailing administrative attitudes to juvenile care, and the proportion of specific types of staff members allocated to each institution. Individual inmate and collective responses have been found by Street, Vinter and Perrow to vary according to the three institutional strategies, but the general patterns of behaviour common to all strategies reflect the problems of total institutionalization.

Studies of the juvenile correctional centre reveal not only inmate social processes that resemble those of the prison community, but also important unique and discrepant features. In a study of a boys' training school in Colorado, Baker and Adams (5) found rigid interactional and communication barriers between inmates and staff members, and a pervasive spirit of authoritarianism in which the offenders do not identify with the values and the goals of the staff. The authors also note the existence of a status order among the inmates, heavily structured around displays of physical toughness and the victimization of peers. They speculate that this pattern of behaviour may be the result of widespread insecurities among delinquent boys regarding their masculinity.

In the juvenile institutional community, where personal uncertainties are likely to be magnified and many less physical forms of self-assertion absent, physical toughness is respected by the juvenile's associates. In the relative sterility of the training school regime recognition through physical prowess is a vital source of self-esteem.

Unfortunately only a very limited number of boys are able to utilize their physical toughness as a means of self-assertion. Polsky.(71) found, for example, a diamond-shaped status system among the boys of "Cottage Six", in which very few boys have high or low ranks, while the largest group occupied a middle status range. The key to status for the boys at the apex are, again, violence and physical adroitness, and this structure exists independently of the particular youths who occupy the cottage at any given time. The departure of a leader, for example, produces competition, conflicts and jockeying among inmates struggling for position, followed by the re-establishment of equilibrium. Inmate roles exist but not with the distinctness or symbiotic prescription as has been reported in the prison community. The essential discriminate among juvenile inmates is one between predator and victim. Small "cliques" may form among boys sharing common traits but no large scale ordering of interests was found to suggest a communal orientation. Also significant

was Polsky's observation that the inmate group was encouraged by the institutional staff. The cottage parents join with the higher status boys in "scapegoating" the defenceless low status boys, making things doubly difficult for them. Delinquent interaction, as described by Polsky, is indicative not only of individual pathology but also of the structure and processes of the group in which the behaviour occurs.

Although many studies of prison life suggest that inmate behaviour is regulated by a code which is basically anti-official (15; 97) Fisher (30), in a study of a juvenile correctional institute at Lomo, was unable to find any regularities in inmate behaviour that could be associated with the adherence to such a code. In practice, the elements of official and inmate controls in the training school tend to be integrated to an extent that may prevent the development of anti-official group sentiment. As in "Cottage Six", the Lomo staff became allied, perhaps unknowingly, with high status inmates, retarding progress in the direction of inmate solidarity. Inmate behaviour is characterized by "victimization" and "patronage", while social prestige is a joint function of peer popularity and staff recognition. Inmates with high peer prestige were consistently higher in staff favour, while inmates with low peer esteem were also

low in staff esteem. Since, according to Fisher, staff esteem often determines reward and punishment, the official fate of at least some inmates appears to be associated with their standing among their peers.

The high degree of staff involvement in the life of the institutionalized delinquent (30; 71; 89) is particularly important in view of the absence of any consistent or compelling anti-official code. Inmate solidarity and the development of an inmate code which alleviate some of the pains of institutionalization in the adult prison, have limited opportunity of evolving, since staff involvement coupled with the infrequent occurrence of interdependent or symbiotic roles hamper the development of a mutually supportive inmate community. This state of affairs in juvenile institutions increases the likelihood that the inmate will make use of the official sources of self-support. Thus, the role of the treatment or custodial officer in the training school is unlike that of his counterpart in the prison, since the officer is both the representative of the institution which is not necessarily regarded as hostile, and also functions as an integral and accepted factor in the delinquent inmate's world. His unique status thus represents, through his social interaction with the juvenile inmate, a potential positive stimulus to the

inmate's self-conceptions. The section which follows will attempt to explain how this potential can be realized.

4. Staff-Inmate Relations

McCorkle (58) has suggested that the evaluation of the prison social structure is not restricted to the effects of inmates upon other inmates but rather includes the effect of the prison authorities on the total social climate of the institution. The role of the effective prison official changes from one of restrictor to one which includes the protection of the inmate's welfare. The position of this paper is that the official's role, regardless of his prescribed functions, can be extended even further, to that of a facilitator of inmate self-conceptions. Staff at all levels represent a viable channel of the norms and values of society as a whole and may also provide a source of encouragement and a model for reform. If one accepts that the facilitative conditions - genuineness, empathy and warmth - through the principle of reciprocal affect, induce positive personality changes, then the effective role of the prison official may be extended beyond that of inmate protector to that of agent of change. As such, the institutional official will be responsible not only for curbing the violence perpetrated by inmates upon other inmates,

but also the violence inflicted upon the inmate's personality by the institutional regime. Thus, in the course of his daily interactions with the inmate, the institutional official may provide an alternative source from which the inmate can draw a sense of self-adequacy and preserve his self-esteem.

5. Staff Impact on Inmate

The evidence of the impact of prison officials on the inmate population is inconclusive. It has been reported that inmates respond more positively and frequently to less clinically-skilled custodial or supervisory staff (34; 38; 72), however there is no consensus on this point. Glaser (34, p. 147), for example, found that those staff-inmate relationships characterized by warm, paternal, "diffuse" interaction were cited by sixty-five of 250 successful ex-inmates as responsible for their post-release success. He postulates that inmate corruption and prison ineffectiveness may be a function of the isolation of inmates from staff and that isolation may result from the manner in which the institutional official performs his duties. Staff that rigidly adhere to the requirements of their jobs and execute them mechanically, operating solely as functionaries of the institution, are likely to

develop "specific" relationships with the inmates. While "specific" relationships would appear to hinder positive reinforcement, and quite possibly lead to the deterioration of self-conceptions, the "diffuse" relationship is more like the parent-child or therapist-client interactions, which have been found to promote positive self-conceptions.

Grygier (38, p. 22) reports that juvenile inmates in Ontario institutions characterized **their perceptions** of staff members both as personal and diffuse or as impersonal, utilitarian and specialized. The high incidence of inmate involvement with non-professional staff is explained as the result of the proximity and daily contact with one another. A further suggestion offered by Nardini (78) postulates that the juvenile inmate's attraction to non-professional staff is due to high positive identification and the resultant "father figure" which the correctional officer may come to represent. While in Brown's (10, p. 77) interpretation proximity and similarity beget "liking" which, in turn, promotes further proximity and similarity, it would appear that such interaction must be complemented by the exchange of interpersonal favours in order for such

a relationship to be maintained. The fact that two groups perceive themselves as similar, sharing similar socio-economic histories and values and thus, predictably, behave less defensively, is in itself rewarding. Furthermore, it might be expected that "liking and similarity" will be seen by the inmate as "confirmation", in the Festinger sense, of self-attitudes and as reinforcement of the inmate's self-image, if only to the extent that the inmate is not required to question the validity of his self-conceptions. Thus, staff who through their interpersonal relationships positively reinforce the inmates' need for self-esteem will be more attractive to the inmate.

6. Staff-Inmate Relationships and Inmate Self-Conceptions

The effect of formal psychotherapy on the delinquent inmate's self-conceptions is well documented (81; 102; 103). The best available evidence of the effects of spontaneous institutional relationships on self-conceptions comes from a number of studies in which characteristic staff-inmate relations and inmate self-conceptions are recorded. Simpson, Eynon and Reckless (89), for example, illustrate this

point in a study of 372 sixteen-year-old first admissions to the Boys' Industrial School in Ohio. Three schedules were administered to the sample on entering and again on leaving the institution, in order to assess the boys' perception of: (a) satisfactory adjustment to the institutional demands and structure; (b) self-concept, value orientation and agreeableness to institutionalization, and (c) inmates' perception of their improvement during an average 6 month period at the institution.

Coincidental with better inmate adjustment to institutional structure, accommodation to bureaucratic demands and a reduction in feelings of helplessness, was a significant reduction in feelings of bitterness and tension toward the self, reduction in delinquent self-labelling, and significant change in value orientation and agreeableness. Although the study has demonstrated favourable change in delinquent inmate self-conceptions during a specific period of incarceration, the absence of any form of comparison group results makes it impossible to tell whether these changes were due to adjustment to the institutional structures.

In a similar vein, in the work of Street, Vinter and Perrow alluded to earlier it was found that differences

in the quality of staff-ward relationships peculiar to specific institutional strategies of inmate care correspond to the degree of self-concept favourability accepted by wards within each strategy. On the basis of observations and questionnaires answered by staff and inmates, Street, Vinter and Perrow (92, p. 152-154) were able to distinguish differences in the quality of staff-inmate relations within each of the institutions characterized by one of the particular strategies mentioned earlier. Institutions that adhered to an obedience/conformity rationale were characterized by high social distance between staff and inmates and by stringent conformity and submission to staff dictates. Re-education/redevelopment institutions were also characterized by high social distance but there existed also a sense of "fair play" with respect to the enforcement of institutional regulations by the staff. Institutions adhering to the principle of "treatment" were found to have affectual staff-inmate relations, where interpersonal relationship rather than coercion was used as a tool to manipulate the inmate into compliance.

Inmates under the influences of the obedience/conformity and re-education/redevelopment strategies recorded significantly more unfavourable self-conceptions centered

around images of toughness and a sense of injustice. This contrasted with those wards in treatment settings who saw themselves as "trying to straighten out", and as persons "in need of help". Also inmates in the re-education/re-development and treatment programmes saw much more favourable future prospects for themselves. The latter in particular showed greater positive change with respect to how much better they got to know themselves during their period of commitment than either the obedience/conformity or the re-education/redevelopment wards.

It is impossible to determine whether the high relative favourability of self-concepts of wards under the influence of the treatment strategy can be attributed to the closeness or affective quality of relations with staff. With no control design the order and nature of cause and effect remain highly conjectural. However, the importance of the Street, Vinter and Perrow study for the purposes of this paper is the repeated finding of good staff-inmate relationship associated with relatively favourable self-concepts on the part of the ward.

According to Fitts and Hammer (31, p. 25) who reviewed a number of studies, the improvement in inmate self-esteem

may be explained by the type of institution, its atmosphere and programme and also by individual motivation. Evidence from the studies by Simpson, Eynon and Reckless and Street, Vinter and Perrow generally supports this view as far as the first two conditions of favourable inmate self-concepts are concerned.

Staff involvement in all of the above instances provided personal, warm and diffuse conditions which were found associated with positive inmate self-conceptions. Given that the facilitative conditions of interpersonal relationships can be operationally defined, as Truax and Carkhuff have done, as genuineness, empathy and warmth, it might be expected that where these conditions are communicated by the staff, corresponding self-esteem would be found. It is the view of this paper that relationships in which high levels of the facilitative conditions are communicated by any staff member and/or perceived by inmates should correspond to high inmate self-esteem. Conversely, where these conditions are weak it would be expected that inmates display low self-esteem.

D. Summary and Hypotheses

In the foregoing discussion, a definition of self-esteem was formulated, distinct from other related self-constructs, and the contingencies of measurement were explored. It was postulated that the need for self-esteem is reinforced, according to the principle of reciprocal affect, by the communication of the interpersonal, facilitative conditions of genuineness, empathy and warmth. Subject self-esteem was viewed as a function of the direction and proportion of the communicated facilitative conditions. It was also assumed that the facilitative conditions were general and may be operative in any interpersonal relationship, and the applicability to institutional staff-student relationship was postulated.

Two hypotheses are derived from the above formulation. Hypothesis I states that there is a linear and positive correlation between student self-esteem measures and the student perception of genuineness, empathy and warmth offered by student-selected staff members.

Furthermore, because the communication of genuineness, empathy and warmth are person-specific or general responses, not uniquely conditioned by academic training, role designation or institutional status, then there should not be a

marked difference between the magnitude of perceived conditions offered by distinct institutional staff categories. Hypothesis II states that there is no difference in the mean level of student-perceived genuineness, empathy and warmth offered by the supervisory, treatment and training staff categories. The following chapter describes how these hypotheses were tested.

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CHAPTER II

DESIGN

A. Settings and Samples

1. Description of Setting

Three juvenile centres of the Ontario Department of Correctional Services contributed subjects to the present research. These included St. Joseph's School at Alfred, operated by the Christian Brothers and located in a rural area 45 miles southeast of Ottawa. The school offers a basically academic programme catering to the needs of both English- and French-speaking wards from grades 1 through 10. The school has accommodation for 160 Catholic boys, both first offenders and repeaters. Testing at St. Joseph's took place on two separate dates, ninety days apart, at which times the population of the school was 74 and 67 respectively.

The staffing schedule (Appendix 3a) recorded 118 employees (including 6 part-time graduate student counsellors) for 72 of whom contact with the students was prescribed. Employees with "prescribed contact" are those members of the staff whose institutional roles demand specific, as opposed

to accidental, interaction with the students, such as teachers, counsellors and, at times, cooks who have students assigned to them. These included 34 supervisory personnel, 20 teachers or training instructors and 18 treatment staff members.

Sprucedale School, at Hagersville, is located in a rural area 35 miles southwest of Hamilton. It offers an academic programme consisting of four-year science, technology and trades courses for grades nine and ten. The school admits mostly first offenders and/or academically oriented wards and has accommodation for 96 boys, fourteen to sixteen years old. Testing at Sprucedale was carried out on a single occasion, at which time the school was at capacity. The staffing schedule (Appendix 3b) recorded 104 employees for 70 of whom contact with the students was prescribed. These included 48 supervisory personnel, 14 teachers or training instructors and 8 treatment members.

Project D.A.R.E. (Development through Adventure, Responsibility and Education) is a bush camp located 50 miles south of Sudbury. Wards are mostly repeaters, whose admission to the programme is unrelated to religious affiliation. The programme consists of twelve weeks divided into three phases, each of which can accommodate 12 boys, or a total population of 36 wards. The four weeks of phase one provide

the ward with an academic experience; the five-week second phase includes practical projects and crafts; and in the final three weeks, or "Outward Venture Programme", the ward is encouraged, through bush survival, to realize his physical and emotional potential. Project D.A.R.E. at Portage Lake admits wards who have been medically screened and are mentally capable of the vigorous programme. Testing at Project D.A.R.E. took place on two separate occasions, thirty days apart, at which times the population of the camp was 31 and 28 respectively. The staff consisted of 28 employees, for 24 of whom contact with students was prescribed (Appendix 3c). Fourteen of the latter group were categorized as supervisory, 6 as treatment and 4 as training personnel.

2. Selection of Sample

The selection of the sample pool was made with the aid of the assistant superintendent, head teacher, and psychologist at St. Joseph's; the assistant superintendent, (formerly the psychologist) and a senior teacher at Sprucedale; and the superintendent and assistant superintendent at Project D.A.R.E. It was explained to these institutional officials that the research would focus on staff-ward interpersonal relationship and specifically on the wards' perceptions of themselves and of selected staff. It was also

emphasized to the officials that neither personal names of staff nor of students would be required at any time during the testing or analysis procedures.

The assisting officials were then asked to suggest subjects who, in their unanimous opinion met the following composite criteria: (a) two months' residence, presently at the particular institution; (b) sufficient reading and comprehension of English (sample questions were read to the assisting official to convey an idea of the required sufficiency); (c) absence of overt or severe psychological damage, to minimize questions regarding the reliability of the Relationship Inventory (9, p. 73), (d) likelihood of cooperation in the testing requirements.

The total sample of those who participated in the administration and subsequent analyses of the test consisted of 79 wards. From the total school population at the time of the first test date officials at St. Joseph's suggested a sample pool of 42 wards. Twenty five of these were available for testing on the first test date (the others had left for Easter vacation). Two of these refused to cooperate without any explanation and a third ward claimed to be unable to select a staff member under the conditions required, leaving 22 participants. Eight members of the original sample pool who were not available on the first test date and a ninth

added by the officials were tested on the second test date, bringing the number of subjects of the total sample from St. Joseph's to 31. The mean age of the St. Joseph's sample is 15.0 years (s.d. = 0.8; range 13-17) with the average length of institutionalization 11.18 months (s.d. = 8.7, range 2-36) spread over 1.9 admissions (s.d. = 1.1; range 1-5). This information at St. Joseph's, Sprucedale and Project D.A.R.E. was supplied by the wards.

The sample pool suggested by the institutional officials who met the prescribed composite criterion was considerably larger at Sprucedale than at St. Joseph's, so it was thought that two available and complete academic classes could be taken as representative samples. This provided a sample pool of 32 wards present on the day of testing. One of these was absent and his absence could not be accounted for, so 31 wards were tested and their results analyzed. Testing took place in two separate sessions with 17 and 14 wards respectively. The 31 subjects from Sprucedale averaged 15.4 years (s.d. = 0.9, range 14-19) and 9.0 months of institutionalization (s.d. = 6.9, range 2-28) spread over an average of 1.3 admissions (s.d. = 0.6, range 1-32).

At Project D.A.R.E. only those wards in the third phase of the programme met the two months' residence criterion and consideration was given only to this group. Tests

were administered on two separate occasions in which 9 and 8 wards participated, respectively. Although the third phase has a capacity of 12 wards, this number was not available due to either lower initial admissions or failure of the wards to advance to phase three. The D.A.R.E. sample averaged 15.7 years (s.d. = 0.6, range 15-17) and had been institutionalized for 16.3 months (s.d. = 7.8, range 5-35) over an average of 2.2 admissions (s.d. = 0.8, range 1-4).

3. Staff Categories

Street, Vinter and Perrow's (8, Chapter 5) classification of institutions according to programme strategies of "obedience/conformity", "re-education/development" and "treatment", provides a useful approach to the study of ward response to different staff categories. In the juvenile centres which contributed subjects to this research there are supervisory, training and treatment staff categories. In terms of the primacy of their respective functions, these categories appear to be analogous to institutional strategies outlined by Street, Vinter and Perrow.

Staff roles or functions which prescribed and emphasized direct contact with the inmate may be seen as specialized modes of interaction or staff strategies. These inter-

actions are characterized by regularities in time, duration and place, by more or less distinct conditions prescribed by their respective roles. For example, the ward may expect to spend a specified number of hours daily with the training personnel (such as teachers), or in a prescribed role (that of a student), while other daily hours, such as dormitory or free time, the ward can expect to spend under the supervision of personnel so designated. On the other hand, during the time spent with the psychologist or counsellor the ward can be expected to be counselled or assessed.

For the purposes of this study selection of individual staff members by the wards was classified according to one of three staff categories. The categories were: supervisory, which consisted of staff who were trained academically and who monitor the activities of the wards during free periods and oversee control functions during dormitory hours. They represent the institutional agents of control as well as supervisors in athletic and games room events. Also included in the supervisory staff were some support staff, such as cooks, who may have wards assigned to them to aid in meal preparation and distribution.

Included in the training staff are the academic, trades and technology or shop teachers and physical education

and craft instructors. Each juvenile centre is represented by such personnel. Notwithstanding discrepancies in programme perspective, relationships of training personnel to wards are basically similar in principle, that is one of instructor to student. In the case of D.A.R.E., training staff consist of teachers and out-door learning instructors and contact is not limited to the classroom, as training continues daily in the outdoor setting.

Treatment staff are so designated because their role prescribes an active involvement with the ward to assess and treat a variety of behaviour disorders. These staff members include psychologists, full-time counsellors and student trainees, as well as administrative personnel, such as the assistant superintendents at both St. Joseph's and Sprucedale, who carry active case loads. Also included in this group was the institutional nurse, who appeared several times in student selections. It appears that the nurse is often a source of counselling, frequently visited by wards under the guise of health problems. The treatment staff are usually the most educationally advanced of the institutional personnel but there are relatively few of them, and the frequency and duration of interaction with the ward is more limited.

Some people were excluded from the above staff categories because of the remoteness of their institutional functions. These were clerical or secretarial personnel and some of the more distant staff, such as boiler room workers and night watchmen, whose functions do not prescribe interaction with wards. Their contact with them is usually accidental and, although significant staff-student relationships may develop, these are likely to be quite infrequent, as their absence in student selections indicates.

B. Instruments

1. Self-Esteem Inventory

For reasons mentioned earlier, in order to test the first experimental hypothesis the Coopersmith (2) "Self-Esteem Inventory", as adapted for correctional use by Bennett, Sorensen and Forshay (1), was employed to assess the ward's self-esteem. Ward perception of the staff-offered facilitative conditions of genuineness, empathy and warmth was assessed by means of the Truax (9) "Relationship Inventory", with the modifications mentioned below.

Originally, the Coopersmith "Self-Esteem Inventory"

(3, p. 265) consisted of 58⁽¹⁾ items taken from the Rogers and Dymond (7) scale of self-referent statements and additional items constructed by the author. This 58 item scale was re-worded to make it more easily comprehensible to adolescents and presented to five psychologists who sorted the items into two groups: those indicative of high self-esteem and those indicative of low self-esteem. In responding to these questions the testee is required to check either the "Like Me" column if he feels the items describes him, or the "Unlike Me" column if he feels the item does not describe him. Items are scored in the positive direction, that is an item indicative of high self-esteem checked in the "Like Me" column, or an item indicative of low self-esteem checked in the "Unlike Me" column is given a score of two points each.

Coopersmith reports (3, p. 5) that five-week test-retest reliability with a sample of 30 fifth grade children was 0.88. On the assumption that self-esteem should relate positively with indices of success experiences, Coopersmith reports (2, p. 90) significant correlations between the

(1) Although in the text of his book Coopersmith refers to a 50 item scale (2, p. 18), the printed SEI in the book's appendix contains 58 items.

"Self-Esteem Inventory" and the Iowa Achievement Test ($r = 0.36$, $p = 0.01$) and sociometric choice ($r = 0.29$, $p = 0.01$) with a sample of middle and middle to upper middle class fifth and sixth grade children. The predicted positive correlations between the "Self-Esteem Inventory" and indices of success experiences may be interpreted as an expression of construct validity of the concept of self-esteem (4, p. 142).

Bennett, Sorensen and Forshay (1) deleted 8 items with the lowest item correlation with the total score (sample unspecified) from the Coopersmith "Self-Esteem Inventory", re-worded 20 items and changed the scoring to one point for appropriate responses in their adaptation of the inventory for correctional use. Possible range of scores is 0 to 50 for the 50 item inventory.

Odd-even reliability was reported as 0.80 ($N=95$), while test-retest correlation coefficient ranged from 0.77 (one week, $N=26$), 0.80 (two week, $N=66$) and 0.60 (five week, $N=100$) for four separate groups of adult institutionalized offenders with a mean age of 31.9 years. Construct validity is implied in the reported correlations between the adapted "Self-Esteem Inventory" and other selected variables. For example, the inventory is correlated with measured grade

placement (California Achievement Test) $r = 0.20$, ($N=113$, $p = 0.01$), and claimed grade, $r = 0.26$, ($N=113$, $p = 0.01$), but is not correlated with age, $r = 0.09$, ($N=123$) or with intelligence (Army General Classification Test), $r = 0.10$, ($N=60$).

The self-esteem inventory, henceforth referred to as SEI, administered in the present study (Appendix 1) retained the items and scoring modifications made by Bennett, Sorensen and Forshay with one further modification. Instead of having the subject check a "Like Me" or "Unlike Me" column, the subject was required to circle "T" (True), if the item described him, or circle "F" (False) if the item did not describe him. This modification was made in order to keep the response requirement of the SEI identical in format to that being presently employed in the Research Branch of the Ontario Ministry of Correctional Services. It was hoped that in this way the comparability of the present study with that of the Ministry would be increased.

2. Relationship Inventory

The Truax Relationship scales (from which his Relationship Inventory evolved), attempted to operationalize facilitative conditions offered by the therapists to their

clients relevant to the positive outcome of therapy. Rating scales which described distinct levels of therapist-offered conditions of genuineness, empathy and warmth were constructed following closely a Rogerian theoretical perspective. They require qualified raters trained in their use. The Truax Relationship Inventory (9, p. 74) evolved as an attempt to convert the ratings scales to a client questionnaire form. This approach is economical and, what is more important, provides a view of the therapist-client interaction from the client's perspective. The author warns, however, of a possible loss of validity of the "Relationship Inventory" when administered to severely disturbed or psychotic individuals. Delinquents are included among those for whom its use is recommended (9, p. 73).

The inventory consists of 186 items the purpose of which is to assess six conditions of therapist-client relationships (accurate empathy, non-possessive warmth, genuineness, overall therapeutic relationship, intensity and intimacy of interpersonal contact, and concreteness). The client is required to check either true or false opposite each item as it describes the client's perception of his therapeutic experience. Scoring proceeds according to the key provided. Items indicating the presence of a given

facilitative condition and endorsed as "True" receive a score of one. Items designating the absence of these conditions and endorsed as "False" also receive a score of one. The sum of each of the appropriately scored scales expresses the degree to which the client perceives the presence of any given facilitative conditions in his relationship with his therapist.

The instrument employed in the present study (Appendix 2) to assess inmate perceptions of their interpersonal relationship with selected staff members consisted of 86 items taken from the Truax "Relationship Inventory". Only those scales intended to measure genuineness, empathy and warmth were used in the present study. In addition, only independent items of these three scales, that is items which measure only one scale, were used to construct a modified relationship inventory, hereafter referred to as RI. By taking only independent items it was hoped to maximize the discrimination between scales and to simplify the inventory for younger subjects. This resulted in the 86-item RI, consisting of 25 genuineness, 28 empathy and 33 warmth items.

Immediately following the instructions, which requested the subject to respond to each item as it referred to the staff member of his choice, there was a list of institutional job classifications of the staff at the institution

concerned. Staff and institutional staff designations vary among the three juvenile centres, so the list given to the subject was modified to take into account such discrepancies. For example, supervisory personnel at St. Joseph's are referred to as "monitors", whereas at Sprucedale they are most commonly referred to as "supervisors". If the subject's staff selection was not found on the list, the subject was allowed to enter his particular staff selection in a space provided.

Finally, there were four background questions on the front page of the RI asking the subject's age, number of admissions to training schools, total length of time in institutions and total length of time he has known the selected staff member.

C. Procedure

Testing of the subjects was carried out on two separate occasions at each of the three locations. In all, six test sessions were needed to accommodate the entire sample. In each case but one testing took place in an academic classroom. (The first test session at St. Joseph's was held in the school gymnasium.) At Sprucedale, the

testing of subjects was completed in one day, with a half hour separating the first and second test groups. Two and three months intervened between the first and second test groups at Project D.A.R.E. and St. Joseph's respectively.

The subjects selected for participation in the study were brought to the test site by an institutional official who introduced the researcher as a university student employed by the Ontario Ministry of Correctional Services, who wished to obtain information on the students' experiences in their respective institutions. Then the institutional official left the students in the charge of the researcher.

The SEI and the RI appeared in two separate booklets and both were distributed at the beginning of the sessions. To insure that the instructions were well understood, the researcher first explained the task thoroughly to the subjects and asked if there were any questions. After answering questions, the researcher read aloud the formal instructions as they appeared on the front page of the first inventory to be administered. Although the SEA and the RI were administered in the same session, the order of stimulus presentation was alternated between test sessions in order to reduce the effects of fatigue and sequence. Formal instructions for the second inventory were read aloud before

the students were permitted to proceed with answering the questions.

Instructions for the SEI required the subject to answer each item as it described his experience of himself. He was asked to circle "T" (True) before the item "if the statement was True or mostly True", or to circle "F" (False) "if the statement was False or mostly False".

Instructions for the RI required the subject to select from a list representing staff categories of his particular institution a staff member "who you feel you know well and that knows you well; or a staff member who you are close to and talk often with". After answering the four background questions subjects were to turn to the 86 items and respond by circling "T" (True) or "F" (False) as each item described the subject's perceptions of his relationship with the selected staff member. It was stressed that the inventories were not tests, and that there were no right or wrong answers; what counted was the way the subject felt.

If subjects found it difficult to select a staff member under the criteria specified, they were encouraged to "think about it a minute longer". If a subject continued to experience this difficulty, he was allowed to leave the

test room, along with any other uncooperative subjects, and the others then proceeded with the inventories.

Any further difficulties in understanding items on either inventory were explained individually as they arose. Subjects who completed the first inventory early were instructed to review their answers. When nearly all of the group had completed the first inventory formal instructions for the second inventory were read aloud to the group by the researcher. Subjects were released from the test room individually on completion of the second inventory. Scoring proceeded as previously described: one point was allotted for every item answered in a positive direction in each inventory.

D. Analysis of Data

The independent variables in the present research were the student's perception of staff-offered genuineness (GEN), empathy (EMP) and warmth (WAR) as measured by the RI. The dependent variable was the student's self-esteem as measured by the SEI.

Hypothesis I stated in null form reads as follows: there is no positive linear relationship between scores on the SEI and (a) GEN, (b) EMP and (c) WAR respectively in

the combined sample of 79 students from the three juvenile centres. Pearson's product moment coefficient of correlation will be computed to test the relationship between SEI and RI scores in each case and the value of the coefficient must equal or exceed $p = 0.5$ (two-tailed test) in order to reject the null hypothesis. For the same sample, hypothesis II predicts no differences between student-perceived relationship conditions of genuineness, empathy and warmth offered by the three staff categories. The testing of this hypothesis raises logical problems, since the vigorous demonstration of the truth of a null type hypothesis is impossible (5, p. 133). In practice, however, the null hypothesis is often accepted as true in the hope of avoiding the risk of committing serious Type II errors (6, p. 247). It was with this hope that the non-difference hypotheses were examined.

One way analysis of variance was used to test for significant mean differences between student-perceived facilitative conditions offered by the supervisory (SUP), treatment (TRE) and training (TRA) staff. The hypothesis of no difference among the staff groups was to be accepted if the obtained F values were smaller than those required for significance at the 5% level of probability.

E. References

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CHAPTER III

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Results

1. Hypotheses I and II

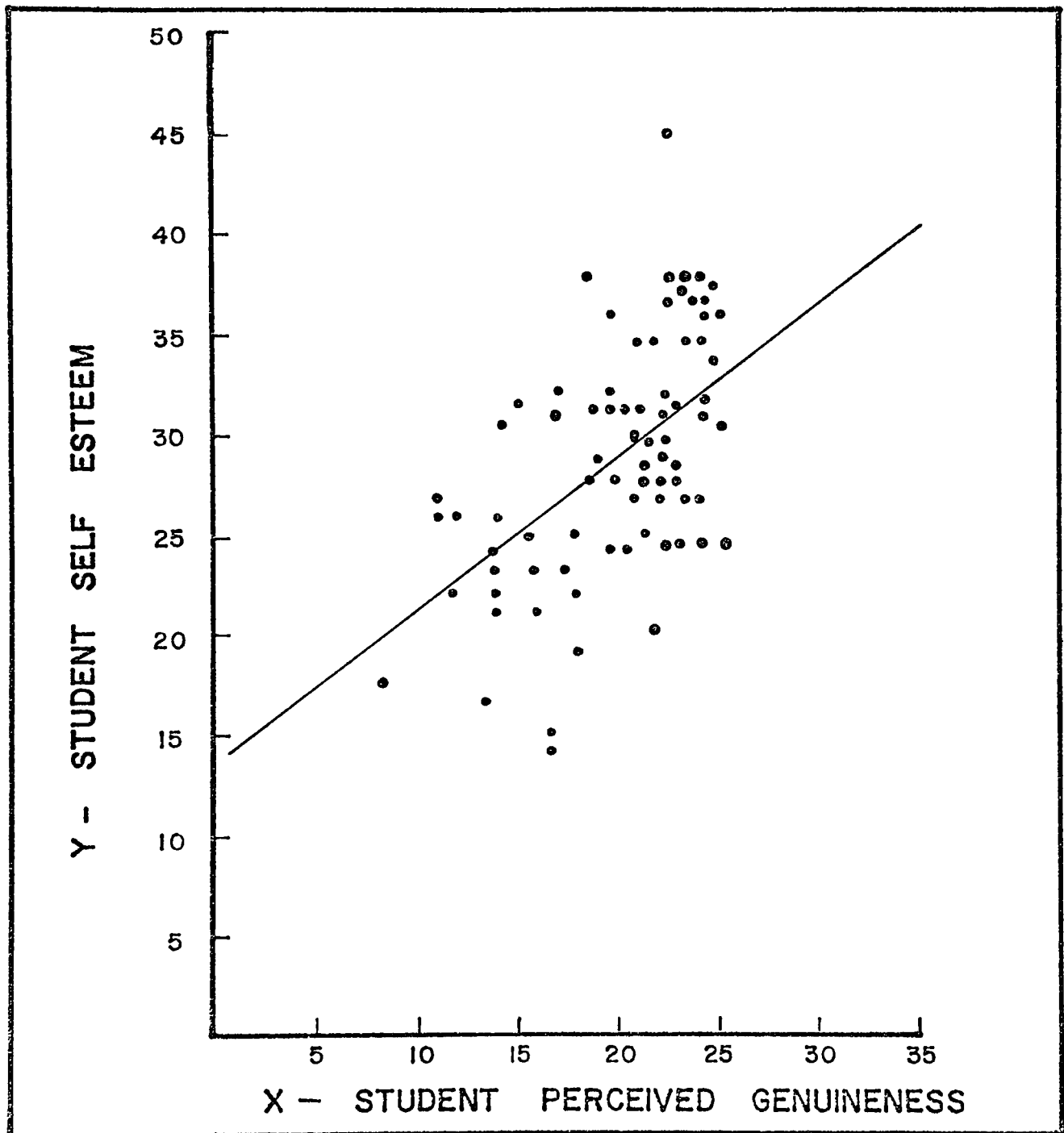
Hypothesis I predicted a positive linear correlation between subject self-esteem (SEI) and the perceived facilitative conditions of genuineness (GEN), empathy (EMP) and warmth (WAR), respectively. The scatter diagrams, Figures 1, 2 and 3 of SEI and GEN, EMP, WAR scores, respectively, do not, on inspection, support the presence of a non-linear relationship between the variables considered.

The last column of Table 1 presents the linear correlation coefficients between the criterion SEI and the individual scales of the relationship inventory (RI) for the combined sample of 79 students from the three locations. All the correlations are positive, with two reaching the specified levels of significance. The correlation between SEI and GEN ($r = 0.514$, $p = 0.01$), emerges as the highest, followed by the correlation between SEI and WAR ($r = 0.234$, $p = 0.05$). The results support Hypothesis I in the case of the correlation between the criterion and the facilitative conditions GEN and WAR, but not with respect to the relationship between the criterion and the EMP condition.

Two other remarks should be made concerning the results in Table 1. First, in spite of the attempt to maximize the distinctiveness between the RI scales the intercorrelations between them remain high. Secondly, the lack of a significant relationship between SEI and EMP may be due, in part, to the character of the sample used in the study. Truax and Carkhuff (1968, p. 176-183) report that the least adjusted or most disturbed clients were more critically affected by the communication of accurate empathy, while genuineness and warmth appear to be equally important for outcome, regardless of the client's degree of adjustment. Based on the selection criteria for the present sample, which specified the absence of severe disorders, it is reasonable to assume that the sample consisted of relatively well-adjusted students and thus the results are in line with those of Truax and Carkhuff.

Hypothesis II predicted that no significant difference would occur among the means of relationship conditions offered by SUP, TRE and TRA staff categories. An inspection of Table 2 indicates that none of the F-ratios are above the $p = 0.05$ level of probability. Thus there is no statistically significant evidence in the present sample to support the belief that the student-perceived relationship conditions varied among the three staff categories.

SCATTER DIAGRAM. STUDENT SELF ESTEEM
AND STUDENT PERCEIVED GENUINENESS SCORES.

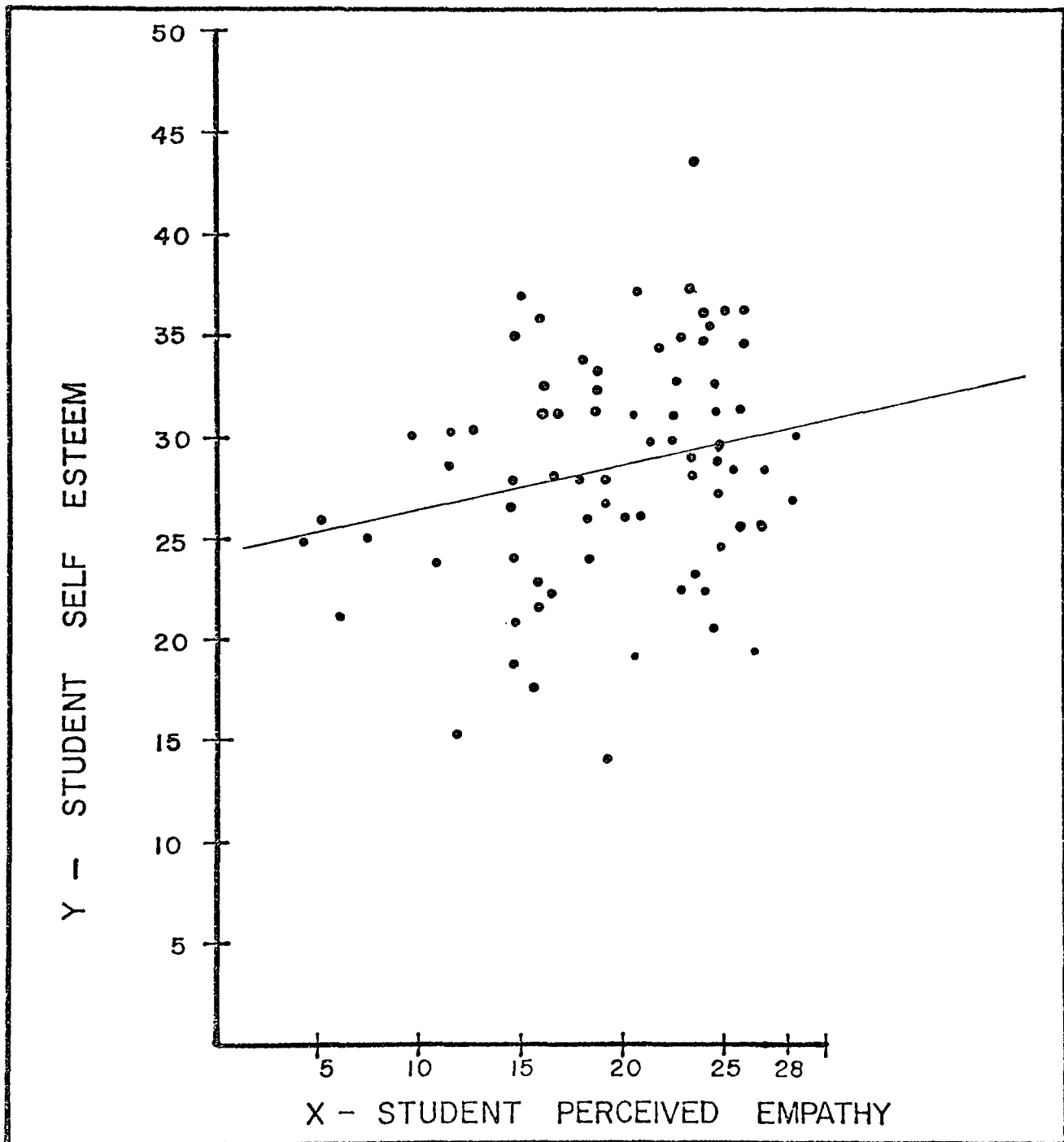


REGRESSION EQUATION $Y = 14.3 + 0.73 X$

COEFFICIENT OF CORRELATION = 0.514

SIGNIFICANT AT THE 1% LEVEL

SCATTER DIAGRAM. STUDENT SELF ESTEEM
AND STUDENT PERCEIVED EMPATHY SCORES.

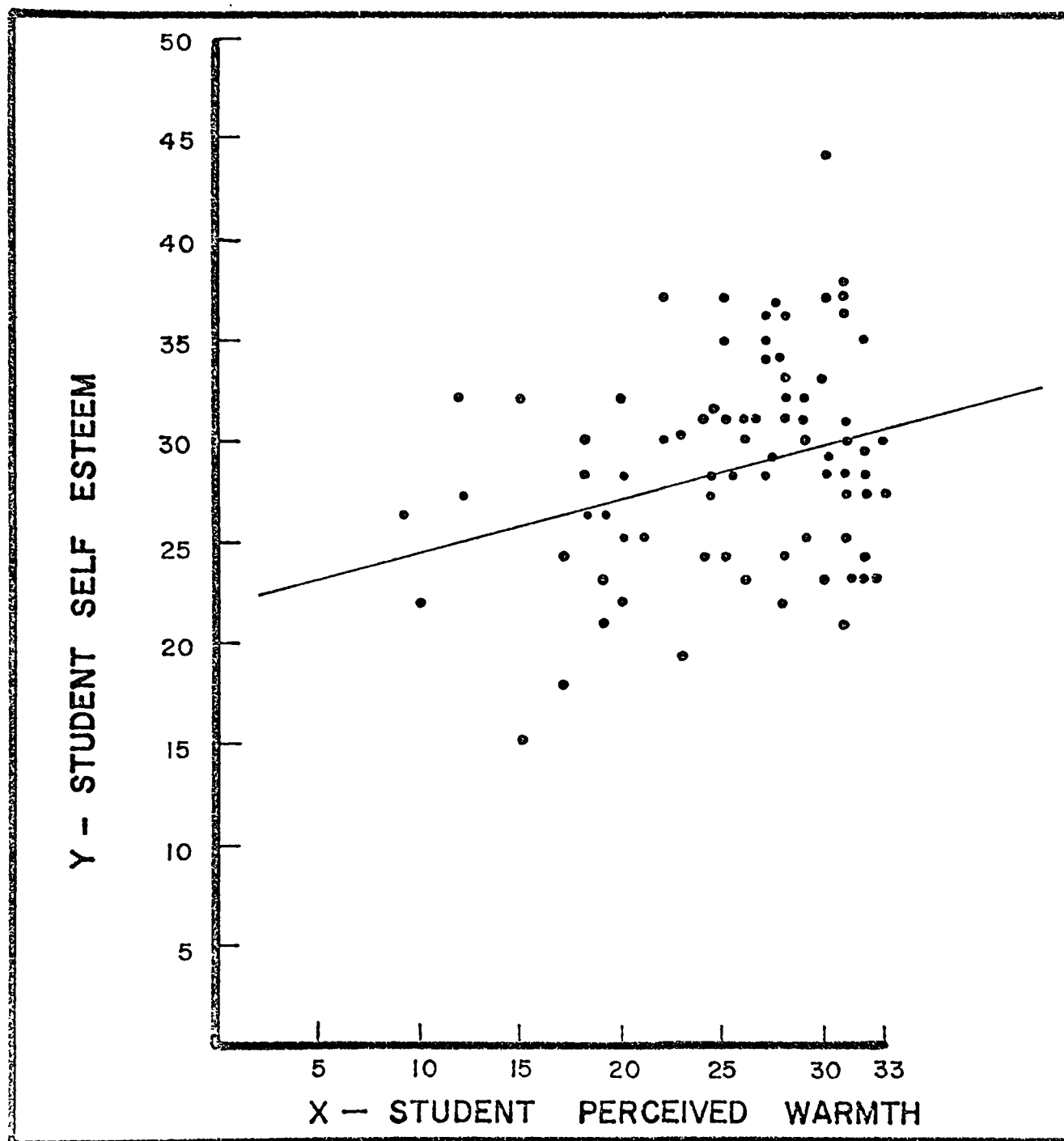


REGRESSION EQUATION $Y = 24.7 + 0.20 X$

COEFFICIENT OF CORRELATION = 0.187

NOT SIGNIFICANT

SCATTER DIAGRAM. STUDENT SELF ESTEEM
AND STUDENT PERCEIVED WARMTH SCORES.



REGRESSION EQUATION $Y = 22.6 + 0.23 X$

COEFFICIENT OF CORRELATION = 0.234

SIGNIFICANT AT THE 5 % LEVEL.

Table 1

Correlation Matrix of Student Self-Esteem and Student-Perceived Facilitative Conditions (N=79)

Facilitative
Conditions

	1	2	3	Self-Esteem
1. GEN		0.564	0.641	0.514 **
2. EMP			0.737	0.187
3. WAR				0.234 *

** p 0.01

* p 0.05

Table 2

Analysis of Variance of RI Conditions of
SUP, TRE and TRA Staff Categories (N=79)

(a) Genuineness

Components	Sum of Squares	Degrees of Freedom	Variance	F-ratio
Between groups	35.6	2	17.8	1.08*
Within groups	1250.3	76	16.5	
Total	1285.9	78		

* p 0.75 (not significant)

(b) Empathy

Components	Sum of Squares	Degrees of Freedom	Variance	F-ratio
Between groups	34.7	2	17.3	0.58*
Within groups	2257.5	76	29.7	
Total	2292.2	78		

* p 0.75 (not significant)

Table 2 (continued)

(c) Warmth

Components	Sum of Squares	Degrees of Freedom	Variance	F-ratio
Between groups	54.1	2	17.0	0.75 *
Within groups	2596.8	76	34.1	
Total	2650.0	78		

* p 0.75 (not significant)

B. Further Analysis of the Data

1. Correlation Coefficients Between SEI and RI Within Staff Categories

The first experimental hypothesis was also examined separately within the SUP, TRE and WAR subgroups. It was expected that correlation coefficients between self-esteem and the facilitative conditions computed for those students evaluating their perceived relationship for each separate staff category would also demonstrate significantly positive relationships. However this was not always the case. Correlation coefficients between SEI and the three RI conditions for those students who selected SUP personnel were all significant beyond $p = 0.05$ (Table 3a). In the case of the students who selected TRA personnel the correlation between SEI and GEN was also significant beyond $p = 0.05$ (Table 3c). All of the five remaining correlation coefficients computed within the three staff categories were positive, but below the level of significance specified. Because of the small size of the above samples no attempt was made to speculate on the comparable differences in coefficient magnitudes between groups.

Table 3

Correlation Coefficients Between Student Self-Esteem
and Student-Perceived Facilitative Conditions by
Staff Categories

(a) Supervisory Staff (n=33)

Facilitative Conditions

GEN	0.559	**
EMP	0.339	*
WAR	0.418	**

** p 0.01

* p 0.05

(b) Treatment Staff (n=26)

Facilitative Conditions

GEN	0.351
EMP	0.269
WAR	0.168

(c) Training Staff (n=20)

Facilitative Conditions

GEN	0.490	*
EMP	0.348	
WAR	0.296	

p 0.05

2. Student Selection of Staff

It was assumed in Chapter I that, if the facilitative conditions are person-specific and universal rather than uniquely conditioned by academic training or institutional status, then the student-selected communicators of these conditions would be distributed evenly throughout all staff categories. If this is the case, and assuming that the attraction of a perceiver to a communicator is a sufficient function of the need-reducing effect of the offered facilitative conditions, then the selection of a member of a given staff category would reflect the relative proportion of each staff category with respect to the total available staff.

This, however, was not the case. Although there were no mean differences found between each of the facilitative conditions by SUP, TRE and TRA staff categories, there was significant variance in the frequency with which students selected members of these categories when compared with their proportional availability. The most numerous staff type in the overall sample was the SUP group, representing 57.9% of the total available staff of 166 for whom student contact is prescribed, but they represent only 41.8% of the students' selections. Conversely, the TRE members represent 25.3% of the available staff and 32.3% of the students'

selections. Also in the case of the TRA category the frequency of available staff, 16.8%, was lower than their representation in the student selection, 25.3%. Table 4, comparing the observed and expected frequencies of student selection of staff categories, demonstrates that the relationship between staff categories and selection in the overall sample was significant. Although this was not measured in the present design, there is speculation that while no variance occurred with respect to mean levels of student-perceived facilitative conditions, factors unique to the TRE and TRA staff may have positively influenced the probability of their selection by the students. They may include such factors as academic training, institutional status or role expectancy.

Although low expected frequencies discourage the testing of the null hypothesis by sampling statistics, it is also apparent from Table 4 that at each location a unique staff selection bias may exist. Students at St. Joseph's, for example, made their selections mainly from the TRE group - 54.8% - although this group represents only 25.0% of the total available staff. Sprucedale students' selections were mainly from the SUP staff - 68.6%. The TRE group at Sprucedale represents 11.4% of the total staff for whom student contact is prescribed but accounts for 19.4% of the

Table 4 A

Comparison of Observed and Expected
Frequencies of Student Selection of Staff
Categories (n=79)

<u>Total Sample</u>					
Staff Category	O	E	(O-E)	(O-E) ²	$\frac{(O-E)^2}{E}$
SUP	33	46	- 13	169	3.69
TRE	26	20	6	36	1.80
TRA	20	13	7	49	3.76
Total	79	79	0.00		$\chi^2 = 9.25^{**}$

** p 0.01

Table 4 B

Comparison of the Frequency of Student Selection
of Staff Categories and the Number and Proportion
of Staff Members Available Within Each Category

(a) St. Joseph

Staff Category	Students' Selection		Staff Availability	
	No.	%	No.	%
SUP	9	29.0	34	47.2
TRE	17	54.8	18	25.0
TRA	5	16.2	20	27.8
	31	100	72	100

(b) Sprucedale

Staff Category	Students' Selection		Staff Availability	
	No.	%	No.	%
SUP	24	77.24	48	68.6
TRE	6	19.4	8	11.4
TRA	1	3.2	14	20.0
	32	100	70	100

Table 4 B (continued)(c) Project D.A.R.E.

Staff Category	Students' Selection		Staff Availability	
	No.	%	No.	%
SUP	0	0	14	58.3
TRE	3	17.6	6	25.0
TRA	14	82.4	4	16.7
	17	100	24	100

students' selections. Finally, while there were only a total of 4 or 16.7% TRA staff available at D.A.R.E., they were selected by the students 82.4% of the time.

Although the present research was not designed to explain possible student selection biases that occurred, there is speculation that selection could reflect the predominating programme orientation at each location (9, p.21-22). At D.A.R.E., for example, the primary programme focus is on bush training, camping and canoeing experiences under the tutelage of three outdoor-learning instructors. Of the 17 staff members selected by the D.A.R.E. students, 12 selections were outdoor-learning instructors. Treatment would appear to be a primary programme focus at St. Joseph's, as indicated by the relatively high proportion of staff in this category, hence the preponderance of TRE personnel among the students' selections.

3. Comparison of Locations

Combining students from the three juvenile centres for the purpose of testing the experimental hypotheses tacitly disregards the differences between the centres. Analysis of the means and relationships of the SEI and RI scales within the context of each individual location raises some questions about this assumption.

Although, as might be expected, no differences were found between student-perceived EMP scores offered by the staff from St. Joseph's, Sprucedale and Project D.A.R.E., analysis of variance did expose some differences among SEI, GEN and WAR scores (Table 5B). While there were no significant differences between the means of student SEI scores from the Sprucedale and D.A.R.E. samples, nor between SEI means of the St. Joseph's and D.A.R.E. students, Sprucedale students did record significantly higher mean self-esteem scores when compared with the St. Joseph's students ($t = 2.89$, $p = 0.05$).⁽¹⁾ No significant differences occurred between GEN mean scores of St. Joseph's and D.A.R.E. students, but Sprucedale GEN mean scores were higher than those of St. Joseph's ($t = 4.31$, $p = 0.001$) and D.A.R.E. ($t = 2.36$, $p = 0.05$) students. Finally, while no marked differences occurred between the means of WAR of Sprucedale and D.A.R.E. students or between D.A.R.E. and St. Joseph's students, Sprucedale students again recorded significantly higher mean WAR scores when compared with St. Joseph's students ($t = 3.01$, $p = 0.05$).

(1) Ferguson (4, p. 238) suggests that in applying tests following an F test a more vigorous basis than usual is required for rejection of the null hypothesis. Instead of using the 5 percent level of rejection it is suggested that $10/K(K-1)$ percent level be used, where K is the number of groups. Given the 3 groups of the present study the $10/K(K-1)$ percent level requires a t value of 2.37 in order for rejection

Table 5 A

Means and Standard Deviations of the
Experimental Variables at Each Location

	<u>N</u>	<u>SEI</u>	<u>GEN</u>	<u>EMP</u>	<u>WAR</u>
St. Joseph's	31				
x		26.5	17.4	18.2	23.2
s.d.		5.4	5.5	5.6	6.9
Sprucedale	31				
x		30.6	21.4	20.7	27.5
s.d.		5.4	2.5	5.5	4.1
Project D.A.R.E.17					
x		28.2	19.1	20.8	25.5
s.d.		5.1	3.5	3.9	4.4

Table 5 B

Analysis of Variance of Scores of SEI and
RI Conditions Between St. Joseph's, Sprucedale
and Project D.A.R.E. Students

(a) Genuineness

Components	Sum of Squares	Degrees of Freedom	Variance	F-ratio
Between groups	249.4	2	124.7	9.42**
Within groups	1005.6	76	13.2	
Total	1255.0	78		

** p 0.01

(b) Empathy

Components	Sum of Squares	Degrees of Freedom	Variance	F-ratio
Between groups	117.6	2	58.8	2.06
Within groups	2174.7	76	28.6	
Total	2292.3	78		

(not significant)

Table 5B⁺ (Continued)

Analysis of Variance of Scores of SEI and RI
Conditions Between St. Joseph's, Sprucedale
and Project D.A.R.E. Students

(c) Warmth

Components	Sum of Squares	Degrees of Freedom	Variance	F-ratio
Between groups	307.2	2	153.6	4.99 ^{**}
Within groups	2343.7	76	30.8	
Total	26.50	78		

^{**} p . 0.01

(d) Student Self Esteem

Components	Sum of Squares	Degrees of Freedom	Variance	F-ratio
Between groups	257.8	2	128.8	4.31 [*]
Within groups	2279.8	76	29.9	
Total	2537.4	78		

^{*} p 0.05

Table 6

Correlation Coefficients Between Student Self-Esteem and Student Perceived Facilitative Conditions Within Each of the Three Juvenile Centres

(a) St. Joseph's (n=31)

Facilitative Conditions

GEN	0.445**
EMP	0.058
WAR	0.176

** p .02

(b) Sprucedale (n=31)

Facilitative Conditions

GEN	0.204
EMP	0.017
WAR	0.086

(c) Project D.A.R.E. (n=17)

Facilitative Conditions

GEN	0.594**
EMP	0.324
WAR	0.310

** p .02

Sprucedale students record higher (Table 5A) mean levels of both SEI and RI conditions, however correlations coefficients between the criterion and the facilitative conditions were found to be uniformly weaker when compared with the St. Joseph's and D.A.R.E. samples (Table 6). The unrelated scores between the SEI and RI conditions in the Sprucedale sample may be due to somewhat reduced variability of the GEN scores. (Table 5A). It is also possible that low correlation coefficients relate to high pre-institutionalization levels of self-esteem which may have facilitated the perception of interpersonal conditions, but have little effect on the already high student self-esteem. Students entering Sprucedale are generally screened for academic motivation and ability, and are provided with a programme which caters to these abilities. It is possible that Sprucedale subjects may have been more frequently exposed to past recognition, which accompanies academic achievement, and hence begin their institutional careers initially higher in self-esteem. It has been reported that differences in the degree of client maladjustment correspond to differences in the ability to induce social reinforcement of self-esteem from others (7, p. 115; 11, p. 70; 2, p. 286), that is, the more maladjusted the individual, the greater the difficulty in inducing positive reinforcing responses from others.

It is possible that Sprucedale students, initially better adjusted in terms of self-esteem, were more capable of inducing and hence of perceiving higher positive genuineness, empathy and warmth staff responses.

A further possibility that may explain differences in the SEI and RI scores between the three locations involves an aspect of "personalism" (see p. 27-28). The students from D.A.R.E. record intermediary mean levels of self-esteem and perceived genuineness, empathy and warmth, along with the highest correlations between SEI and the RI conditions. Subjects at D.A.R.E. were all tested in the final days of the very vigorous third phase of the camping programme, a highly esteemed achievement among both staff and students. It is possible that staff-communicated facilitative conditions, together with obvious and acknowledged achievement encourages the student to believe that he has uniquely conditioned the positive staff responses. In this way the positive staff responses were consistent with the students' actual and perceived achievement, thus intensifying the impact of the RI conditions and their subsequent relationship with the SEI scores.

C. Weakness of the Design

1. Assumptions

The design of the present research was non-experimental with respect to the analysis of the relationship between dependent and independent variables. While an explicit directionality guided the theoretical development, the design remains inadequate in demonstrating, because of the concurrent measurement of the major experimental variables, whether variations of communicated conditions of interpersonal relationships do, in fact, precede variations of subject self-esteem. In the absence of stricter controls the interpretation of the order of effects must be highly conjectural.

For example, the correlations between self-esteem and student-perceived relationship conditions did not take into account pre-institutionalization levels of self-esteem. It was assumed, rather, that all students could be regarded as having essentially equivalent low self-esteem levels at the outset of a given commitment. This assumption could be wrong, if the higher self-esteem scores of the Spruce-dale subjects are considered. While it is possible that most students experience an initial depression in self-esteem

coincidental with institutional placement, the experience of institutionalization would probably be different for students entering with low and high self-esteem. Furthermore, students would differ in their sensitivity to perceive social reinforcements and in individual ability to induce staff responses and utilization of extra-staff sources relevant to self-esteem enhancement. The present limited correlational analysis, by assuming that subjects on admission had similar levels of self-esteem, sensitivity and ability to induce positive responses, ignores many individual responses to demands of institutional adjustment and alternative sources of self-esteem.

2. Sample Selection

Some basic shortcomings encountered in the selection of the sample limit the generalizability and interpretation of results. The utility of the information reported above is limited as a result of the method by which the sample was selected. It must be asked "to whom do the results apply?" First, the generalizability of the present results was limited by the selection bias inherent in the admission policy of each of the juvenile centres contributing subjects to the research. Secondly, the selection criteria submitted to the assisting institutional officials further restrict

the representativeness of the sample to those wards who, "in the opinion of the officials", met the criteria. Since no attempt was made to corroborate the recommendations of the officials either by interviewing or psychological testing of the sample pool, there was no way of knowing to what extent the students recommended actually met the criteria. This uncertainty as to the nature of the sample also roused the possibility that in the eagerness of the official to cooperate and of the researcher to minimize his disruption of the programs, those students were recommended who represented the better adjusted individuals of each centre. If this was the case, the results of both the SEI and RI scores would likely be higher than the mean of the entire school populations and not an accurate representation.

3. Instruments

With regard to the SEI and RI measures, modifications were made to both inventories and it was not known to what degree the inventories continued to measure the constructs for which they were originally designed or how stable these measures were. This applied particularly to the Truax Relationship Inventory, designed and used to assess client perception of recent, formal counselling experiences. In

the present study it was modified and used to assess informal, spontaneous, student-perceived relationship conditions.

4. Problems Due to Anonymity

It appears in retrospect even more than it did before that valuable information was lost so that students and their selected staff might remain anonymous. Anonymity was part of the agreement with institutional administrators in exchange for their cooperation, but this has made it impossible to obtain official student background information or to relate meaningfully present results to pertinent institutional records, family or academic histories available in institutional files. Furthermore, student selection of staff according to institutional classification, not personal names, may be misleading in cases where a particular staff member was repeatedly chosen by the students, as this would increase the representation of one staff category. At Project D.A.R.E, for example, three outdoor-learning instructors were selected twelve times in the present research, representing 82.4% of the selections made by the students. However, it is impossible to determine the frequency each individual TRA staff member was selected by the twelve students. It may be that one TRA staff member could have been selected twelve times, or two members six times each, or any other possible combination.

D. Suggestions for Future Research

1. Generalizability and Validity of Data

Many of the difficulties or oversights of this research can be easily accounted for within the context of the present design. A random selection of students from a broader range of juvenile centres or from within centres would represent the population of delinquent wards in Ontario institutions at the present time more adequately. The variables purportedly measured by the modified SEI and RI instruments cannot be observed directly and might be evaluated with respect to construct validation (1). This problem could be resolved in further research through correlational analysis with other theoretically related variables. The SEI, for example, could be expected to correlate linearly with academic achievement or sociometric measures of peer acceptance. Further efforts should be made to obtain the identities of both the staff and students involved to overcome the previously mentioned weakness in the actual staff members selected from each particular staff category.

2. Other Antecedents of Self-Esteem

Although it has been reported that the character of staff-inmate interaction may have a pervasive effect on the

inmate and be a relevant factor in post-release adjustment, the nature of staff-inmate relations and interpersonal correlates of inmate reformation have been only cursorily explored. Studies on staff-inmate relations reported by Reckless (8), Glaser (5), Grygier (6) and Sandhu (10), that labelled general conditions as "paternal" or "personal", either failed to provide satisfactory operational definitions or these conditions have not been related to post-release experience. Furthermore, it was not often specified what, if any, inmate personality or behavioural dimensions could be expected to be affected by these relationship conditions.

In the present study attraction was assumed to be a function of the student's need for self-esteem enhancement: the extent to which a significant staff member satisfies the student's need through the quality of his relationship. Staff-student relations were operationally defined as genuineness, empathy and warmth, however it is unlikely that the reinforcement of student self-esteem results exclusively from these three conditions. This study has purposely excluded some important self-esteem antecedents such as peer evaluation and achievement that often continue during confinement.

Further research would be advised to take into consideration a much broader range of possible social and individual antecedents of self-esteem and the significance, if any,

of each of these antecedents on the inmate. Also, follow-up studies that explore the relationship of institutional levels of inmate self-esteem to post-release adjustment are important to determine what, if any, is the reformative value of changes on the self-esteem variable.

3. Controlled Research

The nature of the sequential relationship between subject self-esteem and the facilitative conditions remains conjectural, as it was suggested earlier. The results as reported offer only limited insight into whether inmate self-esteem was conditioned by good social relationships or a determinate of good relationships. This issue requires greater autonomy on the part of the researcher in the application of more rigid research designs that, in turn, tax administrative flexibility and call for greater cooperation from institutions.

Given this autonomy and based on the results presented earlier, the direction of future research should be towards more stringent controls. The addition of a control, non-treatment group, or controlled manipulation of independent conditions remain the most viable methods for demonstrating whether changes in subject self-esteem can be attributed to application of relationship conditions.

In short, the possibilities for future research in the area of interpersonal antecedents of self-esteem and its concomitant reformation value to young offenders remain broad. The findings of this research, although they may give rise to many more questions than it originally set out to explore, do, however, suggest that the area is a fruitful one for further investigation.

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SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Institutional staff-student relationships were presented in this research as a basic influence in the process of institutional adaptation relevant to student self-esteem. Self-esteem construct, distinct from other self variables, was advanced and its relationship to the interpersonal conditions of genuineness, empathy and warmth was explored. It was postulated that, 1) in the context of interpersonal relationships these operated according to the principle of reciprocal affect; 2) the communication of these conditions by staff was independent of their institutional job classification.

Two hypotheses were derived from these postulates: first it was hypothesized that there is a positive, linear correlation between student self-esteem and student perception of relevant staff-offered conditions of genuineness, empathy and warmth respectively. Secondly, it was hypothesized that there would be no difference between the means of student-perceived staff-offered relationship conditions among institutional supervisory, treatment and training personnel.

The first hypothesis was tested by correlating measures of student self-esteem and student perception of genuineness, empathy and warmth offered by relevant staff. Analysis of mean differences of relationship conditions perceived from supervisory, treatment and training staff was conducted to test the second hypothesis. Except in the case of the correlation coefficient between student self-esteem and perceived empathy, both hypotheses were supported by the results. Further analysis of the data revealed positive correlation coefficients between self-esteem and relationship conditions within each institution contributing students to the total sample; particular staff selection bias by students was evident; differences occurred in the mean levels of student self-esteem and perceived genuineness and warmth among the three juvenile centres. The results of the present research, it was concluded, warranted further investigations and the application of more rigid research designs in the area of interpersonal conditions facilitative of correctional adjustment and outcome.

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APPENDIX 1

SELF-ESTEEM INVENTORY

Below are a number of statements about the way you may feel or behave. If the statements is true or mostly true then circle "T" before the statement. If the statement is false or mostly false then circle "F" before the statement. Please answer all the questions.

Scoring Key

- | | | | |
|-----|-----|---|---|
| T F | 1. | I spend a lot of time daydreaming. | |
| T F | 2. | I'm pretty sure of myself. | |
| T F | 3. | I often wish I were someone else. | F |
| T F | 4. | I'm easy to like. | T |
| T F | 5. | I never worry about anything. | T |
| T F | 6. | My parents and I used to have a lot of fun together. | T |
| T F | 7. | I wish I were younger. | T |
| T F | 8. | There are lots of things about myself I'd change if I could. | F |
| T F | 9. | I can make up my mind without too much trouble. | T |
| T F | 10. | I'm a lot of fun to be with. | T |
| T F | 11. | I get upset easily when dealing with others, especially with those close to me. | F |
| T F | 12. | I always do the right thing. | T |
| T F | 13. | Someone always has to tell me what to do. | F |
| T F | 14. | It takes me a long time to get used to anything new. | F |

APPENDIX 1 (continued)

		Scoring Key
T F 15.	I'm often sorry for the things I do.	F
T F 16.	I'm popular with people my own age.	T
T F 17.	I'm never unhappy.	T
T F 18.	I'm doing the best work that I can.	T
T F 19.	I give in very easily.	F
T F 20.	I can usually take care of myself.	T
T F 21.	I'm pretty happy.	T
T F 22.	I'm usually proud of what I am doing.	T
T F 23.	My parents expected too much of me.	F
T F 24.	I like everyone I know.	T
T F 25.	I understand myself.	T
T F 26.	It's pretty tough to be me.	F
T F 27.	Things are all mixed up in my life.	F
T F 28.	Younger follows usually my ideas.	T
T F 29.	I never got scolded.	T
T F 30.	My parents understood me pretty well.	T
T F 31.	I can make up my mind and stick to it.	T
T F 32.	I really don't like being a male.	F
T F 33.	I have a low opinion of myself.	F
T F 34.	I don't like to be with other people.	F
T F 35.	There are many times when I'd like to leave home.	F
T F 36.	I'm never shy.	T
T F 37.	I often feel upset in school.	F
T F 38.	I often feel ashamed of myself.	F
T F 39.	I'm not as nice looking as most people.	F
T F 40.	If I have something to say, I usually say it.	T
T F 41.	The staff makes me feel I'm not good enough.	F
T F 42.	I always tell the truth.	T
T F 43.	I don't care what happens to me.	F

APPENDIX 1 (continued)

Scoring Key

- | | |
|--|---|
| 44. I'm a failure. | F |
| 45. Most people are better liked than I am. | F |
| 46. I usually felt as if my parents were pushing me. | F |
| 47. I always know what to say to people. | T |
| 48. I get upset easily when I'm called down about something. | F |
| 49. Things usually don't bother me. | T |
| 50. I can't be depended on. | F |

APPENDIX 2 a (continued)

monitor	physical education instructor
psychologist	after-care officer
student counsellor	nurse
janitor	superintendant/assistant
	superintendant

If you have someone in mind who is not listed you may add him to the list here. _____

Please answer the following questions as best as you can.

Age

How long have you spent in training schools?

How long have you known this particular staff member?

How many times have you been in training school?

APPENDIX 2b

RELATONSHIP INVENTORY - INSTRUCTIONS AND
STAFF DESIGNATIONS - PROJECT D.A.R.E.

People feel and behave in a number of different ways towards the many other people that they see every day. This booklet contains a number of statements that describe a variety of ways that one person may feel about another person, or ways that one person may act towards another person. We would like you to pick from the Camp D.A.R.E. staff listed below ONE person who you feel you know well and that knows you well; or a staff member who you are close to and talk often with. Circle your choice and answer ALL of the following statements keeping in mind this person. If you feel that the statement is True or mostly True then circle "T" before the statement. If you feel that the statement is False or mostly False circle "F" before the statement. This is not a test. There are no right or wrong answers. What counts is the way you feel.

SELECT ONE STAFF MEMBER AND CIRCLE THE GROUP INTO WHICH HE FALLS.

teacher
head supervisor

out-door learning instructor
cook

APPENDIX 2 b (continued)

handyman/janitor

chief supervisor

superintendant

stockman

If you have someone in mind who is not listed you may add him to the list here. _____

Please answer the following questions as best as you can.

Age

How many times have you been in training schools?

How long have you spent in training schools?

How long have you known this particular staff member?

APPENDIX 2c

MODIFIED TRUAX RELATIONSHIP INVENTORYPLEASE ANSWER ALL QUESTIONS

		Scale	Scoring Key
T F	1. He seems to hold things back, rather than tell me what he really thinks.	G	F
T F	2. He understands my words but does not know how I feel.	E	F
T F	3. He understands me.	E	T
T F	4. He understands exactly how I see things.	E	T
T F	5. He may understand me but he does not know how I feel.	E	F
T.F	6. Sometimes he seems interested in me while other times he doesn't seem to care about me.	W	F
T F	7. He often misunderstands what I am trying to say.	E	F
T F	8. He almost always seems very con- cerned about me.	W	T
T F	9. Sometimes I feel that what he says to me is very different from the way he really feels.	G	F
T F	10. He can read me like a book.	E	T
T F	11. he usually is not very interested in what I have to say.	W	F
T F	12. He feels indifferent about me.	W	F

APPENDIX 2 c (continued)

		Scale	Scoring Key
T F 13.	He acts too professional.	G	F
T F 14.	I am just another student to him.	G	F
T F 15.	He likes to see me.	W	T
T F 16.	He knows more about me than I do about myself.	E	T
T F 17.	I can usually count on him to tell me what he really thinks or feels.	G	T
T F 18.	He appreciates me.	W	T
T F 19.	I feel that he is being genuine with me.	G	T
T F 20.	Even when I cannot say quite what I mean, he knows how I feel.	E	T
T F 21.	He usually helps me to know how I am feeling by putting my feelings into words for me.	E	T
T F 22.	He must understand me but I often think, he is wrong.	E	F
T F 23.	I feel that he really thinks I am worthwhile.	W	T
T F 24.	He seems to follow almost every feeling I have while I am with him.	E	T
T F 25.	He usually uses just the right words when he tries to understand how I am feeling.	E	T
T F 26.	He pretends that he likes me more than he really does.	G	F
T F 27.	He really listens to everything I say.	W	T

APPENDIX 2 c (continued)

		Scale	Scoring Key
T F 28.	Sometimes he seems to putting up a professional front.	G	F
T F 29.	I often cannot understand what he is trying to tell me.	E	F
T F 30.	Sometimes he sort of "pulls back" and examines me.	G	F
T F 31.	I am afraid of him.	W	F
T F 32.	Whatever he says usually fits right in with what I am feeling.	E	F
T F 33.	He tells me things that he does not mean.	G	F
T F 34.	He often does not seem to be genuinely himself.	G	F
T F 35.	He is a very sincere person.	G	T
T F 36.	With him I feel more free to really be myself than with almost anyone else I know.	W	T
T F 37.	He usually knows exactly what I mean, sometimes even before I finish saying it.	E	T
T F 38.	Whether I am talking about "good" or "bad" feelings seems to make no real difference in the way he feels towards me.	W	T
T F 39.	He often leads me into talking about some of my deepest feelings.	E	T
T F 40.	He is curious about what makes me act like I do, but he is not really interested in me.	W	F

APPENDIX 2 c (continued)

		Scale	Scoring Key
T F 41.	He sometimes completely understands me so that he knows what I am feeling even when I am hiding my feelings.	E	T
T F 42.	Whatever I talk about is okay with him.	W	T
T F 43.	He helps me know myself better by some times pointing to feeling within me that I had been unaware of.	E	T
T F 44.	He seems like a real person, instead of just a teacher.	G	T
T F 45.	I can learn a lot about myself from talking with him.	E	T
T F 46.	In spite of all he knows about me, he seems to trust my feelings about what is right and wrong for me.	W	T
T F 47.	Sometimes he is upset when I see him but he tries to hide it.	G	F
T F 48.	He would never knowingly hurt me.	W	T
T F 49.	He is a phony.	G	F
T F 50.	I sometimes get the feeling that for him the most important thing is that I should really like him.	W	F
T F 51.	There is something about the way he reacts to what I tell him that makes me uncertain whether he can keep my confidences in himself.	G	F
T F 52.	He gives me so much advice I sometimes think he's trying to live my life for me.	W	F

APPENDIX 2 c (continued)

		Scale	Scoring Key
T F 53.	He frequently acts so restless that I get the feeling he can hardly wait for the day to end.	W	F
T F 54.	He is sometimes so rude I only accept it because he is supposed to be helping me.	W	F
T F 55.	If I had a chance to study under a different instructor, I would.	E	F
T F 56.	He is always relaxed, I don't think any thing could get him excited.	G	F
T F 57.	I don't think he has ever smiled.	W	F
T F 58.	He is always the same.	W	F
T F 59.	I would like to be like him.	W	T
T F 60.	He makes me feel like a guinea pig or some kind of animal.	G	F
T F 61.	He uses the same words over and over again till I'm bored.	E	F
T F 62.	Usually I can lie to him and he never knows the difference.	E	F
T F 63.	He may like me, but he doesn't like the things I talk about.	W	F
T F 64.	I think he is dumb.	E	F
T F 65.	He never says anything that makes him sound like a real person.	G	F
T F 66.	He is all right, but I really don't trust him.'	G	F
T F 67.	If I make a mistake or miss a class, he really gives me trouble about it.	W	F

APPENDIX 2 c (continued)

		Scale	Scoring Key
T F 68.	He lets me talk about anything.	W	T
T F 69.	I don't think he knows what is the matter with me.	E	F
T F 70.	He sometimes looks as worried as I feel.	G	T
T F 71.	There are times when I don't have to speak, he knows how I feel.	E	T
T F 72.	If I am happy or if I am sad, it makes no difference, he is always the same.	W	T
T F 73.	He knows what it feels like to be ill.	E	T
T F 74.	He must think he is God, the way he treats me.	W	F
T F 75.	He interrupts me whenever I am talking about something that means a lot to me.	E	F
T F 76.	When I'm talking about things that mean a great deal to me, he acts like they don't mean a thing.	W	F
T F 77.	I can tell by his expression some times that he says things that he does mean.	G	F
T F 78.	There are a lot of things that I would like to talk about, but he won't let me.	W	F
T F 79.	I think he could like someone, but I don't think he could love anybody.	W	F
T F 80.	When he is wrong he doesn't try to hide it.	G	T

APPENDIX 2 c (continued)

	Scale	Scoring Key
T F 81. He acts like he knows it all.	W	F
T F 82. He must think life is easy the way he talks about my problems.	E	F
T F 83. You never tell how he feels about things.	G	F
T F 84. He treats me like a person.	W	T
T F 85. He seems to be bored by a good deal of what I talk about.	W	F
T F 86. His concern about me is very obvious.	G	T

APPENDIX 3 a
STAFF SCHEDULE¹ AND EXPERIMENTAL DESIGNATIONS

St. JOSEPH'S, ALFRED

Institutional Classification	Number	Experimental pc/npc ²	Deisgnation SUP/TRE/TRA	Remarks
Superintendent	1	pc	TRE	Perform Counsel- ling duties
Assistant Superintendent	1	pc	TRE	
Deputy Superintendent	1	pc	TRE	Carries caseload
Office Management (Clerks, Typists etc.)	14	npc	—	Carries caseload
Medical Officer (PT) ^{xx}	1	—	—	Contact too in- frequent
Dentist	1	—	—	
Nurse	3	pc	TRE	
Psychologist	1	pc	TRE	
Social Worker	2	pc	TRE	
Aftercare Officer	2	pc	TRE	Perform counsel- ling duties
Student Counsellor	6	pc	TRE	
Teacher	17	pc	TRA	
Recreation Officer	3	pc	TRA	
Maintenance (Electrician, Mechanic, Caretaker etc.)	12	npc		

¹Based on positions occupied at time of testing.

APPENDIX 3a (continued)

Institutional Classification	Number	Experimental Designation pc/npc ²	SUP/TRE/TRA	Remarks
Shoe Repairmen	1	npc		
Handy Services	7	npc		
Cook	5	pc	SUP	
Helper Food Service	7	npc		
Supervisors (Junior Division)	15	pc	SUP	
Supervisors (Senior Division)	14	pc	SUP	
Security Officer	3	npc		
Chaplain	1	pc	TRE	
Total Staff	118			
Total P.C.Staff	72			
TRE	18			
TRA	20			
SUP	34			

²pc = prescribed contact; npc = no prescribed contact.

APPENDIX 3b

STAFF SCHEDULE¹ AND EXPERIMENTAL DESIGNATIONS

SPRUCEDALE, HAGERVILLE

Institutional Classification	Number	Experimental Designations pc/npc ² SUP/TRE/TRA	Remarks
Superintendent	1	pc TRE	Performs counselling duties
Deputy Superintendent	1	pc TRE	
Office Management	13	npc	
Gardener	1	npc	
Cook	36	pc TRE	Students assigned to as assistants
Food Service Helper	2	npc	
Maintenance (Engineer, Laundress, caretaker etc.)	18	npc	
Dentist	1	npc	Contact too infrequent
Nurse	3	pc TRE	
Social Worker	2	pc TRE	
Chaplain	1	pc TRE	
Teacher (academic, Vocational etc.)	11	pc TRA	
Recreation Officer	3	pc TRA	

¹Based on positions occupied at time of testings.

APPENDIX 3b (continued)

Institutional Classification	Number	Experimental Designations		Remarks
		pc/npc ²	SUP/TRE/TRA	
Supervisors	42	pc	SUP	
Total	105			
Total pc Staff	70			
TRE	8			
TRA	14			
SUP	48			

²pc = prescribed contact; npc = no prescribed contact.

APPENDIX 3c

STAFF SCHEDULE¹ AND EXPERIMENTAL DESIGNATIONS

PROJECT D.A.R.E. PORTAGE LAKE

Institutional Classification	Number	Experimental Designations		Remarks
		pc/npc ²	SUP/TRE/TRA	
Superintendent	1	pc	TRE	
Assistant Superintendent	1	pc	TRE	
Office Management (Clerk, Typists etc.)	3	npc		
Teacher (Vocational)	1	pc	TRA	
Out Door Learning Instructor	3	pc	TRA	
Cook	2	pc	SUP	Students assigned to as assistants
Supervisors (Senior) and general duty)	12	pc	SUP	
Head Supervisors	4	pc	TRE	
Store Keeper	1	npc		Supervision of general duty super- visors, student contact generally of a counselling nature.
Total Staff	28			
Total pc Staff	24			
TRE	6			
TRA	4			
SUP	14			

¹Based on positions occupied at time of testing.

²pc = prescribed contact; npc = no prescribed contact.

APPENDIX 4a

RAW DATA

St. JOSEPH'S, ALFRED (n=31)

Student's Staff Selection	GEN Scale	EMP Scale	WAR Scale	SE Scale	Age of Student	Number of Admissions	Length of Institu- tionli- zation (months)	Length of Acquain- tance (month)
Assistant Superintendent	23	18	12	33	15	2	18	12
Psychologist	13	24	31	21	14	1	2	1.5
Psychologist	23	23	32	23	14	1	4	4
Psychologist	21	21	31	31	15	1	2	2
Psychologist	13	17	23	22	15	2	6	3
Counsellor	18	17	20	22	15	3	19	4
Counsellor	19	15	27	35	15	2	12	5
Counsellor	16	16	20	32	15	3	15	10
Counsellor	16	10	22	30	16	4	4	3
Counsellor	21	27	30	28	14	1	24	15
Counsellor	19	19	15	32	15	2	36	24
After-Care Officer	20	23	30	33	14	5	6	3
Student Counsellor	22	27	31	20	14	2	22	7
Student Counsellor	13	19	24	24	15	2	5	5
Student Counsellor	20	21	23	31	16	3	16	6

APPENDIX 4a (continued)

Student's Staff Selection	GEN Scale	EMP Scale	WAR Scale	SE Scale	Age of Student	Number of Admissions	Length of Institu- tionali- zation (months)	Length of Acquain- tance (months)
Student Counsellor	18	21	23	19	16	2	11	3
Nurse	21	12	26	30	15	1	3	2
Monitor	17	13	15	15	15	1	4	4
Monitor	8	16	17	18	16	1	3	2
Monitor	24	24	27	36	15	2	10	10
Monitor	21	25	32	29	15	3	30	14
Monitor	11	5	9	26	16	1	9	3
Monitor	11	18	18	26	15	1	4	4
Monitor	11	15	12	27	13	1	7.5	7.5
Monitor	21	18	27	28	15	2	12	12
Cook	13	17	28	17	15	1	—	—
Teacher	13	12	18	30	16	1	6	6
Teacher	19	24	31	28	15	1	6	6
Teacher	22	26	29	25	17	4	18	18
P.E. Inst.	21	15	24	28	14	1	4	3
P.E. Inst.	11	6	10	22	15	2	17	17

APPENDIX 4b

RAW DATA

SPRUCEDALE, HAGERSVILLE (n=31)

Student's Staff Selection	GEN Scale	EMP Scale	WAR Scale	SE Scale	Age of Student	Number of Admissions	Length of Institu- tionali- zation (months)	Length of Acquain- tance (months)
Assistant Superintendent	22	25	32	27	16	1	4	3
Psychologist	22	26	27	34	15	1	3	2
Counsellor	18	15	22	37	15	1	9	8
Nurse	25	28	33	30	15	1	2.5	1.5
Nurse	23	26	31	37	15	1	2	1
Programme Staff	20	25	32	24	15	1	6	6
Supervisor	20	16	36	31	14	1	2.5	1.5
Supervisor	24	26	30	23	15	2	17.5	11.5
Supervisor	20	19	24	27	16	2	24	20
Supervisor	22	22	30	44	16	2	4	4
Supervisor	18	4	20	25	15	1	6	2
Supervisor	15	7	21	25	15	1	2	6
Supervisor	16	16	19	21	15	1	2.5	1
Supervisor	24	26	31	31	15	3	28	8
Supervisor	24	20	28	36	16	1	8	7
Supervisor	23	16	30	37	15	1	9	9
Supervisor	23	22	31	25	14	1	4	2.5

APPENDIX 4b (continued)

Student's Staff Selection	GEN Scale	EMP Scale	WAR Scale	SE Scale	Age of Student	Number of Admissions	Length of Institu- tionali- zation (months)	Length of Acquain- tance (months)
Supervisor	22	25	29	32	15	1	10	8
Supervisor	21	14	25	24	16	1	5	4.5
Supervisor	22	22	33	27	15	1	11	9
Supervisor	25	21	32	35	16	1	13	13
Supervisor	21	28	31	27	16	1	2	1
Supervisor	21	21	28	33	16	2	10.5	3
Supervisor	25	23	25	35	15	1	8	8
Supervisor	23	21	25	37	15	1	9	1
Supervisor	22	21	27	34	16	1	5	5
Supervisor	21	21	29	30	15	1	7	7
Supervisor	22	21	30	37	14	1	11	4
Supervisor	18	19	24	31	15	1	11	9
Cook	23	26	32	23	19	1	13	6
P.E. Instructor	18	17	19	28	16	3	24	6

APPENDIX 4c

RAW DATA

PROJECT D.A.R.E., PORTAGE LAKE (n=17)

Student's Staff Selection	GEN Scale	EMP Scale	WAR Scale	SE Scale	Age of Student	No. of Admission	Length of Institutionalization (months)	Length of Acquaintance (months)
Head Supervisor	19	16	25	31	16	3	14	3
Head Supervisor	21	25	30	29	17	1	23	3
Head Supervisor	24	19	28	32	16	2	12	3
Teacher	24	25	31	36	15	3	12	3
Teacher	17	17	19	23	16	3	19	3
Outdoor Learning Instructor	17	21	22	30	16	2	7	7
Outdoor Learning Instructor	21	26	32	28	16	2	17	3
Outdoor Learning Instructor	17	19	28	14	15	2	18	3
Outdoor Learning Instructor	19	12	20	28	15	2	24	3
Outdoor Learning Instructor	14	20	19	26	16	2	35	3
Outdoor Learning Instructor	18	19	25	28	15	2	24	3
Outdoor Learning Instructor	15	23	26	23	15	2	8.5	2
Outdoor Learning Instructor	23	24	27	29	16	4	24	3
Outdoor Learning Instructor	14	23	29	31	16	2	11	3
Outdoor Learning Instructor	22	25	28	31	16	2	12	3
Outdoor Learning Instructor	22	24	27	36	15	1	5	3
Outdoor Learning Instructor	23	16	17	24	15	3	11	3

SUMMARY OF THESIS

Institutional, staff-student relationships were presented in this research as a basic influence on student self-esteem in the process of their institutional adaptation. A self-esteem construct was advanced, distinct from other self variables, and its relationship to the interpersonal conditions of genuineness, empathy and warmth was explored. It was postulated that: a) in the context of interpersonal relationships these operated according to the principle of reciprocal affect; b) the communication of these conditions by staff was independent of their institutional job classification.

Two hypotheses were derived from these postulates: first it was hypothesized that there is a positive, linear correlation between student self-esteem and student perception of relevant conditions of genuineness, empathy and warmth shown by the staff. Secondly, it was hypothesized that there would be no difference between the means of student-perceived staff-offered relationship conditions among institutional supervisory, treatment and training personnel.

Institutional officials at three Ontario juvenile delinquent centres aided in the selection of a representative sample of seventy-nine students for participation in the research. The Coopersmith "Self-Esteem Inventory" and the Truax "Relationship Inventory" were administered to the

subjects as a group, to assess subject self-esteem and perception of genuineness, empathy and warmth from student-selected staff. Pearson's product moment coefficient of correlation was computed in all cases, while selected staff were grouped according to institutional categories as supervisory, training or treatment.

The first hypothesis was tested by correlating measures of student self-esteem and student perception of genuineness, empathy and warmth offered by relevant members of the staff. Analysis of mean differences of relationship conditions perceived from supervisory, treatment and training staff was conducted to test the second hypothesis. Except in the case of the correlation coefficient between student self-esteem and perceived empathy, both hypotheses were supported by the results. Further analysis of the data revealed positive correlation coefficients between self-esteem and relationship conditions within each staff category; there was evidence of bias in the selection of particular staff members by the students; in the mean levels of student self-esteem and perceived genuineness and warmth among the three juvenile centres. It was concluded that the results of the present research warranted further investigations and the application of more rigid research designs in the area of interpersonal conditions facilitative of correctional adjustment and outcome.