# CHAPTER 1
# INTRODUCTION

The failures of a century of correctional reforms, according to David Rothman (1980), occurred at the juxtaposition of "conscience and convenience." An abundance of new ideas and programs, supported enthusiastically by benevolent motives and moral ideologies ("conscience"), became failures as they deteriorated into political, economic, and administrative "conveniences."

Rothman spares neither the reformers nor the practitioners, but his admonitions to the reformers are particularly sobering. Their mistakes included a reluctance to question the adequacy of their designs and to modify them where warranted, as well as a failure to accommodate the social and political context of their changes. For these innovators, enthusiasm replaced rational planning and self-examination. As a result, we know remarkably little about the history and assumptions of the major practices and policies of social control and even less about why they failed.

Over a relatively short period spanning approximately thirty years, correctional classification is an important example of a practice that has been endorsed zealously and rapidly. At the same time, classification practices show serious signs of deteriorating into the disorganization and confusion that Rothman included under the rubric of "convenience."

It would indeed appear that correctional classification has been received enthusiastically. The research presented in this book, for example, was conducted largely in response to a growing demand for sound methods for classifying prison populations. At the outset, the rationale for this study was a recognition both of rapid increases in the size of these populations and of shifts in

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their composition (Bureau of Justice Statistics 1985). Adult male inmate populations seemed to have become more violent (Irwin 1980), and the increasing proportion of mentally ill or seriously troubled inmates was causing concern for policy makers and practitioners alike (Cohen 1985; McCarthy 1985). In addition, important court decisions had mandated improved, uniformly applied systems of classification as a means of reducing prison problems (e.g., Laaman v. Helgemoe, 347 F. Supp. 269, 275 [1977]; Palmagiano v. Garrahy, 443 F. Supp. 956 [1977]; Pugh v. Locke, 406 F. Supp. 318 [1977]).

At the same time, several classification systems had been developed for managing correctional facilities. Development was proceeding in two directions: (1) toward the construction of actuarial risk-assessment measures, which grouped inmates into categories relevant to security considerations (see Austin 1983;  Kane and Saylor 1983; NIC 1982), and (2) toward the development of a second level of classification, psychological systems, which was advocated as a means of "internal classification." As the term implies, *internal classification* acts as a classification system within a classification system. The term includes a variety of systems that classify a correctional population which has already been assigned to a facility on the basis of security considerations (Levinson 1982, 1988).[1] As will be discussed shortly, internal classification systems (at least those that relied upon psychological characteristics) also had implications for treatment, adjustment to prison life, and etiological perspectives on crime causation (Levinson 1988; MacKenzie 1989; Megargee & Bohn 1979; Van Voorhis 1988).[2]

Acceptance of the internal classification systems became more obvious as several state systems began to adopt the practice of classifying inmates according to psychological criteria.[3] Meanwhile, the classification and prediction literature continued to proliferate.[4] Most importantly, empirical evaluations of the effect of internal classification in reducing dysfunctional inmate behaviors had shown favorable results (see Austin, Holien, Chan, and Baird, 1989; Bohn 1979, 1980; Levinson 1988; Quay 1984).

Simply put, the technology of correctional classification has seen greater and more rapid development in the last fifteen years than it has throughout the entire history of corrections. Indeed, the correctional historian will note that the first significant development beyond the notion of separating populations on the basis of age and gender occurred only during the last half of the nineteenth century, with the advent of the reformatory movement. At that time, progressive reformers put forward the notion of graduated

release as a supplement to indeterminant sentencing and a treatment-based approach to corrections. The idea of matching inmates to specific institutions that reflected their security needs came even later. Finally, serious consideration of psychological needs and characteristics awaited the advent of the medical model during the 1930s (Clear and Cole 1986). These psychological tests, however, were for purposes of individual diagnosis, and were not generally administered in any systematic manner. The technology for a psychologically based classification system began in the late 1940s and 1950s for juveniles and during the mid-1970s for adults (Megargee and Bohn 1979), with most of the development occurring since 1978. Risk-assessment systems, for actuarial classification of inmates according to risk, developed during the 1970s (Gottfredson and Tonry 1987).

Notwithstanding these recent and rapid advances, concern for the destructive effects of "convenience" is clearly warranted. Despite obvious reasons for optimism, other sectors of correctional practice have virtually ignored the emerging technology of classification and differential treatment (Gendreau and Ross,1987; Palmer 1992; Van Voorhis 1987), thereby continuing the archaic practice of treating offenders as if they were all alike (Warren 1971, 1976). In addition, a growing body of evidence suggests that those agencies that *have* implemented classification may have done so carelessly. Too frequently, implementation consists of the premature adoption of one system, selected (quite understandably) on the basis of cost and ease of administration. Insufficient attention to matters of reliability and validity occurs as a matter of course. Some systems have not been matched appropriately to the organizational context for their use. Moreover, the practice of "norming" systems to specific populations, a commonplace practice in mental health and education, has been virtually ignored in corrections (Wright, Clear, and Dickson 1984). Finally, even systems that were selected for their efficiency appear to be experiencing unexpected problems in the form of staff error and noncompliance (Austin 1986; MacKenzie 1989; Schneider 1990). Thus, if these systems are examined closely, signs of "convenience" abound.

In response to these concerns, the research presented in this book was designed to support continued development of classification technology through a comparative assessment of the viability of five psychological systems for classifying offender populations: (1) Megargee's Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI)-Based Criminal Classification System (Megargee and Bohn 1979), (2) Interpersonal Maturity Level (I-level) (Sullivan, Grant, and Grant

1957; Warren and Staff of the Community Treatment Project 1966 [hereafter Warren et al.]); (3) Quay's Adult Internal Management System (AIMS) (Quay 1983, 1984); (4) the Jesness Inventory Classification System (Jesness and Wedge 1983); and (5) Conceptual Level (CL) (Hunt, Butler, Noy, and Rosser 1978). For now, it is sufficient to say that each of these systems is designed to classify correctional populations into either personality-based or developmental subgroups or both. The systems are described in greater detail below and in chapter 2.

This study endeavored to address certain shortcomings in the developing technology of correctional classification—specifically, that extant research has devoted insufficient attention to issues of reliability, validity, and utility. Indeed, three of the five systems— I-level, the Jesness Inventory, and Conceptual Level—were developed for juvenile correctional systems and have not been tested sufficiently with adult offenders. In addition, existing research has been confined to the refinement of single systems, and has neglected to make any comparison among similar systems. Lacking such a comparison, prior research has not established (*a*) which systems or combination of systems could be used most effectively with adult populations, (*b*) what procedures (e.g., interview, paper-and-pencil test, staff assessment, or combination) would assure maximum efficiency without compromising psychometric precision, (*c*) how the systems compared with one another or what their commonalities and differences could tell us about the specific systems and about general classification issues pertinent to this population, or (*d*) how the systems help us to better understand the prison experience. Questions remain regarding the number of personality or behavioral types that such a system should identify (Megargee and Bohn 1979), the specific dimensions that should be represented by each personality type, and the reliability and the predictive and construct validity of each system.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Expanding on the questions posed above, the empirical issues addressed by this study include both a series of tests of the single classification systems and a comparison among systems. The research questions directed to each system are as follows:

1. *Does the psychological typology divide the inmate population into a practical number of subgroups? Is there adequate variability in the distribution of inmates across these subgroups?* Presumably, correctional

practitioners must strike a balance between cost and the amount of descriptive information available for managing inmates. On the one hand, it makes little sense to divide a population into two groups. Although such a division is likely to be ideal cost-wise, the distinction is too crude to be useful. On the other hand, classifying a population into twenty groups certainly would allow for a precise delineation of differences between individuals. The cost, however, could be prohibitive because few facilities could offer so many unique living and programmatic options. A system with the greatest heuristic and pragmatic value lies somewhere between these extremes.

2. *Do the diagnostic categories identified by each system separate inmates into psychological types that predict meaningful behavioral distinctions?* Do they correlate with dysfunctional behaviors and adverse prison experiences?

3. *Is the classification system complete or able to classify all inmates, or does it result in a large proportion of inmates who do not fit into any of the diagnostic categories?*

4. *Are the psychometric qualities of the systems adequate?* Will results across raters be consistent?[5] Do the diagnostic categories identified by one system correlate with the same or similar categories identified by another system, thereby offering evidence of the construct validity of the system?[6]

5. *Can the types be described more adequately?* Do correlations between the system and other individual characteristics, as well as types identified by other systems, suggest ways in which the types can be redefined to reflect adult offenders more meaningfully?[7]

6. *Do the answers to the above questions hold true across types of institutions?* Are results for penitentiary inmates similar to those observed for minimum-security prison camp inmates?

The remaining questions address the comparison among the classification systems:

7. *How do the systems compare in efficiency, cost of administration, and psychometric precision?*

8. *Does the comparison of systems show instances in which a specific psychological type is identified more adequately by one system than by another?* Similarly, do any "unclassified" inmates represent an important psychological, personality, or behavioral dimension that is not identified by one system but appears to be identified by another?

9. *What does the comparison teach us about general classification and assessment issues for this population?* What are the most important

classification issues for this population? How many distinctive inmate types are needed to classify adult male inmates efficiently? What are they? What methods (e.g., interview, paper-and-pencil tests, or staff observation) will achieve the most satisfactory results?

These latter questions are answered in the course of reporting results of empirical tests, summarizing and comparing those results, and integrating the research findings with the research experience.[8] The empirical approach suggested by the questions posed above is an essential rejoinder to the naive dictates of convenience. Indeed, the crucial unanswered questions regarding the viability of correctional classification—the questions that appear as we witness the shift of classification into the realm of "convenience"—are primarily rational-empirical ones. For some readers, however, the chapters that follow may seem too close to the data or too empirical. In response, we offer numerous attempts to step back, summarize, and contextualize our many findings. Finally, in the concluding chapter and the discussions interspersed throughout the book, we endeavor to identify larger policy and theoretical implications in our research findings. Indeed, the study has much to say about how inmates do time.

*Implications*

Notwithstanding the empirical nature of this research, important policy, programmatic, and theoretical implications emerge from the questions posed above. All three types of implications are examined most effectively from the perspective of a typology. From this paradigm, all of the psychological systems serve not only the pragmatic purpose of classifying correctional inmates but also the broader function of dividing criminal populations into subcategories of individuals with relatively similar personality, behavioral, or developmental attributes. The resulting "types" furnish a new tool (perhaps even a new paradigm) for understanding these offenders in a richer sense than is often the case at present (MacKenzie 1989). In particular, the relationship between the classification types and various policies, programs, and theories becomes clearer, because in many instances our policies and our theories are differentially effective or applicable. In the paradigm of a typology, then, reasoning must shift from asking whether a given policy will be effective overall to asking for which type of inmate it will be effective.

Unquestionably, this paradigm shift has not been incorporated into the correctional policy debates of the last two decades. Though these debates have been vigorous, most have focused simplistically on the relative merits of punishment versus treatment (see Cullen and Gilbert 1982). Competing policies are broad. Treatment especially is conceptualized—and often applied—in a vague, unqualified way. The policy debate seldom centers on unique types of treatment unless a specific model is thrust into prominence in the media, where image and style surpass the importance of accumulated wisdom.[9]

It would seem even more unusual for policy makers and practitioners to plan for differences among offenders. Larger policy debates have pitted treatment against punishment, fueled by research suggesting that "treatment" has not worked. But other scholars and policy makers, including some who have criticized treatment in its broadest sense, maintain that some types of treatment indeed have been effective (Palmer 1992). More important, some types of treatment have been noted to be particularly effective when they target specific types of offenders (Andrews, Zinger, Hoge, Bonta, Gendreau, & Cullen 1990; Gendreau and Ross 1987; Palmer 1992; Warren 1983). These messages are typically ignored in policymaking and administrative circles.

Even though most researchers of classification confine applications to correctional treatment and management, the typologies have the clear potential to further our understanding of the prison experience and to contribute to the prisonization literature. In this paradigm, prison inmates make differential adjustments to prison and formulate differential perceptions of prison life. This message is not new. In his book *Living in Prison*, for example, Hans Toch (1977) shows convincingly that prisons affect inmates in dramatically individual ways. Toch's work focuses primarily on the different needs of prison inmates (e.g., safety, support, freedom, activity, privacy, structure, emotional feedback, and social stimulation).

One might argue that Sykes's (1958) *Society of Captives* and Irwin's (1980) *Prisons in Turmoil* also provide a differential approach because the authors identify different roles among prison inmates. Yet a psychological paradigm that qualifies those needs and roles according to personality, behavioral, and developmental factors can only enrich our understanding of prison adaptations. As the following chapters identify additional compelling differences among prison inmates, we contribute to a growing body of knowledge that continues to question the wisdom of undifferentiated approaches to correctional populations, whether

they occur in policy, administrative, programmatic, or scholarly discourses.

Finally, psychological typologies offer crucial, though often overlooked, keys to the development of theoretical and empirical explanations of crime (MacKenzie 1989). In this vein, many theories of crime also ought to be viewed as applicable to some types of offenders and not to others (Warren and Hindelang 1979). Alternatively, typologies ought to suggest revisions and specifications to some theories (Clinard & Quinney 1986).

In a review of several sociological and psychological theories, Warren and Hindelang (1979) discuss the notion of matching theories to certain psychologically defined types of offenders (see also Warren 1976). They reach the following conclusions:

> It is important to emphasize that most etiological theories of criminal behavior are neither "right" nor "wrong." That is, many perspectives seem to explain the origins of illegal activities for some (but not all) offenders. Furthermore, there is nothing inherently incompatible between sociological and psychological theories; theories falling into each group may be useful for explaining the behavior patterns of some individuals. If our understanding of the complex processes which lead to law violation is to progress, it seems critical that we consider the likelihood that a range of theoretical approaches—sociological, psychological, and others—is required to explain the range of law-violating behavior. It seems reasonable, also, that future research on delinquents and criminals proceed, not so much with an eye toward falsifying various perspectives, but more toward ascertaining which perspectives seem best-suited to explain which patterns of illegal activities. (Warren and Hindelang 1979, 181)

In another sense, the classification systems address directly the causes and etiology of criminal behavior because the descriptions of types often link psychological factors to the dynamics of offending behavior (MacKenzie 1989). Yet, in recent decades, few studies have used classification models as measures of personality, developmental, or behavioral contributors to models of crime causation. In fact, although these inquires would appear to be inherently sensible, criminology has ignored, in a broader sense, the role of individual factors in formulating theoretical and empirical explanations of crime (Andrews and Wormith 1989).

Simply put, although the current study was conducted with applied, practical questions pertinent to the treatment and management of correctional populations, the broader implications for our

understanding of crime etiology and prisonization are important benefits of improving the technology of psychological classification. As MacKenzie observes:

> The emphasis on rehabilitation seems important to most of us. However, the most important issue, and the reason we cannot drop the development of the psychological models, is that this perspective is directed to understanding criminal behavior and the etiology of such behavior. If we drop our interest in understanding and theory, where will we be 10 or 20 years from now? An even greater fear is that our work on theoretical issues will become separate from the prison environment. We will benefit most if we continue, as we have until recently, with our close interaction between practice and theory. (MacKenzie 1989, 186)

Because our research focuses on the reliability and the construct and predictive validity of psychological-classification systems, our immediate goal is to strengthen the methodology of differentiation. The results are clearly applicable to treatment and management of prison inmates. In a broader sense, we test the contributions of psychological factors to understanding the prison experience. Less directly, we strengthen the methodological tools for understanding the broader problem of criminal behavior.

## RESEARCH SETTING AND DESIGN OVERVIEW

The study was conducted at the Federal Penitentiary and the Federal Prison Camp at Terre Haute, Indiana, between September 1986 and July 1988. The penitentiary is designated Level 4/5[10] on the Federal Bureau of Prisons (FBOP) security continuum; it also could be termed a low-maximum-security or high-medium-security facility. The prison camp is a minimum-security or Level 1 facility in the federal system.

Clearly, the penitentiary poses greater adjustment issues for the inmates incarcerated there. Although it fluctuates between Level 4 and Level 5, it evidenced the features commonly associated with a maximum-security institution. Perimeter security is a large wall with gun towers that were staffed twenty-four hours a day. The architectural style of this facility is described by Allen and Simonsen (1986) as a variation on the original Auburn model, consisting of wings containing tiers of cells (cell blocks). At the time of this study, almost all of the participants were required to live in two-man cells. A policy of controlled movement mandated that inmates could only

move at the top of the hour unless they secured a written pass from a staff member.

In contrast, inmates at the Level 1 prison camp were free to move in an unrestricted manner. There were no gun towers or secure perimeters. The building itself was relatively new, and stood in bright contrast to the traditional architecture of the penitentiary.

A total of 190 camp inmates and 179 penitentiary inmates participated. At the time of the study, inmates were assigned to institutions according to security criteria provided by the FBOP Security Designation/Custody Classification System (Kane and Saylor 1983). They were not classified further within the institution according to any system for internal classification, nor did our research provide a means for doing so.

The study employed both a pre-post and a correlational design. At intake, project staff members collected classification/diagnostic information and social, demographic, and criminal-history background data. Inmates were tracked for six months or until their release date if they were required to serve less than six months. Follow-up data consisted of official reports of disciplinary infractions or victimizations, staff assessments of prison adjustment and work performance, and inmate self-report surveys of prison experiences.

## DESCRIPTION OF THE FIVE CLASSIFICATION SYSTEMS

Chapter 2 reviews the five psychological classification systems examined in this research. At this point, it is useful to note that these systems can be subdivided into two categories: (1) typologies that are deduced from an underlying theoretical framework, or heuristic typologies, and (2) typologies that are derived from statistical observations of the data, or empirical typologies (Megargee and Bohn 1979). Megargee's MMPI-based taxonomy and Quay's AIMS typology exemplify the latter. Types emerged empirically as the result of factor or cluster analysis (e.g., Quay 1984) or as the product of sorting test results on the basis of MMPI profile configurations common to offenders (Megargee and Bohn 1979). Scales on the AIMS represent scores on personality/behavioral dimensions such as asocial aggressive, manipulative, dependent, neurotic anxious, and situational. The MMPI generates scores on such clinical dimensions as depression, hysteria, masculinity–femininity, paranoia, and psychopathic deviate, which later are organized into ten personality types based on various profile configurations. Both

systems involve the administration of paper-and-pencil instruments. AIMS forms are completed by staff members, however, and the MMPI is completed by the inmates. Both may be scored mechanically.

Contrasting heuristic typologies differ from the MMPI or the AIMS both in their analytical procedures and in their underlying assumptions. The Interpersonal Maturity Level (Sullivan, Grant, and Grant 1957; Warren et al. 1966) and the Conceptual Level (Hunt, Butler, Noy, and Rosser 1978) represent measures that have some basis in cognitive developmental theory, ego psychology, cognitive complexity, social cognition, and other such constructs. These systems classify individuals according to the structural organization of their reasoning—how they think rather than what they think. Then they order the cognitive types on a developmental hierarchy ranging from least to most complex.

The two developmental systems share the following assumptions: (*a*) the underlying logic employed at a given stage or level of development appears to be consistent across situations; although the subject (content) of actual choices may differ, the structure of the reasoning is similar; (*b*) the stages described by the respective systems follow an invariant order; (*c*) no stage can be skipped in the course of development; (*d*) each stage is more complex than the preceding one; and (*e*) each stage is based on the preceding one and prepares for the succeeding one. Instead of the checklist or the objective format used by the AIMS and the MMPI systems, these developmental methods typically require the administration of open-ended questions either with paper and pencil or by interview. Because results are obtained by clinical assessments (sometimes assisted by scoring manuals) rather than by computer, the assessment process is sometimes time-consuming (Harris 1988).

In addition to the developmental stages, both the I-level interview method (Warren et al. 1966) and the Jesness Inventory method (Jesness and Wedge 1983) of assessing I-level classify according to personality subtypes within each I-level. The interview method employs a clinical assessment process. The Jesness Inventory Classification System might be described as a combination of the heuristic and the empirical methods; it is an actuarial method of assessing I-level. This is a paper-and-pencil test developed for use with delinquents, but more recent research has produced adult norms (Jesness 1988). The Jesness Inventory yields scores on eleven trait scales (e.g., social maladjustment, manifest aggression) and nine scales that correspond to the I-level subtype scales. Although the designer of this test claims to offer a more efficient

and less costly method of assessing I-level (Jesness 1988), it is not clear that the Jesness I-level subtype definitions are entirely comparable to the interview subtype definitions, especially for adults. To name one difference, the Jesness I-level types do not incorporate the $I_5$ diagnosis, the highest level in the interview system.[11]

Figure 1-1 summarizes the differences among classification systems which have been discussed to this point. The systems differ as to: (*a*) whether they are derived empirically or theoretically and (*b*) whether they diagnose offenders according to personality, developmental criteria, or both.  As will be seen in subsequent descriptions of each system (chapter 2), the systems identify somewhat comparable types (see Warren 1971). This overlap and similarity provides a rich opportunity for testing the construct validity of each system and for acquiring a more complete understanding of some of the types.

A final distinction between developmental and personality types is worth noting. Stage-based classification systems characterize individuals according to developmental characteristics, whereas personality-based typologies characterize them according to traits. The portrayal of characteristics in developmental terms implies expectations for changes in the individuals so classified. Measures of traits, although they should not be viewed strictly as static measures, give no indication of the point to which the subject already has progressed or what he or she has yet to experience (i.e., areas of underdevelopment) (Loevinger 1966).

The types identified by each system are described in greater detail in chapter 2. Further information on the administration of each system is offered in chapter 4.
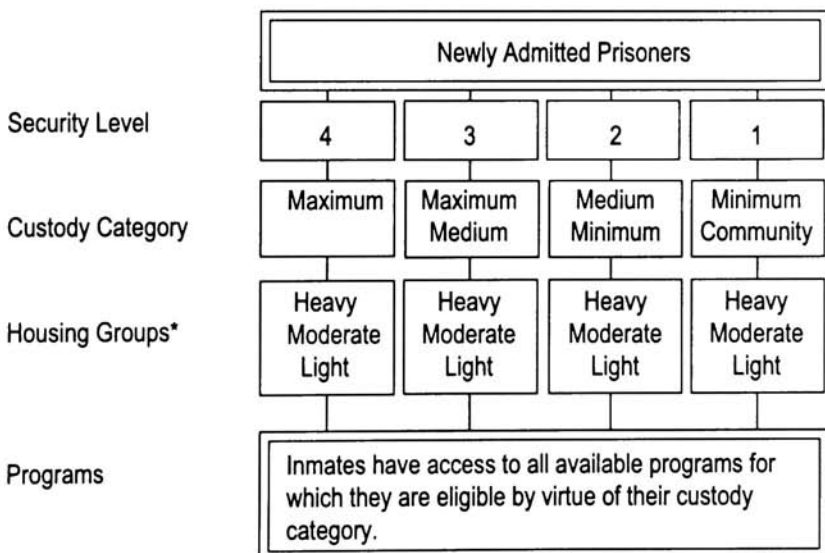
## THE ADMINISTRATIVE CONTEXT OF INTERNAL CLASSIFICATION SYSTEM

Internal classification, a fairly recent concept in corrections, is the product of a decision made within the four-tiered scheme illustrated in figure 1-2. According to this model, the first classification decision is predicated on security considerations. This decision is standard procedure for adult male inmates (Clements 1981; Levinson 1982, 1988), who are assigned to maximum-, medium-, or minimum-security facilities shortly after sentencing. This decision is increasingly facilitated by security-based or risk-assessment classification instruments that operationalize "risk" according to strong empirical predictors such as severity of offense, prior record, age at first arrest, drug and alcohol history, prior prison escapes or probation/parole revocations, and history of violent behavior (see

## Figure 1-1: Overview of Classification Systems

| | Characteristic of the System | | | |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| | Empirical | Theoretical | Developmental | Personality |
| Megargee MMPI | Yes | No | No | Yes |
| Quay AIMS | Yes | No | No | Yes |
| Conceptual Level | No | Yes | Yes | No |
| I-Level Interview | No | Yes | Yes | Yes |
| Jesness I-Level | Yes | Yes | Yes | Yes |

## Figure 1-2: Classification Flow Chart/Continuum

| | Newly Admitted Prisoners | | | |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Security Level | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| Custody Category | Maximum | Maximum Medium | Medium Minimum | Minimum Community |
| Housing Groups* | Heavy Moderate Light | Heavy Moderate Light | Heavy Moderate Light | Heavy Moderate Light |
| Programs | Inmates have access to all available programs for which they are eligible by virtue of their custody category. | | | |

* Point of internal classification
Source: Levinson 1988

Andrews 1982; Bonta and Motiuk 1985; Gottfredson, Wilkins, and Hoffman 1978; Hoffman and Beck 1985; Hoffman and Stone-Meierhoefer 1979; Kane and Saylor 1983; NIC 1982).

Internal classification systems represent a second classification decision that endeavors to classify members of correctional populations after the security-based assignment to a given institution or community setting. Although this concept is new for adult corrections, it has long been common practice with juveniles. These systems classify according to either psychological criteria or needs-based criteria; it is the psychological systems that are of interest to this research. Numerous agencies throughout the United States and Canada have employed psychological systems such as I-level (Harris 1988), Conceptual Level (Reitsma-Street and Leschied 1988), Moral Development (Kohlberg, Colby, Gibbs, Speicher-Dubin, and Candee 1978), and Quay's Behavioral Classification System (Quay and Parsons 1972) in order to assign individuals to housing units or to match them to appropriate treatment options.

The rationale for such a process with adults is that correctional inmates, even after separation into different security levels, are not all alike. They can still be differentiated according to predatory versus dependent behaviors, differential levels of stress and adjustment, and other factors (Megargee and Bohn 1979; Quay 1984; Van Voorhis 1988). Furthermore, rates of serious incidents have decreased in institutions that separate inmates according to these criteria (see Austin, Holien, Chan, and Baird, 1989; Bohn 1979, 1980; Levinson 1988; Quay 1984). In addition, some sources have noted that internal classification systems could also be useful for treatment purposes (Megargee and Bohn 1979); among adults, however, these applications are underutilized, largely because treatment is underutilized. This latter point is unfortunate, because (as will be explained shortly) this research has uncovered numerous findings relevant to the issue of correctional treatment.

## ORGANIZATION OF THE BOOK

The research goals outlined for this study are addressed in the eight chapters that follow. Chapter summaries are structured to review each chapter in the context of research goals pertinent to that chapter. The chapter on methodology, for example, describes standard research issues of measurement, analysis decisions, and design; but some of these concerns, such as the reliability of the classification measures, are also research goals.

Chapter 2 offers descriptions of each of the five classification systems and reviews the psychological attributes of each of the types identified by each system. Chapter 3 reviews previous research and further sets the context for the present study. Chapter 4 discusses the methodology of this study. The samples are described in chapter 5, along with a discussion of the distribution of subjects across each typology in each type of institution. Chapter 6 is devoted to the issue of construct validity; the types identified by one system are compared to similarly identified types on the other systems. This chapter reports results of bivariate and clustering analyses of the data.

Chapter 7 correlates the classification types with official and self-report measures of institutional disciplinary infractions and reports of victimizations. Chapter 8 explores relationships between the types and treatment-related measures of adjustment to prison, such as stress, coping, treatment utilization, fear of prison life, and staff assessments of adjustment to prison. Bivariate and multivariate procedures of analysis are conducted in chapters 6, 7, and 8. Chapter 9 summarizes the research issues as they address each of the research questions posed earlier in this chapter. Chapter 9 also provides a review of each system and a profile of each type, which incorporates our findings. In this chapter we also integrate field experiences with research findings and offer recommendations to practitioners. Policy and research implications are offered in Chapter 10.