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**Community college faculty members' attitudes toward
correctional inmates : an attempt to increase faculty participation
in off-campus instruction at correctional institutions**

Arthur Howard Friedman
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COMMUNITY COLLEGE FACULTY MEMBERS' ATTITUDES
TOWARD CORRECTIONAL INMATES: AN ATTEMPT TO
INCREASE FACULTY PARTICIPATION IN OFF-CAMPUS
INSTRUCTION AT CORRECTIONAL INSTITUTIONS.

THE COLLEGE OF WILLIAM AND MARY IN VIRGINIA,
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COMMUNITY COLLEGE FACULTY MEMBERS' ATTITUDES TOWARD CORRECTIONAL INMATES:
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INSTRUCTION AT CORRECTIONAL INSTITUTIONS

A Dissertation Presented to the
Faculty of the School of Education
The College of William and Mary

In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree of
Doctor of Education

by
Arthur H. Friedman
July, 1978



Approval Sheet

We the undersigned do certify that we have read this dissertation and that in our individual opinions it is acceptable in both scope and quality for the degree of Doctor of Education.

Accepted July 3, 1978 by


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COMMUNITY COLLEGE FACULTY MEMBERS' ATTITUDES TOWARD CORRECTIONAL INMATES:
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INSTRUCTION AT CORRECTIONAL INSTITUTIONS

Chapter 1

Introduction

Purpose

The purpose of this study is to investigate the attitudes of community college faculty members toward students who are incarcerated in correctional institutions with the goal of gaining the participation of more full-time faculty in off-campus programs at these institutions. The study examines the changes that occur in these attitudes as the result of an orientation program designed to familiarize faculty members with the types of students and the environment they would encounter at correctional institutions.

Higher educational programs in correctional institutions are currently undergoing a period of growth and expansion (Bertholf, 1974; McCollum, Note 1). Past efforts have indicated that the use of staff members from an institution's education department to provide instructional services to inmates at the college level cannot be justified by the criteria of cost or educational growth (Beto, 1970). Corrections officials charged with developing college courses and programs have turned to established institutions of higher education. The public community college--with its mission of providing service to the community, its commitment to continuing education, its capacity to offer developmental programs and off-campus instruction, its policies of low tuition and the open door, and its stress upon flexibility and accessibility--offers a seemingly natural choice. The relationship between

correctional institutions and community colleges is further enhanced by present efforts on the part of correctional administrators to develop effective community-based rehabilitation programs (Cronin, Abram, Whitson, & Reinhart, 1976; Feldman, 1975; McCreary & McCreary, 1975).

Community college administrators who initiate, implement, and coordinate college offerings at correctional institutions have faced problems in the recruitment of instructors for such assignments (Long, 1973). If administrators are able to gain insight into faculty attitudes toward inmates and faculty willingness to teach in correctional settings, as well as ways in which these attitudes can be influenced, they will be better able to meet their responsibilities in the community college-correctional institution partnership.

Statement of Specific Problems

The study seeks information relevant to the following questions:

1. What are the attitudes of community college faculty members toward correctional inmates and toward involvement in the instructional services provided to correctional institutions?
2. Are attitudes related to a faculty member's sex, race, age, academic rank, years teaching at the community college and postsecondary levels, experience teaching in a prison environment, and previous contact with correctional inmates?

3. Do faculty attitudes differ among institutions?
4. Can attitudes be favorably influenced by an orientation program designed to provide information about and contact with the correctional student and the institutional climate?

Definition of Terms

The following definitions are used in the study:

1. Attitude: is "an organized predisposition to think, feel, perceive, and behave toward a referent or cognitive object...an enduring structure of beliefs that predisposes the individual to behave selectively toward attitude referents" (Kerlinger, 1973, p. 495). Operationally, attitude is defined as a score on a semantic differential test and a Likert rating scale.
2. Community college: refers to
a two-year public institution of higher education established as part of a statewide system of community colleges...operated under policies established by the State Board for Community Colleges and [the local] Community College Board...financed primarily by State funds, supplemented by contributions from supporting counties and cities and by student tuition.
(John Tyler Community College Catalog, 1977-1978, p. 10)

3. Community-based corrections: is the movement toward the maximum effort in treating correctional inmates in a non-penal or minimally penal setting as close to the community as possible (Feldman, 1975).
4. Correctional inmate: is an individual who is incarcerated against his or her will in a correctional institution for having been convicted in a court of law of a felony or misdemeanor. The term is used synonymously with "prisoner" and "criminal offender."
5. Correctional institution: refers to a unit of the Federal Bureau of Prisons or a unit of a state's system of prisons.
6. Disadvantaged: refers to those persons who are deficient academically, socioeconomically, or economically (Altfest, 1975).
7. Faculty member: refers to an individual holding academic rank whose primary tasks are classified contractually as instructional rather than administrative, and who is employed by an institution of higher education on a full-time basis; that is, given a 9- or 10-month contract and a "full" teaching workload.
8. Handicapped: refers to those person who are "mentally retarded, hard of hearing, deaf, speech impaired, visually handicapped, seriously emotionally disturbed, orthopedically impaired, other health impaired, or having learning disabilities" (Federal Register, December 30, 1976, p. 56977).
9. Off-campus course: is an academic offering by an institution of higher education that takes place at a location other than

the main campus or permanent branch campuses of that institution.

10. Orientation program: refers to a structured set of materials and activities designed to present informational data and to provide contact between participants and the individuals and the environment of concern. For the study, it specifically means the set of experiences detailed in the Procedures section of Chapter 3 (pp. 90-92).

Need for the Study

In order to adequately support the need for the study, it is essential to first justify college and university programs for criminal offenders. MacCormick (1931), who surveyed the educational programs in American prisons in the late 1920's and discovered a severe lack of thoroughness and consistency, wrote

If we believe in the beneficial effect of education on man in general we must believe in it for this particular group [inmates] which differs less than the layman thinks from the ordinary run of humanity. If on no other grounds than a general resolve to offer educational opportunities to undereducated persons wherever they may be found, we recognize that our penal population constitutes a proper field for educational effort. In brief, we are not ready to make its efficacy in turning men from crime the only criterion in judging the value of education for prisoners. (p. 3)

More recently, McCollum (Note 1), an education administrator at the Bureau of Prisons of the United States Department of Justice, perceived the issues involved as follows:

Education continues to be criticized widely: sometimes fairly and sometimes unfairly. Many critics of education want it to make up for all the deficiencies in the family, in the neighborhood, and society in general. Education and, of course, correctional education can make a contribution to an individual's socialization, but it cannot be expected to make up for life-long and complex economic, social, physical and emotional disadvantages and disabilities of so many of the students with whom we come in contact. Despite all these considerations, correctional educators are in a stronger position than ever before to make a significant contribution to helping prisoner/students identify realistic goals and to develop the necessary coping skills to achieve them. (pp. 1-2)

Peterson (1976a) foresaw serious negative consequences if college programs in correctional institutions were decreased or eliminated:

Although we may lack the instruments to predict accurately the impact of education, apart from other personality and social factors, on future success, it is known that education is highly correlated with success of people in the general

population. Perhaps more to the point, it is obvious that to the extent that offenders cannot use knowledge and skills obtained from the normal culture to cope within normal society, they will use knowledge and skills obtained from deviant cultures to cope in whatever way they can.

So far as we deny education to meet the unique educational needs of the individual, we tend to limit the nature and extent of the options offenders can use to live and work acceptably in society. By not meeting educational needs in the best ways possible, society will continue to assure, through default, continued commission of crime and high recidivism rates. (p. 14)

Perhaps the most convincing argument in favor of higher education for correctional inmates was that presented by Russell (1976) in the form of a rhetorical question: "How do you measure the real benefit of preventing just one human being from being reincarcerated, or how do you quantify the contributions of advanced education to the personal and civic life of an individual?" (p. 35).

The statements above may be enhanced by available statistics. Ninety-five percent of all persons confined in correctional institutions, estimated to be 400,000 daily, will eventually be released, and many will actively seek employment opportunities (McCollum, 1973; The Policy Institute, 1973). In addition, despite the fact that on an overall basis correctional

inmates have received less formal education than the general population, only 13 percent of federal offenders tested at below-average intelligence (McCollum, Note 2). Also, studies showed that the majority of prisoners believed that their lack of education contributed to the commission of the crime for which they were incarcerated (Bertholf, 1974). Furthermore, Newsweek of August 25, 1975, estimated the cost of incarceration to be \$10,000 per inmate per year in a traditional prison ("Big Changes in Prisons: Punish Not Reform," 1975).

Based upon data as of January 1, 1977, both crime and prison populations are increasing. Investigators attributed the increases to two principal factors: the population with the greatest risk of incarceration and the level of unemployment associated with that group. Federal statistics revealed that individuals between the ages of 20 and 34 were most likely to commit crimes and be sentenced to prison terms. The population in this age range has increased approximately 48 percent in the United States during the years from 1961-1976, and continued growth was expected until 1985. Unemployment, particularly for those in the age group mentioned above, was considered another primary determinant of imprisonment. According to a report of the Congressional Budget Office early in 1977, federal imprisonment figures and employment statistics have traditionally followed similar patterns (Wilson, 1977). Such statistics as these become critical to this investigation when one recognizes that the age group most likely to be incarcerated corresponds to the age

group of the majority of students enrolled in community colleges (Bushnell, 1973) and that education is widely recognized as a determinant of job opportunities (Mandell, 1975).

In order to fully present the current climate of the correctional setting with specific regard to issues affecting college programs, several trends and areas of potential change seem relevant. The first may be termed "voluntarism" (McCollum, Note 1, p. 7). N. Morris (1974), dean of the University of Chicago Law School, criminologist, and an outspoken proponent of structural and organizational reform in prisons, described the major problem of correctional rehabilitation programs as follows:

We take prisoners through reception and diagnostic classification processes and compulsorily place them in such treatment programs as we have available. We tell them what will work for them and sometimes solicit their acceptance of these programs. But their acceptance is fatally compromised by their clear realization that given indefiniteness of release, given parole and other early release discretions held by correctional authorities, their hope of an earlier freedom is inexorably related to their apparent serious involvement in treatment programs. In one sense they hold the key to their prison, but it is a bogus key. They must present a facade of being involved in their own "rehabilitation" and building that facade may preclude the reality of reformatory effort. (p. 17)

N. Morris (1974) suggested the following solution:

Education, vocational training, counseling, and group therapy should continue to be provided but on an entirely voluntary basis. There should be no suggestion that a prisoner's release may be accelerated because of participation in such programs, nor that it might be delayed or postponed because of failure to participate. Nor in reality should these factors have anything to do with the length of sentence served. The approach adopted should in no way be coercive but simply facilitative. Rehabilitation purposes must become collateral to prison purposes. (pp. 17-18)

N. Morris (1974) added that it was not coercive to require inmate exposure to educational, vocational, or psychological training programs up to the point where they are adequately prepared to decide upon further participation.

The goals of the Federal Bureau of Prisons have shifted toward a philosophy of voluntary rehabilitation, with state correctional institutions expected to follow gradually. Inherent in achieving these aims are changes in sentencing procedures, prison programs, and release procedures--each of which generally stirs considerable debate and controversy in its own right ("Big Change in Prisons: Punish Not Reform," 1975; N. Morris, 1974).

McCollum (Note 1) saw no negative consequences of voluntarism upon higher education programs in prisons. She stated, "As I view this change

it means more and higher quality education and training programs in all correctional facilities as we try to meet the genuine interest and needs of prison populations" (p. 7).

The traditional and continuing debate among those concerned with correctional policies--punishment versus rehabilitation--has, especially in recent years, often resulted in efforts to quantitatively measure the success of particular prison programs. Most recently, investigators have sought to determine the relationship between a particular program and recidivism. In one of the most widely quoted of such studies, Martinson (1974) concluded that "almost nothing works."

McCollum (Note 3) warned, however, against using recidivism as the criterion for measuring success. She stated,

The total prison experience coupled with a multitude of such other factors as a person's life history and the quality of that life at the time of incarceration are much more relevant. Additionally, post-release family and other socio-economic connections, if any, access to opportunity systems, mental and physical health and a host of other variables contribute substantially to an individual's behavior on release from incarceration....The question of "what works" is a very complicated one. To suggest that any one effort alone "works" is as incorrect as the suggestion that nothing works. (pp. 2-3)

Arguments for the continued existence of college programs for correctional inmates reveal a primary factor impeding these programs from

achieving maximum effectiveness--the lack of data from systematic and in-depth research. More specifically, only six doctoral dissertations were written on topics involving corrections or correctional education between 1940 and 1968 (The Policy Institute, 1973). Roberts (1973) stated

It is being too negativistic, perhaps, to indicate there has been no valid research in the field of correctional education. But this negativism is a reaction to the fact that it has long been assumed that vocational training and remedial education play a vital role in the reintegration of inmates into the free community. With few exceptions, however, such assumptions have received only the most cursory of tests. Moreover, those studies that have attempted to establish the relationship between academic and vocational participation and postrelease behavior provide only tentative, if not contradictory, conclusions. (p. 366)

Further, approaches to the study of college and university participation in the education of criminal offenders have demonstrated that correctional research remains in the rudimentary stage. The studies conducted in recent years have generally been concerned with planning programs, case studies, and initial evaluations of existing programs. An example is NewGate, a model program of higher education for correctional inmates, consisting of an in-prison phase, a transitional phase, and a release phase. Developed by Thomas E. Gaddis and funded through the Office of Employment Opportunities, the NewGate project began at Oregon State Penitentiary in

1967 (Herron & Muir, 1974). Despite the impressive growth of NewGate programs, Herron and Muir (1974), in a final report, admitted

A major drawback to effectively presenting valid information on the NewGate program is that it has been inadequately researched. The only evaluations of NewGate projects have been after-the-fact and based on the effectiveness of the Project achieving its stated goals--goals that were never clear. (p. 27)

In spite of almost universal recognition of the significance of instructors' attitudes, the studies of college prison programs that included faculty input focused on post-teaching assessments, rather than an examination of attitudes prior to performance (Salmony, 1974; Tiller, 1974). In order to provide instructors qualified and suited to operate in a correctional environment, an investigation of faculty attitudes appears to be essential, as is an examination of ways in which these attitudes can be modified.

Reporting the findings of the Education Commission of the States' Correctional Education Project, McNamara (1976) reached a similar conclusion in regard to members of a correctional institution's educational staff:

Some attempts should be made to measure an educator's commitment to improving educational competencies of correctional clients. If measurable, this characteristic should be included in entry level job specifications and in promotions of existing correctional educators. (p. 11)

In a personal communication to this investigator dated June 16, 1977, Dr. T. A. Ryan of the School of Criminal Justice at the University of South Carolina acknowledged that "relatively little has been done in the area of assessing attitudes of educators to offender-students. The need for systematically planned and implemented research to determine attitudes and values of criminal justice educators is critical."

Finally, the Correctional Education Advisory Committee of the Education Commission of the States, in addressing the major problems of education for inmates, pointed out that

public attitudes often are based on insufficient information or selective information filtered through media systems that focus on the more sensational activities and occurrences in the field of corrections. Yet public attitudes and perceptions play a key role in influencing public policy in this field. (Peterson, 1976a, p. 15)

A similar analysis may be applied to faculty attitudes and successful faculty participation in correctional education, thus showing the need to examine instructor attitudes and ways to increase faculty participation in off-campus instruction at correctional institutions.

Rationale

As the coordinator of and an instructor in the Associate of Applied Science in Business Management program offered by John Tyler Community College at the Petersburg (Virginia) Federal Correctional Institution, this investigator fears that the attainments of the business program and the

success of future programs are constrained by the hesitancy or refusal of many faculty members to participate in off-campus programs at correctional institutions. This study grew out of an awareness of the need to modify faculty attitudes toward correctional inmates and toward involvement in the college's services to incarcerated students. Observing the positive reactions of those instructors who have taught courses in the business program and those who have visited the institution for meetings or special events, such as graduation exercises, raised the question of whether an orientation program, involving direct faculty contact with inmates and the correctional setting, might produce significant differences, on measurable dimensions, in attitudes toward correctional inmates.

Stern and Keislar, who consulted over 5,000 references in their massive study of teacher attitudes in 1975, later enumerated the two most significant points derived from their research review as follows:

"Teacher attitudes do make a difference in the teaching-learning process; attitudes can be altered, although certain attitudes are more resistant to modification than others" (1977, p. 74).

More specific to the subject of this study, Johnson (1972) stated that successful implementation of the curriculum in a correctional institution was totally dependent upon the competency and empathy of instructors. Johnson (1972) further pointed out that the selection of instructors was most important because these persons must understand the unique characteristics of incarcerated adults in order to foster motivation among the students. Thus, while attitudes were considered a major factor in teacher

performance at all educational levels, they assumed even more significance when the students involved possessed special characteristics (Skrtic, Sigler, & Lazar, 1973; Stern & Keislar, 1975).

Furthermore, faculty selection in college prison programs appeared to have been primarily based on availability rather than philosophy and experience with the correctional climate (Long, 1973). In addition, past orientation programs generally were reported to consist of a brief tour of institutional facilities and a discussion of institutional rules (Lewis & Fickes, 1976; Nuttall, 1975).

The decision to concentrate on off-campus programs opposes the views of some investigators of community college correctional programs. Trent and Ragsdale (1976), for example, stated that

the restrictive environment and stifling social structure of traditional correctional institutions, their outmoded and archaic architecture, and the cost of staffing and equipment combine to effectively preclude the establishment of any effective internal prison education system. Real education can best be achieved through study release programs which allow the inmate to attend college during the day. (p. 47)

Such a conclusion, however, failed to adequately consider the problems posed by study release programs. For example, relatively few inmates attain community or minimum custody status in medium and maximum security institutions with sufficient time remaining on their sentences to permit participation in study release programs. In addition, correctional inmates have

not been universally welcomed at institutions of higher education (Cronin, Abram, Whitson, & Reinhart, 1976), and, thus, the growth of study release programs has been slow (Emmert, 1976).

Another consideration in designing a study pertaining to college programs in prisons was the relationship of these programs with the trend toward community-based corrections (Feldman, 1975). Coffey (1975) stated five reasons for the use of community correctional programs rather than institutionalization:

The first reason is that institutionalization may have a deleterious effect upon a person committed to a correctional facility. A second reason for the use of community correctional programs is the apparent success of some of these programs. The third reason for placing the criminal law violator in a community correctional program is to help the family function as a unit. A fourth argument for the use of community corrections involves economics. The fifth reason for the use of community corrections relates to the social behavioral theory that reintegrating the offender in the community may be more successful than removing him.

While community-based corrections presents interesting possibilities, there has been insufficient time to adequately evaluate its success. In addition, these programs would appear to be limited by problems similar to those of study release programs, namely securing custody requirements and achieving community acceptance, particularly for those who have committed

serious crimes. If these impediments are overcome, the community college could potentially assume a vital role in community-based corrections, serving offenders in the in-prison, transition, and release stages of their sentences.

The orientation program used in the study was designed to emphasize faculty-inmate interaction in both college and correctional environments. Printed materials and informal group discussions supplemented the more formal aspects of the program. In order to provide more information and make the results more generalizable, an effort was made to determine the attitudes toward correctional inmates of faculty members at those community colleges in Virginia where correctional services were provided. Survey questionnaires were mailed to approximately half of the target population. The sample was chosen randomly.

A principal part of the study involved the attempt to develop a standardized instrument to measure the attitudes of faculty members toward prisoners. Because the study represented an initial attempt in this area, a wide range of demographic variables were explored.

The determination of attitudes, however, was considered only as significant as the ways in which such information could be used. Hence, an integral goal of the study was to provide insight into the ways in which existing attitudes could be modified in the desired direction.

Research Hypotheses

The questions of interest in this study will be tested by the following hypotheses, restated in testable form in Chapter 3:

1. The attitudes of community college faculty members toward correctional inmates and toward teaching off-campus courses at correctional institutions will not be significantly related to their sex, race, age, academic rank, years teaching in the community college system, or years teaching at the postsecondary level.
2. The attitudes of community college faculty members toward correctional inmates and toward teaching off-campus courses at correctional institutions will be significantly related to their prior contact with correctional inmates.
3. Attitudes will not differ significantly among the faculties at the various educational institutions involved in the study.
4. Attitudes will differ significantly between those who participate in the orientation program and those who do not.

Limitations

1. Prisons and community colleges vary from state to state and within a state. There are significant differences between federal and state correctional institutions and among state institutions in such areas as degree of centralization in decision-making, scope of and emphasis upon educational programs, and availability of funds and human resources. Also, community colleges differ in statewide structure, size, socio-economic and educational levels of service areas, and

- requirements for faculty positions. Therefore, work with correctional populations typically requires intact groups and, thus, limits generalizability to other correctional education situations.
2. Although random assignment to experimental and control groups was used in an attempt to achieve internal validity, the study could only include those persons who volunteered or agreed to participate. In this way, the study inherently failed to include all members of the target population.
 3. Because the investigator was known by most faculty members at John Tyler Community College to be the coordinator of college programs at the Petersburg Federal Correctional Institution and because he conducted the orientation experiment at that institution, the feelings of faculty members toward him might have interfered with their attitudes toward inmates and toward teaching in the prison program. Thus, the possibility of respondent bias may pose a threat to the internal validity of the study.

Overview

The study is organized into five chapters. In addition to Chapter 1, in which the need for and rationale of the study are examined, there are four related chapters.

In Chapter 2, the literature related to the research problem is reviewed. In Chapter 3, the methodology, design, and procedures of the study are described. A statistical analysis of the results of the investigation is contained in Chapter 4. Finally, in Chapter 5, the conclusions of the study and recommendations for further research are stated.

Chapter 2

Review of Related Research

In Chapter 2 the literature related to the area of investigation is summarized. The related research areas include the concept of attitude, attitude theories, attitude change, attitude measurement, attitudes toward the institutionalized, handicapped, and disadvantaged, teacher competency, and college level correctional education programs. The chapter concludes with a summary of findings.

The Concept of Attitude

G. Allport (1968) stated that the concept of attitude "is probably the most distinctive and indispensable concept in contemporary psychology" (Mohsin, 1976, p. 1). Whereas psychologists, sociologists, and social psychologists have reached a general consensus that attitudes are an integral component in shaping social behavior, fundamental disagreements remain regarding the definition and nature of attitudes (Mohsin, 1976). The definition selected for use in this study has been widely accepted by social psychologists and behavioral scientists (Kerlinger, 1973, p. 495; Krech & Crutchfield, 1948, p. 152; Newcomb, 1950, pp. 118-119; Rokeach, 1968, p. 112).

Noting the diversity of viewpoints concerning the concept of attitude and the accompanying multitude of definitions, Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) stated that

many of the disagreements among investigators are questions of theory rather than definition...Theorists have usually

not made clear which aspects of an elaborate theoretical description of attitude are essential defining aspects of the concept and which are speculative arguments that require empirical verification. It follows that these definitions of attitude have no clear implications as to how attitudes are to be measured, and the result is the arbitrary selection of measurement procedures....What is needed at the present time, therefore, is a conceptual definition of attitude which specifies only the essential characteristics of the attitude concept which must be assessed in order to obtain a valid measure of attitude. (pp. 10-11)

Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) suggested further that conceptual distinctions be made between attitudes, beliefs, behavioral intentions, and behavior--concepts that were normally included as part of a broader definition of attitude. In this classification system, attitude referred to the amount of affect [feelings, evaluations] for or against some object; belief [cognition] represented the information an individual had about the object; behavioral intention [conation] referred to a person's intention to perform various behaviors; and behavior [observed overt acts] pertained to actions of an individual that were studied in their own right. The authors stated that attitude theory and research dealt with the determinants of these concepts, their interrelationships, and ways in which the variables could be changed (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975).

Attitude Theories

Contemporary attitude theories generally have their theoretical origins in one of the following: learning theories, expectancy-value theories, consistency theories, and attribution theories (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). A brief analysis of these theories and an examination of their link to attitude theory and research follows.

Learning theories. Learning theories were usually based upon two fundamental conditioning models--classical conditioning and operant conditioning. In classical conditioning, an unconditioned stimulus evoked automatically, without previous learning, one or more evident unconditioned responses. Often, when a new, conditioned stimulus, which did not originally evoke the unconditioned response, was consistently grouped with the unconditioned stimulus, it eventually began to elicit some of the response characteristics that before had been produced only by the unconditioned stimulus. When this occurred, learning was said to have taken place. In an operant conditioning situation, an organism at first emitted a variety of responses. One or more of these responses was a significant factor in the process of securing some reward or avoiding a negative situation [such as punishment]; that is, the response was reinforced. As this response increased to a high probability in respect to number of reinforced trials, learning was said to have occurred (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975).

Basing his views on the reinforcement orientation of Hull (1943) and Miller and Dollard (1941), Doob (1947) was among the first to apply

learning theory to the concept of attitude. He defined attitude as "an anticipatory or antedating implicit response which mediates the individual's overt responses" (Greenwald, Brock, & Ostrom, 1968, p. 18). According to Doob (1947), the implicit response mediated by generating stimuli to which overt responses were conditioned; in addition, attitude was drive-producing in that its presence created anxiety within the individual that could only be lessened by positively reinforced behavior. Learning theory paradigms also formed the basis of the well known attitude studies of Lott (1955), Lott and Lott (1968), Staats (1968), and Staats and Staats (1958), who refined and developed the works of earlier theorists, particularly in the area of attitude formation.

Expectancy-value theories. The best known expectancy-value theory was that of W. Edwards (1954). According to W. Edwards' model, when individuals were forced to make a behavioral decision, they would choose the alternative that had the highest "subjective expected utility"; that is, the alternative that would potentially result in the most favorable outcomes (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). Rosenberg (1956) was likely the first to develop an explicit expectancy-value model to deal with the concept of attitude. He defined attitude as a "relatively stable affective response to an object" and pointed out that an attitude "is accompanied by a cognitive structure made up of beliefs about the potentialities of that object for attaining or preventing the realization of valued states" (Rosenberg, 1956, p. 367). According to Rosenberg's

theory, the more significant an object was in achieving positively valued goals and preventing negatively valued goals, the more favorable an individual's attitude toward the object. Rosenberg's model reflected the functional approach to attitudes, in that attitude formation and modification were explained in terms of the uses that attitudes have for a person. The works of Katz (1960) and Smith, Bruner, and White (1956) are other examples of the functional approach.

Consistency theories. Consistency theories may be separated into the following categories: balance, congruity, and dissonance theories. The foremost proponent of balance theory, Heider, stated that "if the attitudes toward a person and event are similar, the event is easily ascribed to the person...a balanced configuration exists if the attitudes toward the parts of a causal unit are similar" (1946, p. 107). Thus, a state of balance existed when both entities comprising a unit were viewed by an individual as both positive or both negative. A balance also existed if one element was viewed positively and another negatively, as long as the individual did not perceive a causal relationship between the two elements. Heider (1946) further stated that a balanced state produced harmony; there was no tendency toward change. However, a state of imbalance did produce a stress toward change. If change were possible, either attitude or entity relationships would be altered. When change was not possible, the state of imbalance would generate tension (Heider, 1946, 1958). A group of attitude theorists, including Abelson and Rosenberg (1958), Cartwright and Harary (1956), and Feather (1964, 1971), have extended Heider's balance model.

In their development of the congruity principle, Osgood, Suci, and Tannenbaum (1957) explained that "whenever two signs are related by an assertion [two stimuli are combined], the mediating reaction characteristic of each shifts toward congruence with that characteristic of the other, the magnitude of the shift being inversely proportional to the intensity of the interacting reaction" (pp. 200-201). As in balance theory, the assertions involved in the congruity principle were qualitative in nature; that is, they were either associative [favors] or dissociative [opposes]. Moreover, and as opposed to balance theory, these assertions were assigned quantitative values. A state of congruence was reached when "the evaluations of two objects are equally intense [polarized] either in the same direction in the case of associative assertions, or in opposite directions in the case of dissociative assertions" (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975, p. 37). If incongruity existed, the assessments of the objects would normally change in the direction of congruity.

Following the taxonomy of the attitude concept presented in the previous section, consistency theories may be summarized to this point as follows:

In balance theory inconsistency may exist between two beliefs, two attitudes, or a belief and an attitude; in congruity theory, inconsistency always involves two attitudes. In contrast, the consistency theory that has attracted the most attention--dissonance theory--may be viewed as dealing only with the inconsistency between beliefs. (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975, p. 39).

The starting point of Festinger's (1957) theory of cognitive dissonance was the relationship between two cognitive elements. Festinger stated, "These elements refer to...the things a person knows about himself, about his behavior, and about his surroundings" (1957, p. 9). The relationships between the cognitive elements might be dissonant, consonant, or irrelevant. According to Festinger (1957),

Two elements are in a dissonant relation if, considering these two alone, the obverse of one element would follow from the other....If, considering a pair of elements, either one does follow from the other, then the relation between them is consonant....Where one cognitive element implies nothing at all concerning some other element, these two elements are irrelevant to one another. (pp. 13, 15, 11)

Festinger (1957) enumerated four fundamental situations that produce cognitive dissonance: decision-making, forced compliance, voluntary and involuntary exposure to dissonant information, and disagreements with other individuals. He pointed out that

when two cognitive elements exist in a dissonant relation, psychological tension or discomfort will motivate the person to reduce the dissonance and achieve consonance. The only way to completely eliminate the existing dissonance is to change one of the two elements involved. (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975, pp. 40-41)

Attribution theories. As mentioned previously, Heider (1946, 1958), in the evolution of the balance model, was concerned with causal attribution; more specifically, the structure of causal units. His primary question concerned "the degree to which a given action or event would be attributed to some person or object" (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975, p. 45).

Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) described Heider's attribution theory as follows:

Heider (1958) distinguished five levels of causal attribution in reference to the attribution of responsibility for the outcomes of an action: association, commission, foreseeability, intentionality and intentionality with justification. At the first level, the actor is held responsible for any effect that is in some way associated with him. At the second level, he is held responsible only when the effect is seen as a direct result of his behavior. Attribution at the third level requires that the effect was foreseeable, even if not intended. Intentionality is the prerequisite for attribution of responsibility at the next level; that is, here the actor is held responsible only for effects that he foresaw and intended. Finally, if his action is perceived as justified, that is, caused by factors beyond his control, he will be held less responsible, even though he may have intended to produce the observed effects. (pp. 45-46)

Further development of attribution theory--principally dealing with internal and external attribution, personal and impersonal causality, and the factors influencing the confidence with which dispositional attributions were made--was undertaken by Bem (1965), Jones and Davis (1965), Kelley (1967, 1971, 1972, 1973), and Steiner (1970).

Attitude Change

Much of the research on attitude in recent years has focused on attitude change. Although researchers have failed to derive an adequate and practical paradigm for inducing attitude change, a group of principles and concepts that provide guidelines for interpreting and encouraging attitude change have been developed (Mohsin, 1976). The variables that have been identified as significant include:

1. Characteristics of the source advocating change in attitude.

The credibility of the communicator, based on communicatees' perception of the communicator's expertise and trustworthiness could significantly influence attitude change in the desired direction (Aronson, Turner, & Carlsmith, 1963; Cialdini & Insko, 1969; Himmelfarb & Arazzi, 1974; Hovland, Janis, & Kelley, 1953; March & McGinnies, 1968; McGuire, 1968).

2. Inadequate justification. Threat, reward, and coercion have been shown to significantly affect attitude change. Much of the investigation in this area has focused upon the counterattitudinal behavior paradigm, where subjects were requested to argue for or play a role contrary to their initial attitude. It has been found that engagement in counterattitudinal behavior has a greater impact on attitude

change than bare exposure to attitude discrepant communication (Bostrom, Vlandis, & Rosenbaum, 1961; Cooper & Worchel, 1970; Festinger & Carlsmith, 1959; Janis & King, 1954; Scott, 1957; Wallace, 1966). However, studies have shown that if individuals felt that their freedom of behavior were being unfairly threatened, they would often resist counterattitudinal communication and perceive more attractiveness in their original opinions (Brehm, 1966; Collins & Hoyat, 1972; Worchel & Arnold, 1974).

3. Expenditure of effort. Some studies have indicated a positive relationship between the amount of effort expended in achieving a goal and the evaluation of the goal object (Aronson, 1968; Aronson & Mills, 1959).

4. Subject relevance performance expectancy. Studies have shown that performance expectancy was a determinant of actual performance. Thus, if individuals were induced to alter their self-concepts and, hence, their performance expectancies, their behavior would also reflect change (Aronson & Carlsmith, 1962).

5. Commitment and volition. Studies dealing with commitment and volition have emphasized the affective-conative element of attitude, rather than the cognitive component. Kiesler (1971) stated that "to the extent that a person is bound to some explicit and attitudinally relevant behavior, he must accept it as integral to himself, to his self-view, and other attitudes and beliefs must be accommodated accordingly" (Mohsin, 1976, p. 39). Thus, manipulation of commitment, by lessening volition

or freedom of choice, could cause attitude change (Brehm & Cohen, 1962; Kiesler, Pallak, & Kanouse, 1968; Kiesler & Sakumura, 1966).

Stern and Keislar (1975) performed an extensive investigation of the literature on attitude change, with emphasis upon the processes by which teachers' attitudes appeared to undergo modification. Their findings reflected the variables discussed above, and those related to this study were summarized as follows:

1. Attitudes are more likely to undergo change in settings where the teacher feels an atmosphere of trust and openness. Resistance to attitude change is to be expected where there is a feeling on the part of teachers that they are being exploited or manipulated without being given full information.
2. Active participation of teachers in a program where attitude change may be involved is important. Passive listening or simply reading does not create conditions of change as readily as does taking part in group discussions, role-playing, or other social interactions.
3. A teacher's attitude toward a minority student group does not become more favorable simply through a teaching assignment with students from this group. Such an assignment may make the teacher even less favorable [toward the minority group]. However, if the institution of an innovative program produced dramatic achievement gains, positive attitude change can result.

4. The attitude of teachers...might be most effectively changed through an activity involving one or two [students], especially if the relationship is an informal one, rather than oriented toward a formal task.
5. Joining a group which holds the attitudes and values sought is usually a way to foster desirable change.
6. If a change, which implies a new attitude, is proposed by a person who is admired and respected, the teacher is more likely to adopt the new attitude than if the same change is proposed by someone with little status.
7. A direct experience with the attitude object, calling for a change in one's own behavior, is more effective if the event is accompanied by an opportunity for reflection, discussion and reading about the situation with a group of others who are also concerned.
8. A teacher's attitude may change where opportunity is provided for critical self-examination of one's own beliefs and value assumptions. It is difficult to continue with glaring inconsistencies in one's own system of beliefs, attitudes, and behaviors.
9. Attitude change is usually a long process involving many types of experiences, acquisition of information, emotional reactions, and consonant changes in one's behavior. (pp. 58-59)

Because of its direct relevance to this study, special attention was placed on active participation as a means of bringing about attitude modification. The theory that direct involvement was a more effective method of inducing attitude change than passive exposure to informational data has been examined in a variety of areas of social psychology (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). The earliest and among the most widely known examples were the studies of Lewin (1947), in which certain types of group participation in decision-making processes were compared to more traditional methods of changing social behavior.

Many studies have dealt with the determinants of change brought about by active participation, as well as the degrees of this change. Amir (1969), for example, proposed that "the effects of interpersonal contact on racial prejudice depend on the relative status of the different ethnic groups, on the intimacy of contact, on the degree to which contact is pleasant or rewarding, and on the importance of the interaction" (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975, p. 411). It has also been proposed that, as discussed previously, "the persuasive effects of performing a behavior in apparent contradiction to one's own attitude or belief are mediated by the amount of reward anticipated, by the degree of commitment to the act, and by the extent to which the behavior was performed voluntarily" (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975, p. 412).

As an example in the correctional area, Sacks (1975) surveyed work-release program administrators to determine their views of the most effective ways of convincing potential employers that prison inmates could

make safe and reliable employees. Many of the work-release officers reported employer-inmate contact, at either the place of business or the correctional institution, to be a productive means of "dispelling unrealistic fears" (Sacks, 1975, p. 264) and changing attitudes.

In summary, attitude change has perhaps been the principal target of research in social psychology during recent years. However, the many investigations that have been conducted during this period have not yielded significant results if success is judged by the development of a practical program or model of attitude change. Nevertheless, studies of attitude change have provided concepts and principles that can guide future researchers in interpreting and in the more complex task of inducing attitude change.

Attitude Measurement

A logical extension of studies on attitude change is an examination of methods of attitude measurement. In order to determine the accuracy of attitude theories, measurement techniques must be employed. Using the taxonomy of Cook and Sellitz (1964) as a reference, Kiesler, Collins, and Miller (1969) derived five general categories of attitude measurement techniques:

1. Self-report measures. F. Allport and Hartman (1925) took the initial step in efforts to provide methods for the quantification of attitude measurement. Rather than directly examining the underlying attitude of their subjects by means of for-or-against replies to specific questions, they asked the subjects to select from a listing of

opinions those which best characterized their attitudes. The Allport-Hartman scale made it possible to rank order subjects into subgroups according to attitudinal dimension; it did not, however, adequately deal with the relative distances between subgroups (Kiesler, Collins, & Miller, 1969). The "first major technique of attitude measurement" (Zimbardo & Ebbeson, 1969, p. 123) was developed by Thurstone and Chave in 1929. Their equal-appearing interval scales made it possible to assign attitude scores to individuals and also "accomplished the important purpose of scaling attitude items" (Kerlinger, 1973, p. 497). A Thurstone-Chave scale was composed of a number of independent opinion statements pertaining to a certain issue. Each statement was assigned a scale value by a panel of judges, which showed the strength of an affirmative response to the item. Subjects were instructed to place a check next to those statements with which they agreed, and individual scores were determined by the mean scale value of agreement responses. The most significant characteristic of such scales was that they were constructed so that intervals between items were approximately equal along an attitudinal continuum, a major weakness of the Allport-Hartman scale (Kerlinger, 1973; Zimbardo & Ebbeson, 1969). Likert (1932) developed a technique of attitude measurement that made it possible to derive individual attitude scores without the consultation of a panel of experts. Rather than denoting agreement or disagreement with opinion statements, subjects were directed to indicate the degree of approval to all items on a five-, seven-, or nine-point scale, such as strongly agree, agree, undecided,

disagree, strongly disagree. Each point on the scale was assigned a numerical value, such as from one to five, and the scale score was the total of item scores. Statements were eliminated if they did not "empirically tap the same attitudes as the other items in the scale" (Kiesler, Collins, & Miller, 1969, p. 13); thus, item analysis was a requisite to a true Likert scale. Guttman (1950a, 1950b) formalized the scalogram or cumulative scale technique of attitude measurement. A Guttman scale was composed of a set of homogeneous statements that were designed to be unidimensional in nature. The items were ordered along a continuum of "difficulty of acceptance"; that is, the individual's acceptance of a statement implied acceptance of all items of a lesser magnitude. Respondents' scores were based upon the number of statements with which they agreed. The logic of Guttman's scalogram is analogous to that of the Stanford-Binet intelligence test, where individuals also encounter "successive hurdles" (Kerlinger, 1973; Kiesler, Collins, & Miller, 1969; Zimbardo & Ebbeson, 1969). Osgood, Suci, and Tannenbaum (1957) developed the semantic differential technique, by which attitudes were examined by focusing on the psychological meaning of a concept. The most common composition of a semantic differential has been a series of bipolar adjectives separated by seven intervals. The subjects determined where on the continuum between adjectives their feelings toward a concept or other stimuli were positioned. Studies by Osgood and his associates have revealed three principal, independent dimensions that persons used in evaluating concepts, which are referred to as evaluative, potency, and activity factors (Kerlinger, 1973; Kiesler, Collins,

& Miller, 1969; Zimbardo & Ebbeson, 1969). Coombs (1964) described a method of attitude scaling, known as the unfolding technique, in which subjects were asked to indicate which of a listing of statements best represented their views, next best, and so on (Kiesler, Collins, & Miller, 1969). Self-report measures, such as those described above, have been, by far, the most prevalent form of attitude measurement. An examination of recent studies showed that the semantic differential and Likert scales were the most widely used techniques.

2. Observation of overt behavior. Kiesler et al. (1969) reported that they were "unaware of a single instance in which investigators were able to report reliability for their behavioral measures [of attitude]" (p. 14). Cook and Selltiz (1964) commented that attempts to establish behavioral measures have fit into three general types. In the first category, subjects encountered "standardized situations that they are led to believe are unstaged, in which they believe that their behavior will have consequences, and in which the attitudinal object is represented in some way other than by the actual presence of a member of the object class" (Kiesler, Collins, & Miller, 1969, p. 18). Examples of this category were the tests conducted by Milgram (1963, 1964, 1965), in which subjects were told that they were administering electric shocks to individuals in another room. The differences in number or intensity of shocks delivered to racial, ethnic, or religious groups were used as an index of attitudes toward these groups. In the second behavioral approach, subjects were presented with an admittedly staged situation and asked to play a role. An example was the

study by Stanton and Litwak (1955) in which the investigators attempted to predict success as a foster parent by having foster parents assume roles in stressful situations. In the third category, used primarily in examining attitudes toward social groups, the subjects were asked to make "sociometric choices among individuals, some of whom are members of the object group, preferably under circumstances that lead the participants to believe that such choices will have consequences in the form of subsequent assignment in some situation" (Kiesler, Collins, & Miller, 1969, p. 19). In direct contrast to the increasingly sophisticated methodological efforts in the area of self-report measures of attitude, behavioral measures remain relatively crude. Even in clinical psychology, for example, where behavior is the focus of attention, experimenters have generally relied upon self-reporting or the reports of observers for information about subject performance.

3. Reaction to or interpretation of partially structured stimuli.

The unique characteristic of attitude measurement techniques of this type has been that "while there may be no attempt to disguise the reference to the attitudinal object, the subject is not asked to state his own actions directly; he is ostensibly describing a scene, a character, or the behavior of a third person" (Cook & Sellitz, 1964, p. 47). Kiesler et al. (1969) reported that such projective techniques have seldom been used to measure attitudes.

4. Performance on "objective" tasks. In studies of this type, the respondent was given "specific tasks to be performed; they are presented

as tests of information or ability, or simply as jobs that need to be done" (Cook & Sellitz, 1964, p. 50). The inherent assumption was that "performance may be influenced by attitude and that a systematic bias in performance reflects the influence of attitude" (Cook & Sellitz, 1964, p. 50). Hammond's (1948) error-choice technique, Cook's plausibility technique (Brigham & Cook, 1970; Waly & Cook, 1965), and the bogus pipeline technique of Jones and Sigall (1971) were examples of investigation in this category (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975).

5. Physiological reactions. Tests in this area have attempted to measure attitude by measuring bodily responses to stimuli in an experimental setting. The studies of galvanic skin response by Rankin and Campbell (1955), vascular constriction in the finger by Westie and DeFleur (1959), and pupil dilation (Hess, 1967; Hess & Polt, 1960; Woodmansee, 1965) used the physiological approach.

The latter three measurement techniques have in common a limited usage in attitude research. While there are those who envision significant possibilities in one or more of these methods, experimentation thus far has shown that the techniques are clearly at the rudimentary level.

In summary, despite impressive gains in research on attitude change, it is obvious that "existing research leaves much to be desired, both from the standpoint of methodological rigor and from the standpoint of neglected problem areas" (Insko, 1967, p. 345). Briefly stated, these problem areas include: reluctance on the part of investigators, despite uncertainty about pretest interactions, to use posttest-only designs; the use of sample

sizes that are too small to make posttest scores statistically reliable; the obvious influence of experimenter bias in many studies; and the failure of investigators to use the most sophisticated means of statistical analysis and psychometric techniques (Insko, 1967).

Attitudes Toward the Institutionalized, Handicapped, Disadvantaged

The literature on attitudes toward those incarcerated in correctional institutions was sparse; most often these individuals were included in studies of the effects of institutionalization, with the major emphasis placed upon current or former patients of mental institutions (Goffman, 1961, 1963). Other studies of individual or group attitudes toward those who had been institutionalized revealed that public reactions were optimistic and enlightened, but private sentiment reflected fear and apprehension (Farina & Ring, 1965; Nunnally, 1961).

Nunnally's (1961) study, which used a series of agree-disagree statements to assess the public's information about mental illness and a semantic differential to measure attitudes, showed that, despite an overall positive portrayal on the information questionnaire, subjects of all ages and educational backgrounds tended to fear and distrust the mentally ill. The general approach of Farina and his associates was to devise a two-person experimental task in which the subjects believed their partner had formerly been institutionalized. The studies showed that, despite high levels of performance, the "ex-mental patient" was viewed as incompetent and unreliable in an evaluation by co-workers.

Goffman (1963) categorized three principal groups of qualities that cause persons to be "stigmatized" in the ways described above: physical

anomalies; tribal [race, religion, nationality] features, and characterological faults [such as imprisonment and institutionalization]. Goffman (1963) stated that the primary concern of stigmatized persons was interpersonal acceptance; that is, coping with the underlying negative attitudes of many with whom they must come in contact.

Martin and Webster (1971), who studied the social consequences of prison conviction in England, derived the following propositions:

1. A man's risk of reconviction is more closely related to his social position [integration in family life, professional or occupational ties, involvement in recreational and community activities] than to the treatment prescribed by the courts.
2. The social consequences of conviction are directly related to the quality of the offender's previous life.
3. A man's chances of reconviction are directly related to the quality of the personal relationships in his life.
4. The number of difficulties a man may be expected to overcome is closely related to the amount of support and active help that he received. Notwithstanding this, the offender who makes real efforts to help himself will make more rapid and effective progress than he who is merely helped.
5. The speed with which an offender finds a new job is closely related to his longer term success both as an employee and in other respects. (pp. 211-212)

These propositions demonstrated the important relationship of attitudes and responses of others to the offender [the social consequences of conviction] and successful reentry into society.

In an attempt "to understand just what it means psychologically to be a prisoner or a prison guard" (p. 296), Zimbardo (1976) and his associates created a prison environment in which college student volunteers were randomly assigned roles as prisoners or guards. After six days of the intended two week experiment, the investigators had to terminate the simulated prison. The majority of participants were

no longer able to clearly differentiate between role playing and self. There were dramatic changes in virtually every aspect of their behavior, thinking, and feeling. In less than a week the experience of imprisonment undid [temporarily] a lifetime of learning; human values were suspended, self-concepts were challenged and the ugliest, most base, pathological side of human nature surfaced. We were horrified because we saw some boys [guards] treat others as if they were despicable animals, taking pleasure in cruelty, while other boys [prisoners] became servile, dehumanized robots who thought only of escape, of their own survival and of their mounting hatred for the guards. (Zimbardo, 1976, p. 297)

Based upon the experiment described above, Zimbardo (1976) concluded the following about prison reform:

The relationship between the individual [who is sentenced by the courts to a prison term] and his community must be

maintained. How can a prisoner return to a dynamically changing society that most of us cannot cope with after being out of it for a number of years? There should be more community involvement...more educational opportunities to prepare them for returning to their communities as more valuable members.... Finally, the main ingredient necessary to effect any change at all in prison reform...is caring. Reform must start with people--especially people with power--caring about the well-being of others. (p. 301)

Because of the lack of information available regarding attitudes toward correctional inmates, a search of the literature on public and faculty attitudes toward the handicapped or disadvantaged--an area where much attention has been focused in recent years--was conducted. It was believed that such studies would provide insight and guidelines for the investigation.

The need to study the attitudes of those with whom the handicapped and disadvantaged come into contact was clearly reflected in the literature. Skrtic, Sigler, and Lazar (1973) stated that "negative attitudes toward handicapped children among professionals serving exceptional persons can be more harmful and crippling than any mental or physical state inherent to the exceptional individuals" (p. 1). This supported the findings of Combs (1965), who reported that "what a teacher believes...about the nature of his students will have a most important effect on how he behaves toward them" (p. 21).

Other studies have shown that attitudes or expectancies toward particular students have had an effect on the students' academic performance,

although the extent of effect was open to considerable debate (Blackwell, 1972; Chall, 1967; Gorman, Hansen, Manning, & Pine, 1972; Rosenthal & Jacobson, 1968; Sigler & Lazar, 1976). For example, in the widely quoted Pygmalion in the Classroom, Rosenthal and Jacobson (1968) stated the central theme that "one person's expectations for another's behavior could come to serve as a self-fulfilling prophecy" (p. 174). The authors explained that a teacher's verbal and non-verbal communication might change a student's "self-concept, his expectations of his own behavior and his motivation, as well as his cognitive styles and skills" (Rosenthal & Jacobson, 1968, p. 180). Rosenthal and Jacobson suggested further that "perhaps it is the teacher to whom we should direct more of our research attention" (1968, p. 181).

Stern and Keislar (1977), who examined teacher attitudes toward student attributes, stated

Most people would agree that teachers' attitudes toward students have an important impact on how students feel about themselves, as well as on the rate at which they acquire academic skills. Yet...there is very little direct evidence to demonstrate a relationship between the attitudes of teachers and the affective behavior of students. One cannot help but recognize that teachers do have emotional reactions to certain attributes of students, and that these feelings, or attitudes, predispose them to behave differentially toward them.

Among the most important student attributes which elicit differentiating teacher attitudes are race or ethnicity, socio-economic status, divergent speech patterns or language, level of ability or achievement performance, sex, and classroom behavior. This does not mean that one can study these in isolation. For example, most of the studies of attitudes toward children from poverty populations are confounded by their being members of minority ethnic groups, primarily black or Mexican-American, who also have divergent speech patterns. (Stern & Keislar, 1977, pp. 66-67)

Gottlieb and Corman (1975), in analyzing the trend toward integrating mentally retarded children into public and community school systems, looked at public attitudes toward these children. Their study disclosed four factors underlying attitudes toward mentally retarded children: "positive stereotype, segregation in the community, segregation in the classroom, and perceived physical and intellectual handicap" (Gottlieb & Corman, 1975, p. 74). In the study, Gottlieb and Corman used a questionnaire composed of 48 items--16 semantic differential items, 17 statements adapted from the questions used by Gottwald (1970), and 15 statements based on the work of Joyce (1973). The latter two types of items were structured in a Likert rating scale. The 430 subjects [from the Boston area] to whom the questionnaire was administered were approximately evenly divided by sex, educational level, and chronological age. Approximately half of the respondents had school-aged children. The investigators attempted to overcome a methodological limitation of many previous studies, where attitudes

were elicited along the single dimension of the favorability-unfavorability continuum. In an effort to achieve the comprehensive analysis of attitudes that they felt were both lacking in most existing studies and essential for valid results, the experimenters, after factor analysis and varimax rotation of the items, employed standardized factor scores as dependent measures in a four-way analysis of variance with sex, age, education, and contact as independent variables. In addition, t-tests were used to determine differences between parents with and without school-aged children (Gottlieb & Corman, 1975). In a related study, Farina, Thaw, Felner, and Hust (1976) concluded that there were unfavorable interpersonal consequences faced by the mentally retarded.

Other studies have viewed the effects of training programs and contact with handicapped and disadvantaged persons. In their widely used study of educators' attitudes toward the retarded, Efron and Efron (1967) concluded that "personal contact is probably the only way of changing the more personal and less intellectual facet of attitudes" (p. 107). The Efron study used a 70-item Likert questionnaire. The conclusion stated above was based upon findings that teachers of the mentally retarded were the only group that differed from any of the others in their acceptance of intimate contact with the retarded (Efron & Efron, 1967). More recent studies have also shown direct contact to be a more effective method of favorably changing attitudes toward the handicapped and disadvantaged than a primarily instructional format. These studies have involved students, teachers, and social workers at different levels of

training (Herr, Algozzine, & Eaves, 1976; Higgs, 1975; Prothero & Ehlers, 1974). This does not mean, however, that in-service training programs without contact cannot successfully change attitudes (Hagen, 1971; Mobley, 1976).

Although some studies have not shown contact with disabled individuals to be related to attitudes toward these persons [Coggin (1964) for example], Yaker, Block, and Youngg (1970) suggested that the apparent discrepancy resulted from the failure of investigators to adequately control for the type of contact. Despite the possible contaminating effects of this factor, the researchers concluded that "the closer the social and personal contacts with the disabled, the greater the acceptance of disabled persons in general" (Yaker, Block & Youngg, 1970, p. 87). They further pointed out that contact in a medical setting had less positive effects on subjects' attitudes than contact in either a social, personal, or employment setting.

Gottlieb (1974) analyzed studies (Begab, 1968; Cleland & Chambers, 1959; Cleland & Cochran, 1961; Kimbrell & Luckey, 1964; Sellin & Mulchahay, 1965; Vurdelja-Maglajlic & Jordan, 1974) that included a tour of a mental institution and the effects of such visits on attitude change. Gottlieb (1974) concluded:

The brief literature on attitude change indicates that exposure per se does not necessarily produce favorable attitude change toward mentally retarded people. The problem is far more complex. For example, very little information is available regarding the tour itself...Future studies will have to consider

various subject characteristics that may serve to impede or facilitate attitude change....To the extent that any general statements regarding the effects of institutional tours of attitude change are possible, it appears that attitudes toward the patient become more negative while attitudes toward the institution become more positive. This combination of attitudes toward the patients and the institution is easily interpretable if one considers that the more likely people are to believe that retarded people have a limited prognosis and should be segregated, the greater will be their belief that institutions are necessary to achieve these ends. (pp. 18, 19, 20)

Since the mid-1920's when studies of attitudes toward the disabled were first undertaken, many different measuring instruments have been employed. The major breakthrough in terms of methodological sophistication, objectivity, and reliability, occurred in 1960 when Yuker, Block, and Young first published the Attitudes Toward Disabled Persons (ATDP) scale. An examination of research in the area from the early 1960's to the middle 1970's showed that the ATDP had been widely used and shown to be valid and reliable (Block, 1974). Because no appropriate scale for measuring the attitudes of community college faculty members toward correctional inmates was discovered for use in the study, and it was realized that a scale would have to be developed, special attention was placed upon the development of the ATDP and the ways that it has been used. For example, in a

study with goals similar to this study, Donaldson and Martinson (1976) sought to modify the attitudes of teachers and teacher trainees, as measured by the ATDP, toward disabled persons through live and videotaped discussions by panels of physically disabled individuals. The results suggested that the panel discussions were effective in modifying stereotypic attitudes toward the physically disabled (Donaldson & Martinson, 1976).

In the search to find an appropriate testing instrument, many valid and reliable instruments were eliminated from consideration because of their general nature. Wrightsman (1974), in explaining his Philosophies of Human Nature (PHN) scale, for example, defined philosophies of human nature as "attitudes about people in general--attitudes that emphasize the social qualities of people. They are expectancies that people possess certain qualities and will behave in certain ways" (p. 28). Wrightsman conceptualized philosophies of human nature into six dimensions:

- (a) trustworthiness versus untrustworthiness, or the extent to which one believes that people are basically trustworthy, moral, and responsible;
- (b) strength of will and rationality versus external control and irrationality, the extent to which one believes that people have control over their own lives and understand the motives behind their behavior;
- (c) altruism versus selfishness, the extent to which one believes that people are basically unselfish and sincerely

interested in others; (d) independence versus conformity to group pressures, the extent to which one believes that a person can maintain his or her convictions in the face of pressures to conform coming from a group, from society in general, or from some authority figure; (e) complexity versus simplicity, the extent to which one believes that people are complicated and hard to understand; and (f) similarity versus variability, the extent to which one believes that people differ in their basic natures. (1974, pp. 41-45)

Other tests mentioned by Wrightsman (1974) that examined positive and negative attitudes toward people included the Cornell Anomie scale, Chefn's Anomie scale, Rosenberg's Faith-in-People scale, Wrightsman's Behavior Insight test, Edwards' Social Desirability scale, and Siegel's Manifest Hostility scale.

More specific to attitudes toward criminal offenders, Cressey (1965) enumerated four basic attitudes of society toward control of crime: "desire for retribution, desire that suffering be inflicted on apprehended criminals as a deterrent to potential criminals, protection of society from criminals, and reduction of crime rates by changing the behavior of criminals" (pp. 14-15).

With this theoretical framework in mind, Moos (1975) developed the Correctional Institutions Environment scale (CIES). Moos (1975) stated that his purpose was

to develop a way of assessing the social climates of correctional programs by asking residents and staff individually

about the usual patterns of behavior in their program. From a practical point of view we wanted to provide institutional administrators and their staff with a relatively simple means of assessing a program's social climate. The hope was that the information resulting from this type of assessment could be used for both short- and long-range staff and program development and for ongoing efforts to change and improve the program's living and working environment. (p. 36)

The CIES, which used primarily a true-false format, showed, according to Moos (1975), that there was a very large average difference between the perceptions of residents and those of the staff regarding the social environments of their programs. Moos (1975) concluded that "the evidence that increased resident-staff contact should lead to increased resident-staff agreement and greater staff influence on residents is substantial" (p. 215).

Teacher Competency

Having discussed the important relationship between instructor and student functioning, both cognitively and affectively, particularly where "special" students were involved, attention was focused on the area of teacher competency. The purpose of this facet of the literature review was to determine which characteristics of teachers were considered the most effective for instruction in general, for instructors of the disadvantaged, and for those who teach correctional inmates.

Lebo (1971) stated that available research and clinical evidence suggested that a competent teacher was characterized by the following:

(a) he can engage students in an open and trusting relationship by his capacity to listen and accept, (b) he is skilled in the use of different diagnostic, planning, facilitative, and evaluative procedures and is knowledgeable about their limitations, (c) he is experimental in his general attitude toward identifying and providing appropriate learning conditions, and (d) he can look at his own beliefs, feelings and behavior openly and can find ways to make them more constructive to himself and others. (p. 73)

Vincent (1969) named "four categories of educational procedure that appear as characteristic of quality" (p. 5): individualization, the recognition of individual differences; interpersonal regard, displaying warmth, kindness, respect, consideration, and empathy; creativity, providing opportunity for student expression; and group activity, the recognition that group interaction is an important tool in learning.

Crawford and Bradshaw (1968) asked college students to describe the most effective instructor that they had ever had. The four traits most often mentioned were: thorough knowledge of subject matter; well planned and organized lectures; enthusiastic, energetic, lively interest in teaching; and student-oriented, willing to help students. Also examining effective college instruction, the studies of Miller (1972) revealed that the most effective teacher "is a dynamic and energetic person, explains clearly, has an interesting style of presentation, seems to enjoy teaching, has a genuine interest in students, is friendly toward students,

encourages class discussion, and discusses points of view other than his own" (p. 24).

Rees (1968) described the effective teacher of deprived youth in a compensatory education program as one who:

1. Provides a richness, a depth, and a breadth to everyday learning and living experiences for the child within the compensatory program.
2. Permits him to be a child before he is a man.
3. Respects and values each child or youth for himself.
4. Imbues the child and his parents with a thirst for knowledge and an excitement in learning.
5. Removes the discriminatory label from the deprived child and replaces it with self-respect.
6. Challenges the learner where he is and leads him step by step in successful progression toward higher, self-determined aspiration levels. (p. 127)

Fantini and Weinstein (1968) warned of unchallenged acceptance of the widely followed theories that "a good teacher is a good teacher no matter whom she may have to teach" and that "the experienced teacher is an effective teacher" (p. 304). The authors suggested that difficulties in educating the disadvantaged often arise from the fact that "many teachers, and those who have trained them, have accepted one educational process as appropriate for all learners" (p. 304). Finally, Fantini and Weinstein (1968) stressed the need for instructors able to combine "strength with sensitivity" (p. 303).

Before turning to suggested characteristics of competent correctional educators, insight might be provided by examining the goals of adult basic education in corrections, as stated by Ryan and Silvern (1970):

1. Education for offenders must be community centered and must prepare the individuals for community participation.
2. Education for offenders must involve the person in his or her own fate and must help him develop a sense of trust and acceptance.
3. Education of offenders must develop learning decision-making.
4. Education of offenders must involve some risk-taking, prepare him for life outside prison, develop his ability to deal with guilt and help him learn to profit from mistakes.
5. Education of offenders must provide experience to enhance the prisoner's self-confidence.
6. Education of offenders must provide for significant and positive human relations whereby they can develop self-esteem and experience respect for others.
7. Education of offenders must take cognizance of present community problems and relate such education to the situation in the wider society, so they can learn how to cope with the problems of today's world. (pp. 62-73)

Gunnell (1973), who analyzed the characteristics and competencies of effective correctional education teachers as perceived by supervisors of education in the Federal Bureau of Prisons, concluded that

the correctional education teacher who participates in program development and improvement, produces specified grade level gains in his students, maintains a low dropout rate from his classes, brings about attitudinal changes in the students with whom he works as shown by students' institutional adjustments, assists in all program areas, and sells the program as favorable is identified as effective. Characteristics and competencies essential for effective teaching in correctional institutions include human relations skills, technical strategies and understanding of disadvantaged students. (pp. 111-112)

Gunnell (1973) also mentioned the importance of such qualities as tolerance, self-control, and creativity to the correctional instructor. Ryan et al. (1972), dealing specifically with adult basic education teachers in correctional settings, stressed the significance of such positive characteristics as enthusiasm, optimism, flexibility, and patience. Both Gunnell (1973) and Ryan et al. (1972), among other writers, pointed out that the modelling of mature, constructive behavior by correctional instructors can have an important effect in bringing about similar behavior on the part of their students. McAfee (1973) suggested that correctional educators possess a stable personality and a high degree of emotional maturity.

D. Morris (1973), president of Southern Illinois University when it offered the first direct contact college level prison education program in 1953, stated that "the teacher must be enthusiastic and have no reservations about teaching in a prison environment" (p. 26). He continued that

to a great extent, the quality of any educational program derives from the type of teachers, the number in relation to students, their emotional stability, their concern for intellectual and personal growth....It must not be overlooked that the frequent association of inmates with men of intelligence, skill, and balanced personalities is one of the recognized means of achieving desirable changes in inmate personalities. (p. 25)

The following statements by Roberts (1973) and Glaser (1964) serve to summarize and conclude this section:

The best attributes for a teacher to possess are understanding, maturity, experience, empathy, warmth, flexibility, self-confidence, a sense of humor, creativity, sound mental health, and the ability to accept and motivate persons who are of the criminal population. Understanding is based upon mutual respect. It is obtained by the instructor who approaches all students on the same basis, forgetting their past inadequacies and starting anew. (Roberts, 1973, p. 111)

Glaser (1964) agreed:

Staff influence on inmates varies directly with staff manifestation to inmates of the same types of personal behavior that cause a man to be liked in non-prison relationships.

(a) Inmates are most influenced by staff who act towards them in friendly and considerate--rather than hostile--tone and

manner. (b) Inmates are most influenced by staff who treat them with fairness and predictability. (p. 133)

College Level Correctional Education Programs

The trends toward increased college level offerings at correctional institutions and toward dependence upon institutions of higher education to provide academic resources were also reflected in the literature. More specifically, the importance of the role of the community college was emphasized.

Education in prisons became widespread after World War II. The first direct contact higher education program in a correctional setting was provided by Southern Illinois University in 1953. It was during the late 1960's, however, that college programs began to rapidly grow in state and federal correctional institutions (Herron & Muir, 1974).

Bertholf (1974) stated that "there is a trend toward increasing the scope of college level programs in correctional institutions in the United States" (p. 23). Statistics supported this statement. For example, in 1970, there were 1,075 post-secondary educational enrollments in the Federal Bureau of Prisons; in 1975, there were 9,126 enrollments (McCollum, Note 3). An American Association of Community and Junior Colleges survey showed 295 colleges and universities involved in correctional education in 1975, a far larger figure than reported in earlier surveys (Emmert, 1976). Further evidence of these trends appeared in a recommendation by the National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals in 1973 that "each [correctional institution's] education department should make optimal use of

educational programs at local colleges" (Peterson, 1976b, p. 3). Another example of continued growth of college programs at correctional institutions was the increased availability of financial assistance from non-prison sources. Examples of this assistance included veterans' educational benefits, Basic Educational Opportunity Grants (BEOG), scholarships and loans offered and insured by members of both the public and private sectors, and financial support from the Vocational Rehabilitation Administration (McCollum, Note 2).

The community college has been recognized as an important source of the educational support described above. Beto (1970) wrote,

Our experience forces us to the conclusion that agencies other than the prison itself are better qualified to offer post high school education, be it academic or vocational.

Unbound by tradition, characterized by a willingness to structure courses to meet contemporary needs, and being accessible to penal institutions--all make the American Junior College an ideal partner in the correctional education program. Our prisons would do well to explore fully the possibilities of developing cooperative arrangements with area junior colleges for securing the type of academic and vocational education which will further equip an inmate for productive living. (p. 27)

Adams and Connolly (1971) echoed these sentiments when they stated:

Many characteristics of community and junior colleges make them especially suited to conduct educational programs

for prisons....Most public institutions are "open door" so admissions problems are few. Their offerings range broadly, from the purely vocational to the primarily intellectual and esthetic. The occupational curriculums are varied and can accomodate a wide array of student needs, interests, and abilities. The colleges are relatively experienced in meeting the special requirements of disadvantaged persons. They are ubiquitous and, therefore, readily accessible to most of the nation's correctional facilities. Finally, community services and adult education are both major functions of the community college, and a cooperative prison educational program falls into either of these categories. (p. 94)

Feldman (1975), in her extensive study of trends in offender vocational and educational programs, concluded that "it seems likely that the community college will continue to assume a major responsibility in on-going and future educational programs for offenders" (p. 14).

The studies of college programs in correctional institutions that have been conducted have been primarily concerned with case studies and assessments of specific programs, the rate of recidivism of those inmates who had participated in these programs [an area of extreme complexity and difficulty], and clientele [college and correctional administrators, students] reactions and evaluations (Bertholf, 1974; D. Edwards, Fernstrom, & Thompson, 1974; Herron & Muir, 1974; Jacobs & Dana, 1975; Salmony, 1974; Shurling, 1976; Tiller, 1975; Wyman, 1975).

Marshall, Kaplan, Gans, and Kahn (1973), in their comprehensive review and evaluation of college level prison education programs in nine states, reported the following among their findings and recommendations:

The college program in prison should be addressed and equipped to meet the needs of inmates who not only have demonstrated capability and motivation, but also those with latent potential.

There should be an open-admissions policy that permits all inmates to participate who can meet and maintain certain objective performance standards. This admissions policy should be accompanied by a vigorous outreach effort to acquaint all inmates with the program and a college preparatory component that helps applicants make up academic deficiencies.

College programs in prison that provide a college atmosphere beyond the classroom and offer complimentary support services appear to be the most effective kinds of programs in fulfilling educational goals.

Persons composing the staff of prison college programs should be mainly drawn from and maintain roots in the academic community. (Peterson, 1976b, p. 9)

Summary

The concept of attitude has been recognized as an integral component in shaping human behavior. Fundamental disagreements exist, however, regarding the definition and nature of attitudes. In order to foster a more

systematic research approach to attitude studies, Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) suggested that conceptual distinctions be made between attitudes, beliefs, behavioral intentions, and behavior.

Contemporary attitude theories generally have their theoretical origins in learning theories (classical conditioning and operant conditioning), expectancy-value theories, consistency theories (balance, congruity, and dissonance theories), or attribution theories.

Much recent emphasis in attitude research has focused upon attitude change. Although investigators have failed to derive an adequate and practical paradigm for inducing attitude modification, a group of principles have been developed which point out significant variables in attitude change. Examples of these factors include the characteristics of the source advocating change in attitude, inadequate justification, expenditure of effort, subject relevant performance expectancy, and commitment and volition. Stern and Keislar (1975) performed an extensive investigation of the literature on attitude change, with emphasis upon the processes by which teachers' attitudes appeared to undergo modification. Among their findings were the following characteristics which seemed to favorably affect teacher attitudes: trust and openness, group support, respect for the source advocating change, and direct and active involvement. The latter of these has been mentioned as a crucial element by a variety of sources. Finally, widespread agreement exists regarding the need for improved research methodology in attitude studies.

Using the taxonomy of Cook and Selltiz (1964) as a reference, Kiesler, Collins, and Miller (1969) derived five general categories of attitude

measurement. The first and most widely explored of these--self-report measures--included the Thurstone-Chave equal-appearing interval scale, the Likert scale, the Guttman cumulative scale, and the semantic differential technique of Osgood, Suci, and Tannenbaum. The other categories discussed were observation of overt behavior, reaction to or interpretation of partially structured stimuli, performance on objective tasks, and physiological reactions.

Studies of the effects of individuals' institutionalization upon the public's attitudes toward them have shown private fear and distrust despite outward expressions of sympathy, optimism, and enlightenment. Goffman (1963) categorized imprisonment and institutionalization as characterological faults that caused persons to be stigmatized. Many other investigators have discovered serious social consequences of imprisonment on those who have been incarcerated.

The attitudes and expectancies of those with whom the institutionalized, handicapped, and disadvantaged come into contact have been widely shown to play significant roles in their success or failure, cognitively and affectively. Training programs involving direct contact for those who work with these persons have generally been shown to be effective; however, conclusive research in these areas is quite limited, and further study is essential if valid results are to be obtained.

A major breakthrough in testing instruments to measure attitudes toward the disabled occurred in 1960 with the publication of the Attitudes Toward Disabled Persons scale by Yuker, Block, and Youngg. A group of tests measuring positive and negative attitudes toward people in general have been developed.

Much research has been conducted in the area of teacher competency-- in general, in the instruction of the disadvantaged and the disabled, and in correctional education. Traits of effectiveness that appeared in the results of most of the studies examined included respect, openness, honesty, flexibility, concern, empathy, equity, enthusiasm, and the ability to recognize and deal with individual differences. It has been pointed out, nevertheless, that teaching success in a normal educational setting does not guarantee success in a correctional environment.

Education in prisons has experienced widespread growth since World War II. Although direct contact college prison programs began in 1953, the largest expansion of these programs has occurred from the late 1960's to the time the study was undertaken. Institutions of higher education have increasingly taken over the planning and implementation of these programs, particularly community colleges. Many investigators have reported that the community college appears ideally suited to perform the functions necessary for a comprehensive college program in a correctional setting. The studies of college programs in correctional institutions have been principally concerned with case studies, evaluation of success normally based on rates of recidivism, and user assessments.

While advancements in correctional education research have been made, the need for improved methodology and in-depth analyses remain critical. The need is perhaps most obvious in the evaluative component of correctional programs. Without appropriate evaluative and control mechanisms, it is virtually impossible to accurately judge the impact of such programs or the elements of which they are composed.

Chapter 3

Methodology

In Chapter 3 the design and methodology of the study are detailed. The sample and sampling procedures are described, the statistical hypotheses are stated, and the measurement techniques and instruments are explained.

Sample

The target population of the study was full-time, teaching faculty members at those institutions in the Virginia Community College System through which educational services to correctional institutions were provided as of the end of the 1976-1977 academic year. These institutions and their locations in the state were as follows: J. Sargeant Reynolds Community College (Richmond), John Tyler Community College (Chester), New River Community College (Dublin), Northern Virginia Community College (Woodbridge), Paul D. Camp Community College (Franklin), Southside Virginia Community College (Alberta), Thomas Nelson Community College (Hampton), Tidewater Community College (Virginia Beach), and Wytheville Community College (Wytheville). A primary intention in deriving the sample was to explore as wide a range of demographic variables as possible. In terms of sample selection, the subjects of the study were divided into three principal groups--two groups from John Tyler Community College and one group composed of faculty members from the other institutions listed above and faculty members from John Tyler not included in the first two groups.

At John Tyler Community College, on August 31, 1977, a letter from the Dean of Instruction explaining the schedule of activities for the annual Fall Orientation for Faculty and Staff (September 8 and 9, 1977) was mailed. Included in the letter was a section regarding an optional group of activities which included a tour of the Federal Correctional Institution in Petersburg, Virginia (see Appendix A for a complete copy of the section). In addition, near the conclusion of the orientation's General Session of September 8, Dale E. White, Dean of Instruction, explained the correctional activities planned and urged interested faculty members to meet with the experimenter immediately following the meeting. Twenty faculty members expressed the desire to participate. The original intention of the investigator was to randomly divide these persons into an experimental group (whose members would participate in the orientation program) and a control group (whose members would be told that volunteers had exceeded those approved by prison officials and that another tour would be arranged as soon as possible at their convenience). However, despite earlier assurance from Division Chairpersons that their faculty members who wished to participate in the correctional activities would be excused from all other duties, there were six persons who discovered that they would be unable to attend because of registration, advising, and similar obligations. Therefore, these six individuals were automatically assigned to the control group, and the remaining volunteers placed into the experimental and control groups at random. It is important to note, however, that the six faculty members who had to withdraw from the

activities were from different divisions, were both male and female, and were of different age groups and academic ranks; thus, no systematic variables involved in the withdrawals were obvious. In addition, all expressed regret in being unable to participate and the desire to tour the correctional facility in the future. Willingness to participate, therefore, had not changed. Both experimental and control groups at John Tyler intentionally consisted of instructors who had never participated in prison programs offered by the college. Approximately 35 percent of those eligible for the orientation program volunteered.

The final major group of subjects were those faculty members at John Tyler who were not part of the experimental and control groups described above and selected faculty members from the other community colleges involved in the study. In late August and early September, 1977, the investigator telephoned the Directors of Continuing Education at the other participating institutions to inform them of the study and to request that their offices serve as distribution and collection points for the questionnaire to be sent (see Appendix B for a listing of the Directors of Continuing Education to whom calls were placed). A letter was then sent to the directors who had agreed to cooperate, along with a set of procedural instructions and questionnaires (see Appendix C for the format of the letter sent). The instructions included the request that questionnaires be placed in the mailboxes of those full-time teaching faculty members whose last names began with either A-M or N-Z, the choice of which was made by the investigator at random. Because of the disparity in faculty size at these community colleges, sample size varied.

Unable to contact the Director of Continuing Education at Thomas Nelson Community College by telephone despite numerous attempts, the investigator visited the campus in an effort to contact him personally. The director had shortly before entered a meeting expected to last for several hours; the investigator then spoke with others in the Office of Continuing Education about the study and left the director a note and the same materials that had been mailed to the other colleges. These materials had not been distributed to faculty members at Thomas Nelson at the end of October, and it was decided to eliminate the college from the study.

At J. Sargeant Reynolds Community College, because of its close proximity to the investigator's residence, communication and delivery were conducted in person. In addition, because of a more complex questionnaire approval policy than found at other community colleges in the study, materials were distributed approximately three weeks later at J. Sargeant Reynolds than at the other participating institutions.

At Northern Virginia Community College, following the suggestions of Dr. Richard J. Ernst, President, Dr. Joseph Rossmeyer, Director of Planning and Research, and Dr. Larry McFarlane, Acting Provost of the Woodbridge campus, distribution of questionnaires was conducted through the Office of Planning and Research rather than through the Office of Continuing Education. The investigator was also requested to supply self-addressed return envelopes rather than blank envelopes for group collection as had been provided at the other community colleges.

Earlier in the summer of 1977, permission to conduct the study was granted by the Research and Information Committee of the Advisory Council

of Presidents of the Virginia Community College System, headed by Dr. Elmo Roesler. At John Tyler Community college, approval and support were given by Dr. John W. Lavery, President, and Dale E. White, Dean of Instruction. Finally, approval to conduct the activities at the Petersburg Federal Correctional Institution was granted by Z. Stephen Grzegorek, warden of the institution.

Instrumentation

The following instruments and measurement techniques were used in the study:

1. Semantic differential. The semantic differential technique was developed by Osgood, Suci, and Tannenbaum in 1957 as a systematic attempt "to subject meaning to quantitative measurement" (p. 1). Osgood and his associates described the technique as follows:

The semantic differential is essentially a combination of controlled association and scaling procedures. We provide the subject with a concept to be differentiated and a set of bipolar adjectival scales against which to do it, his only task being to indicate, for each item (pairing of a concept with a scale), the direction of his association and its intensity on a seven-step scale. The crux of the method, of course, lies in selecting the sample of descriptive polar terms. Ideally, the sample should be as representative as possible of all the ways in which meaningful judgments can vary, and yet be small enough in size to be efficient in

practice. In other words, from the myriad linguistic and non-linguistic behaviors mediated by symbolic processes, we select a small but carefully devised sample, a sample which we shall try to demonstrate is chiefly indicative of the ways that meanings vary, and largely insensitive to other sources of variation. (1957, p. 20)

The term "concept" used in the description above was defined as "the stimulus to which the subject's checking operation is a terminal response" (Osgood, Suci, & Tannenbaum, 1957, p. 77). Most often, because of the structure of the English language, concepts are more likely to be nouns than other parts of speech.

Also, in further explanation, the developers of the technique reported that, although three-, five-, nine-, and eleven-step scales have been used, "over a large number of different subjects in many different experiments it has been found that with seven alternatives all of them tend to be used and with roughly, if not exactly, equal frequencies" (Osgood, Suci, & Tannenbaum, 1957, p. 85).

In their exploratory study, Osgood et al. (1957) paired 50 descriptive scales with 20 concepts, generating a 1000-item test form. The test was administered to 100 subjects, producing a 50x20x100 cube of data. In order to "obtain that matrix of intercorrelations among scales which would be most representative or typical" (p. 35), the investigators summed over both concepts and subjects, producing a single 50x50 intercorrelational matrix of every scale with each of the other scales to which the total data

contributed. Thurstone's Centroid Factor Method was applied to the matrix of correlations. Four factors were extracted and rotated into simple structure, orthogonality being maintained. The factors were labelled by their content, that is, by listing the scales which had high loadings on that factor. The first factor was identified as evaluative, the second as potency, the third as activity, and the final factor represented unexplained variance.

The selection of scales for use in this research problem were, as suggested by Osgood et al. (1957), based upon: (a) factorial composition; i.e., according to evaluative, activity, and potency dimensions and (b) relevance to the concepts being judged; i.e., suitability to the research problem. Normally, approximately three scales have been selected to represent each factor, using Osgood, Suci, and Tannenbaum's rotated factor loadings matrix of 50 bipolar adjective pairs (1957, p. 37) described above to choose maximum loadings on the most significant factor and minimum loadings on the other factors. For example, attitude studies have normally relied heavily on the evaluative factor (Kerlinger, 1973).

The semantic differential technique has been shown to be sufficiently reliable and valid for many research purposes, including attitude measurement (Kerlinger, 1973). The final form of the semantic differential used in this study was derived from the results of pilot-testing.

First, three bipolar adjective pairs were selected from the rotated factor loadings matrix to represent each of the three major factors described above. Next, eight additional adjective pairs were chosen for pilot-testing

purposes (see Appendix D for a listing of the 17 adjective pairs of the pilot-test and their factor loadings). In addition to their factorial compositions, these adjectives were considered relevant to the concept to be used--"correctional inmate." The order of adjectives on the pilot-test form was determined randomly, and the order within a pair was reversed at random (see Appendix E for the pilot-test form of the semantic differential).

A technique developed by A. Edwards (1957) and followed by Yuker, Block, and Young (1970) was used to select the adjective pairs for the final semantic differential. As described by Yuker et al.:

First, high and low scoring groups were established on the basis of the total score obtained on the preliminary scale. High and low score was determined by dividing the group at the median of the total score distribution. These high and low groups provided an internal criterion of the discriminative ability of each item. (1970, p. 19)

In addition, the scores of each item were summed in an effort to eliminate those adjective pairs that failed to demonstrate the ability to discriminate. Four adjective pairs--light-heavy, large-small, cold-hot, active-passive--were eliminated by these methods, yielding the final form of 13 adjective pairs (see Appendix F for the final form of the semantic differential).

The subjects for the pilot-testing phases described above were nine faculty members from Corning Community College in Corning, New York and twelve students enrolled in a beginning graduate-level course, Contemporary Issues in Education, at the College of William and Mary in Williamsburg, Virginia.

The emphasis in determining the validity of the pilot-test and final form of the semantic differential was placed upon content validity. A group of psychologists and correctional educators were shown Osgood, Suci, and Tannenbaum's rotated factor loadings matrix for suggestions in selecting appropriate adjective pairs to be used. A consensus of the group that the pilot-test and final form of the semantic differential were suitable for this study was requested and obtained.

In addition, two reliability measurements were used. Using the questionnaires of the subjects described above, even-numbered items were placed in one group, and odd-numbered items in another group (after one item was eliminated at random to force an even number of items). The split-halves reliability coefficient was then calculated:

$$r_{S-H} = .96(n=21)$$

Bruning and Kintz (1977) reported that "a high reliability value (.70 or higher) shows that the test is reliably (accurately) measuring the characteristic it was designed to measure" (p. 210).

In order to measure the stability of the semantic differential, two different administrations of the test were given to 15 elementary school teachers from Enon Elementary School in Enon, Virginia, two weeks apart. Test-retest reliability was measured by calculating the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient between the first and second tests:

$$r = .99(n=15)$$

This measurement is also referred to as the coefficient of stability (Bruning & Kintz, 1977).

2. Attitudes Toward Correctional Inmates scale (ATCI). The ATCI was developed by the investigator in an attempt to measure characteristics of the attitudes of community college faculty members toward correctional inmates and to assess their willingness to teach off-campus courses in a penal environment. The ATCI is a Likert rating scale which consists of a group of statements about correctional inmates and a six-point forced choice scale. The investigator relied heavily on the techniques used by Yuker, Block, and Young in their development of the Attitudes Toward Disabled Persons scale (ATDP), first published in 1960, and used similar testing methods as described earlier in deriving the final form of the semantic differential.

First, a list of statements, derived from the literature, personal experiences, and from suggestions made by inmates enrolled in the Associate of Applied Science in Business Management program offered at the Petersburg Federal Correctional Institution by John Tyler Community College, was compiled. The list was then presented to a panel of psychologists and correctional educators, who eliminated those lacking in face validity. The panel also modified other items. The remaining statements were then pilot-tested by the same subjects as those who pilot-tested the semantic differential (see Appendix G for the pilot-test form of the ATCI). The statements were intended to elicit information in the areas of general opinion of the sample population toward correctional inmates and correctional education, stereotypes and stigmas associated with prisoners, and the personal characteristics of inmates. The statements were ordered at random, and half were randomly selected to be phrased negatively.

Following the same procedures of item analysis as used in developing the final form of the semantic differential scale in order to gauge the discriminative ability of each item, the following changes were made to the pilot-test form of the ATCI in deriving the final form: items 5, 7, 9, 11, and 12 were eliminated for their failure to discriminate between low and high scores; item 10 was eliminated because it discriminated in the reverse direction than intended; item 14 proved to be difficult for respondents to understand and was eliminated; and item 6 was altered to reflect the comments added by pilot-test subjects. The final form of the ATCI thus consists of nine general statements (upon which a subject's score is computed) and three statements pertaining to willingness to participate in off-campus correctional programs (see Appendix H for the final form of the ATCI scale). As a final note on the composition of the ATCI, items 1, 2, 4, and 9 of the final form showed pilot-test tendencies toward a ceiling, or non-discriminative, effect. However, because the intent of the scale included the hope that a faculty member profile might be developed, the items were included.

The split-halves reliability coefficient and the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient were calculated as follows:

$$r_{S-H} = .72(n=21)$$

$$r = .74(n=15)$$

The directions used with the semantic differential were those suggested by Osgood et al. (1957), and those used with the ATCI were revisions of those which accompany the ATDP of Yuker et al. (1970). As described previously a wide range of demographic variables was explored (see Appendix I

for the final form of the questionnaire). For both tests, negatively phrased items were to be reversed before scoring, and high scores would, thus, reflect positive attitudes.

Statistical Hypotheses

The following statistical hypotheses were tested at the .05 level of confidence:

1. No significant differences will be found in faculty attitudes toward correctional inmates and toward teaching off-campus courses at correctional institutions, as measured by average test performance, between and among:
 - a. males and females.
 - b. blacks, whites, and those of other races.
 - c. those whose ages are between 20-29, 30-39, 40-49, 50-59, and 60-69.
 - d. instructors, assistant professors, associate professors, and professors.
 - e. those who have taught in the community college system for less than three years, between three and five years, and more than five years.
 - f. those who have taught at the postsecondary level for less than three years, between three and five years, more than five but less than ten years, and ten or more years.
2. Significant differences will be found in faculty attitudes toward correctional inmates and toward teaching off-campus

courses at correctional institutions, as measured by average test performance, between:

- a. those who have taught correctional inmates in a prison environment and those who have not.
 - b. those who considered their contact with correctional inmates to be greater than average and those who did not.
3. No significant differences will be found in attitudes toward correctional inmates and toward teaching off-campus courses at correctional institutions, as measured by average test performance, among the faculties at the following institutions: J. Sargeant Reynolds Community College, John Tyler Community College, New River Community College, Northern Virginia Community College, Paul D. Camp Community College, Southside Virginia Community College, Tidewater Community College, and Wytheville Community College.
 4. Significant differences will be found in attitudes toward correctional inmates and toward teaching off-campus courses at correctional institutions, as measured by average test performance, between those faculty members at John Tyler Community College who participated in the orientation program and those who did not.

Design

In the study, the following research design was used:

R	X	O ₁	Experimental Group (JTCC)
R		O ₂	Control Group 1 (JTCC)
R		O ₃	Control Group 2 (JSRCC, JTCC, NRCC, NVCC, PDCCC, SVCC, TCC, WCC)

The design is an extension of the "Posttest-Only Control Group Design" (Campbell & Stanley, 1963, p. 25) to include an additional control group.

The decision to use the above design rather than a pretest-posttest design was based upon the threat of reactive or sensitizing effects of the testing instruments to external validity (Campbell & Stanley, 1963), as well as upon the desire to guarantee and maintain the anonymity of the participants. Campbell and Stanley (1963) stated:

Especially in attitude-change studies, where the attitude tests themselves introduce considerable amounts of unusual content... it is quite likely that the person's attitudes and his susceptibility to persuasion are changed by a pretest...where highly unusual test procedures are used, or where the testing procedure involves deception, perceptual or cognitive restructuring, surprise, stress, etc., designs having unpretested groups remain highly desirable, if not essential. (p. 18)

The Posttest-Only Control Group Design can be viewed as the final two groups of the "Solomon Four-Group Design" (Campbell & Stanley, 1963, p. 24), the first two groups of which are pretested experimental and control groups. Campbell and Stanley (1963) stated that the Posttest-Only Control Group Design

controls for testing as main effect and interaction, but unlike Design 5 [the Solomon Four-Group Design] it does not measure them. However, such measurement is tangential to the central question of whether or not X did have an effect. Thus, while Design 5 is to be preferred to Design 6 [the Posttest-Only Control Group Design] for reasons given above, the extra gains from Design 5 may not be worth the more than double effort.

{pp. 25-26}

In the current study, the high degree of cooperation of both college and correctional officials required to conduct the experiment realistically precluded its use other than at John Tyler Community College and the Petersburg Federal Correctional Institution.

Campbell and Stanley (1963) determined that the Posttest-Only Control Group Design controls for the following eight internal sources of invalidity which can produce rival hypotheses for main effects:

- (a) History, the specific events occurring between the first and second measurement in addition to the experimental variable;
- (b) Maturation, processes within the respondents operating as a function of the passage of time per se (not specific to the particular events), including growing older, growing hungrier, growing more tired and the like;
- (c) Testing, the effects of taking a test upon the scores of a second testing;
- (d) Instrumentation, in which changes in the calibration of a measuring instrument or changes in the observers or scorers

used may produce changes in the obtained measurements; (e) Statistical regression, operating where groups have been selected on the basis of their extreme scores; (f) Biases, resulting in differential selection of respondents for the comparison groups; (g) Experimental mortality, or differential loss of respondents from the comparison groups; (h) Selection-maturation interaction, etc., which...might be mistaken for the effect of the experimental variable.

(p. 5)

The only area of concern to the internal validity of the study regards the selection of respondents for the experimental group and the first control group. As discussed earlier in the chapter, a natural assignment to the control group was made for the six individuals who were forced to cancel their availability to participate in the experiment because of responsibilities unknown to them when they volunteered. Nevertheless, the nature of the reasons for withdrawal and the persons affected made each of the 20 original volunteers equally likely to be forced to withdraw; therefore, on an overall basis, each of the 20 faculty members had an equal chance to be selected to the experimental and control groups.

As regards external sources of invalidity and as mentioned at the beginning of this section, a major consideration in selecting an extension of the Posttest-Only Control Group Design was its control for

the reactive or interaction effect of testing, in which a pretest might increase or decrease the respondent's sensitivity

or responsiveness to the experimental variable and thus make the results obtained for a pretested population unrepresentative of the effects of the experimental variable for the unpretested universe from which the experimental respondents were selected. (Campbell & Stanley, 1963, pp. 5-6)

Two further external sources of invalidity were not reported by Campbell and Stanley (1963) to be controlled for by any of the "Three True Experimental Designs" (p. 13), which included the Posttest-Only Control Group Design:

(a) The interaction effects of selection biases and the experimental variable; (b) Reaction effects of experimental arrangements, which would preclude generalization about the effect of the experimental variable upon persons being exposed to it in nonexperimental settings. (p. 6)

Campbell and Stanley (1963) pointed out that although the Posttest-Only Control Group Design controls for selection biases at the internal level, "there remains the possibility that the effects validly demonstrated hold only for that unique population from which the experimental and control groups were jointly selected. This possibility becomes more likely as we have more difficulty in getting subjects for our experiment." (p. 19). Because of the nature of the study, participation of subjects had to be voluntary. In order to attempt to diminish this source of invalidity, approximately half the faculty members at seven other community colleges were mailed questionnaires. The data derived from the second control group was

analyzed collectively and by individual community college. Thus, in the latter case, Control Group 2 was expanded to eight individual control groups.

Finally, in order to lessen the reactive effects of experimental arrangements, the experiment was conducted as part of the annual Fall Orientation for Faculty and Staff at John Tyler Community College, which coincided with the Orientation Committee's intention of focusing upon off-campus programs. In addition, the questionnaires distributed to the members of Control Group 2 from John Tyler emanated from and were returned to the Office of the Dean of Instruction. However, the cover letter mailed to faculty members at the other participating institutions listed the experimenter's name and affiliations with John Tyler Community College and the College of William and Mary (see Appendix J for a copy of the cover letter).

Procedures

In the early afternoon of Day 1 (September 8) of the orientation experiment at John Tyler Community College, the experimental group assembled in the school's lobby and was given a brief introduction to and explanation of the activities to follow. Each member of the group received a packet, to be read at the individual's convenience, which contained the following materials: a 17-page United States Department of Justice publication entitled "1976 Federal Prison System," a 54-page United States Department of Justice publication entitled "Education for Tomorrow" (Pamphlet FPI-IS-2 August 1976), an article from the May-June, 1976 American Journal of

Correction entitled "The Role and Function of Correctional Programs," a list of the programs and courses to be offered by John Tyler at the Petersburg Federal Correctional Institution during the 1977-1978 academic year, copies of local newspaper articles on Tyler's 1977 graduation exercises at the prison, and the official program from these exercises.

The group was then driven to the Petersburg Federal Correctional Institution, where they were met by Newton E. Lewis, supervisor of the institution's education department. Mr. Lewis conducted a tour of institutional facilities which included dormitories, prison industries and work areas, and dining areas, and which concluded in the education building. The group then proceeded to the library, where a group of 15 to 20 inmates who had participated in the Associate of Applied Science in Business Management program had been gathered according to previously arranged plans. The faculty members and students exchanged introductions and engaged in a somewhat formal question and answer session for approximately 30 to 45 minutes. The most commonly discussed topics were reasons for enrollment in the college program, future goals, and degree of satisfaction with current offerings. After final comments by Mr. Lewis, the faculty group returned to the campus where no further activities were planned for the day.

At noon of Day 2 (September 9), five inmates from the previous day's session, all of whom had community or minimum custody, arrived at the campus of John Tyler Community College accompanied by a prison representative. The men met with the experimental group in the faculty lounge, where

lunch was provided. The atmosphere was informal and discussion abundant. After approximately two hours, several of the faculty group conducted the inmates on a tour of the school which included faculty offices, classrooms, administrative offices, and the library. The inmates, while headed for departure from the school, were introduced to Dr. John W. Lavery, President of John Tyler.

On September 12, questionnaires were distributed to both experimental and control groups at John Tyler. A cover letter was attached to the questionnaires of the experimental group (see Appendix K for a copy of the cover letter), while those for the control group were delivered in person. Different return envelopes were used to maintain the dichotomy. In addition, questionnaires were placed in the mailboxes of the remaining faculty members at John Tyler, with a cover letter signed by Dale E. White, Dean of Instruction, to be returned to his office (see Appendix L for a copy of the dean's cover letter). By the end of September and early October, questionnaires had been mailed or delivered to the other seven community colleges which had agreed to participate in the study. For all of the questionnaires, a two to three week response period was provided. In Table 3-1, the percentages of questionnaires returned in relationship to those handed out for the community colleges involved in the study, total returns, and usable return percentages are shown.

Statistical Methodology

To prepare the gathered data for statistical analysis, the following steps were taken: 1. Questionnaires in which 10 percent or more of the

Table 3-1

Questionnaire Return Percentages

Community College	Approximate No. of Questionnaires Distributed	Questionnaires Returned	% Returned ^a	Questionnaires Returned in Usable Form	Usable % Returned ^a
J. Sargeant Reynolds	36	27	75%	27	75%
John Tyler ^b	60	43	72%	42	70%
New River	30	17	57%	14	47%
Northern Virginia	14	9	64%	8	57%
Paul D. Camp	15	8	53%	8	53%
Southside Virginia	12	4	33%	4	33%
Tidewater	35	25	71%	24	69%
Wytheville	30	19	63%	18	60%
Totals	<u>232</u>	<u>152</u>	<u>66%</u>	<u>145</u>	<u>62%</u>

^a Rounded to nearest whole percent

^b Excluding the 20 questionnaires turned in by the experimental and control groups involved in the orientation program

items were omitted were considered unusable. If less than 10 percent of the items were omitted, neutral responses were assigned to the omitted items. 2. All responses to negatively phrased questions were converted to the positive direction. 3. Responses were then converted from the -3 to +3 continuum on the questionnaires to a scale of 0 to 6 (from strongly disagree to strongly agree). Thus, on the semantic differential test, the scores could range from 0 to 78 (with 39 indicating exact overall neutrality); on the ATCI scale, scores could range from 0 to 54 (with 27 indicating exact overall neutrality). 4. Items 10, 11, and 12 of the ATCI scale (dealing with faculty member preference between on- and off-campus teaching assignments, willingness to teach off-campus, and willingness to teach off-campus at a correctional institution) were treated independently of the nine-item scale and converted in the same manner described above. For additional testing possibilities, scores on these items were also categorized as negative (0-2, assigned 0), neutral (3, assigned 1), or positive (4-6, assigned 2).

To test the statistical hypotheses of this study, the following subprograms of the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) (Nie, Hull, Jenkins, Steinbrenner, & Bent, 1975) were used: T-TEST (comparison of sample means), ONEWAY (analysis of variance), and CROSSTABS (cross-tabulation analysis of association).

The T-TEST subprogram was used to evaluate the statistical significance of the differences between male and female respondents, black and white respondents (there were no subjects who were of other races), those respondents who considered their contact with correctional inmates to be

greater than average and those who did not, and the experimental and first control groups from John Tyler Community College. These groups were compared according to mean scores on the following: the semantic differential test, the ATCI scale (first nine items), and items 10, 11, and 12 on the ATCI scale (using the 0-6 and 0-2 scoring scales as explained above).

For those hypotheses not stated in the null form, two-tailed probabilities were converted to one-tailed probabilities. In addition, when considered applicable, simple effects of treatment variables were calculated according to the formula used by Glass (Note 4, p. 6): "the mean difference on the outcome variable between treated and untreated subjects divided by the within group standard deviation." Thus, when significant differences between treated and untreated groups did not exist but trends were obvious, the differences of means were divided by the standard deviation of the untreated group to yield the effect size of treatment. These figures (in terms of standard deviations) were then converted to show the percentile change of the treatment (using a chart of areas under the normal curve).

The ONEWAY subprogram was used to evaluate the statistical significance of the differences between respondents whose ages were between 20-29, 30-39, 40-49, 50-59, and 60-69; instructors, assistant professors, associate professors, and professors; faculty members at the eight community colleges involved in the study (with John Tyler faculty scores treated both as a whole and as three separate groups--one experimental, two control); those respondents who had taught in the community college system for less

than three years, between three and five years, and more than five years; those respondents who had taught at the postsecondary level for less than three years, between three and five years, more than five but less than ten years, and ten years or more. The independent variables of the tests (one per test) were, thus, age, academic rank, community college code (one and two-digit), years teaching in the community college system, and years teaching at the postsecondary level. The dependent variables, used for each test, were the semantic differential test, the ATCI scale (first nine items), and items 10, 11, and 12 on the ATCI scale (using the 0-6 and 0-2 scales). In addition, ONEWAY analysis of variance tests were run using items 10, 11, and 12 of the ATCI scale (both 0-6 and 0-2) as separate independent variables and the semantic differential and nine-item ATCI scale as dependent variables. The purpose of the latter test was to check on the discriminative ability of the semantic differential and ATCI.

The CROSSTABS subprogram was used to determine whether a significant relationship existed between contact (whether respondents considered themselves to have had greater than average contact with correctional inmates or not) and willingness to teach off-campus at a correctional institution (0-2) and between prior experience teaching correctional inmates in a correctional setting or not and willingness to teach off-campus at a correctional institution.

Summary

The study was designed to determine and measure the attitudes of community college faculty members toward correctional inmates and toward

participation in off-campus programs at correctional institutions, with the goal of inducing attitude change of a positive nature. Because of the lack of systematic research in the area, a wide range of demographic variables was explored. The subjects of the study were full-time, teaching faculty members from eight of the nine public community colleges in Virginia where correctional programs existed as of the end of the 1976-1977 academic year.

The semantic differential technique and a Likert rating scale developed specifically for use in the study--the Attitudes Toward Correctional Inmates scale--were used to measure faculty attitudes. Primary references were the studies of Osgood, Suci, and Tannenbaum and Yaker, Block, and Youngg. Statistical hypotheses were developed from the research hypotheses stated in Chapter 1.

The design used for the study was an extension of the Posttest-Only Control Group Design to include an additional control group. Rationale for selection of the design and its capacity to control for internal and external sources of invalidity were examined.

The orientation experiment was conducted at the Petersburg Federal Correctional Institution and John Tyler Community College. The experimental group and first control group consisted of 20 faculty members from John Tyler. The final control group consisted of 145 faculty members from the eight community colleges that participated in the study.

The final sections of the chapter described procedures used in the collection of data, listed questionnaire response statistics, and described the statistical methodology that was used to analyze the gathered data.

Chapter 4

Results

In Chapter 4 the results of the statistical procedures described in Chapter 3 are examined. The research hypotheses are restated and analyzed.

1. Hypotheses 1 stated that no significant differences would be found in faculty attitudes toward correctional inmates and toward teaching off-campus courses at correctional institutions, as measured by average test performance, between and among:

a. males and females.

Table 4-1 shows that the male respondents scored significantly higher on the semantic differential test than the female respondents ($p = .001$), but that no significant differences existed between the two groups on any of the other evaluative criteria.

b. blacks and whites.

Table 4-2 shows that black respondents showed a significantly higher preference toward teaching off-campus courses on both the 0-6 ($p = .044$) and 0-2 ($p = .036$) scales than did white respondents, but that no significant differences existed between the two groups on any of the other evaluative criteria. Observation of Table 3 also reveals that the black subjects scored higher than the white subjects on each of the evaluative criteria.

c. those whose ages are between 20-29, 30-39, 40-49, 50-59, and 60-69.

Table 4-3 shows that the scores of respondents in the various age categories did not differ significantly on any of the evaluative criteria.

Table 4-1

Comparison of Semantic Differential, ATCI, and Selected Item Scores Between Male and Female Respondents

Variable		Number of Cases	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	F Value	2-Tail Prob.
SD	Males	107	40.7663	13.340	1.290	2.34	.001
	Females	58	36.7931	8.715	1.144		
ATCI	Males	107	32.2243	10.393	1.005	1.38	.179
	Females	58	34.4310	8.836	1.160		
Item 12 (ATCI,0-6)	Males	107	3.5327	2.195	.212	1.02	.966
	Females	58	3.3103	2.178	.286		
Item 11 (ATCI,0-6)	Males	107	3.9346	1.875	.181	1.13	.572
	Females	58	3.7414	1.996	.262		
Item 10 (ATCI,0-6)	Males	107	1.4299	1.573	.152	1.43	.110
	Females	58	1.4483	1.884	.247		
Item 12 (ATCI,0-2)	Males	107	1.2336	.977	.094	1.03	.866
	Females	58	1.1724	.994	.130		
Item 11 (ATCI,0-2)	Males	107	1.3925	.919	.089	1.05	.800
	Females	58	1.3276	.944	.124		
Item 10 (ATCI,0-2)	Males	107	.2804	.684	.066	1.43	.111
	Females	58	.4310	.819	.108		

Table 4-2

Comparison of Semantic Differential, ATCI, and Selected Item Scores Between Black and White Respondents

Variable		Number of Cases		Standard Deviation	Standard Error	F Value	2-Tail Prob.
SD	Blacks	10	42.8000	6.828	2.159	3.24	.058
	Whites	155	39.1484	12.285	.987		
ATCI	Blacks	10	42.7000	5.559	1.758	3.11	.066
	Whites	155	32.3742	9.805	.788		
Item 12 (ATCI,0-6)	Blacks	10	4.6000	1.776	.562	1.52	.505
	Whites	155	3.3806	2.193	.176		
Item 11 (ATCI,0-6)	Blacks	10	4.6000	1.776	.562	1.17	.870
	Whites	155	3.8194	1.919	.154		
Item 10 (ATCI,0-6)	Blacks	10	2.8000	2.394	.757	2.25	.044
	Whites	155	1.3484	1.598	.128		
Item 12 (ATCI,0-2)	Blacks	10	1.8000	.632	.200	2.44	.143
	Whites	155	1.1742	.988	.079		
Item 11 (ATCI,0-2)	Blacks	10	1.8000	.632	.200	2.19	.197
	Whites	155	1.3419	.936	.075		
Item 10 (ATCI,0-2)	Blacks	10	1.0000	1.054	.333	2.31	.036
	Whites	155	.2903	.693	.056		

Table 4-3

Comparison of Semantic Differential, ATCI, and Selected Item Scores Among Age-Group Categories of Respondents

Variable	20-29(25)	30-39(76)	40-49(41)	50-59(17)	60-69(6)
Semantic Differential					
Mean	38.4400	38.0395	40.9024	41.7647	42.8333
Standard Deviation	12.0592	10.7943	12.9244	15.7263	9.9683
Standard Error	2.4118	1.2382	2.0184	3.8142	4.0695
F Ratio=.722 F Prob.=.5779					
Attitudes Toward Corr Inmates Score					
Mean	32.8400	33.2105	34.1707	29.5294	32.8333
Standard Deviation	9.2000	9.4393	9.7722	13.7982	6.9113
Standard Error	1.8400	1.0828	1.5262	3.3465	2.8215
F Ratio=.670 F Prob.=.6134					
Willingness to Teach at Corr Inst (0-6 scale)					
Mean	3.3200	3.3421	3.7317	3.2353	4.1667
Standard Deviation	2.0559	2.2660	2.1216	2.3856	1.8348
Standard Error	.4112	.2599	2.3856	.5786	.7491
F Ratio=.435 F Prob.=.7832					
Willingness to Teach Off-Campus (0-6 scale)					
Mean	3.7600	3.8684	4.0488	3.5294	4.0000
Standard Deviation	1.7626	1.9483	1.9615	2.0651	1.7889
Standard Error	.3525	.2235	.3063	.5009	.7303
F Ratio=.247 F Prob.=.9133					
Preference of On- to Off-Campus (0-6 scale)					
Mean	1.0400	1.5263	1.5122	1.0000	2.6667
Standard Deviation	1.1368	1.8365	1.7624	1.0607	2.0656
Standard Error	.2272	.2107	.2752	.2572	.8433
F Ratio=1.528 F Prob.=.1964					
Willingness to Teach at Corr Inst (0-2 scale)					
Mean	1.1200	1.1579	1.3171	1.1765	1.6667
Standard Deviation	1.0132	.9940	.9602	1.0146	.8165
Standard Error	.2026	.1140	.1500	.2461	.3333
F Ratio=.553 F Prob.=.6972					
Willingness to Teach Off-Campus (0-2 scale)					
Mean	1.4400	1.3684	1.4146	1.1765	1.3333
Standard Deviation	.9165	.9215	.9213	1.0146	1.0328
Standard Error	.1833	.1057	.1439	.2461	.4216
F Ratio=.243 F Prob.=.9134					
Preference of On- to Off-Campus (0-2 scale)					
Mean	.1600	.3684	.4146	.1176	.6667
Standard Deviation	.5538	.7632	.8055	.4851	1.0328
Standard Error	.1108	.0875	.1258	.1176	.4216
F Ratio=.196 F Prob.=.3149					

d. instructors, assistant professors, associate professors, and professors.

Table 4-4 shows that the ATCI scores of respondents of the various academic ranks differed significantly ($p=.0126$). Assistant professors scored highest, followed by instructors, associate professors, and professors. No significant differences existed among the groups on any of the other evaluative criteria. On each of the evaluative criteria, however, assistant professors scored higher than those of the other academic ranks.

e. those who have taught in the community college system for less than three years, between three and five years, and more than five years.

Table 4-5 shows that respondents within the various categories of teaching experience in the community college system differed significantly on willingness to teach off-campus courses (0-2 continuum only $p=.0467$). On this item, those respondents with the least experience had the most favorable responses. No significant differences existed among the groups on any of the other evaluative criteria.

f. those who have taught at the postsecondary level for less than three years, between three and five years, more than five but less than ten years, and ten or more years.

Table 4-6 shows that respondents within the various categories of teaching experience at the postsecondary level did not differ significantly on any of the evaluative criteria.

2. Hypothesis 2 stated that significant differences would be found in faculty attitudes toward correctional inmates and toward teaching off-campus courses at correctional institutions, as measured by average test performance, between:

Table 4-4

Comparison of Semantic Differential, ATCI, and Selected Item Scores By Academic Rank of Respondents

Variable	Instructor(34)	Assistant Professor(57)	Associate Professor(59)	Professor(15)
Semantic Differential Score				
Mean	36.8529	41.2456	39.4915	37.4667
Standard Deviation	8.4068	12.0893	12.3321	16.8560
Standard Error	1.4418	1.6013	1.6055	4.3522
F Ratio=1.084 F Prob.=.3574				
Attitudes Toward Corr Inmates Score				
Mean	32.3823	35.9825	31.8644	27.5333
Standard Deviation	10.1921	9.0839	9.5600	10.9861
Standard Error	1.7479	1.2032	1.2446	2.8366
F Ratio=3.726 F Prob.=.0126				
Willingness to Teach at Corr Inst (0-6 scale)				
Mean	3.1765	3.8246	3.2542	3.4667
Standard Deviation	2.1245	2.0365	2.3459	2.2318
Standard Error	.3543	.2697	.3054	.5762
F Ratio=.892 F Prob.=.4466				
Willingness to Teach Off-Campus (0-6 scale)				
Mean	3.5882	4.2807	3.6271	3.8667
Standard Deviation	1.8442	1.7398	2.0753	1.9591
Standard Error	.3163	.2304	.2702	.5058
F Ratio=1.448 F Prob.=.2308				
Preference of On- to Off-Campus (0-6 scale)				
Mean	1.2941	1.5965	1.3898	1.3333
Standard Deviation	1.5673	1.7203	1.7322	1.7182
Standard Error	.2688	.2279	.2255	.4436
F Ratio=.283 F Prob.=.8377				
Willingness to Teach at Corr Inst (0-2 scale)				
Mean	1.0588	1.4035	1.0847	1.3333
Standard Deviation	1.0133	.9231	1.0050	.9759
Standard Error	.1738	.1223	.1308	.2520
F Ratio=1.421 F Prob.=.2386				
Willingness to Teach Off-Campus (0-2 scale)				
Mean	1.2941	1.5614	1.2034	1.4667
Standard Deviation	.9701	.8241	.9787	.9155
Standard Error	.1664	.1092	.1274	.2364
F Ratio=1.598 F Prob.=.1919				
Preference of On- to Off-Campus (0-2 scale)				
Mean	.2353	.3860	.3559	.2667
Standard Deviation	.6541	.7735	.7603	.7037
Standard Error	.1122	.1025	.0990	.1817
F Ratio=.354 F Prob.=.7861				

Table 4-5

Comparison of Semantic Differential, ATCI, and Selected Item Scores: Community College Teaching Experience Categories

Variable	Years Teaching Experience (Count)		
	3(32)	3-5(49)	5(84)
Semantic Differential Score			
Mean	37.0313	40.5306	39.5833
Standard Deviation	8.9964	12.1828	12.9449
Standard Error	1.5903	1.7404	1.4124
F Ratio=.843 F Prob.=.4326			
Attitudes Toward Corr Inmates Score			
Mean	35.2813	33.8163	31.6548
Standard Deviation	10.5837	8.8945	10.0977
Standard Error	1.8710	1.2706	1.1017
F Ratio=1.808 F Prob.=.1673			
Willingness to Teach at Corr Inst (0-6 scale)			
Mean	4.0000	3.2041	3.3929
Standard Deviation	2.1099	2.1014	2.2496
Standard Error	.3730	.3002	.2454
F Ratio=1.359 F Prob.=.2600			
Willingness to Teach Off-Campus (0-6 scale)			
Mean	4.3750	3.8776	3.6667
Standard Deviation	1.5187	1.7869	2.0961
Standard Error	.2685	.2553	.2287
F Ratio=1.599 F Prob.=.2053			
Preference of On- to Off-Campus (0-6 scale)			
Mean	1.4588	1.5102	1.3810
Standard Deviation	1.4807	1.6472	1.7896
Standard Error	.2618	.2353	.1953
F Ratio=.098 F Prob.=.9071			
Willingness to Teach at Corr Inst (0-2 scale)			
Mean	1.4375	1.1429	1.1667
Standard Deviation	.9136	1.0000	.9919
Standard Error	.1615	.1429	.1082
F Ratio=1.059 F Prob.=.3491			
Willingness to Teach Off-Campus (0-2 scale)			
Mean	1.6250	1.4898	1.2024
Standard Deviation	.7931	.8690	.9791
Standard Error	.1402	.1241	.1069
F Ratio=3.079 F Prob.=.0487			
Preference of On- to Off-Campus (0-2 scale)			
Mean	.2500	.2857	.3929
Standard Deviation	.6720	.6770	.7918
Standard Error	.1188	.0967	.0864
F Ratio=.581 F Prob.=.5608			

Table 4-6

Comparison of Semantic Differential, ATCI, and Selected Item Scores: Postsecondary Teaching Experience Categories

Variable	Years Teaching at Postsecondary Level (Count)			
	3(22)	3-5(34)	5-10(69)	10(40)
Semantic Differential Score				
Mean	37.3182	39.9412	38.4928	41.5250
Standard Deviation	8.8554	11.3323	11.3002	15.0860
Standard Error	1.8880	1.9435	1.3604	2.3853
F Ratio=.784	F Prob.=.5044			
Attitudes Toward Corr Inmates Score				
Mean	35.1364	33.7353	33.2464	30.7750
Standard Deviation	10.0631	9.0865	9.7865	10.6204
Standard Error	2.1455	1.5583	1.1782	1.6792
F Ratio=1.093	F Prob.=.3539			
Willingness to Teach at Corr Inst (0-6 scale)				
Mean	4.0000	3.2947	3.4493	3.3000
Standard Deviation	2.1381	2.0230	2.2657	2.2326
Standard Error	.4558	.3469	.2728	.3530
F Ratio=.580	F Prob.=.6286			
Willingness to Teach Off-Campus (0-6 scale)				
Mean	4.2727	3.7059	3.9130	3.7000
Standard Deviation	1.5486	1.7672	1.9684	2.1388
Standard Error	.3302	.3031	.2370	.3382
F Ratio=.520	F Prob.=.6692			
Preference of On- to Off-Campus (0-6 scale)				
Mean	1.5909	1.2941	1.4348	1.4750
Standard Deviation	1.4690	1.4466	1.8980	1.6328
Standard Error	.3132	.2481	.2285	.2582
F Ratio=.147	F Prob.=.9312			
Willingness to Teach at Corr Inst (0-2 scale)				
Mean	1.4545	1.1765	1.1884	1.1500
Standard Deviation	.9117	.9991	.9893	1.0013
Standard Error	.1944	.1731	.1191	.1583
F Ratio=.526	F Prob.=.6651			
Willingness to Teach Off-Campus (0-2 scale)				
Mean	1.6364	1.3824	1.3333	1.2750
Standard Deviation	.7895	.9216	.9497	.9604
Standard Error	.1683	.1581	.1143	.1519
F Ratio=.783	F Prob.=.5050			
Preference of On- to Off-Campus (0-2 scale)				
Mean	.2727	.2059	.4203	.3250
Standard Deviation	.7025	.5918	.8118	.7299
Standard Error	.1498	.1015	.0977	.1154
F Ratio=.710	F Prob.=.5474			

a. those who have taught inmates in a prison environment and those who have not.

Table 4-7 shows that the semantic differential scores of those respondents who had prior experience teaching correctional inmates in a prison environment were significantly higher than those respondents with no such experience ($p=.038$), but that no significant differences existed between the two groups on any of the other evaluative criteria. However, the last two columns of Table 4-7 show that, with the exception of preference of on- to off-campus teaching assignments (0-6 and 0-2 scales), prior teaching experience in a correctional environment produced positive "effects" on the evaluative criteria.

Table 4-8 supports the initial findings of Table 4-7 in that no significant relationship was shown to exist between prior teaching experience in a correctional institution and willingness to teach off-campus courses at these institutions. The significance level of the crosstabulation analysis (.0615) does, however, indicate an association between the two variables.

b. those who considered their contact with correctional inmates to be greater than average and those who did not.

Table 4-9 shows that the scores of respondents who considered their prior contact with correctional inmates to be greater than average and the scores of those who did not showed no significant differences on any of the evaluative criteria. However, the last two columns of Table 4-9 show that positive effects of contact were indicated on all of the evaluative criteria.

Table 4-7

Comparison of Semantic Differential, ATCI, and Selected Item Scores Between Respondents with Previous Experience Teaching Inmates in a Correctional Institution and Those with No Experience

Variable	Number of Cases		Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	F Value	2-Tail Prob.	1-Tail Prob.	Simple Effect	Movement from 50th Percentile to
SD	Exp	45	43.0000	13.718	2.045	1.52	.076	.038	.450	67%
	No Exp	120	38.0083	11.111	1.014					
ATCI	Exp	45	35.2667	10.742	1.601	1.28	.291	.146	.330	63%
	No Exp	120	32.1500	9.478	.865					
Item 12 (ATCI,0-6)	Exp	45	4.0222	2.083	.311	1.11	.714	.357	.360	64%
	No Exp	120	3.2417	2.192	.200					
Item 11 (ATCI,0-6)	Exp	45	4.2444	1.734	.259	1.29	.345	.173	.260	60%
	No Exp	120	3.7250	1.966	.179					
Item 10 (ATCI,0-6)	Exp	45	1.4222	1.588	.237	1.18	.543	.272	-.010	
	No Exp	120	1.4417	1.724	.157					
Item 12 (ATCI,0-2)	Exp	45	1.4667	.894	.133	1.24	.414	.207	.350	64%
	No Exp	120	1.1167	.997	.091					
Item 11 (ATCI,0-2)	Exp	45	1.5333	.842	.126	1.28	.361	.182	.240	59%
	No Exp	120	1.3083	.951	.087					
Item 10 (ATCI,0-2)	Exp	45	.3111	.701	.105	1.14	.621	.310	-.040	
	No Exp	120	.3417	.750	.068					

Table 4-8

Crosstabulation Analysis of Previous Correctional Teaching Experience and Faculty Willingness to Teach Off-Campus at Correctional Institutions

		Response to ATCI Item 12 (Willingness to Teach Off-Campus at Correctional Institutions)		Row Total
		Negative(0-2)	Positive(4-6)	
Previous Experience Teaching Inmates in a Correctional Setting?	Yes	12 (26.7%)	33 (73.3%)	45 (27.3%)
	No	53 (44.2%)	67 (55.8%)	120 (72.7%)
Column Total		65 (39.4%)	100 (60.6%)	165 (100%)

Significance = .0615

Table 4-9

Comparison of Semantic Differential, ATCI, and Selected Item Scores Between Respondents Who Had What They Considered Greater than Average Prior Contact with Innates and Those Who Did Not

Variable	Number of Cases	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	F Value	2-Tail Prob.	1-Tail Prob.	Simple Effect	Movement from 50th Percentile to
SD	Contact	43.0961	12.195	1.691	1.10	.668	.334	.470	68%
	No-Cont	37.6549	11.630	1.094					
ATCI	Contact	36.1731	9.839	1.364	1.04	.832	.416	.480	68%
	No-Cont	31.5398	9.628	.906					
Item 12 (ATCI, 0-6)	Contact	4.2500	2.009	.279	1.17	.534	.267	.530	70%
	No-Cont	3.0885	2.174	.204					
Item 11 (ATCI, 0-6)	Contact	4.3462	1.655	.230	1.45	.141	.070	.350	64%
	No-Cont	3.6460	1.991	.187					
Item 10 (ATCI, 0-6)	Contact	1.7885	1.764	.245	1.18	.478	.239	.320	63%
	No-Cont	1.2473	1.627	.153					
Item 12 (ATCI, 0-2)	Contact	1.5000	.874	.121	1.31	.280	.140	.420	66%
	No-Cont	1.0796	1.001	.094					
Item 11 (ATCI, 0-2)	Contact	1.5769	.801	.111	1.46	.134	.067	.310	62%
	No-Cont	1.2743	.966	.091					
Item 10 (ATCI, 0-2)	Contact	.4038	.774	.107	1.16	.512	.256	.140	56%
	No-Cont	.3009	.718	.068					

Table 4-10 also indicates a significantly positive relationship between greater than average contact with correctional inmates and willingness to teach off-campus college courses at a correctional institution ($p=.0166$).

3. Hypothesis 3 stated that no significant differences would be found in attitudes toward correctional inmates and toward teaching off-campus courses at correctional institutions, as measured by average test performance, among the faculties at the participating institutions: J. Sargeant Reynolds Community College, John Tyler Community College, New River Community College, Northern Virginia Community College, Paul D. Camp Community College, Southside Virginia Community College, Tidewater Community College, and Wytheville Community College.

Tables 4-11 and 4-12 show that the semantic differential scores of respondents at the various community colleges differed significantly, but that according to all other evaluative criteria no significant differences existed. Both tables also indicate that the most favorable responses were from faculty members from Paul D. Camp Community College and from the experimental group at John Tyler Community College and that the least favorable responses were from subjects at New River Community College and Wytheville Community College.

4. Hypothesis 4 stated that significant differences would be found in attitudes toward correctional inmates and toward teaching off-campus courses at correctional institutions, as measured by average test performance, between those faculty members at John Tyler Community College who participated in the orientation program and those who did not.

Table 4-10

Crosstabulation Analysis of Prior Contact with Correctional Inmates and Faculty Willingness to Teach Off-Campus at Correctional Institutions

		Response to ATCI Item 12 (Willingness to Teach Off-Campus at Correctional Institutions)		Row Total
		Negative(0-2)	Positive(4-6)	
Greater than Average Prior Contact With Correctional Inmates?	Yes	13 (25%)	39 (75%)	52 (31.5%)
	No	52 (46%)	61 (54%)	113 (68.5%)
Column Total		65 (39.4%)	100 (60.6%)	165 (100%)

Significance = .0166

Table 4-11
 Comparison of Semantic Differential, ATCI, and Selected Item Scores Among Community Colleges (John Tyler CC as 3 Groups)

Variable	JTCC Exp(10)	JTCC CI(10)	JTCC C2(42)	JSRCC (27)	NRCC (14)	NYCC (8)	PDCCC (8)	SVCC (4)	TCC (24)	MCC (18)
Semantic Differential Score										
Mean	53.7000	41.3000	39.2381	38.3333	30.3571	35.5000	52.6250	37.2500	37.1250	38.5000
Standard Deviation	13.6549	9.9560	10.8398	13.1617	9.0944	7.6345	7.5392	9.3586	9.9053	12.2678
Standard Error	4.3180	3.1484	1.6726	2.5330	2.4306	2.6992	2.6655	4.5793	2.0219	2.8916
F Ratio=4.509	F Prob.=.0000									
Attitudes Toward Corr Inmates Score										
Mean	36.9000	32.6000	33.5714	32.6667	25.9286	34.8750	37.5000	34.7500	35.3750	29.3333
Standard Deviation	7.5491	8.6564	9.6200	10.0728	10.5135	9.7312	7.8921	10.1448	8.8160	11.8371
Standard Error	2.3872	2.7374	1.4844	1.9385	2.8098	3.4405	2.7903	5.0724	1.7996	2.7900
F Ratio=1.707	F Prob.=.0917									
Willingness to Teach at Corr Inst (0-6 scale)										
Mean	5.0000	3.0000	3.4048	3.4074	2.3571	3.7500	4.5000	3.2500	3.7917	2.8889
Standard Deviation	1.2472	2.2608	2.2422	2.0987	2.2051	2.6592	1.1952	2.6300	2.1464	2.3235
Standard Error	.3944	.7149	.3460	.4039	.5893	.9402	.4226	1.3150	.4381	.5477
F Ratio=1.457	F Prob.=.1686									
Willingness to Teach Off-Campus (0-6 scale)										
Mean	4.7000	4.0000	3.7857	3.7778	3.0714	4.6250	4.6250	4.5000	3.9583	3.3333
Standard Deviation	1.2517	2.0000	1.9448	1.9480	2.0555	.7440	1.3025	2.3805	2.0319	2.1963
Standard Error	.3958	.6325	.3001	.3749	.5494	.2631	.4605	1.1902	.4148	.5177
F Ratio=.987	F Prob.=.4527									
Preference of On- to Off-Campus (0-6 scale)										
Mean	2.3000	1.6000	1.6667	1.1852	.8571	1.0000	1.6250	1.2500	1.8333	.7778
Standard Deviation	1.5670	1.9550	1.8697	1.3598	1.6575	.9258	1.9226	.9574	2.1400	.6085
Standard Error	.4955	.6182	.2885	.2617	.4430	.3273	.6797	.4787	.4368	.1906
F Ratio=1.184	F Prob.=.3087									

Table 4-12
 Comparison of Semantic Differential, ATCI, and Selected Item Scores Among Community Colleges (John Tyler CC Groups Combined)

Variable	Community College (Count)							
	JTCC (62)	JSRCC (27)	NRCC (14)	NYCC (8)	POCCC (8)	SVCC (4)	TCC (24)	WCC (18)
Semantic Differential Score								
Mean	41.9032	38.3333	30.3571	35.5000	52.6250	37.2500	37.1250	38.5000
Standard Deviation	12.2014	13.1617	9.0944	7.6345	7.5392	9.3586	9.9053	12.2678
Standard Error	1.5496	2.5330	2.4306	2.6992	2.6655	4.6793	2.0219	2.8916
F Ratio=3.539	F Prob.=.0015							
Attitudes Toward Corr Inmates Score								
Mean	33.9516	32.6667	25.9286	34.8750	37.5000	34.7500	35.3750	29.3333
Standard Deviation	9.1372	10.0728	10.5135	9.7312	7.8921	10.1448	8.8160	11.8371
Standard Error	1.1604	1.9385	2.8098	3.4405	2.7903	5.0724	1.7996	2.7900
F Ratio=2.037	F Prob.=.0537							
Willingness to Teach at Corr Inst (0-6 scale)								
Mean	3.5958	3.4074	2.3571	3.7500	4.5000	3.2500	3.7917	2.8889
Standard Deviation	2.1838	2.0987	2.2051	2.6592	1.1952	2.6300	2.1464	2.3235
Standard Error	.2773	.4039	.5893	.9402	.4226	1.3150	.4381	.5477
F Ratio=1.090	F Prob.=.3725							
Willingness to Teach Off-Campus (0-6 scale)								
Mean	3.9677	3.7778	3.0714	4.6250	4.6250	4.5000	3.9583	3.3333
Standard Deviation	1.8640	1.9480	2.0555	.7440	1.3025	2.3805	2.0319	2.1963
Standard Error	.2367	.3749	.5494	.2631	.4605	1.1902	.4748	.5177
F Ratio=1.007	F Prob.=.4284							
Preference of On- to Off-Campus (0-5 scale)								
Mean	1.7581	1.1852	.8571	1.0000	1.6250	1.2500	1.8333	.7778
Standard Deviation	1.8259	1.3598	1.6575	.9258	1.9226	.9574	2.1400	.8085
Standard Error	.2319	.2617	.4430	.3273	.6797	.4787	.4368	.1906
F Ratio=1.349	F Prob.=.2310							

	JTCC (62)	JSRCC (27)	NRCC (14)	NRCC (8)	PDCCC (8)	SVCC (4)	TCC (24)	MCC (18)
Willingness to Teach at Corr Inst (0-2 scale)								
Mean	1.2903	1.1852	.8571	1.2500	1.7500	1.0000	1.2500	1.0000
Standard Deviation	.9647	1.0014	1.0271	1.0351	.7071	1.1547	.9091	1.0290
Standard Error	.1225	.1927	.2745	.3660	.2500	.5774	.2019	.2425
F Ratio=.813	F Prob.=.5776							
Willingness to Teach Off-Campus (0-2 scale)								
Mean	1.4032	1.3333	1.1429	2.0000	1.7500	1.5000	1.3750	1.0000
Standard Deviation	.9136	.9608	1.0271	.0000	.7071	1.0000	.9237	1.0290
Standard Error	.1160	.1849	.2745	.0000	.2500	.5000	.1886	.2425
F Ratio=1.299	F Prob.=.2541							
Preference of On- to Off-Campus (0-2 scale)								
Mean	.5161	.2222	.1429	.0000	.2500	.0000	.5417	.0000
Standard Deviation	.8635	.6405	.5345	.0000	.7071	.0000	.8836	.0000
Standard Error	.1097	.1233	.1429	.0000	.2500	.0000	.1804	.0000
F Ratio=2.025	F Prob.=.0551							

Table 4-13 shows that the experimental group at John Tyler (those who participated in the orientation program) responded significantly higher than the first control group (those who did not participate) on willingness to teach off-campus courses at a correctional institution (0-6 scale only $p=.046$), but that no significant differences existed on any of the other evaluative criteria. However, the last two columns of Table 4-13 show that positive effects of the orientation program were indicated on all of the evaluative criteria.

Finally, as a check on the discriminative ability of the semantic differential test and the ATCI scale, ONEWAY analysis of variance was performed using the final three items of the ATCI scale (0-6 and 0-2) as independent variables (one at a time) and the semantic differential and ATCI scores as dependent variables. Tables 4-14A and 4-14B show that significant differences existed on these scales between those with various degrees of preference and willingness to teach off-campus and willingness to teach off-campus courses at correctional institutions. Thus, the more positive the responses to the above, the higher the SD and ATCI scores on an overall basis.

Summary

Tables 4-15 through 4-18 summarize the results of the statistical tests conducted. The tables reflect the findings pertaining to Hypothesis 1-4, respectively.

Table 4-13

Comparison of Semantic Differential, ATCI, and Selected Item Scores Between John Tyler Community College Experimental and Control Groups

Variable	Number of Cases	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	F Value	2-tail Prob.	1-tail Prob.	Simple Effect	Movement from 50th Percentile to
SD	10	53.7000	13.655	4.318	1.88	.360	.180	1.250	89%
	10	41.3000	9.956	3.148					
ATCI	10	36.9000	7.549	2.387	1.31	.690	.345	.500	69%
	10	32.6000	8.656	2.737					
Item 12 (ATCI,0-6)	10	5.0000	1.247	.394	3.29	.091	.046	.880	81%
	10	3.0000	2.261	.715					
Item 11 (ATCI,0-6)	10	4.7000	1.252	.396	2.55	.179	.090	.350	64%
	10	4.0000	2.000	.632					
Item 10 (ATCI,0-6)	10	2.3000	1.567	.496	1.56	.520	.260	.360	64%
	10	1.6000	1.955	.618					
Item 12 (ATCI,0-2)	10	1.8000	.632	.200	2.78	.144	.072	.760	78%
	10	1.0000	1.054	.333					
Item 11 (ATCI,0-2)	10	1.8000	.632	.200	2.67	.160	.080	.580	72%
	10	1.2000	1.033	.327					
Item 10 (ATCI,0-2)	10	.8000	1.033	.327	1.50	.555	.278	.470	68%
	10	.4000	.843	.267					

Table 4-14A

Responses to ATCI Items 12, 11, 10 (0-6 Scale) and Corresponding Semantic Differential, ATCI Scores

Response to Item 12 (ATCI) Willingness to Teach at Correctional Inst. (Count)	Semantic Differential Mean		ATCI Mean	
0 (24)	31.7917		22.8333	
1 (22)	30.6344		25.0454	
2 (19)	37.1053		30.8747	
3 (0)	0.0000	F Ratio = $\frac{SD}{8.851}$	0.0000	F Ratio = $\frac{ATCI}{24.853}$
4 (22)	40.3636	F Prob. = .0000	32.6818	F Prob. = .0000
5 (46)	44.5652		37.3043	
6 (32)	44.2500		41.3750	

Response to Item 11 (ATCI) Willingness to Teach Off- Campus (Count)	Semantic Differential Mean		ATCI Mean	
0 (12)	29.6667		23.7500	
1 (13)	36.3077		29.0000	
2 (26)	34.6154		26.1923	
3 (2)	39.0000	F Ratio = $\frac{SD}{3.587}$	36.5000	F Ratio = $\frac{ATCI}{9.947}$
4 (28)	39.4286	F Prob. = .0023	31.6786	F Prob. = .0000
5 (49)	41.8367		35.8979	
6 (35)	43.8857		39.5143	

Response to Item 10 (ATCI)
Preference of On- to Off-
Campus (Count)

Semantic Differential
Mean

ATCI
Mean

Response	Semantic Differential Mean	ATCI Mean	F Ratio	F Prob.	ATCI F Ratio	ATCI F Prob.
0 (64)	33.6719	27.7656				
1 (41)	41.7805	34.6341				
2 (31)	42.8064	35.5484				
3 (3)	38.6667	38.0000	$\frac{SD}{F \text{ Ratio}} = 5.475$		$\frac{ATCI}{F \text{ Ratio}} = 7.384$	
4 (9)	50.8889	36.6667	F Prob. = .0000		F Prob. = .0000	
5 (13)	42.1538	40.0000				
6 (4)	44.7500	45.5000				

Scale:

0 Strongly Disagree
1 Slightly Disagree
2 Disagree

3 Neutral

4 Agree
5 Slightly Agree
6 Strongly Agree

Table 4-14B

Responses to ATCI Items 12, 11, 10 (0-2 Scale) and Corresponding Semantic Differential, ATCI Scores

Response to Item 12 (ATCI) Willingness to Teach at Correctional Inst. (Count)	Semantic Differential Mean		ATCI Mean	
0 (65)	32.9538	$\frac{SD}{F \text{ Ratio}} = 37.148$	25.9385	$\frac{ATCI}{F \text{ Ratio}} = 81.198$
1 (0)	0.0000	F Prob. = .0000	0.0000	F Prob. = .0000
2 (100)	43.5400		37.5900	

Response to Item (ATCI) Willingness to Teach Off-Campus (Count)	Semantic Differential Mean		ATCI Mean	
0 (51)	33.8823	$\frac{SD}{F \text{ Ratio}} = 8.416$	26.3333	$\frac{ATCI}{F \text{ Ratio}} = 20.760$
1 (2)	39.0000	F Prob. = .0003	36.5000	F Prob. = .0000
2 (112)	41.8750		35.9732	

Response to Item 10 (ATCI) Preference of On- to Off- Campus (Count)	Semantic Differential Mean		ATCI Mean	
0 (136)	38.1985	$\frac{SD}{F \text{ Ratio}} = 4.265$	31.6103	$\frac{ATCI}{F \text{ Ratio}} = 8.344$
1 (3)	38.6667	F Prob. = .0157	38.0000	F Prob. = .0004
2 (26)	45.5769		39.6923	

Scale:

- 0 Negative (0-2 Response)
- 1 Neutral (3 Response)
- 2 Positive (4-6 Response)

Table 4-15

Summary of Test Results: Hypothesis 1

Demographic Variable	<u>Evaluative Criterion</u>							
	SD	ATCI	ATCI12	ATCI11	ATCI10	PNN12	PNN11	PNN10
Sex	X							
Race					X			X
Age								
Academic Rank		X						
Comm Coll Teaching Exp								
Post-secondary Teaching Exp								

(X indicates significance at .05 level of confidence)

Key:

SD = Semantic Differential Score

ATCI = Attitudes Toward Correctional Inmates Score

ATCI12 = Willingness to Teach Off-Campus at Correctional Institution (0-6)

ATCI11 = Willingness to Teach Off-Campus (0-6)

ATCI10 = Preference of On- to Off-Campus (0-6)

PNN12 = Willingness to Teach Off-Campus at Correctional Institution (0-2)

PNN11 = Willingness to Teach Off-Campus (0-2)

PNN10 = Preference of On- to Off-Campus (0-2)

Table 4-16

Summary of Test Results: Hypothesis 2

Demographic Variable	Evaluative Criterion							
	SD	ATCI	ATCI12	ATCI11	ATCI10	PNN12	PNN11	PNN10
Correctional Teaching Exp	X Z	Z	Z	Z		Z	Z	
Greater Than Average Prior Contact With Correctional Inmates	Z	Z	Z	Z	Z	Z	Z	Z

(X indicates significance at .05 level of confidence, Z indicates positive simple effects)

Key:

SD = Semantic Differential Score

ATCI = Attitudes Toward Correctional Inmates Score

ATCI12 = Willingness to Teach Off-Campus at Correctional Institution (0-6)

ATCI11 = Willingness to Teach Off-Campus (0-6)

ATCI10 = Preference of On- to Off-Campus (0-6)

PNN12 = Willingness to Teach Off-Campus at Correctional Institution (0-2)

PNN11 = Willingness to Teach Off-Campus (0-2)

PNN10 = Preference of On- to Off-Campus (0-2)

Table 4-17

Summary of Test Results: Hypothesis 3

Demographic Variable	<u>Evaluative Criterion</u>							
	SD	ATCI	ATCI12	ATCI11	ATCI10	PNN12	PNN11	PNN10
Community College	X							

(X indicates significance at the .05 level of confidence)

Key:

SD = Semantic Differential Score

ATCI = Attitudes Toward Correctional Inmates Score

ATCI12 = Willingness to Teach Off-Campus at Correctional Institution (0-6)

ATCI11 = Willingness to Teach Off-Campus (0-6)

ATCI10 = Preference of On- to Off-Campus (0-6)

PNN12 = Willingness to Teach Off-Campus at Correctional Institution (0-2)

PNN11 = Willingness to Teach Off-Campus (0-2)

PNN10 = Preference of On- to Off-Campus (0-2)

Table 4-18

Summary of Test Results: Hypothesis 4

	<u>Evaluative Criterion</u>							
	SD	ATCI	ATCI12	ATCI11	ATCI10	PNN12	PNN11	PNN10
Experimental Group (John Tyler CC)			X					
Control Group 1 (John Tyler CC)	Z	Z	Z	Z	Z	Z	Z	Z

(X indicates significance at the .05 level of confidence, Z indicates positive simple effect

Key:

SD = Semantic Differential Score

ATCI = Attitudes Toward Correctional Inmates Score

ATCI12 = Willingness to Teach Off-Campus at Correctional Institution (0-6)

ATCI11 = Willingness to Teach Off-Campus (0-6)

ATCI10 = Preference of On- to Off-Campus (0-6)

PNN12 = Willingness to Teach Off-Campus at Correctional Institution (0-2)

PNN11 = Willingness to Teach Off-Campus (0-2)

PNN10 = Preference of On- to Off-Campus (0-2)

Chapter 5

Summary and Conclusions

In the final chapter, the study is summarized and its findings are stated and integrated with prior theory. In addition, the conclusions of the study are listed and implications for further research are recommended.

Summary

Community colleges have become increasingly involved in correctional education, and the trend appears likely to continue. A vital element in the success of current and future programs is the ability of community colleges to provide effective instructors.

The purpose of the study was to investigate the attitudes of community college faculty members toward those who are incarcerated in correctional institutions with the goal of gaining the participation of more full-time faculty in off-campus programs at these institutions. In particular, via an orientation program designed to provide contact between faculty members and the types of students and the environment they would encounter, an attempt was made to modify faculty attitudes toward inmates and willingness to teach at correctional institutions.

The specific problems addressed by the study were the following:

1. What are the attitudes of community college faculty members toward correctional inmates and toward involvement in the instructional services provided to correctional institutions?
2. Are attitudes related to a faculty member's sex, race, age, academic rank, years teaching at the community college and

postsecondary levels, experience teaching in a prison environment, and previous contact with correctional inmates?

3. Do faculty attitudes differ among institutions?
4. Can attitudes be favorably influenced by an orientation program designed to provide information about and contact with the correctional student and the institutional climate?

The subjects of the study were full-time, teaching faculty members from eight of the nine public community colleges in Virginia that were involved in correctional education programs as of the end of the 1976-1977 academic year. A semantic differential test, using "correctional inmate" as the concept and containing 13 bipolar adjective pairs, and a 12-item Likert rating scale developed specifically for use in the study--the Attitudes Toward Correctional Inmates (ATCI) scale--were used to measure faculty attitudes.

The design of the study was an extension of the Posttest-Only Control Group Design (Campbell & Stanley, 1963) to include an additional control group. The experimental group (those who participated in the orientation experiment) and first control group each consisted of 10 faculty members from John Tyler Community College. Random assignment was made to these groups from those faculty members at Tyler who volunteered to participate. The orientation program was conducted over a two-day period at the Petersburg (Virginia) Federal Correctional Institution and

at John Tyler Community College. The program was included as an optional part of the annual faculty and staff orientation at the college. The final control group consisted of 145 faculty members from eight community colleges that participated in the study (which represented a 62 percent usable return rate to the distributed questionnaires). Subjects were selected at random and anonymity of individual responses was guaranteed.

Findings

The findings of the study were:

1. Those faculty members at John Tyler Community College who participated in the orientation experiment were found to be significantly more willing to teach off-campus courses at correctional institutions than those who volunteered but did not participate. In addition, participants' attitudes toward inmates (as measured by a semantic differential test and the Attitudes Toward Correctional Inmates scale) and their willingness to teach off-campus courses (in general and versus on-campus assignments) were more favorable than those of non-participants.
2. The subjects at the eight community colleges involved in the study who considered their prior contact with correctional inmates to be greater than average had more favorable attitudes toward inmates and were significantly more willing to teach off-campus courses at correctional institutions than those who did not.

3. Those respondents who had previous experience teaching inmates in a correctional environment were found to have significantly more favorable responses on the semantic differential test, more favorable responses on the ATCI scale, and greater willingness to teach off-campus courses at correctional institutions than those who had no such experience.
4. Black respondents were found to have more favorable attitudes toward inmates and toward teaching off-campus courses at correctional institutions than white respondents. The black faculty members also expressed a significantly greater willingness to teach off-campus courses.
5. Assistant professors scored significantly higher on the ATCI scale and expressed greater willingness to teach off-campus at correctional institutions than instructors, associate professors, and professors.
6. Male subjects scored significantly higher than female subjects on the semantic differential test and expressed a slightly higher willingness to teach off-campus courses at correctional institutions than female subjects. However, females scored higher on the ATCI scale.
7. No significant differences in attitudes toward correctional inmates and willingness to teach off-campus courses at correctional institutions were found among the respondents of

the various age categories or among the respondents with various levels of community college and postsecondary teaching experience.

8. A significant difference was found on the semantic differential test among faculty members from the participating community colleges. In addition, the experimental group from John Tyler Community College and subjects from Paul D. Camp Community College consistently expressed the most favorable attitudes, while subjects from New River Community College and Wytheville Community College responded least favorably.
9. The semantic differential and ATCI scores of respondents were significantly related to willingness to teach off-campus courses at a correctional institution. The higher these scores, the more favorable the responses.

Discussion

The observed differences in attitudes toward correctional inmates and toward teaching off-campus courses at correctional institutions between those faculty members at John Tyler Community College who participated in the orientation program and those who did not indicate that a program that provides contact and interaction between faculty and inmates and an opportunity for faculty to observe the correctional environment can favorably affect faculty attitudes. Those who participated in the program scored higher (more positively) than non-participants on each of the evaluative

measures. In addition, based upon the overall findings of the study, respondents who had what they considered to be greater than average contact with correctional inmates and faculty members with experience teaching inmates in a correctional setting exhibited more positive attitudes than those who did not. These results support the contention of many previous investigators that direct contact is an important element in attitude formation and in inducing attitude change.

In designing the orientation program, particular attention was placed upon the studies of Gottlieb (1974) and Stern and Keislar (1975, 1977). Gottlieb (1974) suggested that exposure per se does not necessarily produce favorable attitude change [toward the institutionalized mentally retarded]--that the problem is far more complex. The works of Stern and Keislar (1975, 1977) suggested that the attitudes of teachers were more likely to undergo modification in an informal atmosphere that encourages freedom of individual and group participation and time for discussion and reflection. The orientation program was structured in a way that reflected these views.

The negative attitudes of some of the faculty members involved in the study suggest that an in-depth and systematic selection process needs to be undertaken by the community college personnel who coordinate correctional higher education programs. According to Combs (1965), "what a teacher believes...about the nature of his students will have a most important effect on how he behaves toward them" (p. 21). If this thesis is accepted, then the fact that some quite negative attitudes toward correctional inmates

and toward teaching off-campus courses at correctional institutions were held by persons who had been or were involved in such programs (at the time the questionnaires were filled out) indicate the possibility of negative teacher performance. These unfavorable attitudes also support Long's (1973) contention that faculty selection for college prison programs appeared to have been primarily based on availability rather than on philosophy and experience with the correctional climate. In addition, test results support the conclusion of Stern and Keislar (1975) that attitudes toward a minority student group do not become more favorable simply through a teaching assignment with students from this group; that, in fact, attitudes may become more unfavorable.

Furthermore, the positive attitudes held by many of those not involved in college prison programs at the schools participating in the study suggest the possibility that many teachers who would be effective in a correctional setting have been bypassed for those less willing and, therefore, less able to operate optimally in such an environment. Thus, the findings of the study appear to indicate that some faculty members are suited for correctional assignments, while others are not. The difficult task facing community college administrators is to accurately determine in to which group a particular teacher fits.

The data compiled from the study indicate that community college faculty members should not be eliminated from consideration for correctional assignments because of sex, race, age, academic rank, years teaching experience in the community college system, or years teaching experience at

the postsecondary level. Although certain trends emerged, positive attitudes were displayed by individuals within the categories of each of the demographic variables.

A most important interpretation of the results of the study is that no faculty member should be forced or pressured to teach a course at a correctional institution. As previously stated, freedom in the attitude formation and attitude change processes appear to foster positive attitudes, while lack of freedom often leads to negative attitudes. In addition, indications are that an instructor with negative attitudes toward his or her students might encounter severe problems in teaching performance and interaction with students. On the other hand, those faculty members unfamiliar with the correctional environment should be given the opportunity to observe the climate directly; i.e., the choice must be personal and based upon empirical evidence.

The semantic differential test and the ATCI scale (based upon the studies of Osgood, Suci, & Tannenbaum, 1957, and Yaker, Block, & Young, 1970, respectively) appeared to be effective in measuring the attitudes focused upon in the study. Indications are that an individual knowledgeable of correctional education and skilled in the interpretation of test results could use test responses as input into the decision-making processes involved in faculty assignments to correctional institutions.

Conclusions

The conclusions of the study are:

1. An orientation program designed to familiarize community college faculty members with inmate students and the

correctional environment can produce favorable changes in attitudes toward correctional inmates and toward teaching off-campus courses at correctional institutions.

2. There is a wide range of attitudes toward inmates and toward correctional education assignments among the faculty members from the institutions in the Virginia Community College System that engage in correctional education programs. The diversity exists within and among institutions.
3. Community college faculty who have had prior contact with correctional inmates--whether in an instructional role or in general--have, on an overall basis, more favorable attitudes toward inmates and instructional assignments to prisons than those who have had little or no such contact.
4. Black faculty members and assistant professors exhibit more favorable attitudes toward inmates and participation in the correctional services provided by their colleges than white faculty members and those faculty of the other academic ranks.
5. The age, sex, and years of teaching experience at the community college and postsecondary levels of faculty members are not significant determinants of the attitudes these persons hold regarding correctional inmates and correctional education assignments.

Recommendations for Further Research

The following recommendations and areas for further research are suggested:

1. The semantic differential test and Attitudes Toward Correctional Inmates scale used in the study need to be tested more thoroughly. Further development and testing of instruments designed to measure faculty attitudes toward correctional inmates and toward teaching off-campus courses at correctional institutions need to be undertaken. Extensive research is also needed in the area of data interpretation.

2. The effectiveness of orientation programs designed to familiarize faculty members with correctional inmates and the correctional environment needs to be further examined. In addition, alternative methods of favorably modifying attitudes toward correctional inmates and toward teaching assignments in college prison programs should be explored.

3. Follow-up analyses need to be conducted after attitude measurement tests have been administered in order to determine the accuracy of test scores in predicting the success or failure of an instructor's performance in a correctional setting.

4. Community college personnel who develop, implement, and maintain programs at correctional institutions need to establish systematic and in-depth methods of coordinating these programs. Particular attention should be placed upon the areas of planning, faculty assignments, and program evaluation.

5. Studies designed to determine inmate/student evaluation of effective teaching methods, styles, and philosophies need to be conducted, as do studies

that assess the compatibility of community college and correctional goals and missions.

6. If one accepts the premise that teaching success in a normal educational setting does not guarantee success in a correctional environment, then the feasibility of incorporating a correctional education component into college and university schools of education and providing in-service correctional education training to faculties at institutions of higher education needs to be examined.

7. Because the large majority of faculty members involved in this study preferred on- to off-campus teaching assignments, efforts should be made to determine the reasons behind the preference and examine ways to modify faculty attitudes on this issue.

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Appendix A
Fall Orientation for Faculty and Staff of
John Tyler Community College: Letter Dealing with
Correctional Activities

COLLEGE LEVEL EDUCATIONAL PROCESS AT THE FEDERAL CORRECTIONAL INSTITUTION

by Art Friedman

John Tyler Community College has for several years conducted degree and certificate programs in business management and drafting at the Federal Correctional Institution in Petersburg. In addition to the required courses for these programs, elective and developmental courses have also been offered. During the past academic year 127 different inmates took advantage of John Tyler's course offerings.

As a part of the Fall Orientation on September 8 and 9, a program will be available to faculty members interested in observing the college level process at the correctional facility. The planned activities will take place on the afternoon of Thursday, September 8, and briefly, early Friday afternoon, September 9. The Thursday afternoon session will include a tour of the correctional institution. Those who participate in this program will be excused from regular assignments during these times. Transportation will be provided. The program has been designed solely for informational purposes. Participation or non-participation will have no bearing whatsoever on current or future course assignments. It is hoped that participation in this program will prove to be a valuable learning experience.

For further information please contact Art Friedman at Ext. 336 or at 271-9315, or Debi Wells at Ext. 212.

Appendix B

Directors of Continuing Education at Colleges Contacted

J. Sargeant Reynolds Community College

New River Community College

Northern Virginia Community College

Paul D. Camp Community College

Southside Virginia Community College

Thomas Nelson Community College

Tidewater Community College

Wytheville Community College

Dr. Robert Grymes

Ms. Dorothy L. Talbott

Dr. Larry McFarlane

Mrs. Romine C. Hundley

Mrs. Mary Ann Clarke

Mr. Richard O. Hansen

Mr. D. William Bridges

Mr. Earl K. Cherry

Appendix C

Example of Instructional Letter Sent to Directors of Continuing Education

September 20, 1977

Mrs. Mary Ann Clarke
 Director of Continuing Education
 Southside Virginia Community College
 Christanna Campus
 U. S. #1, State Route 46
 Alberta, Virginia 23821

Dear Mrs. Clarke,

I enjoyed speaking with you on the telephone the other day and very much appreciate your willingness to cooperate and assist me with this study.

Enclosed are 30 copies of the questionnaire with a cover sheet explaining its purpose and an envelope attached to each copy. I would like for you to place a copy in the mailbox of each full-time, teaching faculty member whose last name begins with N through Z. The directions on the cover sheet request the participant to complete the questionnaire, place it in the envelope, and return it to your office. The directions also ask that the questionnaires be returned by October 7 or as soon as convenient thereafter. I would appreciate if you would wait until October 14 (Friday) or October 17 (Monday) and mail me the completed questionnaires at the following address:

Art Friedman
 Division of Business
 John Tyler Community College
 Chester, Virginia 23831

Please note that although the questionnaires pertain to opinions on prisoners, faculty members with no experience in correctional education are still to be included (all full-time teaching faculty, N-Z). Please keep a count (or approximation) of copies handed out.

Again, thank you so much for your help. I hope it does not prove to be a great inconvenience to you or your staff. If there are any questions or problems, please call me at John Tyler (804) 748-6481 (X 336 or X 337) or at home (804) 271-9315 (COLLECT).

With sincere appreciation,

Art Friedman

Art Friedman

Appendix D

**Bipolar Adjective Pairs used in the Pilot-Test of
the Semantic Differential with Factor Loadings**

		<u>E</u>	<u>P</u>	<u>A</u>
good	bad	.88	.05	.09
valuable	worthless	.79	.04	.13
pleasant	unpleasant	.82	-.05	.28
strong	weak	.19	.62	.20
large	small	.06	.62	.34
heavy	light	-.36	.62	-.11
fast	slow	.01	.00	.70
active	passive	.14	.04	.59
sharp	dull	.23	.07	.52

fair	unfair	.83	.08	-.07
nice	awful	.87	-.08	.19
kind	cruel	.82	-.10	-.18
clean	dirty	.82	-.05	.03
peaceful	ferocious	.69	.17	.41
deep	shallow	.27	.46	.14
wide	narrow	.26	.41	-.07
hot	cold	-.04	-.06	.46

Appendix E
Pilot-Test Form of Semantic Differential

Appendix F

Final Form of Semantic Differential

CORRECTIONAL INMATE (PRISONER)

strong _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : weak
 wide _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : narrow
 worthless _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : valuable
 peaceful _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : ferocious
 cruel _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : kind
 slow _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : fast
 sharp _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : dull
 dirty _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : clean
 deep _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : shallow
 bad _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : good
 pleasant _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : unpleasant
 unfair _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : fair
 nice _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : awful

Appendix G
Pilot-Test Form of ATCI

- ___ 1. Most criminal offenders do not desire a useful place in society or to live a normal life.
- ___ 2. I believe that rehabilitation is more effective than punishment.
- ___ 3. Correctional inmates in college programs are less prepared academically than on-campus community college students.
- ___ 4. If I were an employer, I would seriously consider hiring an ex-convict.
- ___ 5. Prison educational programs, particularly college-level programs, are an unfair burden to tax-paying citizens.
- ___ 6. The overwhelming motive for inmate enrollment in college programs is perceived benefits from parole boards.
- ___ 7. It is difficult to recognize, by his appearance, an individual who has served time in prison.
- ___ 8. I would have a hard time not thinking about physical danger if I were teaching in a prison setting.
- ___ 9. Much of the blame for the crimes that are committed in the United States must be placed upon society.
- ___ 10. Teaching correctional inmates requires far more emphasis on discipline than teaching other students.
- ___ 11. Prisoners with a high school diploma or the equivalent who wish to enroll in college programs should be directed into programs teaching a trade or a skill instead.
- ___ 12. If a member of my family were serving time in a correctional institution, I would do anything possible to keep my colleagues from finding out.
- ___ 13. Most correctional inmates expect unusual treatment from their instructors.
- ___ 14. The fact that the rate of recidivism (return to prison) for those inmates who have participated in college-level educational programs has not been shown to significantly decrease demonstrates that these programs are largely unsuccessful.
- ___ 15. An instructor has to be careful about what he (or she) says when teaching correctional inmates.
- ___ 16. Once a criminal, always a criminal.
- ___ 17. I would prefer to teach on-campus to teaching off-campus.
- ___ 18. I would object to teaching off-campus.
- ___ 19. I would object to teaching an off-campus course at a correctional institution.

Appendix H
Final Form of ATCI Scale

III. The final section seeks your views on a series of statements.

Mark each statement in the left margin according to how much you agree or disagree with it. Please mark every one. Write +1, +2, +3, or -1, -2, -3, depending on how you feel in each case.

+3: I strongly agree

-1: I slightly disagree

+2: I agree

-2: I disagree

+1: I slightly agree

-3: I strongly disagree

- _____ 1. Most criminal offenders do not desire a useful place in society or to live a normal life.
- _____ 2. I believe that rehabilitation is more effective than punishment.
- _____ 3. Correctional inmates in college programs are less prepared academically than on-campus community college students.
- _____ 4. If I were an employer, I would seriously consider hiring an ex-convict.
- _____ 5. A major motive for inmate enrollment in college programs is avoidance of more strenuous and distasteful jobs.
- _____ 6. I would have a hard time not thinking about physical danger if I were teaching in a prison setting.
- _____ 7. Most correctional inmates expect unusual treatment from their instructors.
- _____ 8. An instructor has to be careful about what he (or she) says when teaching correctional inmates.
- _____ 9. Once a criminal, always a criminal.
- _____ 10. I would prefer teaching on-campus to teaching off-campus.
- _____ 11. I would object to teaching off-campus.
- _____ 12. I would object to teaching an off-campus course at a correctional institution.

Appendix I
Final Form of Questionnaire

This study consists of three parts. The first section asks for informational data; the second and third sections, preceded by instructions, seek your opinion on matters related to correctional inmates and the education of prisoners. The anonymity of your responses is guaranteed (you are requested not to sign your name to the survey), and your views will in no way affect your teaching assignments, nor the assignment of other instructors at your institution. Your participation will be greatly appreciated and most beneficial to the investigation.

I. Please place a check in the appropriate box.

1. SEX: Male Female
2. RACE: Black White Other _____
3. AGE: 20-29 30-39 40-49 50-59 60-69
4. ACADEMIC RANK: Instr. Asst. Prof. Assoc. Prof. Prof.
5. YEARS TEACHING IN THE COMMUNITY COLLEGE SYSTEM:

2 years or less <input type="checkbox"/>	between 3 and 5 years <input type="checkbox"/>	more than 5 years <input type="checkbox"/>
---	---	---
6. YEARS TEACHING AT THE POST-SECONDARY LEVEL:

same as above (if so, check and go on to next question) <input type="checkbox"/>	5 years or less <input type="checkbox"/>	more than 5 years but less than 10 years <input type="checkbox"/>	more than 10 years <input type="checkbox"/>
---	---	---	--
7. HAVE YOU EVER TAUGHT CORRECTIONAL INMATES IN A PRISON ENVIRONMENT?

Yes <input type="checkbox"/>	No <input type="checkbox"/>
------------------------------	-----------------------------
8. HAVE YOU HAD WHAT YOU CONSIDER TO BE SIGNIFICANTLY GREATER THAN AVERAGE CONTACT WITH CORRECTIONAL INMATES?

Yes <input type="checkbox"/>	No <input type="checkbox"/>
------------------------------	-----------------------------

Comments:

- II. The purpose of this section is to measure the meaning of a concept to various people by having them judge the concept against a series of descriptive scales. In taking this test, please make your judgments on the basis of what the concept means to you.

Here is how you are to use these scales:

If you feel that the concept is very closely related to one end of the scale, you should place your check-mark as follows:

fair X : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : unfair
or

fair _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : X : unfair

If you feel that the concept is quite closely related to one or the other end of the scale (but not extremely), you should place your check-mark as follows:

fair _____ : X : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : unfair
or

fair _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : X : _____ : unfair

If the concept seems only slightly related to one side as opposed to the other side (but is not really neutral), then you should check as follows:

fair _____ : _____ : X : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : unfair
or

fair _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : X : _____ : _____ : unfair

If you consider the concept to be neutral on the scale, both sides of the scale equally associated with the concept, or if the scale is completely irrelevant, unrelated to the concept, then you should place your check in the middle space:

fair _____ : _____ : _____ : X : _____ : _____ : _____ : unfair

IMPORTANT: (1) Place marks in the middle of spaces, not on the boundaries:

 this X , not this _____ X _____

(2) Never put more than one check-mark on a single scale.

The final section seeks your views on a series of statements.

Mark each statement in the left margin according to how much you agree or disagree with it. Please mark every one. Write +1, +2, +3, or -1, -2, -3, depending on how you feel in each case.

+3: I strongly agree

-1: I slightly disagree

+2: I agree

-2: I disagree

+1: I slightly agree

-3: I strongly disagree

- _____ 1. Most criminal offenders do not desire a useful place in society or to live a normal life.
- _____ 2. I believe that rehabilitation is more effective than punishment.
- _____ 3. Correctional inmates in college programs are less prepared academically than on-campus community college students.
- _____ 4. If I were an employer, I would seriously consider hiring an ex-convict.
- _____ 5. A major motive for inmate enrollment in college programs is avoidance of more strenuous and distasteful jobs.
- _____ 6. I would have a hard time not thinking about physical danger if I were teaching in a prison setting.
- _____ 7. Most correctional inmates expect unusual treatment from their instructors.
- _____ 8. An instructor has to be careful about what he (or she) says when teaching correctional inmates.
- _____ 9. Once a criminal, always a criminal.
- _____ 10. I would prefer teaching on-campus to teaching off-campus.
- _____ 11. I would object to teaching off-campus.
- _____ 12. I would object to teaching an off-campus course at a correctional institution.

Appendix J

**Example of Cover Letter for Questionnaires
to Participating Institutions Other Than JTCC**

TO: Selected Teaching Faculty

FROM: Arthur H. Friedman, Assistant Professor, Business Management, JTCC
Doctoral Candidate, College of William and Mary

SUBJECT: Questionnaire

The following questionnaire is part of an investigation of faculty opinions. The directions on the following page will explain its purpose more completely.

It would be very much appreciated if you would complete the form and return it in the attached envelope by Friday, October 21, 1977, or at your earliest convenience thereafter. Please do not sign your name.

The questionnaire will take approximately ten minutes to fill out. The study has been approved for distribution at your campus by the Virginia Community College System, Dr. Richard Ernst, Dr. Joe Rossmeyer, and Dr. Larry McFarlane.

Your selection for participation in this investigation was determined solely because your last name begins with a letter from N through Z. The address labels on your packet were printed and attached by the Department of Research and Planning at NVCC. As is explained in the instructions, complete anonymity is guaranteed. The final output will be in a grouped data format.

THANK YOU SO MUCH FOR YOUR TIME AND COOPERATION.

Appendix K

Cover Letter for Questionnaires to Experimental Group at JTCC

Appendix L

**Cover Letter for Questionnaire to JTCC Faculty
Not Involved in Orientation Program**

JOHN TYLER COMMUNITY COLLEGE**MEMORANDUM**

TO: All Teaching Faculty

DATE: September 12, 1977

FROM: Dale E. White

SUBJECT: Questionnaire

The following questionnaire is part of an investigation of faculty opinions. The directions on the following page will explain its purpose more completely.

Please complete and return to my office or mailbox by Friday, September 16, or as soon as possible thereafter. You are requested to use the attached envelope and NOT to sign your name.

Thank you very much for your cooperation.

Vita

Arthur Howard Friedman was born January 19, 1948 in Richmond, Virginia. After graduating from John Randolph Tucker High School in 1966, he enrolled at the University of Virginia where he was awarded a Bachelor of Arts degree in Economics in 1970. He was then employed as a programmer and systems analyst by the Life Insurance Company of Virginia, while also pursuing a Master of Commerce degree in Marketing and Industrial Relations at the University of Richmond. After receiving this degree in 1974, he accepted a position as Instructor of Business Management at John Tyler Community College in Chester, Virginia. From September, 1975 through August, 1978, he was the coordinator of the college's Associate of Applied Science in Business Management program at the Petersburg (Virginia) Federal Correctional Institution. Concurrent with beginning his teaching career, he entered the doctoral program in Higher Education Administration at the College of William and Mary, receiving a Certificate of Advanced Graduate Study in 1976 and the Doctor of Education degree in 1978.

Friedman is currently serving as Assistant Professor and Program Head, Business Management and Business Administration, at John Tyler Community College.

Abstract

COMMUNITY COLLEGE FACULTY MEMBERS' ATTITUDES TOWARD CORRECTIONAL INMATES: AN ATTEMPT TO INCREASE FACULTY PARTICIPATION IN OFF-CAMPUS INSTRUCTION AT CORRECTIONAL INSTITUTIONS

ARTHUR HOWARD FRIEDMAN, Ed. D.
THE COLLEGE OF WILLIAM AND MARY, 1978

CHAIRMAN: DONALD J. HERRMANN, Ph. D.

Community colleges have become increasingly involved in correctional education, and the trend appears likely to continue. A vital element in the success of current and future programs is the ability of community colleges to provide effective instructional services.

The purpose of the study was to investigate the attitudes of community college faculty members toward those who are incarcerated in correctional institutions with the goal of gaining the participation of more full-time faculty in off-campus programs at these institutions. In particular, via an orientation program designed to provide contact between faculty members and the types of students and the environment they would encounter, an attempt was made to favorably modify faculty attitudes toward inmates and increase faculty willingness to teach at correctional institutions.

Attitudes were defined operationally as scores on a 13-item semantic differential test with "correctional inmate" as the concept and a 12-item Likert rating scale (Attitudes Toward Correctional Inmates), both developed specifically for use in the study. The design of the study was an extension of the Posttest-Only Control Group Design (Campbell & Stanley, 1963) to include an additional control group.

Subjects of the study were 165 full-time teaching faculty from eight of the nine public community colleges in Virginia that provided educational services to correctional institutions. The experimental group (those who participated in the orientation program) and first control group were each composed of 10 randomly selected faculty members from John Tyler Community College in Chester, Virginia. The orientation, conducted over a two-day period at the Petersburg (Virginia) Federal Correctional Institution and at John Tyler Community College, consisted of a thorough tour of the prison, interaction with inmates in the correctional and college settings, a packet of reading materials, and group discussions. The final control group was composed of 145 randomly chosen faculty members from the eight community colleges that participated in the study, which represented a 62 percent usable return rate to the distributed questionnaires.

The major conclusions of the study, based upon t-tests, one-way analyses of variance, and crosstabulation analyses of statistical data, were:

1. An orientation program designed to familiarize community college faculty members with inmate students and the correctional environment can produce favorable changes in attitudes toward correctional inmates and toward teaching off-campus courses at correctional institutions.
2. There is a wide range of attitudes toward inmates and toward correctional education assignments among the faculty members from the institutions in the Virginia Community College System that engage in correctional education programs. The diversity exists within and among institutions.
3. Community college faculty who have had prior contact with correctional inmates--whether in an instructional role or in general--have, on an overall basis, more favorable attitudes toward inmates and instructional assignments to prisons than those who have had little or no such contact.
4. Black faculty members and assistant professors exhibit more favorable attitudes toward inmates and participation in the correctional services provided by their colleges than white faculty members and those faculty of the other academic ranks.
5. The age, sex, and years of teaching experience at the community college and postsecondary levels of faculty members are not significant determinants of the attitudes these persons hold regarding correctional inmates and correctional education assignments.