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# Effects of the Walters Criminal Lifestyle Program on Offenders' Criminal Thinking Styles

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# Walden University

College of Social and Behavioral Sciences

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Alessandre Singher

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Walden University  
2017

Abstract

Effects of the Walters Criminal Lifestyle Program on Offenders' Criminal Thinking

Styles

by

Alessandre Singher

MS, Walden University, 2008

BS, Hunter College, 1991

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

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## Abstract

Researchers have documented the high prevalence of crime in society and the need for programs to assist in the reduction of crime. Social cognitive and criminal lifestyle theories were the two major theoretical frameworks applied to this study due to their focus on the influence of cognitive change on behavioral modifications. A lifestyle approach in such programs reshapes criminal thoughts and transforms criminal behaviors. The efficacy of a lifestyle program in a community correctional facility outside of federal prison walls, modified to run 3 months with parolees and probationers, lacks evidenced research. Using a 2x3 between groups factorial ANCOVA, archival data, which had not previously evaluated, was used to assess whether there were any treatment or cohort differences in criminal thinking. Archival pre and posttest data from The Psychological Inventory of Criminal Thinking Styles were collected from 3 cohort groups who participated in 5 weeks of the criminality program as compared to 5 weeks of primary group programming. Pretest scores on the criminal thinking inventory were controlled to assess the presence of any posttest differences between treatment conditions and cohorts. This study's findings reported statistically significant differences in posttest scores for the criminality program as compared to the primary group program. Using study's findings, clinicians can develop programs that assist in changing an individual's worth, values, and thinking process, which may assist in building outcomes of lower recidivism rates. These lifestyle changes can promote positive social change within the social structure of offenders, the community, and society.

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## Dedication

This dissertation is dedicated Dr. Sandra Rasmussen, Dr. Anthony Napoli, all my clients, and my dissertation colleagues.

## Acknowledgments

To Sam, without whom, I would never have believed.

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## Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

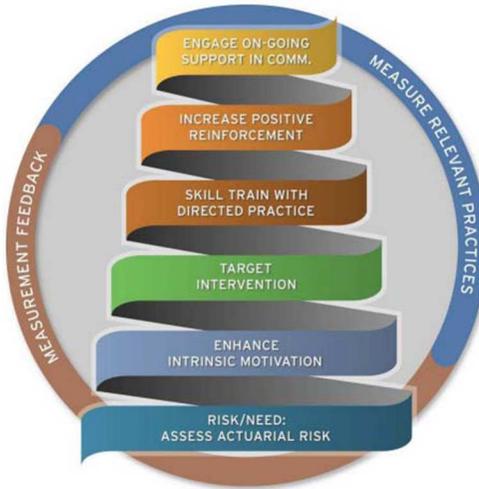
### **Background**

To control the growing population of offenders, the United States has built prisons and changed sentencing regulations (Garland & Sparks, 2000; Kovandzic & Vieraitis, 2006; Mauer, 2001). Chancer and McLaughlin (2007) and Garland (2001) examined societal fear of crime as the incentive that spurred the increase in United States sentencing policies. These changes involved “power and class shifts, capitalism increase, familial structure breakdown, and technology increase” (Garland & Sparks, 2000, p. 15). The U.S. federal government spends approximately \$20,000 per offender per year to maintain their imprisonment (Mauer, 2001).

Many individuals in the United States value possessions as representations of respect, power, and worth (Kasser & Ryan, 1996; Prilleltensky, 1997; Rayburn, 2004). This value system produces inequality, competition, and meaningless lives, according to some critics (see Bebeau, Rest, & Narvaez, 1999; Garland & Sparks, 2000). Without an ability to cope with stress or familial values, one can choose a criminal lifestyle to achieve an image and acquire possessions that are regarded in U.S. society as stature building (Garland & Sparks, 2000; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Prilleltensky, 1997; Prilleltensky & Nelson, 2000).

Outcome evaluations of correctional programs have highlighted the effectiveness of addressing criminal attitudes, thoughts, and values in transforming criminal behavior (Andrews & Bonta, 2006; Bogue et al., 2005; Guevara & Solomon, 2009; Joplin et al., 2004; Landenberger & Lipsey, 2005; Latessa & Lowenkamp, 2006; Walters, 1990, 1995,

2002a, 2002b, 2005, 2006, 2012). Transformation of criminal thinking is a short-term outcome that can spur the long-term outcome of correctional EBPs of recidivism reduction and increase the public's sense of safety (Andrews & Bonta, 2006; Bogue et al., 2005; Guevara & Solomon, 2009; Joplin et al., 2004; Landenberger & Lipsey, 2005; Latessa & Lowenkamp, 2006). Many criminality professionals have asserted that these funds should be applied to evidence-based practices (EBP) that reduce recidivism and prevent criminality (see Andrews & Bonta, 2006; Bogue et al., 2005; Garland & Sparks, 2000; Guevara & Solomon, 2009; Joplin et al., 2004; Kovandzic & Vieraitis, 2006; Landenberger & Lipsey, 2005; Latessa & Lowenkamp, 2006; Mauer, 2001). EBP's outcomes indicate a reduction in offender criminal attitudes, thoughts, and values which have been found to be associated with decreased recidivism and the promotion of public safety (Andrews & Bonta, 2006; Bogue et al., 2005; Cullen, Eck, & Lowenkamp, 2002; Guevara & Solomon, 2009; Joplin et al., 2004; Landenberger & Lipsey, 2005; Latessa & Lowenkamp, 2006). Targeting criminogenic needs and criminal risks are major elements in the principles that guide effective outcome behavior (Andrews & Bonta, 2006; Bogue et al., 2005; Guevara & Solomon, 2009; Joplin et al., 2004; Landenberger & Lipsey, 2005; Latessa & Lowenkamp, 2006; Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2005, 2006, 2012). Criminogenic needs include criminal thinking as one of the eight principles of EBP (National Institute of Corrections, 2009) and is the short-term outcome of this study as well as Walters whose study is being replicated (1990; see Figure 1).



*Figure 1.* Eight evidence-based principles of effective interventions integrated into quality assurance model. Reprinted from *Implementing evidence-based principles* (p. 25), United States Department of Justice, 2009, Washington D.C.: United States Department of Justice.

### **Problem Statement**

In 2010, the correctional population in the United States comprised 7.1 million individuals (Glaze, 2010). In 2012, 4,781, 300 total offenders were on parole or probation in their designated communities (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2012) with a ratio of one officer to 30 parolees and one officer to 175 probationers (Cullen, Eck, & Lowenkamp, 2002). From 1990 to 2010, 11.9 % of released offenders have been reincarcerated before a 3-year period (Pew Center, 2010). The social problem of criminality puts millions of children's lives and human connectivity at risk.

There were 955, 669 reported crimes in Pennsylvania in 2009 (Pennsylvania crime reporting system, 2011). In Lehigh County, Pennsylvania, 21, 236 crimes were

reported in 2010 (Pennsylvania crime reporting system, 2011). In the study's Pennsylvanian city there were 12, 233 reported crime totals in 2010. These numbers illustrate the need for EBP implementation in correctional facilities' programs in and outside of prisons to discourage the continuation of criminal behavior (see Andrews & Bonta, 2006; Bogue et al., 2005; Guevara & Solomon, 2009; Joplin et al., 2004; Landenberger & Lipsey, 2005; Latessa & Lowenkamp, 2006; Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2005, 2006, 2012).

One of the eight EBPs of effective interventions with offenders is assessing their criminogenic needs and risks (Andrews & Bonta, 2006; Bogue et al., 2005; Guevara & Solomon, 2009; Joplin et al., 2004; Landenberger & Lipsey, 2005; Latessa & Lowenkamp, 2006; Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2005, 2006, 2012). Criminal thinking was the highlighted criminogenic need of the Walters original criminal lifestyle program (CLP; Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2005, 2006, 2012) as it was in this study. The assessment and modification of criminal thinking was CLP's short term outcome (Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2005, 2006, 2012), as it was one in this study. The long-term outcome of CLP was to reduce recidivism. Statistically significant in Walters' work with federal prisoners whose length of stay could span many years, was the reduction of recidivism (Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2005, 2006, 2012). Neither short nor long term outcomes have been previously measured with parolees whose length of stay was up to 90 days (Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2005, 2006, 2012). Criminality was the name of the shortened program derived from CLP that

addressed the different length of stays and type of offenders through its content and duration.

To further examine outcomes for parolees with shortened lengths of stays, archival pre and posttest data from The Psychological Inventory of Criminal Thinking Styles were collected from three cohort groups who participated in 5 weeks of criminality as compared to 5 weeks of primary group programming. This data can be used to assess main effects and interactions between treatments and cohorts. A 2x3 between groups factorial ANCOVA assessed the effectiveness of two programs in reducing three cohorts' criminal thinking. The independent variables were the types of treatment (criminality and primary group) and the three cohorts. The dependent variable was the scores on the PICTS administered following completion of intervention programs. Scores on the PICTS administered prior to the commencement of the programs were used as a covariate to control for individual difference.

### **Purpose of the Study**

A modified CLP (Andrews & Bonta, 2006; Walters, 1999, 2005, 2012) named Criminality is a standard practice in a community correctional facility I studied. Criminality is a modified CLP (Walters, 1999, 2002, 2005, 2012) that addresses the extensive parolees and offenders who are sent to community correctional facilities instead of being incarcerated due to sentencing changes and increased prison populations (Pennsylvania State Parole, 2013). The original Walters (1999, 2005) CLP has three sections and is used federal prisoners to evaluate its outcomes (Walters, 1999, 2002, 2005, 2012). Criminality addresses many gaps. It addressed a different population than

the federal offenders whom Walters (1999, 2002, 2005, 2012) had included.

Criminality's sample was comprised of state parolees and county probationers. The Walters original CLP (1999, 2005) ran up to 2 years. Each Criminality program ran 5 weeks. This modification was implemented due to offenders' shortened length of stays due to lack of state, federal or insurance funding. Walters (1999, 2005) used differential sections of program dynamics and education. Criminality used CLP's first section, criminal thinking change, due to the time constraints placed upon parolees and probationers in a community correctional center (Andrews & Bonta, 2006; Walters, 1999, 2005, 2012). The first section's outcomes coincided with correctional EBP's short-term outcomes of offenders' alteration of criminal thinking (Andrews & Bonta, 2006; Bogue et al., 2005; Cullen et al., 2006; Guevara & Solomon, 2009; Joplin et al., 2004; Landenberger & Lipsey, 2005; Latessa & Lowenkamp, 2006).

In this study, the three cohorts' groups archival pre and posttest data from The Psychological Inventory of Criminal Thinking Styles (PICTS) was used to assess any main effects or interactions between treatments and cohorts. Each cohort group had 40 participants who attended two different treatment groups; 20 participants attended a 5-week criminality group while 20 participants attended a primary group. Each program is described and defined in Chapter 3. A 2x3 between group factorial assessed the effectiveness of two treatment groups in reducing three cohorts' criminal thinking. The independent variables were the types of treatment (criminality, primary group) and the three cohorts. The dependent variable was the scores on the PICTS administered following completion of treatment programs. Scores on the PICTS administered prior to

the commencement of the programs were used as a covariate to control for individual difference. The design and components of this study are further described in Chapter 3.

### **Research Question and Hypotheses**

RQ1. Are there significant mean differences in post intervention criminal thinking scores for the criminality group and the primary group, while controlling for their pretest scores?

$H_01$ : After controlling for pretest PICTS scores, there are no significant effects for cohorts on criminal thinking posttest scores on the Psychological Inventory of Criminal Thinking Styles.

$H_{a1}$ : After controlling for pretest PICTS scores, there are significant effects for cohorts on criminal thinking posttest scores on the Psychological Inventory of Criminal Thinking Styles.

$H_02$ : After controlling for pretest PICTS scores, there are no significant effects for treatment on criminal thinking posttest scores on the Psychological Inventory of Criminal Thinking Styles.

$H_{a2}$ : After controlling for pretest PICTS scores, there are significant effects for treatment on criminal thinking posttest scores on the Psychological Inventory of Criminal Thinking Styles.

$H_03$ : After controlling for pretest PICTS scores, there are no significant Cohort x Treatment interaction on criminal thinking posttest scores on the Psychological Inventory of Criminal Thinking Styles.

*H<sub>a3</sub>*: After controlling for pretest PICTS scores, there are significant Cohort x Treatment interaction on criminal thinking posttest scores on the Psychological Inventory of Criminal Thinking Styles.

### **Theoretical Foundation**

Criminal lifestyle theory (CLT) evolved from diverse criminality approaches. The approaches elucidate the diversity of criminality, its treatment approaches, moral reasoning, and education.

#### **Criminality**

Criminality has been explored through differential association theory (Akers, 1985, 1991, 1994, 1996, 1998; Costello & Vowell, 1999; Sutherland, 1947). Differential association theory influenced Aker's social learning and Bandura's social cognitive theoretical perspectives (Aker 1991, 1994, 1998; Bandura, 1999, 2002; Bandura, Barbaranelli, Caprara, & Pastorelli, 1996; Bandura, Caprara, Barbaranelli, Pastorelli, & Regalia, 2001).

Thornberry (1987) and Thornberry, Lizotte, Krohn, Farnworth, and Jang (1991) promoted criminality translations and extensions which influenced Gibbs (2003) and Walters (1990, 1995, 2000, 2002, 2003, 2012) to address thinking distortions within a lifestyle framework. EBPs, principles, and outcomes designed CLT. These practices, principles, and outcomes are documented through Walters' focus on criminogenic needs, recidivism reduction, and public safety (Walters, 1990, 1995, 2000, 2002, 2003, 2012).

## **Criminality Treatment Approaches**

The new culture of crime necessitates divergent approaches to addressing the complexity of crime (Andrews & Bonta, 2006; Bogue et al., 2005; Cullen et al., 2006; Garland, 2001; Guevara & Solomon, 2009; Joplin et al., 2004; Landenberger & Lipsey, 2005; Latessa & Lowenkamp, 2006; Listwan, Cullen, & Latessa, 2006; Sherman, Farrington, Welsh, & MacKensie, 2002). Sentencing has changed; so, should programming (Fox, 1993; ONDCP, 2011; Tolan, Guerra, & Kendall, 1995; Welsh & Farrington, 2007; Winick, 1999). Treatment approaches that have reduced recidivism rates, the highest of treatment outcome expectancy, are based in cognitive behavioral foundations (Lipsey, Landenberger, & Wilson, 2007; Wilson, Bouffard, & MacKensie, 2005). Programs such as Reasoning and Rehabilitation (Tong & Farrington, 2006; Ross & Fabiano, 1985), Moral Reconciliation Therapy (Little & Robinson, 1989, 2006) and Therapeutic Communities (DeLeon, 2000, 2010; Orenstein & Hunkins, 2009) that have been explored. Other programs are Equipping Peers to Help One Another Program (EQUIP, Gibbs, 1991, 1995, 2003; Nas, Brugman, & Koops, 2005; Palmer, 2003), and CLP (Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2003a, 2003b, 2003c, 2004, 2005, 2006, 2007, 2008, 2012).

## **Moral Reasoning and Education**

Social concerns increase regarding morality and criminal behavior has necessitated addressing a global population of all ages through moral education (Garland, 2001; Hawkins et al., 2000; O'Mahony, 2009). Moral development evolves through relationships with others (Nucci, 2001). Individuals grow and learn through their

interactions and relationships with their families, schools, communities, cultures, societies, countries, and worlds that have taught them values, norms, and virtues they use as guides in their lives (Strike, 2008). Moral education within families, schools, communities, cultures, societies, countries, and worlds provide important curricula for the development of social change (Pollard, Kurtines, Carlo, Dancs, & Moyock, 1991).

CLP provided the opportunity for offenders to change their thinking, values, and behaviors through various techniques while using a multitude of tools. Moral education used as a tool that addressed the evidence-based principles of changing antisocial thoughts, attitudes, values, and emotions; promoting self-efficacy, responsibility, and self-control, and developing problem solving and decision making skills (Andrews & Bonta, 2006; Listwan et al., 2006; Palmer et al., 2007; Walters, 1999, 2005, 2012). Using Walter's CLP, varied cognitive behavioral techniques and moral educational methods addressed offender's thoughts (Andrews & Bonta, 2006; Walters, 1999, 2005, 2012).

Berkowitz and Bier (2004), Lickona (1993), and Rayburn (2004) highlighted the importance of moral and character education, value clarification, and cognitive development in healthy development. These approaches applied to corrections as modification of thoughts, feelings, and values (Andrews & Bonta, 2006; Listwan et al., 2006; Palmer et al., 2007; Walters, 1999, 2005, 2012). Leeman, Gibbs, and Fuller (1993) and Nas et al. (2005) implemented moral educational programs to modify juvenile delinquents' cognitive distortions and basic moral values. Research participant's recidivism rates decreased while their skills increased. These EBP are incorporated into CLP while using moral educational tools to focus on modifying criminal thinking errors

(DeLeon, 2000; Gibbs, 2003; Hoffman, 2000; Howard, 2000, Rayburn, 2004; Walters, 2002a). The gap in research stems from the lack of application of moral education with adult criminals (Leeman et al., 1993; Nas et al., 2005). Chapter 2 will advance the above theoretical frameworks and extend them to this study's sample.

### **Nature of the Study**

Criminality (Andrews & Bonta, 2006; Walters, 1999, 2005, 2012) was a standard EBP in a community correctional facility in Pennsylvania, that modified CLP's (Walters, 1999, 2005, 2012) workbooks, role-plays, and assessment tool, PICTS (Walters, 2006). Archival pre-and post-intervention data were collected from PICTS and investigated through a 2x3 between group analyses of covariance. An 2x3 between group ANCOVA was conducted to assess the effectiveness of criminality and primary treatment groups in reducing three cohorts' criminal thinking. The independent variables were the types of treatment programs (criminality, primary group) and the three cohorts. The dependent variable was the scores on the PICTS administered following completion of the treatment programs. Scores on the PICTS administered prior to the commencement of the programs was used as a covariate to control for individual difference.

Each cohort had 40 participants. Criminality group had 20 participants as did primary group. Criminality was the treatment group as primary group was the control group. The studies' total sample was 120 offenders. Archival data were collected and assessed from June 3, 2014 until September 30, 2014.

## **Definitions**

*Criminality:* Criminality “A lifestyle characterized by a global sense of irresponsibility, self-indulgent interests, and intrusive approach to interpersonal relationships, and chronic violation of societal rules, laws, and mores” (Walters, 1990, p. 71). Hirschi (1969) defined crime as “an event and criminality as involvement. Criminality is relatively stable differences among individuals in their propensity to engage in criminal or equivalent acts” (p. 114). I do not differentiate offenders by the criminal acts. I will use the terms criminals and offenders interchangeably.

*Moral education:* Moral education features the development of universally acceptable values, ideals, virtues, and rules such as fairness, human welfare, and rights through varied instructional techniques, dynamics, and behaviors in diverse institutions and groups (Covell & Howe, 2001; Nucci, 2001). I will not differentiate character education from moral education.

*Moral reasoning:* Moral reasoning is the “active construction of moral judgments by individuals based on social experiences” (Palmer, 2003, p. 166). The process through which one decides what is right and wrong (Rayburn, 2004).

*Criminogenic risks:* Criminogenic risk are indicators of plausibility of individual employing criminal activity in the future (Albert & Bonta, 2006; Latessa & Lowenkamp, 2006; Ward & Stewart, 2003). The two risk types are static and dynamic (Albert & Bonta, 2006; Latessa & Lowenkamp, 2006; Ward & Stewart, 2003). Static risks are not changeable but dynamic is (Albert & Bonta, 2006; Latessa & Lowenkamp, 2006; Ward & Stewart, 2003).

*Criminogenic needs:* Criminogenic needs are “dynamic attributes of offenders and their circumstances that, when changed, are associated with reduced rates of recidivism” (Ward & Stewart, 2003, p. 127).

*Criminal lifestyle:* A criminal lifestyle is defined by reoccurring patterns of illegality and transgressions (Walters, 1990). A criminal lifestyle is “characterized by four behavioral characteristics of irresponsibility, self-indulgence, interpersonal intrusiveness, and social rule breaking” (Walters, 1990, p.71).

*Criminal thinking:* Criminal thinking is an idiosyncratic style of thought that “develops to support, buttress, and reinforce one’s criminal decisions” (Walters, 1990, p. 83).

*Thinking errors:* Criminal thinking is composed of eight thinking errors that maintain and preserve characteristics of irresponsibility, self-indulgence, interpersonal intrusiveness, and social rule breaking (Walters, 1990). Thinking errors are mollification, cutoff, entitlement, power orientation, sentimentality, superoptimism, cognitive indolence, and discontinuity (Walters, 1990).

### **Assumptions**

The Pennsylvania Legal System and the Pennsylvania Department of Corrections assessed this sample as offenders due to their numerous violations of societal laws and incarcerations. It was assumed that the comparison group received some similar treatment but no Criminality programming. All participants were able to read and understand the PICTS. It was also assumed that all participants responded honestly. It was assumed that

the treatment group received five weeks of criminality programming where the control group received 5 weeks of primary group programming.

History could have been a threat to this study's internal validity due to its participants all residing together in a community correctional center where varied events can occur. Maturation could have been another threat to this study's internal validity due to the nature of an institution and individual's varied processes. Testing could have been another internal threat due to the exposure of the pretest's possible influence on the outcomes of the posttest.

External validity could be threatened by the interactive effects of testing due to all participants taking the pretest which might have affected a participant's treatment response. Another threat to this study's external validity could have been the multiple past treatments many of this study's participants have experienced which may have confounded the outcomes of this study's effects.

### **Scope and Delimitations**

There were no actual participants in this study. A purposive, nonprobability sample of archival data were obtained from a community correctional facility designated by the State of Pennsylvania and the Pennsylvania Division of Corrections as an inpatient rehabilitation center for criminality and addiction. This study generalized to other community correctional facilities designated by the State of Pennsylvania and the Pennsylvania Division of Corrections.

### **Limitations**

Although this study had strengths in its methodology, there were also weaknesses. This study's sample was limited to males from a Pennsylvania community correctional offenders. I was not able to control the time that participants completed homework assignments. Another limitation was the diversity of the participants' backgrounds. Another limitation was the participant's honest responses. A response bias could have been present because the instruments was a self-report measure. The design of pre-and posttest administration could have affected the response bias. The response biases of positive-negative impression, random responding, or acquiescence were not controlled. The last limitation was the assessing of archival data and the accurate recording of the data.

I made restrictions for the study. The first was the studying of male offenders with various violations due to lack of research on offenders with varying types of offenses instead of just high risk offenders. The sample was only chosen from a community correctional facility instead of all different offender facilities due to time and financial restraints. Psychologists have used varied therapeutic approaches to address offender's multiple problems; I evaluated criminal thinking with a lifestyle approach. The focus of this study was criminal thinking and was not evaluated on multiple levels of offenders' problems.

### **Significance**

Society's ability to save children from crime rests in researchers who identify the risk and need factors that contribute to the criminal developmental process (Hawkins et

al., 2000; Thornberry, Huizinga, & Loeber, 1995, 2004). Multifarious theories offer analysis and provide evidence that can explain the criminal processes and strategies for its prevention and reduction through EBP of thought change (Andrews & Bonta, 2006; Bogue et al., 2005; Cullen et al., 2006; Guevara & Solomon, 2009; Joplin et al., 2004; Landenberger & Lipsey, 2005; Latessa & Lowenkamp, 2006).

Evidence-based researchers recommend changing lifestyles, values, and thinking distortions that reinforce criminal behavior (Andrews & Bonta, 2006; Bogue et al., 2005; Cullen et al., 2006; DeLeon, 2000; Guevara & Solomon, 2009; Howard, 2000; Latessa & Lowenkamp, 2006; Walker, 2002; Walters, 2002a, 2002b, 2005, 2006, 2012). EBP stress the use of moral and character education in modern society (Berkowitz & Bier, 2004; Kohlberg & Wassermann, 1980; Lickona, 1993; Lickona, Schaps, & Lewis, 1996, Rayburn, 2004). Moral education teaches and reinforces the importance of prosocial values (Gibbs, 2003; Hoffman, 2000; Rayburn, 2004), which is an important outcome in EBP and research. This intervention can be extended and applied to adult criminals, whose risk factors include a lack of school involvement and high dropout rates (Farrington et al., 2001; Garland & Sparks, 2000; Hawkins et. al., 2000; O'Mahony, 2009; Sherman et al., 1996; Thornberry et al., 2003; Thornberry et al., 1995, 2004; Wasserman et al., 2003).

Implementation of criminal lifestyle change programs that also highlight moral education into community correctional facilities can elevate an individual's worth and dignity, which can extend into peer affiliations and the community (DeLeon, 2000).

These lifestyle changes can promote a positive social change pattern within the social structure of offenders, the community, and society.

### **Summary**

While America spends approximately \$20,000 per offender per year to maintain their imprisonment (Mauer, 2001), criminality professionals believe this money should be applied to EBPs that reduce recidivism and prevent criminality. The purpose of this study was to explore the effectiveness of a program that can potentially reduce crime. Changing an individual's worth, value system, thinking process, and dignity can extend into peer affiliations and the community. These lifestyle changes can promote a positive social change in the social structure of offenders and the community.

Chapter 2 was an examination of the research literature that was relevant to this study. These sections were reviewed literature on criminality, its treatment approaches, moral education, and its foundation in moral development. Chapter 3 was the research methodology, which included information of the study, its sample, intervention, instrumentation, and archival data assessment. Chapter 4 was a delineation of the results of the study. Chapter 5 was a discussion of the findings, their implications for social change, and recommendations for action and further study.

## Chapter 2: Literature Review

### **Introduction**

In 2010, the correctional population in the United States comprised 7.1 million individuals (Glaze, 2010). In 2012, 4,781, 300 total offenders were on parole or probation in their designated communities (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2012). This study explores criminal lifestyle programs that address criminal behavior through cognitive modifications. This chapter reviews this study's search strategies, theoretical foundation, and their applications to this study.

### **Literature Search Strategy**

In this review, I explore the theoretical models that built CLT and the CLP. This research review of scientific literature spanned published works from 1927 through 2011. The early works are relevant to the nature of the study and its theories. I used electronic databases that I accessed via Walden University Library. The databases used included PsycINFO PsycARTICLES, Medline, Academic Search Premier, and others. Key words used as search criteria included *criminal behavior*, *offender behavior*, *moral reasoning*, *moral development*, and *moral education*. Author names were also used as key words.

### **Theoretical Foundation**

Criminality is a multifaceted construct. Some consider criminality as a personality, a thought, a behavior, or an emotion, its multiplicity has been well-evidenced (Gibbs, 2010; Thornberry, 1987; Thornberry, et al., 1991; Walters 1990, 1992, 1995, 2000, 2012). Its rapid spreads throughout our world is building prisons not solutions (Andrews & Bonta, 2006; Bogue et al., 2005; Cullen et al., 2006; Garland, 2001; Guevara

& Solomon, 2009; Joplin et al., 2004; Landenberger & Lipsey, 2005; Latessa & Lowenkamp, 2006; Listwan, Cullen, & Latessa, 2006; Sherman, Farrington, Welsh, & MacKensie, 2002).

### **General Perspectives on Criminality**

Evidence-based research, practices, and programming accentuate multifarious theoretical foundations with diverse programming applications and techniques (Andrews & Bonta, 2006; Bogue et al., 2005; Cullen et al., 2006; Guevara & Solomon, 2009; Joplin et al., 2004; Landenberger & Lipsey, 2005; Latessa & Lowenkamp, 2006; Walters 1990, 1992, 1995, 2000, 2012). The major technique was found to be cognitive behavioral techniques (Andrews & Bonta, 2006; Bogue et al., 2005; Cullen et al., 2006; Guevara & Solomon, 2009; Joplin et al., 2004; Landenberger & Lipsey, 2005; Latessa & Lowenkamp, 2006).

CLT is rooted in the foundational perspectives of differential association theory (Akers, 1985, 1991, 1994, 1996, 1998; Sutherland, 1947; Sutherland, Cressey, & Luckenbill, 1992) and Aker's and Bandura's social learning and social cognitive theory (Akers, 1985, 1991, 1994, 1998; Bandura, 1999, 2002, 2004; Bandura, et al., 1996; Bandura, et al., 2001; Gibbs, 2010). From these rhizomes, CLT developed (Walters, 1990, 1992, 1995, 2000, 2012). CLT are learned behaviors that form a complex lifestyle.

### **Differential Association**

Differential association proposes that criminality is learned through nomenclature (Akers, 1985, 1996; Andrews & Bonata, 2006; Bandura, 2004; Sutherland, 1947; Sutherland, et al., 1992). Social interactions deem certain incidences or circumstances

appropriate for law violation through communication, vocabulary, and classifications (Akers, 1985, 1996; Andrews & Bonata, 2006; Bandura, 2004; Sutherland, 1947; Sutherland et al., 1992). These interactions teach criminal methodologies through definitions that address fluctuating value systems in diverse individuals, situations, structures, and cultures (Mears, Ploeger, & Warr, 1993; Sutherland, 1947; Sutherland et al., 1992). Definitions are characterized through an individual's history of experiences with varied situations and associations (Akers & Jennings, 2009; Sutherland, 1947).

Sutherland (1947) postulated nine principles. These principles consist of the learning aspects of crime that are endorsed through affiliation groups, which result from individuals' decision-making and which are promoted by definitions (Akers, 1985, 1991, 1994, 1998; Akers & Jennings, 2009; Matsueda, 1982; Sutherland, 1947; Sutherland et al., 1992). These definitions are communicated through motives, drives, rationalizations, and attitudes (Akers, 1985, 1991, 1994, 1998; Sutherland, 1947; Sutherland et al., 1992; Walters, 2002a).

If any of the motivations, drives, rationalizations, or attitudes that favor criminal behavior are consistently and abidingly prioritized or exaggerated with significant associations, then choice of that behavior is possible (Sutherland, 1947). These quantifiers regulate all forms of learning (Akers, 1985, 1991, 1994, 1998; Sutherland, 1947; Sutherland et al., 1992). Positive outcome expectancies of criminal behavior derive from these quantifiers. Some quantifiers can be the absorbent amount of money drug dealers can obtain by belonging to a group or by gaining the respect of other dealers.

Sutherland (1947) stressed the point that learning can be implemented through diverse forms, not merely through social interactions and imitations. Sutherland, in his ninth principle, stated that criminality cannot be analyzed or interpreted by needs and values alone. Individual and societal fluctuations transform criminal needs and values, which in turn modifies their behaviors and laws that address them (Sutherland et al., 1992). An example of criminal value change is how drug dealers might justify selling drugs to a pregnant woman or child by using the rationalization that if they did not sell the drugs their competition would.

Criminal behavior can be a result from a variation of values (Sutherland, 1947). Sutherland and Sutherland et al. (1992) discussed the importance of these fluctuations through varying risk factors and their influence. Sutherland's principles are manifested in evidenced-based researchers' findings concerning the importance of motivation, attitudes, criminogenic needs, and risk factor implementation in offenders' assessments and programs (see Andrews & Bonta, 2006; Bogue et al., 2005; Cullen et al., 2006; Guevara & Solomon, 2009; Latessa & Lowenkamp, 2006; Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2005, 2006, 2012).

Differential association roots fertilized CLT's factors (Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2005, 2006, 2012). Differential association's environmental and social interactions built CLT's templates that reinforce criminal behavioral imprints on addressing offenders' criminogenic needs, highlighted by their criminal thinking, attitudes, and values. Differential association's perspective is highlighted by the frequency, duration, priority, and intensity of exposure to associate's criminal definitions

and their internal manifestations that produce criminal behaviors (Akers, 1985, 1991, 1994, 1998; Alarid, Burton, & Cullen, 2000; Sutherland, 1947; Sutherland, et al., 1992).

Research on and criticism of differential association has been conflicting. Akers (1985, 1991, 1994, 1998), Matsueda (1989), Mears et al. (1998) and Thornberry et al. (1991, 1996) found that peers were influential in delinquency development in many ways as addressed in Sutherland's (1947) differential association perspectives. Differential association perspectives applied to treatment have found different avenues for working with offenders (Matsueda, 1988; Matsueda, & Anderson, 1998; Robinson, & Porporino, 2001; Tong & Farrington, 2006). Matsueda, Matsueda, and Anderson (1998) explored delinquent association's effects on individuals' acquisition or integration of delinquent behavior. Matsueda's (1982) first study was completed by using Hirschi's (1969) Richmond youth study data. Matsueda and Anderson (1998) used the National Youth survey. These effects, like Sutherland's differential associations, reported how present delinquency related to risk factors, and future delinquency.

Alarid et al. (2000) reported that the number of delinquent peers and different definitions favorable to criminal behavior have a strong effect on type of crimes without differentiation between males or females. Reasoning and rehabilitation addresses differential association's focus on group interactions (Robinson & Porporino, 2001; Tong & Farrington, 2006) that build skills for reasoning and self-regulation (Robinson & Porporino, 2001; Tong & Farrington, 2006). These interactions may modify attitudes and promote open mindedness (Robinson & Porporino, 2001; Tong & Farrington, 2006).

## **Social Learning**

Social learning and social cognitive theory have many roots in differential association. Criminality is assumed to be a learned behavior as is assumed in CLT (Akers, 1985, 1991, 1994, 1998; Bandura, 1986, 1999, 2002; Marlatt, 1996; Sutherland, 1947; Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2003, 2005, 2006, 2012; Walters & Chlumsky, 1993; Yochelson & Samenow, 1976, 1977). Reinforcement schedules, contingencies, imitation, and observational learning teach and communicate criminal behavior, techniques, and competencies (Akers, 1985, 1991, 1994, 1998; Bandura, 1986, 1999, 2002; Sutherland, 1947). Akers's (1985, 1991, 1994, 1998) and Bandura's (1986, 1999, 2002) extensions of differential association added cognitive elements to Sutherland's (1947) theory. Learning's influence on criminal behaviors emphasizes theoretical perspectives applied within this study's moral education class.

Akers's social learning theory (1985, 1991, 1994, 1996, 1998; Akers & Jennings, 2009) extended Sutherland's (1947) differential association. Sutherland had not extended or detailed behavioral patterns of learning or definitions that were favorable or unfavorable towards criminality. There were seven principles of Akers social learning theory (Akers & Jennings, 2009). The first principle defined criminal behavior as learned yet added operant conditioning to support its processes. The second principle highlighted the possibilities of learning individually or socially. The third principle reinforced a groups' importance in the integration of learning. The fourth principle discussed that criminal behavior is learned through certain methods and actions that augment and strengthen its integration into one's behavioral patterns. The fifth principle discussed that

the behaviors that were augmented and strengthened functioned due to their reinforcement frequency, duration, and intensity. The sixth principle stressed the normalizing of criminal behavior when it was reinforced as a value. The seventh principle stressed its reinforcement schedule as its strength in integration (Akers, 1985, 1991, 1994, 1996, 1998; Akers & Jensen, 2006, 2009). These principles underlie SCT as well.

Social learning's construct of differential association is delineated through distinctive forms of interacting within an individual's representative or nonrepresentative situations, systems, and associates influences (Akers, 1985, 1991, 1994, 1996, 1998; Akers & Jennings, 2009; Pratt et al., 2010). Exposure to criminal or prosocial behaviors, their rules, beliefs, thoughts, and attitudes affects individuals' learning process (Akers, 1985, 1996, 1998; Akers & Jennings, 2006, 2009; Pratt et al., 2010). Evidence-based researchers endorsed and promoted these social learning processes as a foundation from which EBPs were engineered and treatment was formulated (Andrews & Bonta, 2006; Bogue et al., 2005; Cullen et al., 2006; Guevara & Solomon, 2009; Latessa & Lowenkamp, 2006; Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2005, 2006, 2012). EBP, such as risk and need assessment, intrinsic motivation enhancement, intervention concentration, skill training, positive reinforcement, and community support, are the focus of social learning's perspectives (Andrews & Bonta, 2006; Bogue et al., 2005; Cullen et al., 2006; Guevara & Solomon, 2009; Latessa & Lowenkamp, 2006; Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2005, 2006, 2012). EBP and CLT stresses the learning of criminal behaviors and their modification through cognitive restructuring, reshaping, and accommodating pro

social beliefs, thoughts, and attitudes (Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2003, 2005, 2006, 2012; Walters & Chlumsky, 1993).

Akers's (1985, 1991, 1994, 1996, 1998; Akers & Jennings, 2006, 2009) social learning theory paralleled Bandura's (1982, 1986, 1989, 2001, 2006) social cognitive theory by adding operant learning into its principles. Differential and vicarious reinforcement expands differential association theory to address the learning processes of operant conditioning (Akers, 1985, 1991, 1994, 1996, 1998; Akers & Jennings, 2006, 2009; Pratt et al., 2010; Matsueda & Anderson, 1998). Differential reinforcement entailed the prevalence and degree of rewards and punishments that reinforced or discouraged a certain behavior. This behavior can be criminal or prosocial depending upon many factors, one is the vicarious reinforcement of observational learning of primary, or secondary groups and associates' behavior (Akers, 1985, 1991, 1994, 1996, 1998; Akers & Jennings, 2006, 2009; Bandura, 1982, 1986, 1989, 2001, 2006; Matsueda & Anderson, 1998; Pratt et al., 2010). These reinforcements or consequences are based on positive or negative reinforcement or positive or negative punishment (Akers & Jennings, 2009; Matsueda & Anderson, 1998; Pratt et al., 2010). Contingent learning teaches and inspires motivation while configuring attitudes and beliefs (Akers, 1985, 1991, 1994, 1996, 1998; Akers & Jennings, 2006, 2009; Bandura, 1982, 1986, 1989, 2001, 2006; Matsueda & Anderson, 1998). The configuration of attitudes and beliefs rivets CLT (Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2005, 2006, 2012). Increasing positive reinforcement for change is an evidence-based principle, which is addressed through Aker's social learning constructs (Akers, 1985, 1991, 1994, 1996, 1998; Akers & Jennings, 2006, 2009).

Definitions are individuals' beliefs about any specific behavior (Akers, 1985, 1991, 1994, 1996, 1998; Akers & Jennings, 2006, 2009). These beliefs can be influenced by "one's thoughts, justifications, excuses, and attitudes that consider an act right or wrong, good or bad, desirable or undesirable, justified or unjustified, appropriate or inappropriate" (Akers & Jennings, 2009, p. 326). These beliefs are general, specific, conventional, and positive (Akers, 1985, 1991, 1994, 1996, 1998; Akers & Jennings, 2006, 2009).

General beliefs are developed from external influences such as family, school, church, which form values and morals (Akers & Jennings, 2006, 2009). Specific beliefs are one's internal regulators that lead one toward or away from behaviors. Observing criminal behavior throughout one's development normalizes it. Conventional beliefs direct one away from criminal behaviors while positive and neutralizing beliefs justify and give permission to behave criminally (Akers & Jennings, 2006, 2009; Bandura, 1982, 1986, 1989, 2001, 2006). Evidence-based research findings showed that targeting criminogenic needs, such as thoughts, attitudes, beliefs, and values, into criminality programming can assist in accomplishing long-term outcome fulfillment such as reducing recidivism (Andrews & Bonta, 2006; Bogue et al., 2005; Cullen et al., 2006; Guevara & Solomon, 2009; Latessa & Lowenkamp, 2006; Listwan, Cullen, & Latessa, 2006; Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2005, 2006, 2012).

Criticisms of the social learning theory are like differential association and include no specification of social learning techniques, cultural deviance theory, attainment of only unusual behavior, and only explaining reason for acquisition (Osgood

& Anderson, 2004; Thornberry et al., 1994; Tittle & Paternoster, 2000). Osgood and Anderson refuted the causal role that is portrayed in social learning between peers and culture. Tittle and Paternoster criticized social learning's lack of contingency, prosocial interactions, and sanction apprehension.

The multitude of research on social learning and its variables extended from the early 1960s through 2000s (Pratt et al., 2010). The strongest effects were found in other societies, families, peers, and significant groups. Pratt et al. found that 31% to 68% of adolescent substance use and abuse was explained by social learning variables. Teenage smoking was analyzed through social learning and found to have demonstrated 54% of cross sectional variance and 41% longitudinal variance of teenage smoking (Akers & Jennings, 2006, 2009; Pratt et al., 2010). The prevalence of elderly drinking corresponded with social learning mechanisms at a rate of 51% to 58% (Akers & Jennings, 2006, 2009; Pratt et al., 2010). Rape, nonphysical coercion, drug use induced, and physically coerced compunction corresponded with social learning mechanisms (Akers & Jennings, 2006, 2009; Pratt et al., 2010).

### **Social Cognitive Theory**

Evidenced-based research, programs, principles, and policies were sculpted, fabricated, and modeled from differential association, social learning, and social cognitive foundations. Sutherland (1947) and Aker (1985, 1991, 1994, 1996, 1998; Akers & Jennings, 2006, 2009) influenced Bandura (1982, 1986, 1989, 2001, 2006) throughout his theoretical evolutions. Bandura's durable constructs that defined the agentic theory of self-regulation of moral conduct is governed by active self-sanctions that guide self-

regulation (Bandura, 1999, 2002; Bandura et al., 1996; Bandura et al., 2001; Osofsky et al., 2005). The differential reinforcement schedules of Akers and Akers and Jennings interplayed with Bandura's expectancies and outcomes. The disengagement of self-sanctions and application of diverse psychosocial justifications are employed to grant self-permission to behave outside of one's moral parameters (Bandura, 1999, 2002; Bandura, et al., 1996, 2001; Osofsky et al., 2005). Walters developed CLT (1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2003, 2005, 2006, 2012) from Bandura's fundamental backbone

**Observational learning.** Observational learning or modeling is the basic theoretical learning structure of the SCT (Bandura, 1986, 1997). It is composed of four processes: attention, retention, reproduction, and motivations. Attentional processes refer to a human's ability to discern and discriminate amongst simultaneous objects, models, or trains of thought (Bandura, 1986, 1997) and to obtain or process the astute information from these models, objects, or thoughts. Value and purpose depends on conspicuousness, prominence, accessibility, familiarity, and cultural and individual appeal. An adolescent may watch a drug dealer on his or her street sell drugs through which the drug dealer obtains money, status and varied material possessions. For this adolescent within this subculture, this may be a learning opportunity to aspire to this stature. An individual may value their peers and aspire for group acceptance (Bandura, 1969, 1997, 1999; Monti, Rohsenow, & Hutchinson, 2000; Schutte, Brennan, & Moos, 1998; Schutte, Byrne, Moss, & Brennan, 2001; Wills & Dishion, 2004; Wills, Sandy, Yaeger, Cleary, & Shinar, 2001). To attain acceptance, they may model their behavior, which may include criminal behavior, especially delinquency (Thornberry et al., 1994). This continual observation of

drug use and its lifestyle patterns may be valued and modeled behaviors, which an individual then reproduces. CLT stresses these processes in its bedrock of defining criminal belief systems and criminal thinking groundwork (Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2003, 2005, 2006, 2012).

**Motivation.** Motivation is a major tenet in the framework of SCT as it is in observational learning. Motivation has many antecedents (Donovan & Rosengren, 1999). Motivation in SCT is considered an intention, a drive that is influenced by motivators or incentives. Outcome expectancies influence motivation and are directed by self-efficacy beliefs (Bandura, 1989). The motivators and incentives that influence motivation are of three major types; direct, vicarious, and self-produced (Bandura, 1997). Direct motivators refer to having a desire or willingness to perform a behavior if it produced valued outcomes. If a behavior results in a valued outcome, it is more likely that this behavior will be reproduced. Walters (2003) discussed how criminal outcomes correspond with offenders' criminal thinking. Criminal thinking, motivation, and outcomes are major principles in evidenced-based research (Andrews & Bonta, 2006; Bogue et al., 2005; Cullen et al., 2006; Guevara & Solomon, 2009; Latessa & Lowenkamp, 2006; Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2005, 2006, 2012).

Vicarious motivators refer to the recollection of the modeled behavior's positive or negative effects (Bandura, 1997). The model's negative or positive experiences influence the integration of behavior. Self-produced motivators are one's own assessment of their own behavior, which tends to adjust its implementation. If the behavior produces qualities that increase self-satisfaction or worth than these behaviors are more likely

pursued. This worth can be committing crimes without getting caught, obtaining more money than the other dealers on adjacent blocks. These behaviors increase an offender's distorted sense of worth and efficacy, and respect. The process of observational learning and its influence on criminality was reviewed in the previous sections of differential association and social learning.

**Outcome expectancies.** Outcome expectancies are the “subjectively assessed probability that a given action will produce the intended consequences” (Niaura, 2000, p. 156). Outcome expectancies have a reshaping effect on personality constructs (Cooper, Frone, Russell, & Mudar, 1995; Demmel, Beck, & Lammers, 2003). Another way of defining outcome expectancies are that they are “One's perceived ability to meet a challenge or perform a particular task” (Bandura, 1997, p. 97).

Sensation seeking, novelty seeking, and harm avoidance are factors affected by outcome expectancies. These factors reflect an individual who requires elevated levels of sensation; criminality meets these needs. Outcome expectancies influence the initiation or attempt of initiation of changing criminal behavior.

The ability of a criminal to reappraise positive outcome expectancies of criminal behavior as negative are open to criminal desistance and its benefits (Demmel et al., 2003; Lloyd & Serin, 2012). Lloyd and Serin demonstrated that criminals with positive desistance beliefs and negative criminal outcome beliefs were also found to have a stronger personal agency which enables their desistance. CLT (Walters, 2003, 2012) discussed an offender's cognitive sub network's high outcome expectancies for crime. These high outcome expectancies represent hierarchical levels of criminal thinking that

elevate the outcome expectancy and behavioral adaptation. For example, today, having respect and money is thought to be stature building (Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2003, 2005, 2006, 2012). However, when one cannot attain these goals, criminal behavior has a high expectancy to achieve these goals (Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2003, 2005, 2006, 2012). Criminal behavior can also raise self-efficacy (Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2003, 2005, 2006, 2012).

**Self-efficacy.** Self-efficacy is the core cognitive component of human functioning, self-regulation, motivation, and self-reflection is self-efficacy. It is defined as “people’s judgments about their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performance” (Bandura, 1986, p. 391). Self-efficacy evolves from varied theoretical dimensions to direct cognition, inspiration and action (Bandura, 1997).

Self-efficacy is a belief that governs and effects human functioning through its pursuance of motivation, affective states, and resulting behaviors (Bandura, 1997). Self-efficacy mediates, appraises, and motivates through the dynamic interplay of the reciprocal determinism of human functioning. Its varying levels of amplitude, durability and abstraction derive from “four principal sources of information, enactive mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, verbal persuasion, and physiological and affective states” (Bandura, 1997, p. 79). One’s past performance be it successes or failures are the most influential mastery experience source. If someone observes a similar other successfully performing a specific behavior, this conveys information to the observer that he or she can also perform the behavior successfully. This is vicarious experience. Verbal

persuasion is the ability of another to convince a person that they have the capability to perform a specific behavior. One's affective and physiological states influence the information cognized to affect self-efficacy.

Cognitively, self-efficacy affects ones' thought patterns in either a "self-adding or self-hindering manner through joint influence of motivational and informational processing operation" (Bandura, 1989, p. 1175). If one believes or thinks that, they are capable of coping with a certain situation, performing certain behaviors, accomplishing specific goals, then their self-efficacy increases, as does their choice of behaviors. If someone has self-doubt in his or her coping skills, or ability to accomplish a goal, this self-debilitates. Walters (2012) included efficacy expectancies as a schematic subnetwork in the lifestyle theory of criminality. Walters explained that efficacy expectancies reinforce, preserve, and retain criminal beliefs that offenders utilize.

Resiliency not only affects thoughts but motivation, affective and physiological states and decision-making processes. Self-efficacy beliefs and one's outcome expectancies affect decision-making. When applied to decision-making, low self-efficacy is quite restrictive. It limits performance of varied behaviors and outcome possibilities because one's lack of belief in one's ability. To obtain specific outcomes high self-efficacious individuals judge, plan, control, and organize behaviors. Motivation, self-efficacy, outcome expectancies, and skill training are deeply rooted constructs in EBP and research (Andrews & Bonta, 2006; Bogue et al., 2005; Cullen et al., 2006; Guevara & Solomon, 2009; Latessa & Lowenkamp, 2006; Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2005, 2006, 2012). These constructs should be included when developing interventions

and programs that address short term outcomes of changing criminal thinking and values to long term outcomes of reducing recidivism and increasing public safety (Andrews & Bonta, 2006; Bogue et al., 2005; Cullen et al., 2006; Guevara & Solomon, 2009; Latessa & Lowenkamp, 2006; Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2005, 2006, 2012).

**Self-regulation.** Self-regulation is the capacity of an individual to guide and direct one's behavior (Redding et al., 2000). Self-regulation is the intermediary between external sources and influences (such as social or moral standards) and one's own personal control over one's behavior, thoughts, feelings and motivation (Bandura, 1989). Self-regulation guides one's actions, delivers one's own consequences, and ignites motivation for action. The standards that guide and influence behavior are internally produced through motivation and modified by self-reflection. Self-reflection is the vehicle for self-exploration, self-evaluation, and self-change. It analyzes and if necessary modifies thoughts, beliefs, as well as experiences to provide one a core of human functioning. Society, its cultures, and their senses of morality and ethics produce external standards. There are diversified codes, effecting diverse cultures, which have wide assortments of sociodemographic characteristics with many standards modeled that are preached and displayed (Bandura, 2006). External standards, social and moral inferences and persuasions interact and mediate with self-regulation to form a framework of purposeful action (Bandura, 2006). Motivational standards produce and reduce dissonance (Bandura, 1997). These standards are outlines for the process of goal setting and their attainments.

One sets goals, which causes instability to their self-regulatory functioning. Behavior is then ensued which will once again balance out their regulatory functioning. This is discrepancy production and reduction. Motivation, relating to self-efficacy, interacts with discrepancies to either impel goal attainment or induce distress from the inability to reach goal. Discrepancy in social modeling emerges from different contradictory models, in varied subcultures, at various times, affecting the stability of the formation of self-standards, and their shaping of one's moral thoughts and agency. Many criminals grow up watching their role models commit crimes; break laws, confidentialities and codes of ethics. Yet these same role models address them for displaying the same behaviors. This causes discrepancy. Moral agency evolves through the appropriation of standards of right and wrong that supervise and manage conduct (Bandura, 2006). Low self-regulation and low self-efficacy beliefs are both associated criminality.

Criticisms of social cognitive theoretical perspectives are like social learning. Some overall criticisms address the social cognitive theory for its failure to include biological factors, internal characteristics such as emotions (Akers & Jennings, 2009; Gottfredson & Hirschi, 1990; Pervin & John, 2001). Other criticisms are that this perspective's factors are not consolidated and do not see criminal inclinations as being constant factors (Akers & Jennings, 2009; Gottfredson & Hirschi, 1990; Pervin & John, 2001).

## **Lifestyle Theory**

Walters (1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2005, 2006, 2012) built on the previous theoretical foundations to construct his criminal lifestyle approach. Lifestyle theory is explained through four behavioral elements, which are irresponsibility, self-indulgence, interpersonal intrusiveness, and social rule breaking (Walters, 1990, 2002, 2012). Each element has been built upon its developmental roots, while interacting, affecting, and hindering the next, and cycling through thoughts and attitudes.

Irresponsibility is a learned characteristic which affects all aspects of offender's lives in its inability to answer or meet any commitments from school attendance to employment (Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2005, 2006, 2012). Self-indulgence is exemplified by offender's inability to delay gratification, exemplified in offenders' criminal actions (Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2005, 2006, 2012). Interpersonal intrusiveness stems from the interaction of the above elements, building interpersonal and social intrusiveness, and rule breaking. Interpersonal intrusiveness is demonstrated by an offender's disregard for human rights (Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2005, 2006, 2012). Social rule breaking, that last behavioral element, is highlighted by lack of adherence to societal patterns and rules (Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2005, 2006, 2012).

The lifestyle theories' cognitive elements range hierarchically from criminal thoughts or schemes on the lowest level through subnetworks to five criminal belief systems (Walters, 2002a, 2012). These cognitive patterns and interconnected belief systems reinforce criminality's development, its perpetuation, and maintenance through

life stages (Walters, 2002a, 2012). The developmental, perpetuation, and continuations stages are initiation, transitional, and maintenance phases (Walters, 2002a, 2012). The initiation phase targets the goal of existential fear (Walters, 2002a, 2012). The three elements that cultivate and indoctrinate lifestyle initiation through existential fear are motivation, favorable circumstances, and selection (Walters, 2002a, 2012). Motivation for initiation factors are alliances, manipulation and domination, and prestige (Walters, 2002a, 2012). Criminal lifestyles provide expected outcomes for the above variables. Favorable circumstances are defined as how one's specific personality traits interact within varied environments. Certain risk factors promote different reactions in different environments, stressors, and socialization conditions that can reinforce criminal beliefs. The individual's selection of a criminal lifestyle is their responsibility, utilizing Bandura's self-regulatory system.

The transition phase is augmented by the strength outcome expectancies have on the integration of criminality as a lifestyle (Walters, 2002a, 2012). The implementation of criminality into one's lifestyle has high outcome expectancies for a wide array of reasons. If one cannot achieve certain financial goals, criminal behavior can achieve this. Criminality has high outcome expectancy in achieving financial stability. If one does feel like one belongs or feels isolated, outcome expectancy for criminality is that it will help one belong to a group of other offenders, or gangs. This affiliation can create other expectancies of learning the trade of offending, its skills, gaining respect, and control (Walters, 2002a, 2012). Walters used outcome expectancies to accentuate his social

cognitive foundations and affirm EBPs importance in exploring criminality and building programs to address change.

The maintenance phase emphasizes the layers of distortions required to preserve criminal lifestyles and beliefs. A few of these layers include criminal thinking, emotional dysfunction, high outcome expectancies for criminal behaviors, and impaired relationships, to cite only a few (Walters, 2002, 2012). Evidence-based research reinforces these criminogenic needs and outcomes while adapting the constructs to programs of change (Andrews & Bonta, 2006; Bogue et al., 2005; Cullen et al., 2006; Guevara & Solomon, 2009; Latessa & Lowenkamp, 2006; Listwan et al., 2006; Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2005, 2006, 2012).

The initiation phase's elements of motivation, favorable circumstances, and selection highlight differential association's perspectives on the importance of peers in criminal initiation (Akers, 1985, 1991, 1994, 1998; Akers & Jennings, 2009; Matsueda, 1982; Sutherland, 1947; Sutherland, et al., 1992). Akers' social learning theory (1985, 1991, 1994, 1996, 1998; Akers, & Jennings, 2009) is highlighted by CLT's initiation phase through the learning of criminality through affiliations. Walters's major cognitive aspects stem from Bandura's (1982, 1986, 1989, 2001, 2006) social cognitive theory throughout its development. From Walters's criminal lifestyle phases, outcome expectancies to his criminal thinking errors, social cognitive theory reinforces Walters's research.

CLT evolved through schemes (Walters, 2002a). Walters defined schemes as "interdependent sensory, behavioral, affective, and motivational elements" (p. 49). CLT

is comprised of six schemes. These are attributions, outcome expectancies, efficacy expectancies, goals, values, and thinking styles. These schemes have been applied to EBP to implement interventions to address these important principles (Andrews & Bonta, 2006; Bogue et al., 2005; Cullen et al., 2006; Guevara & Solomon, 2009; Latessa & Lowenkamp, 2006; Listwan et al., 2006; Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2005, 2006, 2012). Attributions have been found to reinforce criminal beliefs (Walters, 2002a, 2012). Some attributions such as blaming others, or environments support criminal lifestyles development and maintenance.

Criminal outcome expectancies relate to existential fear in criminal behavior's ability to fulfill many goals such as having money, status, respect, and control (Walters, 2002a, 2012). Walters (2012) discussed the array of efficacy beliefs that promote criminal behavior. A few of these expectancies are low self-esteem, lack of poor social bonding, lack of meaning and values in life, and lack of educational achievement (Walters, 2012, p. 52).

Goals are one's purposes that direct behaviors and choices (Walters, 2002a; 2012). Delay of gratification and self-control are two behaviors that have been found to integrate goals of criminal lifestyles. Values are defined in CLT as "enduring beliefs that reflect personally or socially preferred priorities" (Walters, 2002a, p. 54). Researchers have explored prosocial as compared with antisocial value development (Carlo, Hausmann, Christiansen, & Randall, 2003; Eisenberg, Fabes, Karbon, Murphy, & Wosinski, 1996); however, Walters (2012a) discussed how crime and values is a causal

nexus upon one another. Values will be discussed further in this literature review in the key variable section.

Evidenced-based research is reinforced through CLT's (Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2005, 2006, 2012) integration of the criminogenic needs of criminal thinking (Andrews & Bonta, 2006; Bogue et al., 2005; Cullen et al., 2006; Guevara & Solomon, 2009; Latessa & Lowenkamp, 2006; Listwan et al., 2006). Distorted thinking styles are the cornerstones of criminal lifestyle theory. There are eight criminal thinking styles. These are mollification, cutoff, entitlement, power orientation, sentimentality, superoptimism, cognitive indolence, and discontinuity (Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2003, 2005, 2006, 2012).

Mollification is substantiating criminal behavior through excuses, rationalizations and justifications (Walters, 2002a, 2012). Cutoff is erasing or ignoring anything that undermines criminal behavior continuation discontinuity (Walters, 2002a, 2012).

Entitlement is the belief that an individual believes they deserve special considerations, advantages, exemptions, and immunity (Walters, 2002a, 2012). Power orientation is the use of power and control over some place or person (Walters, 2002a, 2012).

Sentimentality is the believing that one makes restitution for criminal behavior by doing one good thing (Walters, 2002a, 2012). Superoptimism is the belief that one can avert consequences of criminal behavior and lifestyle (Walters, 2002a, 2012). Cognitive indolence is careless, apathetic, and lackadaisical thinking (Walters, 2002a, 2012).

Discontinuity is thinking one way yet behaving another (Walters, 2002a, 2012).

Criminal thinking styles research and the influence on criminal behavior development is extensive (Andrews & Bonta, 1994; Barriga, Hawkins, & Camelia, 2008; Gibbs, 1991, 1995, 1996, 2003; Knight, Garner, Simpson, Morey, & Flynn, 2006; Mandracchia, Morgan, Garos, & Garland, 2007; Nas, Brugman, & Koops, 2005, 2008; Wallinus, Johansson, Larden, & Dernevik, 2011; Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2003, 2005, 2006, 2012; Walters & Chlumsky, 1993; Yochelson & Samenow, 1976,1977). There is also as much research on its learned nature which promotes criminal thinking styles modification (Andrews & Bonta, 1994; Barriga, et al., 2008; Gibbs, 1991, 1995, 1996, 2003; Knight et al.,2006; Mandracchia, et al., 2007; Nas et al., 2008; Wallinius et al.,2011; Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2003, 2005, 2006, 2012; Walters & Chlumsky, 1993; Yochelson & Samenow, 1976,1977). Criminal thinking styles will be discussed further in this literature review in the key variable section.

Walters's (1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2003, 2005, 2006, 2012) five criminal belief systems are self, world, past, present, and future views. Self-view includes how one copes, compares, and presents oneself in relationship to self, and others. The world view has four distinct views from "mechanistic-organismic, fatalistic-agentic, justice-inequality, and malevolence-benevolence" (Walters, 2012, p. 26). Time dimensional views of past, present, and future build an offender's distortions through past events, present distortions created by past effects which in turn create simple future goals (Walters, 2002a, 2012).

Walters has extensive research. Its major components reflect research into CLP and his instrument, The PICTS will be used in this study CLP was found to lessen one

third of institutional disciplinary reports and institutional adjustment procedures (Walters, 2005, 2012). This has been found to be correlated with future reduction in recidivism (Walters, 1999, 2005, 2006, 2012).

### **Criminality Treatment Approaches**

Morgan (2011) accentuated the need to treat criminality to assist in criminal justice effects. The multiplicity of antisocial and delinquent risk factors and behavioral outcomes emphasize society's need for diverse intervention and prevention strategies (Fox, 1993; ONDCP, 2011; Tolan et al., 1995; Winick, 1999). Evidence-based researchers designed an integrated model to effect reform (Andrews & Bonta, 2006; Bogue et al., 2005; Cullen et al., 2006; Guevara & Solomon, 2009; Latessa & Lowenkamp, 2006; Listwan et al., 2006; Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2005, 2006, 2012). These findings resound through the following treatment programs.

In 2009, there were 13, 687, 241 arrests in the United States (United States Department of Justice, 2009). Palmer (2003) demonstrated the need to incorporate numerous components due to offending's complex multidimensionality. CBT for offenders abound (Andrews & Bonta, 1990; Landenberger & Lipsey, 2005; Lipsey et al., 2007). Many programs were developed through criminal risk factors and criminogenic needs, as were all in this study's treatment approach review (Andrews & Bonta, 1994; Gendreau, 1996; Morgan, Kroner, & Mills, 2006; Walters, 1999, 2005; Ward & Stewart, 2005). Below is a review of reasoning and rehabilitation (R&R, Farrington & Welsh, 2002; Lipsey & Wilson, 2002; Robinson & Porporino, 2001; Tong & Farrington, 2006; Ross & Fabiano, 1985; Ward & Nee, 2009), and moral reconnection therapy (Little &

Robinson, 1988, 1989; Little, Robinson, & Burnette, 1993). There is also a review of therapeutic communities (DeLeon, 2000, 2010), equipping peers to help one another program (EQUIP; Gibbs, 1991, 1995, 2003; Gibbs, Potter, & Goldstein, 1995; Nas et al., Palmer, 2003), and criminal lifestyles program (Walters, 1990, 2002a, 2002b, 2012).

Cognitive-behavioral programs. Lipsey, Chapman, and Landenberg (2001) reviewed 14 CBT studies finding that offenders who participated in CBT were 55 % less likely to recidivate than the control groups. CBT varies in its curricula. Specific elements in CBT can be building and restructuring cognitive and social skills, managing anger, moral judgment and reasoning, victim awareness, substance, use, and modifying behaviors, relapse prevention, and individual sessions (Landenberg & Lipsey, 2005, p.10). CBT presumes that cognitive deficits are learned and therefore modifiable (Lipsey et al., 2007). CBT programs are effective in achieving short and long-term outcomes (Andrews & Bonta, 2006; Bogue et al., 2005; Cullen et al., 2006; Guevara & Solomon, 2009; Latessa & Lowenkamp, 2006; Listwan et al., 2006; Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2005, 2006, 2012).

***Criminal risk factors and criminogenic needs.*** The first principle of EBP is assessing criminal risks and needs which in turn direct an offender's treatment (Andrews & Bonta, 2006; Bogue et al., 2005; Cullen et al., 2006; Guevara & Solomon, 2009; Latessa & Lowenkamp, 2006; Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2005, 2006, 2012). This practice is implemented in all the reviewed programs except moral reconnection therapy (Lipsey, 2007; Little, 1989; Little & Robinson, 2006). Risk factors and criminogenic needs have developed and constructed criminality's efficacious programs

that address risk, responsivity, and need (Andrews & Bonta, 2006; Farrington & Welsh, 2002; Gendreau, 1996; Gendreau & Andrews, 1990; Morgan et al., 2006; Palmer, 2003; Tong & Farrington, 2004; Walters, 1995, 2002b, 2012). Andrews and Bonta (1994) emphasized the importance of integrating criminogenic factors into an established and substantiated treatment delivery system that extends to families, neighborhoods, and communities. The delivery system should contain staff that has an ability to display empathy, fairness, prosocial values, and gains of prosocial lifestyles (Andrews & Bonta, 1994).

***Risk factors.*** The human dimensional factors of self, family, and institutional environments of school, peers, community, neighborhood, criminal justice settings, and society generate varied facets of cognitive, behavioral, social, cultural, economic, physiological, and educational criminal risk factors (Farrington et al., 2001; Gendreau & Andrews, 1990; O'Mahony, 2009; Sherman et al., 1996; Thornberry et al., 1995, 2004; Wasserman, et al., 2003). These factors develop and interact throughout the life course and through familial generations (Thornberry et al., 2003). The following factors are not a complete list; however, they do demonstrate how risk factors influence the developmental process of criminality throughout the life cycle. Andrews and Bonta's (2006) central eight risk factors include antisocial history, personality pattern, cognition, associates, familial or marital, school/work, leisure/recreation, and substance abuse.

***Antisocial history, personality patterns, and cognitions.*** Individual risk factors for criminality are physiological, impulsivity, early onset, aggressiveness, unhealthy value systems, correlational relationship between criminality and restlessness, self-

indulgence, irresponsibility, risk taking, sensation seeking, low intelligence, low self-esteem and empathy, previous criminal history, and inability to delay gratification (Andrews & Bonta, 1994, 2006; Bishopp & Hare, 2008; Hawkins et al., 2000; Jolliffe, & Farrington, 2004; O'Mahony, 2009; Walters, 2003c,d ). Raine, Venables, and Williams (1990a, 1990b) found a relationship between age onset, later criminality, and the central and autonomic arousal system.

Thornberry, Huizinga, and Loeber (2004) explored the relationship of criminal risk factors. Thornberry et al. explored between early onset of delinquency and future criminal activity and arrests as teenagers and adults. There are consistent relationships between age of onset and persistent, continual offending (Hawkins et al., 2000; Thornberry et al., 1995, 2004). When a juvenile age 9 or younger acts criminally, there is a 37% chance that the juvenile will become a chronic violent offender (Thornberry et al., 1995, 2004). Developmental pathways found a consistent approach of mild aggression, leading to physical and gang fighting then to robbery and rape (Thornberry et al., 1995, 2004).

***Antisocial associates and family.*** Researchers documented the influential familial risk factors (Farrington et al., 2003; Hawkins et al., 2000; O'Mahony, 2009; Thornberry et al., 1995, 2003, 2004). Parental education, supervision, monitoring, conflict, child maltreatment, dysfunction, low attachment, criminal, or substance abusing parents affects the development of delinquency and later constant offending (Farrington et al., 2003; Hawkins et. al., 2000; Hymel et al., 2005; O'Mahony, 2009; Thornberry et al., 1995, 2003, 2004). Other influential factors include family size, familial separation due to

parental criminality or abuse (Hawkins et. al., 2000; O'Mahony, 2009). Poverty, unemployment, and living space affect a families' ability to provide a healthy development environment to children (Hawkins et al., 2000; O'Mahony, 2009). The interaction of these risk factors induces biopsychosocial effects upon an individual or group which results at times as delinquency and antisocial behavior. An association with delinquent peers was discussed previously in both the differential association and social control theory. Its influence is well documented (Akers & Jennings, 2009; Walters, 2012).

***School and work.*** Low involvement resulting in lack of school attachments, dropping out, bullying, gang involvement, and poor academic performance are risk factors (Hawkins et al., 2000; O'Mahony, 2009).

***Leisure, recreation, and substance abuse.*** Community disorganization, unemployment, mobility, lack of attachment, high levels of crime, drug use, violence, gangs, criminal peers are risk factors that interact with other risks to create a criminal reciprocal, developmental pattern within individuals, groups and communities (Hawkins et al., 2000; O'Mahony, 2009).

**Criminogenic needs.** Risk, need, responsivity principle, the third evidenced-based principle, have major influences on the modifications and additions to evidenced based practices and interventions (Andrews & Bonta, 2006; Bogue et al., 2005; Cullen et al., 2006; Farrington & Welsh, 2002; Gendreau, 1996; Gendreau & Andrews, 1990; Guevara & Solomon, 2009; Palmer, 2003; Tong & Farrington, 2004; Walters, 1995, 2002b, 2012). Risk, need, and responsivity principles were developed as a theoretical

foundation that supported correctional programming (Robinson & Porporino, 2001; Ross & Fabiano, 1985; Tong & Farrington, 2006; Walters, 1990, 2002a, 2002b, 2012).

Risk determines the level of the offending (Farrington, & Welsh, 2002; Lipsey & Wilson, 2001; Tong & Farrington, 2006). Risk assessment is based upon static and dynamic factors (Andrews & Bonta, 1994; Farrington & Walsh, 2002; Ferguson, 2002; Lipsey & Wilson, 2002; Palmer, 2003; Robinson & Porporino, 2001; Ross & Fabiano, 1985; Tong & Farrington, 2006). These static, unchangeable, factors include age, gender, age of first crime, and length of incarcerations (Andrews & Bonta, 2006; Farrington & Welsh, 2002; Gendreau, 1996; Gendreau & Andrews, 1990; Morgan et al., 2006; Palmer, 2003; Tong & Farrington, 2004; Walters, 1995, 2002b, 2012; Ward & Stewart, 2003). However, dynamic factors are criminogenic needs that are malleable (Andrews & Bonta, 2006; Farrington & Welsh, 2002; Gendreau, 1996; Gendreau & Andrews, 1990; Morgan et al., 2006; Palmer, 2003; Tong & Farrington, 2004; Walters, 1995, 2002b, 2012). High-risk offenders have showed extensive reduction in recidivism rates when obtaining concentrated treatment and therapy (Andrews & Bonta, 1994, 2006; Bogue et al., 2005; Cullen et al., 2006; Ferguson, 2002; Guevara & Solomon, 2009; Latessa & Lowenkamp, 2006; Palmer, 2003; Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2005, 2006, 2012).

The need principle is the implementation of criminogenic needs into offender treatment. Gendreau (1996) stated that criminogenic needs underlie treatment's course, which had not been previously addressed. Criminogenic needs are offenders' dynamic yet distinct beliefs, morals, and thoughts (Andrews & Bonta, 1994; Gendreau, 1996; Gendreau & Andrews, 1990; Gendreau, Goggin, & Smith, 1999; Morgan et al., 2006;

Walters, 1999, 2005; Ward & Stewart, 2005). Andrews and Bonta, Gendreau, Morgan et al., and Walters (2005) all stated that the criminogenic needs of offenders should be the primary goals of any program that proclaims change. Lipsey and Cullen (2007) described criminogenic needs as dynamic factors that can be modified such as attitudes, peer affiliation, drug use, criminal thinking, and dysfunctional skills.

Morgan et al. (2006) discussed focusing on criminogenic needs such as impulsivity, narcissistic impulses, and poor social skills. Walters (1999, 2005, 2006) stated that criminogenic needs are criminal thinking errors. Ward and Stewart (2003) and Gendreau and Andrews (1990) described criminogenic needs as criminal affiliations, dysfunctional decision making and problem solving, offender oriented attitudes and values, substance use, lack of vocational and educational skills, egocentricity, and anger. Dowden and Andrews (1999) found in their meta-analysis, that programs that used the need principle had larger mean effect sizes than those that did not.

The responsivity principle emphasizes the offender's traits, needs, and learning styles that are influential in an offender's treatment response (Andrews & Bonta, 2006; Andrews et al., 1990; Gendreau, 1996; Gendreau & Andrews, 1990; Gendreau et al., 1999; Lipsey & Cullen, 2007). Responsivity factors are not limited to, but can include, deficiency in problem solving, decision making and communication skills, and inflexible thinking. These characteristics can affect an offender's efficacy in managing treatment steps and short and long-term goals (Andrews & Bonta, 2006; Andrews et al., 1990; Gendreau, 1996; Gendreau & Andrews, 1990; Gendreau et al., 1999; Lipsey & Cullen, 2007).

## **Reasoning and Rehabilitation Program**

Reasoning and rehabilitation program (R&R) has been called one of the original offenders' cognitive programs (Ward & Nee, 2009). Its early premises stated that offenders' lack of cognitive skills hindered their ability to become prosocial, however offenders do not necessarily have cognitive development deficiencies (Hollin et al., 2008; Robinson & Porporino, 2001; Ross & Fabiano, 1985; Tong & Farrington, 2006; Ward & Nee, 2009; Wilson et al., 2005). R&R is a multidimensional program where offenders are taught prosocial attitudes, beliefs, values, self-control, meta-cognition, assertiveness, interpersonal, social, and negotiation skills, and emotional management (Hollin et al., 2008; Robinson & Porporino, 2001; Ross & Fabiano, 1985; Tong & Farrington, 2006; Ward & Nee, 2009; Wilson et al., 2005).

This program was 35 sessions with eight to 10 participants for 8 to 12 weeks with a programmed curriculum using role playing, group discussions, games, workbooks, and exercises (Hollin et al., 2008; Robinson & Porporino, 2001; Ross & Fabiano, 1985; Ross, Fabiano, & Ewles, 1988; Tong & Farrington, 2006; Ward & Nee, 2009; Wilson et al., 2005). R&R participation decreases recidivism from 70% in nonparticipants to 37 % in participants (Robinson & Porporino, 2001; Ross & Fabiano, 1985). Another 5-year study with 2125 participants favored the treatment conditions ability to prevent recidivism with effect sizes ranging from .06 to .53 (Robinson, 1996). Robinson indicated that R&R was effective in reducing future criminality. However, Wilson et al. (2005) found that R&R is less effective than other true cognitive behavioral programs. Tong and Farmington (2006)

found that R&R was effective in criminal prevention. Gibbs and Beal (2000) refuted this program due to its lack of individualized treatment.

### **Moral Reconciliation Therapy**

Moral reconciliation therapy (MRT) was based upon Kohlberg's moral stage development and its belief in offender's Stage 1 and 2 functioning (Lipsey, 2007; Little, 1989; Little & Robinson, 2006). Its goal was to raise offenders' moral reasoning. This program was structured into group and individual sessions over a 3 to 6-month period.

MRT used cognitive behavioral elements to address offender issues (Little, 1989; Little & Robinson, 2006; Wilson et al., 2005). This programming utilized group exercise, homework assignments and the MRT workbooks to assist in progressing through sixteen steps that address seven treatment issues. These issues include addressing antisocial beliefs, values, and attitudes, addressing dysfunctional relationships, reinforcing prosocial values, identity formation, develop higher stages of moral reasoning (Little, 1989; Little & Robinson, 2006). This program's goals resembled CLP

Wilson et al. (2005) discussed various MRT study's findings. One of which was a 41% decrease in recidivism rates for program completers as compared to 56% for noncompleters (Little et al., 1994). Wilson et al. reviewed studies and found a mean effect size of .36. MRT found a mean effect size of .33 in decreasing recidivism as compared to R&R's mean effect size of .16 in decreasing recidivism.

### **Therapeutic Communities**

DeLeon (2000) developed therapeutic communities (TCs), which were implemented into prisons, halfway houses, and community correctional facilities

throughout America and Europe. This model stressed the whole person change that implements multidimensional learning (DeLeon, 2000). This model of treatment was an intricate, working curriculum that implemented behavioral, cognitive, and social interventions that addressed lifestyle and addiction issues within a life course perspective (De Leon, 2000, 2010). This model incorporated social learning principles that included building self-regulation, empathy, effective role modeling, relapse prevention skills, cognitive restructuring, criminal affiliations, dysfunctional decision making and problem solving, offender oriented attitudes and values, substance use, and anger (DeLeon, 2000). Community as a method has been criticized for its lack of 12-step involvement (DeLeon, 2000).

Collaborative learning, values in motivational interviewing, and learner accountability (Wagner & Sanchez, 2002; Weimer, 2002) were used as learning interventions while implementing this model into groups and classes. This model provided workbooks, sheets, and breaks down an intricate process into accomplishable steps (Miller & Rollnick, 2002; Prochaska, DiClemente, & Norcross, 1992). This model was used in Pennsylvania's Placement Criteria for insurance companies, welfare, providers when placing and funding clients for treatment. This model has been significantly effective and well implemented into many governmental, treatment, and judicial settings as a standardized assessment of change. Community as method as therapeutic interventions extend into educational pedagogies with a right living philosophy which will be addressed later in the moral educational review in this dissertation.

Condelli and Hubbard (1994) compared two large TC's drug abuse reporting program (DARP) and treatment outcome prospective study (TOPS), which consisted of 4,361 participants. Arrest rates for DARP participants' arrest rates went from 92% to 30% and incarceration rates went from 61% to 31%. Arrest rates for TOPS participants' arrest rates went from 68% to 43% and incarceration rates went from 71% to 47%. Wexler, Falkin, and Lipton (1990) found that participants in the therapeutic community had a 26.95 rate of arrest, which was the lowest in the different treatment approaches that were compared in this study.

### **The Equipping Peers to Help One Another Program (EQUIP)**

EQUIP (Gibbs, 1991, 1995, 2003; Gibbs et al., 1995; Nas et al., 2005; Palmer, 2003) used different components to address cognitive, skill, and behavioral offender issues through a peer approach. This peer approach was also reflected in the community as a method approach described in the past section (DeLeon, 2000, 2010). The peer approach was used to place responsibility for change and program management upon the participants (Gibbs, 1991, 1995, 2003; Gibbs et al., 1995; Nas et al., 2005; Palmer, 2003). A multiple skill training element was implemented into EQUIP to address offenders' lack of cognitive distortions, anger management, moral reasoning, decision and problem solving skills.

Nas, Brugman, and Koop (2005) studied EQUIP's effects and found that cognitive distortions were reduced after programming however no differences were found on moral reasoning, or social skill acquisition. Leeman et al. (1993) found no increase in moral reasoning as did Nas et al. (2005). Leeman et al. did find that program participation

decreased in institutional misbehavior. Leeman et al. also found that EQUIP completers had 15 % recidivism rates at 6 and 12 months as compared to two control groups of 29.7 at 6 months and 40.5 at 12 months.

### **Criminal Lifestyle Program**

CLP evolved from lifestyle theory (Walters, 1990, 1999; 2002a, 2002b, 2006, 2012). Walters (2012) added criminogenic elements into his lifestyle programming, such as using cognitive restructuring to assist in modifying thinking errors, while emphasizing moral teaching and reasoning. Walters addressed substance abuse through relapse prevention, criminal affiliations, dysfunctional decision making, problem solving, offender oriented attitudes and values, substance use, and anger.

CLP was a lifestyle program approach (Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2003, 2005, 2006, 2007, 2012). This program had three goals, which were to “empower clients, instruct basic skills, and encourage client resocialization” (Walters, 2007, p. 323). The client and therapist explored empowerment by building self-efficacy, trust, hope, accountability, and responsibility (Walters, 2007). Cognitive skill building, as reflected in all other reviewed programs increased self-efficacy through communication, problem solving, and decision making and modifying thinking errors (Walters, 2007). Resocialization was important for the client due to the need for offenders to detach from criminal activities, affiliations, and patterns (Walters, 2007).

The CLP had three phases. The first phase is a 10-week program that met for 1 hour a week to introduce the lifestyle concepts (Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2003, 2005, 2006, 2007, 2012). This was accomplished through using workbooks,

discussions, and videos (Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2003, 2005, 2006, 2007, 2012). Clients must pass an exam to move to next phase. The second phase was advanced groups who met 1 to 2 hours per week for 20 weeks in three different groups that focus on crime, drugs, and gambling (Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2003, 2005, 2006, 2007, 2012). The third phase was relapse prevention which met once a week for an hour for 40 weeks. This group focused on skill building, value clarification, problem solving, communication, and creativity (Walters, 2007).

Walters's research was extensive. CLP and the PICTS' research is extensive (Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2003, 2005, 2006, 2012). This instrument and its research will be reviewed in the instrument section of Chapter 3.

CLP was found to lessen one third of institutional disciplinary reports and institutional adjustment procedures (Walters, 2005, 2012). This has been found to be correlated with future reduction in recidivism (Walters, 1999, 2005, 2006, 2012). Walters (2007) found that greater program exposure related to lower disciplinary reports ( $r = .30$ ). High risk offenders received a higher effect size ( $r_{pb} = -.24$ ; 95% CI =  $-.39$  to  $-.09$ ) as compared to low risk offenders ( $r_{pb} = -.17$ , 95% CI =  $-.30$ ). Walters (2005) showed that only 39.5 % of CLP participants as compared to 55.1% control group participants were arrested after release. After 6 months, the pattern continued as evidenced by control groups being reincarcerated at 18% as compared to CLP participants at 8.9% (Walters, 2005). Walters (1999, 2012) found that 291 offenders who completed one or more CLP phases had one third as many disciplinary reports, evidence of recidivism reductions.

Gonsalves, Scalora, and Huss (2009) criticized CLP as being too focused on cognitive measures. Gonsalves et al. also criticized CLP for its lack of behavioral measures.

### **Moral Reasoning and Education**

Bandura's (1991, 1999) and Bandura et al.'s (1996) interactional perspective on human morality emphasized the bidirectionality of thought, affect, conduct, self-regulation, and moral disengagement. Human morality reasoned and internalized standards that directly conduct through a self-regulatory system with consequential outcomes (Bandura, 1991, 1999, 2002; Bandura, et al. 1996). Haidt and Kesebir (2010) discussed the same human moral system as "an interlocking set of values, virtues, norms, practices, identities, institutions, technologies, and evolved psychological mechanisms that work together to suppress or regulate selfishness and make social life possible" (p.800). Haidt and Kesebir and Gert (2005) defined morality as a new synthesis of values, rules, and ideals that are universally acceptable. Offenders' fear and low self-efficacy contributes to their inability to achieve these values implement criminal thinking patterns and behaviors to achieve societal goals (Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2003, 2005, 2006, 2007, 2012). CLT and CLP (Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2003, 2005, 2006, 2007, 2012) principles emerged through moral reasoning and education (Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2003, 2005, 2006, 2012). CLP (Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2003, 2005, 2006, 2012) used moral reasoning and education to address offenders' attitudes, values, and thinking patterns. These patterns are stressed in EBPs of treatment (Andrews & Bonta, 2006; Bogue et al., 2005; Cullen et al., 2006; Guevara & Solomon,

2009; Latessa & Lowenkamp, 2006; Listwan et al., 2006; Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2005, 2006, 2012).

Researchers demonstrated the need to target changing cognitive distortions, value dysfunction, and skill deficiencies in all treatment programs (Andrews & Bonta, 2006; Bogue et al., 2005; Cullen et al., 2006; Guevara & Solomon, 2009; Latessa & Lowenkamp, 2006; Listwan et al., 2006; Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2005, 2006, 2012). Without thinking skills that develop reasoning, relating to morality and values development, these individuals remain stuck behind the bars and drugs that cage their minds from learning another lifestyle (Gibbs, Arnold, Ahlborn, & Chessmen, 1984; Swanson & Hill, 1993).

An individual grows and learns through their interactions and relationships with their families, schools, communities, cultures, societies, countries, and worlds that teach values, norms, and virtues that guide their lives (Strike, 2008). Offenders learn and grow through their interactions within prisons however, what they learn imprints their thinking and resounds in their criminal behavior (Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2003, 2005, 2006, 2012). Moral education within families, schools, communities, cultures, societies, countries, and worlds provides important curricula for the development of social change (Pollard et al., 1991). CLP and its moral educational tools can assist in the achievement of evidenced-based short term outcomes of cognitive and behavioral change. Achieving short term outcomes spurs long term evidence based outcomes of reduced recidivism, victim satisfaction, and increasing public safety (Andrews & Bonta, 2006; Bogue et al.,

2005; Cullen et al., 2006; Guevara & Solomon, 2009; Latessa & Lowenkamp, 2006; Listwan et al., 2006; Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2005, 2006, 2012).

**Moral education.** Haidt and Kesebir (2010) discussed the human moral system as “interlocking sets of values, virtues, norms, practices, identities, institutions, technologies, and evolved psychological mechanisms that work together to suppress or regulate selfishness and make social life possible” (p.800). Haidt and Kesebir and Gert (2005) defined morality as a new synthesis of values, rules, and ideals that are universally acceptable. Moral education’s goals feature the development of universally acceptable values, ideals, virtues, and rules such as fairness, human welfare, and rights through varied instructional techniques, dynamics, and behaviors in diverse institutions and groups (Covell & Howe, 2001; Nucci, 2001, 2008; Nucci & Weber, 2008). Walters (1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2005, 2006, 2012), Orenstein and Hunkins (2009) and Prilleltensky (1997) discussed the diversity in values and the challenges of moral education. These challenges resound in the need to implement all eight EBPs to address the diverse aspects of criminality (Andrews & Bonta, 2006; Bogue et al., 2005; Cullen et al., 2006; Guevara & Solomon, 2009; Latessa & Lowenkamp, 2006; Listwan et al., 2006; Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2005, 2006, 2012).

EBP stress the importance of changing criminal thinking to restructure values and beliefs (Andrews & Bonta, 2006; Bogue et al., 2005; Cullen et al., 2006; Guevara & Solomon, 2009; Latessa & Lowenkamp, 2006; Listwan et al., 2006; Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2005, 2006, 2012). Money as a value is the outcome of drug dealing. However, drug dealers are not content with one or thousands of deals due to the method

of acquisition. Dealing is not prosocial living. It has no value. Fulfillment cannot be gained from the gathering of possessions.

Walters (2002a, 2002b, 2005, 2006, 2012) used moral reasoning to extend CLT's roots similarly to Bandura's (1999, 2002) extension into moral thought and education. The promotion of moral thought and education in CLP was featured by focusing on cognitive distortions, criminal attitudes, and dysfunctional values employing moral educational curriculum and tools. Walters (1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2003, 2005, 2006, 2012) used moral educational theory, research findings, and pedagogies to propose criminal lifestyle change.

### **Literature Review Related to Key Variables and/or Concepts**

Criminality is a framework of cognitive patterns that translate experiences into a lifestyle of attitudes, values, and belief systems that advocate, vindicate, and legitimize criminal behaviors (Mandracchia et al., 2007; Walters, 1990, 2007; Yochelson & Samenow, 1976, 1977). The key variables in this research review are criminal thinking patterns.

### **Criminal Thinking**

Criminal thinking's impact on the pervasiveness of criminality was underestimated and undervalued (Mandracchia et al., 2007). CLP (Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2005, 2006, 2012) evolved from Yochelson and Samenow's (1976, 1977) comprehensive studies on criminal thinking patterns. Walters modified the 52 errors and eight patterns to focus concentration on conditions, free choice, and the ability to motivate change of criminal cognitions and value dysfunction.

Life conditions that arise are appraised, evaluated, and synthesized through cognitions. Conditions can encompass family, environment, static and dynamic risks, response, and needs (Andrews & Bonta, 2006; Andrews et al., 1990; Gendreau, 1996; Gendreau & Andrews, 1990; Gendreau et al., 1999; Hollin et al., 2008; Robinson & Porporino, 2001; Ross & Fabiano, 1985; Ross et al., 1988; Tong & Farrington, 2006; Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2005, 2006, 2012). The choices that are then made can be the rudiment of criminal thinking (Walters, 1999).

These choices reflect cognitive patterns that reinforce irresponsibility, self-centeredness, immediate gratification, and a criminal lifestyle can develop (Andrews & Bonta, 2006; Andrews et al., 1990; Gendreau, 1996; Gendreau & Andrews, 1990; Gendreau et al., 1999; Barriga et al., 2001; Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2005, 2006, 2012). The preservation, securing, and sustaining of a criminal lifestyle appropriates attributions, outcome expectancies, efficacy expectancies, goals, values, and thinking errors as found in evidenced based research in corrections (Andrews & Bonta, 2006; Bogue et al., 2005; Cullen et al., 2006; Guevara & Solomon, 2009; Latessa & Lowenkamp, 2006; Listwan et al., 2006; Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2005, 2006, 2012).

A criminal lifestyle has a belief system that supports and furnishes rationales and explanations for its lifestyle (Mandracchia et al., 2007; Walters, 2002a, 2002b, 2012). Criminal values reflect choices (The change company, 2008; Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2005, 2006, 2012). Some criminal values that reinforce its lifestyle include dishonesty, intolerance, arrogance, irresponsibility, lack of integrity, power, revenge,

laziness, and false pride (The change company, 2008; Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2005, 2006, 2012). Walters's (2002a) divides values to reflect "social, work, visceral, and intellectual" (Walters, 2002a, p.55). To change these values and balance these categories, Walters (2002a) suggests moral educational techniques of value clarification and skill building.

### **Criminal Thinking Patterns**

Criminal thinking patterns are affiliated with criminal behavior by various researchers from Yochelson and Samenow's (1976, 1977) 52 errors to Gibbs's primary and secondary distortions (Barriga et al., 2001; Gibbs, 1991, 1995, 2003; Gibbs et al., 1995, 1996; Nas et al., 2005, 2008; Wallinus et al., 2011) to CLT's eight thinking patterns (Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2005, 2006, 2012). Criminal thinking patterns and errors stabilized the disequilibrium of a criminal lifestyle (Gonsalves et al., 2009). Eight criminal patterns each with a specific thinking error will be described. Identifying subjective criminal patterns, thoughts and values are the first steps towards changing and modifying the pattern and behavior.

The first criminal pattern is mollification with an associated error of making excuses, blaming, and justifying. Mollification is the justification of criminal behavior through externalization of blame to anything or anyone thereby detouring any subjective accountability or responsibility (Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2005, 2006, 2012). Taking a victim stance, citing malfeasances as justifications for criminal behavior, and placing responsibility and cause of crime on the victim are a few examples of these thought patterns. Specific thinking errors could be "If I wasn't selling drugs, someone

else would” (The change company, 2008, p.10). Another thinking error could refer to blaming the neighborhood for criminal behavior, blaming a lawyer’s incompetence for landing a person in prison, or decreasing crimes impact due to lack of hurt or intent to harm (The change company, 2008; Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2005, 2006, 2012).

The second criminal pattern is the cutoff with an associated error of disregarding responsible action. The cutoff eradicates and erases any apprehension about committing crimes. The cutoff is a basic word, thought, or behavior such as drug use that destroys the obstacles or corrodes crime’s disincentives (Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2005, 2006, 2012). These disincentives such as apprehension, misgivings, and doubt about committing a crime are eradicated when a cutoff is developed, and implemented into one’s thinking patterns. These cutoffs become ingrained into to patterns to reinforce and support criminal behavior. Specific internal and external cutoffs can be from getting a case of the “fuck its” (Walters, 1990, p. 134), drug or alcohol use, or songs or parts of songs. Specific thinking errors can be to disregard responsibility by using drugs; uncaring thoughts about anything or anyone, saying screw it (The change company, 2008; Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2005, 2006, 2012).

The third criminal pattern is entitlement with an associated error of sense of being above the law. Entitlement is one of the main supporting beams of criminal behavior. Entitlement’s three components are “ownership, uniqueness, and misidentification” (Walters, 1990, p.136).

Entitlement claims that one is empowered by their uniqueness, and therefore possesses the power to violate others and society's rules (Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2005, 2006, 2012). Claiming ownership over people and society empowers offenders to buy into the adage that the world exists for their pleasure (Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2005, 2006, 2012). Entitlement confuses needs and wants (Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2005, 2006, 2012). This confusion grants offenders' permission to behave in any manner to get specific needs of entitlements such as specific owning a Mercedes, or a home fulfilled (Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2005, 2006, 2012). Specific thinking errors resemble a sense of "being above the law" because the offender needs and deserves nice clothes, watches, money (The change company, 2008; Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2005, 2006, 2012).

The fourth criminal pattern is power orientation with an associated error of asserting power. Power orientation is the offenders' need for dominance over others and environments to balance the offenders' inadequacies, inefficacies, and incompetency's (Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2005, 2006, 2012). The two constructs of power orientation are power thrust and zero state which explains offenders' two differential states (Walters, 1990). Power thrust is their possession of power illustrated by their ability to control environments and people (Walters, 1990). Zero state is when the offenders' inadequacies, inefficacies, and incompetency's take over their self-perceptions people (Walters, 1990).

Specific power orientation patterns resemble using manipulation to demonstrate power over another individual without respect for their rights, lacking humility, using

intimidation to demonstrate power (The change company, 2008; Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2005, 2006, 2012). Specific thinking errors would be use violence to show self and others power, stating dominance through words, and using intimidation to frighten others (The change company, 2008; Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2005, 2006, 2012).

The fifth criminal pattern is sentimentality with an associated error of self-serving acts of kindness. Sentimentality is the manner through which offenders look good to them (The change company, 2008; Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2005, 2006, 2012). Specific sentimentality patterns use self-serving acts of kindness to disguise offenders' destructive, dishonest, self-centered selves to others and to offender (Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2005, 2006, 2012). Specific thinking errors are a person telling themselves they are a good person because they gave money to the local soup kitchen at Thanksgiving, or claiming dedication to family while selling drugs to support them (The change company, 2008; Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2005, 2006, 2012).

The sixth criminal pattern is superoptimism with an associated error of getting away with anything. Specific superoptimism patterns believe in the efficacy of criminal behavior (Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2005, 2006, 2012). Superoptimism reinforces offenders' beliefs in their abilities to get away with anything. Their ability to sidestep and evade accountability for criminal acts reinforces their belief that consequences happen to other offenders not to them (Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2005, 2006, 2012). Specific thinking errors can be to believe that the police cannot catch

up to a person because of their criminal efficacy or belief in the last score (The change company, 2008; Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2005, 2006, 2012).

The seventh criminal pattern is cognitive indolence with an associated error of lazy thinking. Cognitive indolence defines criminality in its patterns of lazy thinking, taking short cuts, and side stepping their responsibilities (The change company, 2008; Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2005, 2006, 2012). Cognitive indolence relates to an offender's lack of decision-making and problem solving skills. These deficits underline the offenders' inability to work towards or achieve goals due to their lazy thinking (The change company, 2008; Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2005, 2006, 2012). Specific thinking errors can be offenders telling themselves there is no need to labor to achieve goals because they can start their own business or taking shortcuts to achieve impractical goals (The change company, 2008; Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2005, 2006, 2012).

The eighth criminal pattern is discontinuity with an associated error of getting sidetracked and lack of persistence. Specific discontinuity patterns can be an offender's lack of commitment and responsibility to perseverance, goals, and congruity (Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2005, 2006, 2012). Specific thinking errors can be to make commitments and not keep them or not following plan such as going to help someone (The change company, 2008; Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2005, 2006, 2012). Criminal thinking patterns build dysfunctional value systems.

## **Gaps in Literature**

Gaps in literature included the lack of application of the criminal lifestyle approach to state and county parolees and probationers (Walters, 2008). I addressed many gaps. This study modified Walters CLP to address a different population than Walters's federal prisoners. This study's sample was state parolees and county probationers. Another gap addressed was the length of the program. CLP can run up to 2 years (Walters, 1999, 2005, 2012). This study's CLP ran 5 weeks. The last gap was that Walters used differential sections of program dynamics and education. This study used Walters's first section only due to the time constraints placed upon parolees and probationers in a community correctional center (Andrews & Bonta, 2006; Walters, 1999, 2005, 2012). The first section's outcomes coincided with correctional EBP's short-term outcomes of offenders' alteration of risks of criminal thinking (Andrews & Bonta, 2006; Bogue et al., 2005; Cullen et al., 2006; Guevara & Solomon, 2009; Joplin et al., 2004; Landenberger & Lipsey, 2005; Latessa & Lowenkamp, 2006).

Offenders who have been incarcerated for years are expected to reintegrate into society with a multitude of issues without getting the proper treatment (Walters, 2007). This is an extreme concern for the country. In 2010, 708,677 sentenced state and federal prisoners were released (The Council of State Governments Justice Center, 2013). There were 9 million offenders released from jails, and 4.9 million offenders were on parole or probation in 2013 (The Council of State Governments Justice Center, 2013). I evaluated Walters's CLP (1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2005, 2006, 2012) with parolees and

probationers for a shorter period while using only one of CLP's components of dynamic criminogenic need of criminal thinking.

### **Summary and Conclusions**

Chapter 2 was a review of literature that was prevalent to this study. Literature was reviewed on criminality and its general approaches. Literature on offender treatment approaches was reviewed as it will apply to the evaluation of CLP (Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2005, 2006, 2012). Moral reasoning and education was reviewed to support its application in CLT and CLP (Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2005, 2006, 2012). The key variable of thinking distortions was explored due to its evidenced based importance in offender rehabilitation (Andrews, & Bonta, 2006; Bogue et al., 2005; Cullen et al., 2006; Guevara & Solomon, 2009; Latessa, & Lowenkamp, 2006; Listwan et al., 2006) and as an integral part of CLT and CLP (Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2005, 2006, 2012). Moral development, reasoning, and education was reviewed as it related to offender rehabilitation and as another integral part of Walters criminal lifestyle theory and program (1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2005, 2006, 2012).

Chapter 3 is an explanation of this study's research design, rationale, its population, sampling and archival data procedure, and instrumentation. This chapter is also an examination of the threats to validity and the ethical procedure.

## Chapter 3: Research Method

### **Introduction**

A 2x3 between groups factorial ANCOVA was conducted to assess the effectiveness of two treatment programs in reducing three cohorts' criminal thinking. The independent variables were the types of treatment programs (criminality, primary group) and the three cohorts. The dependent variable were the scores on the PICTS administered following completion of either one of the treatment programs (criminality or primary). Scores on the PICTS administered prior to the commencement of the programs were used as a covariate to control for individual difference. Walden University's Institutional Review Board approval number for this study was 11-18-16-0092746.

The main purpose of this study was to evaluate archival pre-and post-data collected from June 3, 2014 to September 30, 2014 from three cohort groups who had participated in either, a criminality or primary group, which constituted the study's two treatment conditions. Both group schedules are fully displayed in Appendix A. Each cohort had 40 participants. Chapter 3 includes an explanation of this study's research design and rationale, its population, sampling, archival data procedure, and instrumentation. In this chapter, I also discuss ethical procedures and threats to validity as they relate to my investigation.

### **Research Design and Rationale**

There are three elements in this investigative dissertation. The first element was Walters's original quasi experimental designed studies with nonequivalent groups (Walters et al., 2002, 2011). Walters design was effective in evaluating and investigating

treatment effects and outcomes (Cook & Campbell, 1979; Creswell, 2003; Mitchell & Jolley, 2004; Walters et al., 2002, 2011).). Walters et al. (2002, 2011) originally used two groups of offenders (treatment and comparison groups) at two time intervals (baseline and post CLP) across three CLPs, which encompassed three consecutive measurements of the dependent variable, the PICTS (Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2005, 2006, 2012).

The second element in this dissertation was a 5-week replica of Walters' designs, named *Criminality*, which I modified to address offenders' shortened length of stays due to lack of funding. *Criminality* used Walters's first section of CLP that accentuated the explorations of criminal thinking. Due to the time constraints placed upon parolees and probationers in a community correctional center, criminal thinking's outcomes previously coincided with correctional EBP's short-term outcomes of offenders' alteration of criminal thinking (Andrews & Bonta, 2006; Bogue et al., 2005; Cullen et al., 2006; Guevara & Solomon, 2009; Joplin et al., 2004; Landenberger & Lipsey, 2005; Latessa & Lowenkamp, 2006 Walters, 1999, 2005, 2012). Walters worked extensively in the Pennsylvania's Division of Corrections (DOC), which funded most community correctional facility's clients and permitted *Criminality*'s implementation and subsequent assessment of its efficacy through the PICTS with Walters's permission in 2013.

Due to changes in DOC's personnel, treatment perspectives, length of stays, and sentencing changes, evaluators have not examined any archival data to assess *Criminality*'s efficacy. The third element is this study's investigation was the collection of archival data pre-and post-*Criminality* from three consecutive measurements of the

dependent variable, The Psychological Inventory of Criminal Thinking Styles from June 3, 2013 until September 30, 2014.

Archival pre-and post-data from the PICTS were collected from three cohort groups whose members had participated in 5 weeks of the criminality program as compared to 5 weeks of primary group programming. This data assessed any main effects or interactions between treatment groups and cohorts. Using a 2x3 between groups factorial ANCOVA, archival data, which had not previously been evaluated, were analyzed to assess any treatment group or cohort differences in criminal thinking. The pretest scores were controlled on the PICTS to control for individual differences and assess posttest differences between treatment and primary groups and cohorts.

The independent variables were the types of treatment program (criminality and primary group) and the three cohorts. The dependent variable was the scores on the PICTS administered following completion of the intervention programs. Scores on the PICTS administered prior to the commencement of the programs were used as a covariate to control for individual differences. The data analysis sought to answer the following research question and address the study's three hypotheses.

RQ1. Are there significant mean differences in post intervention criminal thinking scores for the criminality group and the primary group, while controlling for their pre-test scores?

$H_01$ : After controlling for pretest PICTS scores, there are no significant effects for cohorts on criminal thinking posttest scores on the Psychological Inventory of Criminal Thinking Styles.

*H<sub>a1</sub>*: After controlling for pretest PICTS scores, there are significant effects for cohorts on criminal thinking posttest scores on the Psychological Inventory of Criminal Thinking Styles.

*H<sub>o2</sub>*: After controlling for pretest PICTS scores, there are no significant effects for treatment on criminal thinking posttest scores on the Psychological Inventory of Criminal Thinking Styles.

*H<sub>a2</sub>*: After controlling for pretest PICTS scores, there are significant effects for treatment on criminal thinking posttest scores on the Psychological Inventory of Criminal Thinking Styles.

*H<sub>o3</sub>*: After controlling for pretest PICTS scores, there are no significant Cohort x Treatment interaction on criminal thinking posttest scores on the Psychological Inventory of Criminal Thinking Styles.

*H<sub>a3</sub>*: After controlling for pretest PICTS scores, there are significant Cohort x Treatment interaction on criminal thinking posttest scores on the Psychological Inventory of Criminal Thinking Styles.

## **Methodology**

### **Population**

The target population of this study consisted male offenders in a community correctional center. There were approximately 5,000 offenders in all community correctional facilities in Pennsylvania (A. Crush, personal communication, January 29, 2015).

### **Sampling and Sampling Procedures**

Archival data from a basic convenience sample, between the ages of 18-60 years old males. The participants had a mean length of stay between 60 to 90 days and were chosen by staff at this community correctional center, where Criminality ran. A basic convenience sample of 20 participants selected by staff attended the criminality group due to participants' extensive criminal involvement resulting in incarcerations. Extensive criminal involvement was defined as having 2 or more incarcerations. A basic convenience sample of 20 participants was selected for to attend a normal scheduled primary group instead of Criminality due to their lack of extensive criminal involvement. Lack of criminal involvement was defined as having less than 2 incarcerations. Programming schedules for the control and treatment groups are presented in Appendix A.

Criminality treatment groups of 20 offenders participated in the criminality course for 5 hours every week for 5 weeks. The primary group did not participate in Criminality program at all. The primary group followed only group directed discussions. The PICTS was completed by both treatment and control groups prior to the beginning of and after Criminality is completed. The treatment staff ran the Criminality course.

This study used archival data selected from June 3, 2013 until September 30, 2014, which used only male offenders' data as did Walters et al. in their studies (2002, 2011). A power analysis was conducted by G power software to calculate a sample and effect size for this study using Walters et al. study (2002) which used repeated measure ANOVAs and the same content scales. Using alpha level .05 ( $p < .05$ ), and power set at

.95, an effect size of  $d=.252$  was found. The correlation  $r$  was .125. This analysis revealed that 126 total participants' archival data were necessary for a medium powered analysis.

### **Procedures for Recruitment, Participation, and Data Collection Using Archival Data**

A basic convenience sample of 20 participants was selected by staff to attend the criminality group (treatment) due to their extensive criminal involvement resulting in incarcerations. Extensive criminal involvement was defined as having at least 2 incarcerations or more. A basic convenience sample of 20 participants was selected for the primary group to attend a normal scheduled primary group instead of Criminality due to their lack of extensive criminal involvement. Lack of criminal involvement was less than 2 incarcerations. Both schedules were presented in Appendix A.

Criminality treatment groups of 20 offenders participated in the criminality course for 5 hours every week for five weeks. The primary group did not participate in Criminality program at all. The control group attended a primary group that followed only group directed discussions.

The PICTS questionnaire was completed by both criminality and primary groups prior to the beginning of Criminality's and primary groups as well as after Criminality and the primary group ended. The treatment staff ran the Criminality course and the primary group. The archival data were utilized for this study were selected from June 3, 2013 until September 30, 2014, which used only male offenders' data.

### **Instrumentation and Operationalization of Constructs**

PICTS, developed by Walters had three validity scales of confusion (Cf), defensiveness (Df), and missing responses. The eight thinking style scales were mollification (Mo), cutoff (Co), entitlement (En), power orientation (Po), sentimentality (Sn), superoptimism (So), cognitive indolence (Ci), and discontinuity (Ds). This inventory also had four factor scales, which were problem avoidance (PRB), interpersonal hostility (HOS), self-assertion/deception scale (AST), and denial of harm (DNH) (Walters, 2006). There were two general content scales named current and historical (Walters, 2006). Only the current content scale was utilized in this study to assess its archival data. Two composite scales were proactive (P) and reactive (R) criminal thinking and one special scale named fear of change scale (FOC, Walters, 2006). All scales used a 4-point Likert scale from 4 *strongly agrees* to 1 *equally disagree*. Walters et al. (2002, 2011), The archival data for this study used the current thinking content scale to assess any change in criminal thinking between repeated measures.

Developed in 1989, PICTS was an 80 item self-reported measure that assesses thinking styles that supported criminal behaviors and lifestyles (Walters, 1990, 2002a, 2002b, 2012). All eight Likert type criminal thinking scales (Mo, Co, En, Po, Sn, So, Ci, Ds) produced raw scores which were linearly transformed to *t* scores with a mean of 50 and standard deviation of 10. Raw scores and *t* scores were both used to describe certain features of archival data investigation. *t* scores were used to infer the results of the archival data to all male offenders in community correctional centers. The top three highest *t* scores on the eight criminal thinking scales were identified and compared to the

other five scales to assist in data generalization to specific criminal thoughts accented by elevated scores that were focused upon within the course, within the sample or addressed within the population.

The PCTS reliability tests of internal consistency found little variation in alpha coefficients by gender (Walters, 2006). The male mean ranges were .55-.91. Females' ranges were .54-.89. The PICTS Manual stated that "these findings suggest that PICTS scales have moderate internal consistency" (Walters, 2006, p. 15). Test-retest reliability had 2-week stability on all scales of .70 for males and females. The 12-week test-retest reliability was above .50 for both males and females.

Walters (2006) stated that the PICTS' content validity was high due to its eight criminal thinking scales and offenders input in item content. Concurrent validity was high on all scales (Walters, 2006). PICTS modestly correlates with two scales of criminality, The Lifestyle Criminality Screening (Walters, White, & Denney, 1999) between -.30 to .24 (Walters, 2006). The Psychopathy Checklist-Revised (Hare, 1991) correlations did not exceed .09 (Walters, 2006). PICTS' scales, using prison adjustment and release as outcomes, had modest effect sizes (Walters, 2006). Walters's meta-analysis explored six studies which prison adjustment and release were the outcomes and found unweighted effect sizes at a 95% confidence interval to range on the eight criminal thinking styles from -.14 to .24. The weighted effect sizes what at a 95% confidence interval to range on the eight criminal thinking styles from -.12 to .21. P and R scales were found to be the most effective predictor scales of prison adjustment and release outcomes (Walters, 2006).

Walters (2006) used factor analyses on numerous occasions to establish construct validity. Factor analyses on the PICTS sited four factors that accounted for 16.8%, 4.1%, 2.7%, and 2.3% of the variance and were labeled consecutively problem avoidance, interpersonal hostility, self-assertion, and denial of harm (Walters, 1995). Extensive confirmatory analyses (Walters, 2005) found above .50 correlations on these four factors and eight thinking styles (Walters, 2006) Problem avoidance, Co, Ci, and Ds correlated with the current criminal thinking content scale which this study investigates (Walters, 2006). This study will use the current content scale to assess its archival data.

### **Intervention**

Criminality was the name of the program that was utilized in community correctional facility in Pennsylvania and this study. The shortening of the Walters CLP program was necessary due to client's maximum 3-month length of stay in community correctional facility as opposed to Walters's samples, which have federal prison sentences of years (Walters, 1999, 2005, 2012; Walters et al., 2002, 2008, 2011).

Criminality, a 5-week replica of Walters's designs, modified only to address offenders shortened length of stays due to lack of funding (Walters, 1999, 2005, 2012; Walters et al., 2002, 2008, 2011). Walters design was modified by shortening his program into a five-week program and only addressing criminal thinking errors. The following describes how CLP was modified into Criminality. Criminality used Walters's first section of CLP that accentuated the explorations of criminal thinking (Walters, 1999, 2005, 2012; Walters et al., 2002, 2008, 2011). The first stage of Walters CLP addressed criminogenic needs of criminal thinking and beliefs. This stage was used to preserve

Walter's core change elements of responsibility, confidence, meaning, and community (Walters, 2002) and highlighted Walters's cognitive skills training and value clarification importance in criminal thinking modification.

The two different programs were defined and outlined in Appendix A. Criminality began with a baseline administration of the PICTS by the group leader to both the criminality and primary groups. In week 1, criminality was presented with class materials, and given the PICTS' pre-test. In week 1, there was a group discussion on the definition of criminality and each participants' criminal history. During week 2, the thinking error workbook (Walters, 2008) was completed. The thinking errors workbook (Walters, 2008) was an interactive journal that described eight thinking errors (beliefs) that supported criminal values. Each group participant completed the workbook to determine which errors led him back to being irresponsible and behaving criminally. Each group reviewed the thinking error workbook together, applied it to life experiences, and how their lives could be if their criminality would change. Criminality also volunteered at the food bank during week 2, stocked shelves, and delivered food to the churches in the area. Volunteering in the food bank assisted through hands on experience to understand the relationship between harming and helping people.

During week 3, the Criminality group went to the soup kitchen close to community correctional facility in Pennsylvania to help feed many of the mothers, fathers, and children whom had often been their drug customers. In week 3, the values workbook (Walters, 2008) was also completed. The values workbook (Walters, 2008) is an interactive journal that explored poor past choices, weighed benefits and consequences

of these past choices, and explored the values of honesty, caring, tolerance and responsibility. The values workbook also explored future goals the participants can make that support responsible living values. Each group participant completed the workbook to determine bad choices, and developed a new set of values that mirrored right living. Each group reviewed the values workbook together, applied it to life experiences, and how their lives could be if their criminality would change. In week 4, highlighted sections of *99 days and a get up* (Rollo, 2012) are read, discussed and applied to each participants' life. *99 days and a get up* (Rollo, 2012) was a guide for offenders when they re-entered society to prevent recidivism. A Criminality car wash (when weather permits) or community brunch (monies donated to soup kitchen or food bank) was ran during week 4 that demonstrated the difference between offender self-centeredness and helping others. In week 5, participants discussed the positives and negatives of the group, what they learned and completed the PICTS' posttest. The participants were also given completion certificates.

The primary group began with a baseline administration of the PICTS by the group leader to the primary group in week 1. In week 1, the participants introduced themselves to one another, as well as explored the groups rules and purpose. The purpose of this group was for the participants to discuss any treatment planning action steps, and issues whether they are past or present. In week 2, the participants continued to discuss treatment planning steps issues which was done to promote and demonstrate empathetic understanding for group members. In week 3, the group analyzed its dynamics and encouraged group participation by finding topics that the group was collectively

interested in exploring. In week 4, the primary group collectively explored skills that may support positive lifestyles and discussed their identity and ways of implementation. In week 5, primary participants discussed the group dynamic of peer feedback, its importance in group processing and how to implement it more frequently in group. In week 5, the primary participants completed the PICTS posttest.

### **Threats to Validity**

History was a threat to this study's internal validity due to its participants all residing together in a community correctional center where varied events could have occurred. Maturation was another threat to this study's internal validity due to the nature of an institution and individual's varied processes. Testing was another internal threat due to the exposure of the pretest possible influence on the outcomes of the posttest.

External validity could be threatened by the interactive effects of testing due to all participants taking the pretest which might have affected a participant's treatment response. Another threat to this study's external validity was the multiple past treatments many of this study's participants have experienced which may confound outcomes of this study's effects.

### **Ethical Procedures**

Participants' rights were protected under The Standards for Educational and Psychological Testing (8.1-8.13) and under the Ethical Principles of Psychologists and Code of Conduct (2002), which upheld "fair and equitable treatment regarding administration, reporting of results, intended use of scores and confidentiality of results" (The Standards for Educational and Psychological Testing, 1999, p. 85).

Under the Code of Federal Regulations, Title 42, Volume 1, Parts 1-399, and the United States Code 42§290dd-2 (LAW), the community correctional facility clients and participants of this study retained their civil liberties and rights. All records and information of clients at the community correctional facility and participants in this study were confidential and will not be disclosed without a participant's consent.

All clients at the community correctional facility and participants in this study were protected under the Americans with Disabilities Act (Title III; 1990), which included their rights of equality and opportunity regardless of age, race, and sex as well as the removal of all nonphysical and physical barriers. Under the State of Pennsylvania, 71 P.S. Pennsylvania Statutes § 1690.101 et.seq. - Act 63 (LAW); 4 Pa. Code § 255.1 et.seq. (Regulation); 28 Pa. Code§ 709.28 (Regulation); 35 P.S. § 7601 et.seq. -Act148 (LAW), all regulations and statues were applied and followed by the community correctional facility. These laws and regulations of confidentiality protected all the clients.

### **Summary**

Chapter 3 delineated this study's methodology, its design, its sample and instrumentation. This chapter was also an examination of this study's data collection and analysis, intervention, and the participant's rights. Chapter 4 will be a description of the findings of this study using the data collected from the pre-and posttest scores of the instruments utilized in this study,

## Chapter 4: Results

### Introduction

The main purpose of this study was to evaluate archival pre-and post-data collected from June 3, 2014 to September 30, 2014 from three cohort groups whose members participated in either a treatment group which ran a criminality or primary group. This evaluation assessed the effectiveness of two programs in reducing three cohorts' criminal thinking. The research question and hypotheses are restated. The independent variables were the types of treatment (criminality and primary) and the cohorts. The dependent variable was the Psychological Inventory of Criminal Thinking Styles scores (Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2005, 2006, 2012).

The independent variables were types of treatment and assignment to the criminality or primary group. The other independent variable was the three cohorts. The dependent variable was Psychological Inventory of Criminal Thinking Styles scores. The research question and hypotheses follow:

RQ1. Are there significant mean differences in post intervention criminal thinking scores for the criminality group and the primary group, while controlling for their pre-test scores?

$H_0$ : After controlling for pretest PICTS scores, there are no significant effects for cohorts on criminal thinking posttest scores on the Psychological Inventory of Criminal Thinking Styles.

*H<sub>a</sub>*: After controlling for pretest PICTS scores, there are significant effects for cohorts on criminal thinking posttest scores on the Psychological Inventory of Criminal Thinking Styles.

*H<sub>o2</sub>*: After controlling for pretest PICTS scores, there are no significant effects for treatment on criminal thinking posttest scores on the Psychological Inventory of Criminal Thinking Styles.

*H<sub>a2</sub>*: After controlling for pretest PICTS scores, there are significant effects for treatment on criminal thinking posttest scores on the Psychological Inventory of Criminal Thinking Styles.

*H<sub>o3</sub>*: After controlling for pretest PICTS scores, there are no significant Cohort x Treatment interaction on criminal thinking posttest scores on the Psychological Inventory of Criminal Thinking Styles.

*H<sub>a3</sub>*: After controlling for pretest PICTS scores, there are significant Cohort x Treatment interaction on criminal thinking posttest scores on the Psychological Inventory of Criminal Thinking Styles.

### **Data Collection**

This study's archival data was collected from June 3, 2014 to September 30, 2014 from three cohort groups in either a criminality or primary group.

### **Demographic Findings**

The sample consisted of 120 males with a mean age of 34. The total cohort sample was 36% Caucasian, 28% African-American, 34% Hispanic, and 2% Asian. Their mean educational level was the 10th grade. Regarding marital status, 43 % were single,

13% were married, 33% were divorced, and 12% had never been married. Participants' mean sentencing length was 30 months. Their mean percentages in legal status was 21% incarcerated, 27% on parole, 23% on probation and 29% on supervised release. Their committing offense means were 33% for robbery or theft, 54% for drug charges, and 12% for murder or other offenses. Cohort A, B, and C's demographics are reported by cohort in Table 1.

Table 1

*Demographic Data for Cohorts A, B, and C*

Cohort A		%	SD	M
Race	Caucasian	43		
	African-American	19		
	Hispanic	33		
	Asian	0		
Age			1.9	35
Marital status	Single	48		
	Married	10		
	Divorced	24		
	Never married	10		
Education level	5th	2.5		10
	6th	5		
	7th	2.5		
	8th	15		
	9th	17.5		
	10th	12.5		
	11th	22.5		
Legal status	12th	22.5		
	Incarcerated	6		
	Parole	8		
	Probation	10		
Supervised release	9			
Sentencing in months				41
Confining offense	Robbery	10		
	Drugs	18		
	Murder	5		
Cohort B		%	SD	M
Race	Caucasian	12		
	African-American	11		
	Hispanic	10		
	Asian	1		
Age			7.6	35
Marital status	Single	11		
	Married	6		
	Divorced	13		
	Never married	3		
Education level	6th	7.5		10
	8th	10		
	9th	20		
	10th	17.5		
	11th	20		
	12th	25		
Legal status	Incarcerated	6		
	Parole	8		
	Probation	10		
	Supervised release	10 (table continues)		

Cohort B		%	SD	M
Sentencing in months				41
Confining offense	Robbery	10		
	Drugs	18		
	Murder	5		
Cohort C		%	SD	M
Race	Caucasian	11		
	African-American	10		
	Hispanic	12		
	Asian	1		
Age			7.4	33
Marital status	Single	16		
	Married	2		
	Divorced	11		
	Never married	5		
Education level	2nd	22.5		10
	3rd	20		
	4th	7.5		
	6th	5		
	8th	2.5		
	9th	7.5		
	10th	10		
	11th	10		
Legal status	Incarcerated	8		
	Parole	11		
	Probation	5		
	Supervised release	10		
Sentencing in months				31
Confining offense	Robbery	12		
	Drugs	18		
	Murder	3		

Cohort total findings are reported in Table 2.

Table 2

*Demographics on all Cohorts*

All Cohorts		%	SD	M
Race	Caucasian	36		
	African-American	28		
	Hispanic	34		
	Asian	2		
Age			7.7	34
Marital status	Single	43		
	Married	13		
	Divorced	33		
	Never married	12		
Education level	2nd	7.5		10
	3rd	6.7		
	4th	2.5		
	5th	8		
	6th	5.8		
	7th	8		
	8th	9.2		
	9th	15		
	10th	13.3		
	11th	17.5		
	12th	20.8		
	Legal status	Incarcerated	21	
Parole		27		
Probation		23		
Supervised release		29		
Sentencing in months				30
Confining offense	Robbery	33		
	Drugs	54		
	Murder	13		

**Results**

The data were analyzed using a 2x3 between groups factorial ANCOVA. The independent variable was treatment group, which consisted of criminality group ( $n = 60$ ), and primary ( $n = 60$ ). The dependent variable was the posttest scores on the PICTS'

current criminal scale while the covariate were the pretest scores on the PICTS' current criminal scale.

An exploratory data analysis indicated that both pretest and posttest PICTS score distributions, for all cohorts x treatment conditions, met the assumption of normality based on results of a series of Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests for normality. Preliminary analysis indicated that pre-test PICTS scores, the covariate, were significantly and very strongly related to posttest PICTS scores ( $r = .976$ ,  $r^2 = .953$ ,  $p < .0001$ ) which accounted for approximately 95% of the variability. In addition, the assumption of homogeneity of regression was met in that the interactions of cohort x pretests ( $F(2, 110) = .66$ ,  $p = .52$ ), treatment x pretest ( $F(1, 110) = 2.06$ ,  $p = .154$ ), and treatment x cohort x pretest ( $F(2, 110) = 1.25$ ,  $p = .290$ ), were all non-significant. Levene's test failed to detect any violation of the assumptions of equality of variances ( $F(5, 114) = 1.99$ ,  $p = .085$ ). All above assumption test results can be found in Appendix B.

Table 3 presents the pretest and posttest PICTS means and summary statistics by cohort, treatment, and treatment x cohort. An analysis of the pretest scores indicates that, although there were no significant differences between the pretest scores for the three cohort groups ( $F(2, 114) = .56$ ,  $p = .569$ ,  $\eta^2 = .01$ ), there was a significant, and large, difference between the two treatment groups means ( $F(1, 114) = 260.7$ ,  $p < .0001$ ,  $\eta^2 = .696$ ). Specifically, the average pretest PICTS score for the criminality group ( $M = 69.60$ ,  $SD = 6.93$ ,  $n = 60$ ) was significantly larger than the average pretest PICTS score for the primary group ( $M = 50.18$ ,  $SD = 7.05$ ,  $n = 60$ ). This is an important finding which

necessitates the use of ANCOVA to statistically control for pretest PICTS score differences between the two treatment conditions.

Table 3.

*Means and Standard Deviations by Cohort Groups and Treatment Conditions.*

Cohort	Treatment	Pretest			Post-test		
		<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>
A	Primary	52.50	5.34	20	51.95	5.01	20
	Criminality	67.70	7.30	20	64.45	7.84	20
	Total	60.10	9.95	40	58.20	9.07	40
B	Primary	52.30	5.69	20	52.10	6.13	20
	Criminality	68.80	6.61	20	65.25	7.15	20
	Total	60.55	10.34	40	58.68	9.36	40
C	Primary	45.75	7.91	20	45.85	8.25	20
	Criminality	72.30	6.33	20	68.85	8.09	20
	Total	59.03	15.19	40	57.35	14.17	40
Total	Primary	50.18	7.05	60	49.97	7.12	60
	Criminality	69.60	6.93	60	66.18	7.81	60
	Total	59.89	11.98	120	58.08	11.03	120

To assess the effects for treatment, cohort, and their interaction on posttest PICTS scores, controlling for pretest PICTS scores, a balanced design 2 (treatment condition: primary [ $n = 20$ ] v criminality [ $n = 20$ ]) x 3 (cohort group A [ $n = 40$ ], B, [ $n = 40$ ] and C [ $n = 40$ ]) factorial ANCOVA was employed. The results for the ANCOVA are shown in Table 4. As reported in the table, no significant effect for cohort ( $F(2, 113) = .19, p = .824, \eta^2 = .003$ ) or the interaction of cohort and treatment condition ( $F(2, 113) = .79, p = .458, \eta^2 = .014$ ) were found. The main effect for treatment condition was found to be statistically significant ( $F(1, 113) = 30.18, p < .0001, \eta^2 = .211$ ), and represents a large effect size, accounting for approximately 21-percent of the variability in posttest PICTS

scores. An inspection of the adjusted posttest PICTS means appearing at the bottom of Table 5 indicated that the mean adjusted PICTS score for the Criminality Group ( $M = 56.10$ ,  $CI_{95\%} = 55.29$  to  $56.91$ ) is significantly below the mean posttest PICTS score for the Primary Group ( $M = 60.05$ ,  $CI_{95\%} = 59.24$  to  $60.86$ )

Table 4.

*ANCOVA Results*

Source	SS	df	MS	F	p	$\eta^2$
Pretest PICTS	5334.26	1	5334.26	1132.42	< .0001	.909
Cohort (A)	1.82	2	0.91	0.19	.824	.003
Treatment (B)	142.18	1	142.18	30.18	< .0001	.211
A x B	7.41	2	3.70	0.79	.458	.014
Error	532.29	113	4.71			

Table 5:

*Adjusted Post-test PICTs Means, Standard Errors, and 95% CIs by Cohort and Treatment.*

Cohort	Treatment	Adjusted		95% Confidence Interval	
		Mean	SE	Lower	Upper
A	Primary	59.63	0.54	58.56	60.69
	Criminality	56.34	0.54	55.27	57.41
B	Primary	59.98	0.54	58.92	61.05
	Criminality	56.00	0.56	54.89	57.10
C	Primary	60.54	0.65	59.24	61.83
	Criminality	55.97	0.62	54.74	57.19
Total	Primary	60.05	0.41	59.24	60.86
	Criminality	56.10	0.41	55.29	56.91

RQ1- Are there significant mean differences in post intervention criminal thinking scores for the criminality group and the primary group, while controlling for their pre-test scores?

The main effect for treatment condition was found to be statistically significant ( $F(1, 113) = 30.18, p < .0001, \eta^2 = .211$ ), and represents a large effect size, accounting for approximately 21-percent of the variability in the posttest PICTS scores. The adjusted posttest PICTS means for the criminality group ( $M = 56.10, CI_{95\%} = 55.29$  to  $56.91$ ) were significantly below the mean posttest PICTS score for the primary group ( $M = 60.05, CI_{95\%} = 59.24$  to  $60.86$ ).

H<sub>0</sub>1: After controlling for pretest PICTS scores, there are no significant effects for cohorts on criminal thinking posttest scores on the Psychological Inventory of Criminal Thinking Styles.

H<sub>a</sub>1: After controlling for pretest PICTS scores, there are significant effects for cohorts on criminal thinking posttest scores on the Psychological Inventory of Criminal Thinking Styles.

H<sub>0</sub>1 is retained finding no significant effects for cohorts on criminal thinking posttest scores on the Psychological Inventory of Criminal Thinking Styles.

H<sub>0</sub>2: After controlling for pretest PICTS scores, there are no significant effects for treatment on criminal thinking posttest scores on the Psychological Inventory of Criminal Thinking Styles.

H<sub>a2</sub>: After controlling for pretest PICTS scores, there are significant effects for treatment on criminal thinking posttest scores on the Psychological Inventory of Criminal Thinking Styles.

H<sub>o2</sub> is rejected due to finding a main effect for treatment condition that was statistically significant ( $F(1, 113) = 30.18, p < .0001, \eta^2 = .211$ ), which represented a large effect size, accounting for approximately 21-percent of the variability in the posttest PICTS scores.

H<sub>o3</sub>: After controlling for pretest PICTS scores, there are no significant Cohort x Treatment interaction on criminal thinking posttest scores on the Psychological Inventory of Criminal Thinking Styles.

H<sub>a3</sub>: After controlling for pretest PICTS scores, there are significant Cohort x Treatment interaction on criminal thinking posttest scores on the Psychological Inventory of Criminal Thinking Styles.

H<sub>o3</sub> was retained because no interaction of cohort and treatment conditions were found ( $F(2, 113) = .79, p = .458, \eta^2 = .014$ ).

In the present study, the criminality group significantly reduced scores on the PICTS posttest current criminal scale represented reductions in criminal thinking errors. It also represented significantly lower scores on the PICTS posttest current criminal scale as compared to the primary groups' scores, which may represent the criminality's treatment program effectiveness.

Using the PICTS' current criminal scale, the criminality group significantly lower scores on the PICTS posttest current criminal scale as compared to the primary groups'

scores could also represent treatment program effectiveness as well as treatment groups' criminal thinking reduction. There was evidence of mean differences between criminality and primary posttest scores while controlling pretest scores.

These findings suggested that the criminality program influenced changing criminal thinking. These findings extended and replicated the findings of Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2003, 2005, 2006, 2012; Walters & Chlumsky, 1993.

### **Summary**

RQ1- Are there significant mean differences in post intervention criminal thinking scores for the criminality group and the primary group, while controlling for their pre-test scores?

Chapter 4 delineated findings on the evaluation of archival pre and posttest archival data for 120 males that was collected from June 3, 2014 to September 30, 2014 from three cohort groups whom participated in either a criminality or primary group. This evaluation used archival data from the PICTS' current criminal scale that assessed the effectiveness of two programs in reducing three cohorts' criminal thinking. Using the PICTS' current criminal scale, the criminality group significantly lower scores on the PICTS posttest current criminal scale as compared to the primary groups' scores represented treatment program effectiveness as well as treatment groups' criminal thinking reduction. There was evidence of mean differences between criminality and primary posttest scores while controlling pretest scores.

The results from the 2x3 between groups factorial ANCOVA suggested that that after controlling for group differences by using the pretest of the PICTS criminal current

scale as a covariant, treatment groups scored significantly lower after the criminality group than after the primary group. There were reported significant differences between the groups.

These findings suggested that the criminality program influenced changing criminal thinking. The researcher therefore rejected the H<sub>02</sub> and concluded that the treatment (criminality) group decreased criminal thinking scores after holding constant prior individual differences in criminal thinking. These findings extended and replicated the findings of Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2003, 2005, 2006, 2012; Walters & Chlumsky, 1993.

Chapter 5 will be a discussion of the study's findings, implications for social change, and recommendation for action and further study. This chapter will also include the conclusion of this dissertation.

## Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

### **Introduction**

The main purpose of this study was to evaluate archival pre and posttest data collected from June 3, 2014 to September 30, 2014 from three cohort groups whose members had taken part in one of two treatment conditions that were called either criminality or primary group. Archival pre and posttest data from the PICTS were collected from these cohort groups before and after their 5 weeks of criminality or primary group participation. These archival pre and posttest data were analyzed to assess any group or cohort differences in criminal thinking. I used a 2 x 3 between groups factorial ANCOVA to assess the effectiveness of the two programs in reducing three cohorts' criminal thinking.

After controlling for group differences by using the pretest of the PICTS criminal current scale as a covariant, I found that the criminality group scored significantly lower after completion of their criminality group than the primary groups scored after completion of their primary group. There were reported significant differences between the groups. The criminality's group posttest lower scores as compared to the primary scores suggest program differences and efficacy in modifying criminal thinking. These findings suggest that the criminality program may have influenced a change criminal thinking. Chapter 5 discusses the study's findings, implications for social change, and recommendation for action and further study. This chapter will also include the conclusion of this dissertation.

### **Interpretation of the Findings**

I used archival data to evaluate group efficacy in changing criminal thinking. These findings are conveyed in the summary tables in Chapter 4. I assessed posttest PICTS scores on the current criminal scale while holding pretest scores as covariates for 120 total participants. Due to the significant mean differences found between treatment conditions, the research question was answered. EBP (Andrews & Bonta, 2006; Bogue et al., 2005; Garland & Sparks, 2000; Guevara & Solomon, 2009; Joplin et al., 2004; Kovandzic & Vieraitis, 2006; Landenberger & Lipsey, 2005; Latessa & Lowenkamp, 2006; Mauer, 2001) and CLT (Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2003, 2005, 2006, 2012; Walters & Chlumsky, 1993) emphasize the importance of criminal thinking patterns modification as exemplified in this study's mean pre-test scores. CLP and moral educational programming were developed to modify criminogenic needs which include criminal thinking, attitudes, beliefs, and lifestyles (Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2003, 2005, 2006, 2012). Walters integrated EBP into CLP (1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2003, 2005, 2006, 2012), as did this study, to address criminal thinking modification and deep lifestyle changes such as values. CLP's efficacy is well renowned (Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2003, 2005, 2006, 2012). This study achieved Criminality program efficacy through findings that were statistically significant.

Controlling individual differences by using the PICT's pretest as a covariate emphasized the difference in post test scores between criminality, a modified CLP, as compared to the primary group posttest scores. In this study, the criminality groups' scores were lower on the PICTS current criminal scale than the primary groups' scores after controlling for the difference in pre-test scores. These findings suggest that the

criminality treatment program influenced the modification of current criminal thinking processes. These findings also represent criminality's efficacy in accomplishing criminal thinking error reduction.

Walters studies (1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2005, 2006, 2012, 2015, 2016) were extended and replicated through this research and its findings. This study's findings reinforce the importance of evidenced-based research through CLT's (Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2005, 2006, 2012) integration of the criminogenic needs of criminal thinking (Andrews & Bonta, 2006; Bogue et al., 2005; Cullen et al., 2006; Guevara & Solomon, 2009; Latessa & Lowenkamp, 2006; Listwan et al., 2006). Distorted thinking styles have been the cornerstones of criminal lifestyle theory (Walters, 1990, 1995, 2002a, 2002b, 2005, 2006, 2012). Criminogenic needs are rooted in the fundamental perspectives of social learning (Aker 1991, 1994, 1998; Bandura, 1999, 2002; Bandura, Barbaranelli, Caprara, & Pastorelli, 1996; Bandura, Caprara, Barbaranelli, Pastorelli, & Regalia, 2001). The principles of criminality as a learned behavior which can be modified by addressing the criminogenic need of criminal thinking errors were discussed in depth in Chapters 1 and 2.

Changing lifestyles, values, and thinking distortions that reinforce criminal behavior should be changed as recommended by evidence-based research findings (Andrews & Bonta, 2006; Bogue et al., 2005; Cullen et al., 2006; DeLeon, 2000; Guevara & Solomon, 2009; Howard, 2000; Latessa & Lowenkamp, 2006; Walker, 2002; Walters, 2002a, 2002b, 2005, 2006, 2012). This study's findings reinforce evidence based research findings transformational contingencies.

My study discussed the efficacy of the treatment or criminality group, which was a modified Walters CLP, in modifying current criminal thinking. My findings suggest that divergent approaches address crime's complexity (Andrews & Bonta, 2006; Bogue et al., 2005; Cullen et al., 2006; Garland, 2001; Guevara & Solomon, 2009; Joplin et al., 2004; Landenberger & Lipsey, 2005; Latessa & Lowenkamp, 2006; Listwan, Cullen, & Latessa, 2006; Sherman, Farrington, Welsh, & MacKensie, 2002). Due to sentencing changes, I modified Walters' CLP was modified to address criminality in offenders with shorter sentences. The findings of this study reinforce the potential value of a shortened version of Walters' CLP efficacy in the treatment of offenders with shortened sentences.

### **Limitations**

One of this study's limitations is that participants were limited to male offenders with a mean age of 34 and who residing in a community correctional facility in. The sample makes generalizing results to a broader population difficult. There was a concern of response bias due to pre-post testing. The limitation of assessing archival and its acceptable recording appeared to have been done appropriately.

### **Recommendations**

Policy development should address the alternative view of prison as a university. Offenders' views on prison time are not always seen as punitive and useless. Once acclimating to the subculture, offenders begin the networking of new contacts, new skill acquisition, and reinforce and glorify their criminality. It is no different for them as it is for anyone cultivating their craft. Prison is where an offender can learn through social learning, imitation, observation just as many did on the street. Creative sentencing would

benefit society by reducing the amount of money taxpayers pay to incarcerate non-violent offenders (Walters, 2015, 2016).

Our intense, strong and diverse knowledge of criminality lacks constant application. Transformation of criminal thinking is a short-term outcome that can spur the long-term outcome of correctional EBPs of recidivism reduction and increase the public's sense of safety (Andrews & Bonta, 2006; Bogue et al., 2005; Guevara & Solomon, 2009; Joplin et al., 2004; Landenberger & Lipsey, 2005; Latessa & Lowenkamp, 2006). Implementing criminality as preventative and educational tool that address the lifespan development of criminality can be implemented with any population at any grade are imperative for the prevention and modification of criminal thinking (Farrington et al., 2003; Hawkins et. al., 2000; Hymel et al., 2005; O'Mahony, 2009; Thornberry et al., 1995, 2003, 2004). The findings of these further studies can encourage social change and benefit society by expediting early detection of these dysfunctional developmental processes.

### **Implications**

Society's ability to save children from crime rests in researchers who identify the risk and need factors that contribute to the criminal developmental process (Hawkins et al., 2000; Thornberry, Huizinga, & Loeber, 1995, 2004). While America spends approximately \$20,000 per offender per year to maintain their imprisonment (Mauer, 2001), criminality professionals believe this money should be applied to EBPs that reduce recidivism and prevent criminality. Implementing criminality as a method of "cognitive mediation" into our prison systems may moderate relationships between past

and future criminality (Walters, 2015, p. 82). This in turn may help to prevent future criminal behavior by addressing decision making skills, choices, and impulsivity (Walters, 2015, 2016). Implementing a lifestyle change program such as criminality may assist in the complexity of any offenders' reentry process. This can serve as a preventative measure in reoffending (Walters & Crawford, 2013. Walters, 2015, 2016). The purpose of this study was to explore the effectiveness of a program that can potentially reduce crime. Changing an individual's worth, value system, thinking process, and dignity can extend into peer affiliations and the community. These lifestyle changes can promote a positive social change in the social structure of offenders and the community.

The implications for social change are many. This study actualized the modification of values and characteristics of offenders through dynamic learning, acquisition of new knowledge and competencies that change thought distortions while instilling healthy values and beliefs. The study shaped a different understanding of criminality by transforming lifestyles to improve balance, and aim towards right living. The adaptation of healthy skills transfigures beliefs and values, which mitigates the complexion of offenders and the relationship between these individuals. The organization of this group of individuals falters if their purpose shifts from criminality to right living.

Policy development should address the alternative view of prison as a university. Offenders' views on prison time are not always seen as punitive and useless. Once acclimating to the subculture, offenders begin the networking of new contacts, new skill acquisition, and reinforce and glorify their criminality. It is no different for them as it is

for anyone cultivating their craft. Prison is where an offender can learn through social learning, imitation, observation just as many did on the street. Creative sentencing would benefit society by reducing the amount of money taxpayers pay to incarcerate non-violent offenders (Walters, 2015, 2016).

### **Conclusion**

The main purpose of this study was to evaluate archival pre-and post-data collected offenders from June 3, 2014 to September 30, 2014, whom participated in either a treatment group which ran a criminality group or a control group that had a primary group. This evaluation was conducted to assess the effectiveness of two programs in reducing offenders' criminal thinking. Its findings revealed that criminality, a lifestyle approached group, can influence lowering criminal thinking levels. This study actualized the possibility of changing criminal thinking which in turn influence values and belief systems. The application of these new value systems can help minimize reoffending, improve lifestyles, create balances, and aim towards right living. In our present world, full of unknowns and upheavals, our ability to focus on a small step of malleable thoughts to affect a mass change in criminality's complexity can create foundations in a fleeting world of information, consistency, and communication.

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## Appendix A: Criminality Specific Program Schedule

Week	Objectives	Activities	Outcome Measures
1	Understand program, it's content, rules, it's benefit to participants	Present class materials  PICTS' pre-test given	Participants will summarize and identify materials  Complete pre test
	Understand importance of community support exercises	Group discussion on definition of criminality and each student's criminal history	
2	Participants will understand basic elements of thinking errors	Read and complete thinking error workbook	Participants will summarize session on errors and their application to their criminal history
	Participants will learn rationale of volunteering at food bank and relationship between criminality and community	Attend food bank; stock shelves, deliver food to churches	Participants will learn relationship between harming and helping others
3	Participants will understand basic elements of values	Read and complete values workbook	Participants will summarize session on values and their influence on their criminal lifestyle
	Participants will learn rationale of volunteering at soup kitchen and its relationship between	Volunteer at soup kitchen, cook 3 meals per day for 3 days	Participants will demonstrate values (table continues)

	criminality and community		and helping others as compared to their criminal lifestyles
4	<p>Participants will understand basic elements of healthy community re-entry</p> <p>Participants will learn rationale of volunteering and its relationship between criminality and community</p>	<p>Read and complete highlighted sections of <i>99 days and a get up</i> (Rollo, 2012)</p> <p>Criminality car wash (when weather permits) or community brunch (monies donated to soup kitchen or food bank)</p>	<p>Participants will summarize session on prison's influence on their lives</p> <p>Participants will demonstrate relationship between giving and helping others as compared to their self-centeredness</p>
5	<p>Participants will be administered PICTS' post test</p> <p>Participants will be given their completion certificates</p>	<p>PICTS' post test</p> <p>completion certificates</p>	<p>Participants will discuss positives and negatives of group</p> <p>Participants will discuss what they learned and what they think should be added or deleted</p>

## Appendix A: Primary Group Specific Program Schedule

Week	Objectives	Activities	Outcome Measures
1	Understand primary group rules and purpose	Introductions of group participants  Participants will discuss any treatment or current issues	Participants will demonstrate understanding of groups' rules and purpose
2	Participants will explore treatment plans and action steps	Participants will discuss treatment issues and give each other feedback	Participants will demonstrate empathetic concern for group members
3	Participants will explore group experiences	Participants will discuss analyze and integrate group experience	Participants will encourage group participation
4	Participants will explore skill building	Participants will identify skills that support positive lifestyle	Participants will implement skills to modify and support positive lifestyle
5	Participants will explore group feedback	Participants will discuss importance of group feedback	Participants will demonstrate feedback frequency

Appendix B: Assumption Findings

**Tests of Normality**

Cohort	Kolmogorov-Smirnov <sup>a</sup>			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
A	.098	40	.200*	.983	40	.801
Post-Test B	.119	40	.163	.974	40	.466
C	.080	40	.200*	.961	40	.188

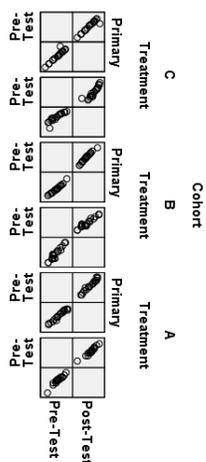
\*. This is a lower bound of the true significance.

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

**Tests of Normality**

Treatment	Kolmogorov-Smirnov <sup>a</sup>			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	Df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Primary	.102	60	.194	.969	60	.133
Post-Test Criminality	.109	60	.072	.956	60	.029

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

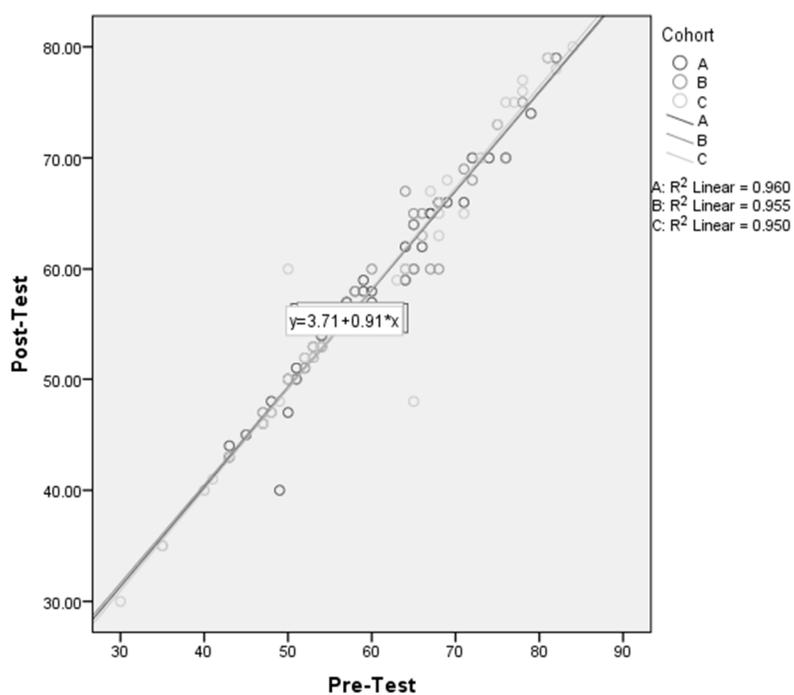


(tables continued)

## Correlations

		Pre-Test	Post-Test
Pre-Test	Pearson Correlation	1	.976**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	120	120
Post-Test	Pearson Correlation	.976**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	120	120

\*\* . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).



(table continued)

**Tests of Between-Subjects Effects**

Dependent Variable: Post-Test

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	13964.793 <sup>a</sup>	9	1551.644	328.528	.000	.964
Intercept	22.306	1	22.306	4.723	.032	.041
Cohort	5.866	2	2.933	.621	.539	.011
Treatment	27.839	1	27.839	5.894	.017	.051
PR	5171.568	1	5171.568	1094.971	.000	.909
Treatment * PR	9.709	1	9.709	2.056	.154	.018
Cohort * Treatment * PR	11.819	2	5.910	1.251	.290	.022
Cohort * PR	6.211	2	3.106	.658	.520	.012
Error	519.532	110	4.723			
Total	419209.000	120				
Corrected Total	14484.325	119				

a. R Squared = .964 (Adjusted R Squared = .961)

**Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances**

Dependent Variable: Post-Test

F	df1	df2	Sig.
1.990	5	114	.085

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Design: Intercept + PR + Cohort + Treatment + Cohort \* Treatment