

DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 083 340

UD 013 860

TITLE School Behind Bars--A Descriptive Overview of Correctional Education in the American Prison System.

INSTITUTION Syracuse Univ. Research Corp., N.Y. Policy Inst.

SPONS AGENCY Ford Foundation, New York, N.Y.

PUB DATE Jun 73

NOTE 378p.

AVAILABLE FROM Policy Inst., Syracuse Univ. Research Corp., 723 Univ. Ave., Syracuse, N.Y. 13210 (No price quoted)

EDRS PRICE MF-\$0.65 HC-\$13.16

DESCRIPTORS \*Correctional Education; Correctional Rehabilitation; Corrective Institutions; Educational Finance; \*Educational History; Educational Philosophy; \*Educational Planning; Educational Policy; \*Educational Programs; Foundation Programs; Interviews; Prisoners; Private Financial Support; Program Development; \*Surveys

ABSTRACT

This report, intended to be a descriptive yet analytical overview of correctional education programs, is organized into six chapters. Chapter one discusses the philosophical aspects (pro and con) of prisoner education. Chapter two traces the history of prisoner education from the roots of its beginning to the present. Chapter three presents the data collected by Syracuse University Research Corporation staff during interviews with correctional and educational authorities, through analysis of documents, and from correspondence and discussions with over 300 individuals who served as resource persons to the staff during the project. Chapter four focuses on prisoner education in the future, its needs, problems and probable accomplishments. Chapter five presents a thorough model for prison authorities to follow in designing prison education programs. Chapter six presents findings, conclusions and recommendations--in the form of what might be considered a "blue print for action" for the Ford Foundation. Included are barriers to prisoner education programs, criteria for successful programs, suggestions in improvements that can or should be made, general and specific recommendations. A Bibliography of over 300 documents appears after chapter six. [Appendixes D and F, an interview schedule and document synopsis, have been deleted from this document for copyright and reproducibility reasons, respectively, as has also been a chart at p. 161, for the latter reason.] (Author/JM)

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BEHIND  
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a report to  
the FORD FOUNDATION

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SURC

SYRACUSE UNIVERSITY RESEARCH CORPORATION

ED 083340

SCHOOL BEHIND BARS

-- a Descriptive Overview of Correctional  
Education in the American Prison System

Prepared by the  
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The Ford Foundation  
320 East 43rd. Street  
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**".....a scene of promiscuous and unrestricted intercourse, and universal riot and debauchery .....no attempt to give any kind of instruction....."**

**Walnut Street Jail, Philadelphia,  
Late Eighteenth Century**

**".....the chaplain standing in the semi-dark corridor, before the cell door, with a dingy lantern hanging to the grated bars, and teaching to the wretched convict in the darkness beyond the grated door the rudiments of reading or numbers."**

**".....prison discipline and treatment should be more effectively designed to maintain, stimulate, and awaken the higher susceptibilities of prisoners, to develop the moral instincts, to train them in orderly and industrial habits, and whenever possible to turn them out of prison better men and women physically and morally than when they came in."**

**Gladstone Report, 1895**

**"The public has got to start pushing for real programs ..... and pay that way, or they'll pay the other .....They just don't realize: These doors keep going around and around and around."**

**An inmate, 1973**

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## DEDICATION

Richard T. Frost, Ph. D.

Dick Frost died on November 9, 1972. A rather odd mixture of people gathered to mourn him four days later at the Everson Museum in Syracuse.

In the group were cops, policy analysts, politicians, professors Blacks, students, streetfreaks, attorneys, exconvicts, family, a convicted murderer and his warden.

They came from as far away as Oregon and as nearby as the ghetto which starts two blocks from the museum.

They came to hear telegrams from, among others, the man who just lost the Vice Presidency of the United States, the man who wrote The Birdman of Alcatraz, and the man who heads the largest prison guard union in the world.

They came to hear speeches from a life parolee who said Frost sang the song of freedom; from a prominent Civil rights lawyer and prison negotiator who praised Frost's courage in helping Blacks before it was fashionable; from an Afro-coifed streetworker who called Dick "a beautiful dude"; and from one of the countries leading educators who said Dick Frost loved others more than he dared to admit to even himself.

Dick Frost devoted an enormous amount of personal and professional time and effort to trying to help those about whom few in our society

care: the nearly 1,000,000 men, women and children who are incarcerated in America's jails, penitentiaries, prison and correctional facilities. He wasn't a bleeding heart, he was a no-nonsense character who could not be "conned" by cons -- and they loved him for it.

This study, is one of the several projects Dick Frost wanted to do to help prompt prison reform. His perception, his advice, his approach guided us, his staff, throughout our research and writing. It is only fitting that we dedicate our report to his memory.

Syracuse University Research Corporation  
June, 1973

Michael V. Reagen, Ph.D.  
Project Director

### Acknowledgements

This report and the research upon which it was based was sponsored by the Ford Foundation. The Syracuse University Research Corporation (SURC) is grateful to the Foundation. SURC is especially appreciative of the support and encouragement given SURC staff at the outset of the project by Mitchell Sviridoff, Vice President in charge of The Foundation's Division of National Affairs and Christopher F. Edley, formerly Officer in Charge of Government & Law Offices at The Ford Foundation and presently Executive Director of the United Negro College Fund.

Many individuals played important roles in the development of this report. Charles R. Wayne, SURC's Executive Vice President and General Manager, provided guidance at the crucial start of the project and warm encouragement and support throughout the report's development. Dr. Robert Goettel, Administrative Director of SURC's Policy Institute offered many useful suggestions.

Donald Stoughton, Assistant Director of SURC's Justice Studies Group, deserves special mention. His contribution to this report was invaluable. Mr. Stoughton handled the logistical arrangements, shouldered the burden of conducting the largest number of personal interviews conducted by the staff, helped tabulate and analyze the data.

Twelve other members of SURC staff were especially helpful. Jonathan C. Davis and Thomas E. Smith assisted with the field work. Claire MacDowell did most of the document analysis. Kathy Kennedy



prepared the bibliography. Kenneth T. Martin contributed heavily to Chapter II. Katie Conway and Delores Doctor typed most of the manuscript. Stuart Glass tabulated data. Freddie Lakin contributed secretarial support. James Knoop and Ruth Aldrich are responsible for facilitating the production of the report. Finally, Laurie Davis, my secretary, performed hundreds of the essential tasks that helped all work flow smoothly.

Our consultants, Stuart N. Adams, John J. Marsh and T. Antoinette Ryan, produced thoughtful position papers which guided the staff in its research to, hopefully, ask better questions during personal interviews and site visitations and seek better answers in analyzing documents and publications. Extensive liberties have been taken in recasting and blending portions of Drs. Adams and Marsh's position papers into this report. Dr. Ryan's "Model for Correctional Education" has been included as a separate section of the report. All three consultants made a substantial contribution to the report.

Finally, the staff is grateful for the time and efforts of the several hundred correctional educators, prison officials, inmates guards, and academics who served as resource persons for the project. A list of these men and women appears in the appendix.

Without the cooperation and generous support of all of these dedicated people, this study and report would not have been possible.

Syracuse University Research Corporation  
June, 1973

Michael V. Reagen, Ph.D.  
Project Director

## EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

### 1. BACKGROUND

American prisons are in deep trouble. They are pressure cookers fraught with every societal distress, raised, as always in a prison, to the 10th power. One of the cards in the deck prison officials deal to those in custody is education. But inmate education stands as a social pariah of the correctional system. Politicians and professionals continually pay it lip service as a means to change the attitudes of errant institutionalized residents throughout the world. And, like other components of correctional institutions, education lacks funds and trained educators. More than one would like to admit, hostile and resentful correctional personnel handicap and frustrate the educational effort.

Consider just six statistics:

1. Unofficial estimates by U. S. Bureau of Prison officials indicate between 20-50% of the approximately half-million adults incarcerated in American federal and state prisons can neither read nor write;
2. In a majority of American institutions, at least 50% of those in custody over 18 years of age have less than an eighth grade education.
3. In some facilities for youthful offenders, as many as 80% of the youngsters incarcerated are illiterate.

4. There is no professional educational association for the approximately 920 full time educators of inmates.

5. There is a general dearth of reports on empirical studies of correctional education. For example, between 1940-1968 only six doctoral dissertations focus on the subject.

Preliminary work by our staff indicates that several studies have been conducted on specific aspects of prison education. Our review of the literature suggests that a sizable variety of programs, projects, and courses are underway in a number of penal institutions which have not been publicized. But it is also clear that a descriptive overview of correctional education in the U. S. Does not now exist.

On January 29, 1973, The Syracuse University Research Corporation (SURC) proposed to provide the Ford Foundation with just such an overview.

Specifically, the staff of SURC's Policy Institute proposed to 1) gather published documents on current programs, 2) make on-site visits at twenty institutions distinguished by the uniqueness and excellence of their programs, 3) conduct interviews with cluster samples of prisoners, ex-convicts, correctional officers and wardens, 4) survey the opinions of the directors of research for the State Correctional Department's on the state of current programs and how they can be improved, 5) solicit similar opinions from Sheriffs who are responsible for maintaining jails and penitentiaries, and 6) synthesize and analyze these data.

On March 15, 1973 The Ford Foundation approved SURC proposal and work on the project began in earnest. The results is this report. The report is not to be considered a definitive work on educational programs in American prisons. Rather, it is intended to be a descriptive yet analytical overview of correctional education programs; to provide answers to basic questions, suggest alternative ways of improving and expanding current programs, to discuss how the prison system impacts on inmate education and to uncover crucial topics for further exploration and development.

## II. ORGANIZATION

This report is organized into six chapters.

Chapter one discusses the philosophical aspects (pro and con) of prisoner education.

Chapter two traces the history of prisoner education from the roots of its beginning to the present.

Chapter three presents the data collected by SURC staff during interviews with correctional authorities and education at 38 prisons and 17 central prison system offices in 27 states across the country, through analysis of over 360 documents, manuscripts, publications, annual reports and books, and from correspondence and discussions with over three hundred individuals who served as resource persons to the staff during the project.

Chapter four focuses on prisoner education in the future, its needs, problems and probable accomplishments.

Chapter five presents a thorough model for prison authorities to follow in designing prisoner education programs.

Chapter six presents findings, conclusions and recommendations -- in the form of what might be considered a "blue print for action" for The Foundation. Included are barriers to prisoner education programs. Criteria for successful programs, suggestions in improvements that can or should be made, general and specific recommendations. SURC recommends, among other things, that The Ford Foundation establish a Corrections Foundation to parallel its Police Foundation, a National Academy for Corrections, Traveling Fellowships for correctional practitioners, guidelines for central reception, classification and evaluation of prisons in prisoner education programs, workshops on educational technology.

A bibliography of over three hundred documents appears after chapter six.

The Appendix includes biographical information on the principal contributors to the report, a list of resource persons for the staff, a list of places visited. The interview schedule used by SURC researchers during interviews and site visitations, the document analysis form used to analyze materials supplied by seventy-six institutions and the results of the document analysis.

CHAPTER ONE

PHILOSOPHICAL CONSIDERATIONS OF PRISON EDUCATION: "PRO AND CON"

by John Marsh

## CHAPTER ONE

### PHILOSOPHICAL CONSIDERATIONS OF PRISON EDUCATION: "PRO AND CON"

by John Marsn

#### I. PHILOSOPHY

If we are to have penitentiaries, educational systems, and finally correctional education, there must be a set of beliefs or principles upon which they are founded. When man creates systems "ad hoc" without a conceptual or philosophical basis, he finds himself reacting to every political or social wind that blows his way. He is always moving in reaction to outside forces; he is unable to initiate anything on his own. He is unable to say "yes" to this proposal and "no" to that one with any degree of consistency because there is no criteria against which to measure the propriety of the recommendation. He doesn't know if the system is good or bad, a success or a failure, because it has no basic purpose of its own. A social institution without a philosophical basis is like a building that was created without a purpose or a plan.

To deal with the philosophy of correctional education, we must approach via a consideration of the philosophy of corrections and then that of education. In practice, if not in theory, the institution of corrections and that of education are both similar and different. Some students, like almost all prisoners, are unwillingly where they are. Wardens as well as teachers are often expected to do what the rest of society has failed to do: constructively change the individual. Schools

are close to our homes, but prisons are isolated and often secluded. Teachers are generally looked upon as educated and professional members of the "middle class." Prison guards are generally perceived as uneducated and from the lower socio-economic level. We must examine the philosophical bases for the two systems, find similarities, resolve conflicts, make adjustments, and finally develop a philosophical basis for education of penal inmates.

Few, if any, correctional personnel have dealt with a philosophical consideration of their field. Conversely, few twentieth century philosophers, lawyers, educators, or persons outside of corrections have dealt with the important questions of philosophy that undergird it. In spite of the fact that scripture tells us that among man's earliest activities was breaking laws and taking a life, we have given too little thought to developing a rational, purposeful, and moral means of dealing with our fellow man after he is found guilty of a serious offense. What is the purpose of the prison and why? What agency of the government should operate it? What kinds of persons should be employed in its operation? Which offenders need to be sent there and which should not? What kind of resocialization and treatment programs should exist? How are these programs and their staffs related to the custodial function? The answers to these and many similar questions as well as the improvement of corrections and its programs and purposes must be based upon a philosophical foundation. This is essential for the inmate, the institution, and society itself. We will find no greater plea for the development of correctional philosophy than the following words of Winston Churchill:



"The mood and temper of the public in regard to the treatment of crime and criminals is one of the most unfailing tests of any country. A calm, dispassionate recognition of the rights of the accused and even of the convicted criminal against the state; a constant heart-searching by all charged with the duty of punishment; a desire and eagerness to rehabilitate in the world of industry those who have paid their due in the hard coinage of punishment; tireless efforts towards the discovery of curative and regenerative processes; unfailing faith that there is a treasure, if only you can find it, in the heart of every man; these are the symbols which, in the treatment of crime and the criminal, mark and measure the stored-up strength of a nation and are sign and proof of the living virtue in it."

We find next to nothing in the writings of the philosophers prior to the seventeen hundreds that is addressed to corrections as a positive force for changing the offender. In Aristotle, Plato, Thomas Aquinas, and others, we can perceive some consideration of the concepts of law, crime and punishment. These early thinkers viewed this subject from the perspective of its role and function in society and the effect of the actions of the offender upon the social order. Their contemplations did not extend to a consideration of the "correcting" or "rehabilitating" of the offender and a philosophical basis for his treatment. We have to reach the era of Kant, Rousseau, and Nietzsche to find this. Yet, even these thinkers dealt with the issue of corrections only from the perspective of punishment.

Hipolyte Vilain, the "father of Penitentiary Science," built and operated an institution in Ghent, Belgium, starting in 1771 that had a meaningful program designed to rehabilitate rather than punish the inmate. He developed strict systems of classification of prisoners and originated the design of cells, back-to-back, in blocks radiating from a central court. His workhouse design was an example of the architectural

concept that "form follows function." This back-to-back cell block and central-control court concept is ideally suited to a philosophy of segregation, isolation, and contemplation. It later became the prevalent design of penitentiaries, a design concept that has been deviated from only in the decades since World War II.

A second name that must be considered in any discussion of the penitentiary is John Howard, who proposed penitentiaries where inmates could become truly penitent. He believed that work, education, and religion were the ingredients of reformation and that separation of each inmate from his fellow prisoners was essential, particularly at night. Howard secured passage by Parliament of the Penitentiary Act of 1779. It required the establishment of penitentiary houses based upon four fundamentals: (1) secure and sanitary structures; (2) systematic inspection; (3) abolition of fees against inmates; and (4) a reformatory regime. Prior to this legislation, prisoners were assessed fees by wardens for their maintenance and safekeeping. If the court found the prisoner innocent or granted his release, these fees had to be paid before the jailers would release him.

There arose during the latter part of the eighteenth century a philosophy of social hedonism known as utilitarianism. Social hedonism or utilitarianism is based on the principle that the greatest happiness for the greatest number is the ultimate criterion of governmental activity. The essential protagonist for this belief was Jeremy Bentham who went so far as to create mathematical formulae to be used by legislatures to balance the pleasurable consequences of proposed bills against their unpleasant results. Bentham espoused these concepts in an explanation of

individual human behavior in addition to his belief that it should be a basis for government and law.<sup>1</sup>

Drawing upon the ideas of Bentham as well as his contemporaries, such as David Hume, was an Italian philosopher, Cesare Bonesana, Marquis Beccaria. Beccaria is the father of the classical school of criminology and the first philosopher to develop a complete and thorough consideration of criminal behavior from cause to cure. The thesis of Beccaria was that a man governed his behavior by balancing the pleasures against the pains of a given act. Man functioned as a calculator and added up the mathematical value of pain and pleasure for each act according to the hedonistic psychology as presented by Bentham. The result was his decision to accept or reject the action. This was the total and complete explanation for criminal behavior and no other need be imagined. In its application to the penitentiary, Beccaria contended that the hedonistic principle required that the punishment be just severe enough to destroy the mathematical value of pleasure over pain for the particular offense. His approach ignored any differences between individuals such as age, sex, sanity, social status, etc., although his followers later conceded that exceptions should be made for children and lunatics because they were unable to calculate pains and pleasures. While this approach is generally considered rigid and psychologically invalid, it persists to a significant degree to this date in popular thought, judicial decisions, and the behavior of some correctional staffs. At the same time, Beccaria gave us other concepts which we have found to be quite valid and are a part of the philosophies of correctional reform today. He said that the purpose

of penal confinement is not to torment the offender or in some way to undo or pay for the crime. The purpose is to prevent the offender and others from further harmful actions. He also believed that the severity of punishment did little to serve that end. Punishment must be certain, public and prompt; the least necessary in the specific case.<sup>2</sup>

In the United States in 1787, the early Quakers established the Philadelphia Society for Alleviating the Miseries of the Public Prisons. Their first project was to convert the Walnut Street Jail into an experimental institution. Their approach was based upon the belief that the most hardened criminal could be reformed. This they intended to do by encouraging his penitence, his education, and his labor. The environment they felt necessary for this was solitude.<sup>3</sup> This they carried to such an extreme in one Pennsylvania institution that the prisoners were kept from even seeing one another. This approach broke the spirit of many prisoners, was brutal torture, and earned the criticisms of many, including Charles Dickens who wrote a scathing account of the process.

Shortly after the Pennsylvania system was started, an alternative developed in New York called the Auburn system after the first prison to use it. The Auburn approach and that of the Quakers in Pennsylvania were identical in the belief that there should be no communication between prisoners and that they should be segregated as much as possible. The Auburn system, however, was committed to security, custody, and punishment rather than reform of the inmate. It was a system of extreme regimentation and hard labor. Inmates were isolated at night; in the days they worked together in absolute silence at production processes provided

by outside contractors. The prisons made extensive use of the back-to-back, cell block-tier design. The Auburn approach was developed, both in physical plant and in operation, to its epitome in Sing Sing, built in 1825. In spite of numerous and more progressive efforts in penology in this country, there are still strong evidences of the Auburn approach, particularly in the physical design of prisons and in the legislation that controls the actions of correctional officials. If there is a philosophy to the Auburn approach, it is not a fully developed one. Certain elements of Puritanism seem evident as they were in most aspects of American life during the last century. One can also see some signs of a retribution approach and definite indication of the deterrence concept. The idea of rehabilitation through treatment is not evident. The Auburn approach seems to say that man is not good by nature and that his reformation or change is possible only by punishment and force, if at all.

The nineteenth and twentieth centuries saw additional philosophies of criminology develop beyond those of Vilain, Howard, Bentham, Beccaria, and the Quakers. As philosophies of the source and cause of criminal behavior, they contributed much to our pool of knowledge. As philosophies that lead us to an improved method of treating the criminal in confinement, they have done little. This may not be the fault of the concepts as much as it is of our philosophers and corrections personnel who have failed to develop and apply the more promising of them to the penitentiary.

The first of the philosophies to follow Beccaria's social hedonism was that of the cartographic or geographic school. It was an analytical

approach that considered criminal behavior as an expression of the conditions in certain areas, social and geographic. It was very scientific in terms of what, how much, where, when, etc., but did virtually nothing to deal with the questions of why and what to do about it.

Originating with the Lombrosians is a grouping of approaches collectively called the "typological." Cesare Lombroso writing in 1876 originated the theory of the born or innate criminal readily recognized by certain physical characteristics. Such characteristics as long lower jaw, flattened nose, scanty beard, and others were the mark of the criminal. While this approach is much in disrepute, it still maintains some popularity among laymen. Its role in correctional philosophy lies in two planes. It was opposed to the concept that free will existed or that reformation and penitence were possible. Second, it focused on the individual rather than society, the government, evil spirits, or other externals.

Similar approaches are based upon the identification and measurement of other features to distinguish the criminal from the non-criminal. Feeble-mindedness, epilepsy, insanity, etc., were used as a causative of criminality. The idea of feeble-mindedness, subject to Mendellian laws of heredity, as a cause of criminality has since been rejected along with other ideas such as the one that the epileptic is a criminal. We have, however, retained the concepts that mental illness and emotional disturbance are related to, and at times partially causative of, criminal behavior.

As the Lombrosian school concentrated on a physiological approach, the psychiatric school emphasized that certain personality types were predisposed towards criminality. It contended that certain personalities developed independently of social or cultural pressures and became criminals. It is a "psychological predeterminism." While some of the Freudian and neo-Freudian psychiatrists today might subscribe to this theory, in part, it, like the other "typological" approaches, has receded to a position of virtual disrepute. Some of the bits and pieces of the approach, modified to some degree, however, have contributed to the development of the several sociological approaches. The typological theories are of little value in the corrections scene. They present some mechanistic techniques applicable to prisoner classification and management but are of little significance in treatment.

The major and current approach to criminal behavior is in a group of theories that are collectively called the Sociological school. The United States has been the locus of the greatest developments in this school. Starting late in the nineteenth century, sociological theories have been based on the premise that criminal behavior results from the interplay and impact of the same forces that cause other behavior. These forces are such factors as mobility, culture conflicts, economics, labor markets, racial, religious, and political differentiations, war, etc. In and of themselves, these theories have been little applied to the corrections scene. There is considerable potential in them as a point of departure for the development of an effective philosophy of corrections in the future.

Before proceeding to create or encourage a philosophy of corrections, a review of the purposes of the penitentiary is in order. These purposes are generally considered to be four: retribution, incapacitation, deterrence, and rehabilitation.<sup>4</sup>

Retribution is the motive of punishment for punishment's sake. It is an application, albeit a perverted one according to some, of the Biblical exhortation of an eye for an eye and a tooth for a tooth. Retribution, in theory, is the paying for or replacing of what has been taken or damaged. If we are dealing with theft or crime against property, we can often accomplish this end. Where crimes against the person are involved, it is almost impossible. How do you replace an eye, a decade of suffering from an injury, a human life itself? In such cases, we feel that a symbolic replacing takes place when we hurt and "get even" with the offender. In a cool and reflective moment, we can soundly condemn such an approach as contrary to our Judeo-Christian ethic and the advanced state of our society. This does not change the fact, however, that in almost every man, at some time in his life, is the desire to "get even." The retribution motive cannot be ignored or denied; it must be recognized for what it is: very human, at times brutal in effect, and of little value in dealing with the social problems of crime or the criminal. In fact it may, of itself, cause even more criminal activity.

The incapacitation objective has as its purpose to make the person incapable of repeating his crime. In earlier times, this was a part of the motive for cutting off the hand of the pickpocket. It is a rationale



for those who advocate the sterilization or castration of sex offenders. Incapacitation, like other concepts in crime and punishment, also has a scriptural basis, "...and if thy right eye offend thee, pluck it out, and cast it from thee: for it is profitable for thee that one of thy members should perish, and not that thy whole body should be cast into hell."<sup>5</sup> An earlier achievement of the incapacitation objective was banishment. Naturally, the ultimate form of incapacitation is execution. The incapacitation motive largely determines the physical design, location and management philosophy of the prison. It comes through in the isolation of the penitentiary, the physical and procedural safeguards, and the intense reaction when there is an escape.

The failure in the incapacitation motive is that it ignores the fact that over 95 percent of all persons confined will eventually be released. If they are not changed for the better in their attitudes, all that society has done is to postpone the probable repetition of their criminal acts. Worse yet, if they change for the worse, their incapacitation has harmed rather than helped society. This approach also smacks of a degree of social irresponsibility in practice if not in theory. Man must deal with social problems. They will not disappear with the passage of time. Whether it be schizophrenia -- mental illness, cancer -- physical illness, or crime -- social illness, we must work with man's defects.

Incapacitation has its value, but only as an interim -- as a means to an end. Just as a psychiatrist will use a tranquilizer to enable him

to get at the real problem, so may incapacitation serve to allow the offender to be socially immobilized long enough to deal with his problem.

Deterrence is probably one of the most controversial of the goals of the penitentiary. The idea that punishment, by imprisonment or otherwise, prevents the offender or any other person from future criminal actions is difficult to prove or disprove. If the reader sees another driver by the side of the road receiving a ticket, he almost automatically reduces speed. This is deterrence. But why? Is it the presence of the police officer, the reminder of danger from speeding, the embarrassment from receipt of the ticket, the lack of money to pay the fine, simply a reminder of one's expected behavior, or what? The entire fabric of our society from the traffic signal to the penitentiary precipitates some unknown degree of deterrent effect on most people. How it works for each person and in what circumstances defies any technique of objective evaluation and determination. Like incapacitation, however, we should not abandon the concept of deterrence. We don't remove the sign that says "Slow - Curve" from the highway because we can't prove that it saved a life. On the other hand, we don't depend upon signs alone for traffic safety. Deterrence has its place in the function of corrections, but it should not be the prime or sole objective. \*

Rehabilitation, resocialization, and reintegration are the most recent and are generally considered to be the most dominant thrust in corrections today. The generally accepted goal is to treat the prisoner in such a way as to allow for his return to the free world as a law-abiding citizen. This is a generalization, however, as research into

the goals, purposes, and general behavior of correctional authorities is infrequent.<sup>6</sup> Before we fault the correctional system, we should consider the total social environment of corrections. Corrections has long been a step-child of the social sciences -- the behavioral sciences<sup>7</sup> -- the law and criminal justice fields. It is one of the last areas of government to be rescued from the political spoils system. Insofar as sheriffs are elected on a political platform, we can see that the county-level corrections system, under the control of the sheriff, is still highly subject to a spoils system. There are probably two no more incompatible concepts in the arena of human behavior than "to the victor belong the spoils" and "professionalism."

In addition to a lack of involvement by related professions, the general public lacks confidence in and respect for corrections as a system. A recent national survey showed that barely half of the public feels that corrections is doing a good job in dealing with crime; less than half (48%) believe that corrections emphasizes rehabilitation, but the majority (72%) feel that this should be the primary goal. The paradox develops when their attitude towards community-based corrections is considered: it's a great idea, but not in my neighborhood.<sup>8</sup> Corrections will not be able to make progress without narrowing the many credibility gaps among what it says it is, what it is, what it ought to be, what the public believes it is, and what the public believes it ought to be.

In spite of the movement in the direction of rehabilitative treatment, there is a residue of a punitive purpose and effect in prisons.

This is considered by some authorities to be a valid and legitimate purpose of confinement. Sutherland and Cressy point out that "The notion that effective treatment for prisoners must be non-punitive, is in fundamental conflict with one of the tasks society assigns to the prison -- purposive infliction of pain."<sup>9</sup> Thus, the corrections official is on the horns of a dilemma. Virtually all authorities in human behavior, psychologists as well as others, consider that the non-punitive approach is the best method to achieve positive change in people. In many instances, it is absolutely essential. The warden feels that the majority of the populace expect him to rehabilitate his inmates. At the same time, society is telling him, if not by words then by its behavior, that punishment is a part of the purpose for the penal process.

In dealing with this conflict, he is faced with several other problems. The corrections professional will probably find his institution isolated from any major community and available resources for professional help, employment resources for prisoner-release programs, etc. In addition, he clearly perceives that, unlike the doctor and the lawyer who control their own profession, he must respond to every public outcry, legislative act, and media protest. The doctor treats his patient as he believes best. The warden is repressive -- progressive -- or otherwise in response to public pressures more than anything else. He lacks a strong profession, highly trained and independent of partisan politics, to support him. The medical profession does not hesitate to speak on a national basis regardless of state lines when they feel that it is necessary. This is not true of corrections or many other groups, for that matter. And yet,

the warden and his staff are asked to "cure" their patient as surely as the physician is expected to heal his. Finally, for the most part, the correctional official is required to function in a facility that was designed for security and austerity of living conditions. Because of the design, it is difficult, if not impossible, to remodel. While some few new institutions have been created with a specific purpose of and design for treatment and mental health, these kinds of penitentiaries are less<sup>10</sup> than a dozen in number in this country.

The philosophy of corrections in the period from 1960 forward is characterized by reaction more than initiative and leadership. The majority of corrections personnel are committed to rehabilitation, but they are confused as to exactly what it is and how to achieve it. The profession has not been given the freedom to develop independent of extremism and public reactionary thinking. At the same time, it has shown by activities in several states that achieved major headlines that in some instances it does not merit that freedom. The correctional educator should prepare to relate to a fluid and localized philosophy of corrections; a relatively stable and well-defined national concept of the reason, purpose, and nature of corrections does not yet exist.

Corrections in the second half of the twentieth century has been in a state of turmoil. Internally it has dealt with prisoner disturbances from sit-down strikes to the bloodshed of the Attica Riot. From the general society, it has been strongly affected by the public concern with crime and the federal and state government's actions to deal with it. The movements of civil rights and changes in the courts'

interpretations of the rights of the accused and the incarcerated have been added to the recipe. Finally, there has been an upsurge in concern and interest, enlightened and otherwise, from educators, social and behavioral scientists, lawyers, and others in the problems and purposes of corrections. This turmoil has been good in that growth and development do not come from stagnation and devotion to status quo. It has been bad in the sense that corrections has been slow to seize upon the opportunity to develop a philosophy and set of goals clearly formulated to advance the profession, the needs of society, and the welfare of the inmate.

The dominant philosophical question that the Educator always has to deal with is whether his field of endeavor is process or product. The answer to this question shapes the curricula, structure, and methodology of all education. There is no final answer; and as society shifts its stance among the pressures of war, technology, economics, political change and the myriad of other variables, the educational system adopts and adjusts to meet changing needs. In the United States, as somewhat opposed to other nations, both process and product are evident at all times in one institution or another and even, on occasion, both in one place.

The role of education in early times was more oriented towards the process function. In simplistic terms, the process function says that the true purpose of education is to learn how to learn. It concerns itself with the traditional philosophical questions: What is truth? What is reality? How does one know? Such concepts as logic, syllogistic reasoning, and dialectics are important. The reach is all important;

what is grasped as a result of the reach is incidental. The earliest disciplines in higher education that dominated were theology, philosophy, and law. These subjects were approached in an essentially intellectual vein and the primary thrust of education was the Socratic discourse. Parallel to this philosophy was the idea that higher education was essentially limited to the elite, the nobility. Into the middle of the nineteenth century, education for the masses was contrary to the established social order in most parts of the world. In the United States, it was a generally accepted practice to keep public tax-supported education at or below the sixth grade and the traditional three R's were all that was needed. For the majority of people in this country, the emphasis was on product in the public school. The goal was not to create thinkers, but to equip the individual with sufficient skills to meet the demands of a pre-industrial society. The limited few who participated in the higher education of the times were essentially involved in education as a process; they were being fitted for the role of the intellectual. This should not be considered an either/or dichotomy, because there was a gradual shift in the direction of the more practical skills in higher education and towards a democratization of the education system. This shift made a breakthrough when the industrial revolution brought the mechanical arts to the university. The Morrill Land Grant Act of 1862 caused a growth in American education well into the twentieth century. Although designed for colleges and universities, it had an indirect effect upon all of education. From this time forward, the product aspect of education in the United States grew.

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Product as a philosophical purpose of education says that the skills, the facts, the abilities are the primary purpose. Such a goal is concerned with the economic results of the educational process for the learner and for the society. It has a tendency to be viewed by some as a materialistic approach. The extensive industrial and technological growth that started after the Civil War was both the cause and the result of this educational pragmatism.

Another development that heavily influenced education was the movement towards social reform and humanitarianism. From Dickens to Marx abroad and including Eugene Debs and Upton Sinclair in the United States, there was a growing concern with the lot of the common man. This concern has continued to the present, with periodic novae of activism such as the "New Deal" of the thirties and the Civil Rights Movements of the sixties.

The greatest mark on educational philosophy was made in the early part of the twentieth century by John Dewey. He viewed the school as the origin of social change and progress. It was the locus of sociological procreation. Here the individual and the society meet to reconcile their differing goals and participate in creating tomorrows out of yesterdays.<sup>11</sup>

From Dewey's time to the present, we have found that the focus shifts from process to product, never completely abandoning one and returning to the other, at frequent intervals. During the thirties, it was common to find "shops" in high schools where students, many of whom were headed for college, were introduced to manual skills. This was also an era in which most high schools also included Latin as a "mind



discipline." When Sputnik was hurled into space by Russia in October of 1957, American education was hurled into a race to develop scientific supremacy at all levels. As we shift in the seventies into an apparently lessened military posture, we find ourselves shifting our educational emphasis to the post-secondary, vocational-technical, community college orientation. This is an emphasis on product rather than process. At the same time, we are concerned with the quality of life, education for retirement and second careers, and the role of education in the myriad of social ills we still face in spite of, or possibly because of, the great emphasis we placed on their alleviation in the recent past. This later shift has some of the aspects of a process rather than a product purposiveness.

The philosophical goals of process and product are synthesizing into a new focus for education. A resurrection of some of Dewey's ideas seem to be playing a part in this dialectic. This development is of importance in the formulation of a philosophy for correctional education. The correctional educator can start with Dewey's dictums:

"...all reforms which rest simply upon the enactment of law, or the threatening of certain penalties, or upon changes in mechanical or outward arrangements are transitory and futile."

"...education is the fundamental method of social progress and reform."<sup>12</sup>

Correctional education must be based upon a philosophy that is directed towards a fulfillment of its full potential. It must be directed towards a realization of a purpose consistent with its basic nature. It must recognize and effectively deal with all of the

components of its environment and will all of the characteristics of its clients.

The full potential of education is threefold. First is its ability to change the individual. This, in corrections, is each and every person in the penitentiary, inmate or correctional staff, student or non-student. Education is a process that affects all. In corrections, the inmate who is a student will, because of his involvement in an educational program, cause change in others, inmate as well as staff. This is true in all of society, but even more so in a closed and confined environment where human interactions are more intense and frequent. In essence, education in corrections is an all encompassing force that can be developed to dominate the environment. The second potential of education is to develop knowledge. Of all of man's social institutions, corrections is second only to religion in its lack of research.<sup>13</sup> The role of education in corrections must include research and the resultant development of knowledge relative to causes and treatment of criminal behavior. The third potential of education in any environment is to change social values, attitudes, and institutions. There must be a recognition of and a commitment to the potential of correctional reform as a result of the educator's involvement. This action must involve not only those who operate the correctional system, but all segments of society, individual and group, that are responsible for its existence and nature.

The basic nature of education is change. Regardless of the purpose for a particular educational process, the end result is that somebody and/or something is changed. True change in the individual comes from

within and must be self-directed or self-initiated. It cannot be externally imposed. Change requires the freedom to change. If true change cannot be imposed and can only take place when there is a degree of freedom, then the possibility of negative change must be accepted. Change also requires the freedom to question and debate as the individual makes judgments and evaluations. From this develops the concept that a true educational process developing the full potential of change calls for a freedom that is difficult for the more traditional correctional system to deal with. The goal of change is acceptable, but the means by which it must be achieved is often in conflict with the operational philosophies of the correctional system and societal attitudes regarding treatment of offenders. Thus, the basic nature of education is change, and the correctional educator must realize that he will cause considerable modification of the student and the environment if he is successful.

Finally, the philosophy of the correctional education system must deal with the characteristics of its environment and its students. A penitentiary is a closed and abnormal environment. It is usually isolated in a geographical and a social sense. The inmates are persons who possess a variety of abilities and talents but who have had difficulty in adapting to societal norms. Some are neurotic or psychotic. Many have had a negative experience during their developmental years with relationship to peers, parents, and pedants. A penitentiary is physically an oppressive place which presents a variety of impacts and inputs into the sensory and psychic system of all who spend time in it, confined and confiner. The function of the educator is to perform in a manner that is inconsistent

with the nature of corrections while appearing to be a part of the system. He must change an environment and a population that, in all too many instances, doesn't want to be changed.

Philosophically, the role of correctional education is to:

- a. Function as an agent of change for both the inmate and the system,
- b. Maintain its integrity in terms of its basic commitment to freedom of inquiry, and
- c. Study, evaluate and respond to all variables in the individual, the system and society that are to be benefited by the educational concerns with process, product and social reform.

## II. CORRECTIONAL EDUCATION: PRO AND CON

Correctional education, as the term and its variants are used herein, is education inside of a confinement institution for residents of that facility. It is not limited as to sex or age, nor is it restricted to post-trial confinement; city and county jails and persons awaiting trial can be a part of the correctional education process, although this latter is a rarity.

Because education of prisoners and ex-convicts outside of confinement is an extension of the correctional education process, it will be mentioned. It will be specifically so identified; and, although its appearance will be necessarily less frequent, its importance will not be thereby lessened. In addition, there will be some references to other

aspects of correctional education such as institutional (corrections) change, behavioral science research, education and training of correctional staffs, etc. These are all outcomes of the education/corrections interface inside "the walls."

The traditional penitentiary is isolated from the community. Many have been located in rural areas because land to build on was cheaper, they would contribute to local economy and employment, citizens in more populous areas had no economic need and, therefore, rejected them, and a myriad of political reasons. This geographic isolation has tended to make many rehabilitative support resources marginal or non-existent. The resources, institutional and individual, of higher education have been significantly missing. Graduate students, faculty members doing research, and related educational services have largely ignored corrections until just recently.<sup>14</sup> While the growth of the community-junior college during the past decade -- and for the foreseeable future -- has impacted in corrections education, both for inmate and staff, all too many prisons are still far removed from even these facilities. The non-educational support required such as psychologists, sociologists, social workers and others -- for staffing -- for consultation -- and for other support -- are not readily available in geographically isolated areas, nor are then amenable to moving to such an area.

Another feature of the geographic isolation of the prison is the general tendency of the rural -- the geographically isolated -- the agricultural -- community to be conservative on social issues. Where such a community draws its economic base exclusively or primarily from

a single institution or activity, there is a marked tendency for the community to become overly concerned about that institution. This may result in a strong and inappropriate effort from the community to manage and control that institution. Where the institution is a prison, mental hospital, or similar facility whose entire operation is heavily value laden, this community pressure can sometimes obstruct the progress of the institutional programs.

The correctional educator must deal with these geographic environmental factors from the inception of the program through the several developmental stages. They impact upon staff selection, resources, community support, custodial staff attitudes, and other elements. The correctional educator is a bridge to the outside world. He may find that the geographic isolation of the penitentiary causes the bridge to be as difficult to anchor in the community as at the other end.

The internal environment of the prison also presents unique problems that the correctional educator must deal with. These can be described as physical and psycho-social in their impact. The physical factors derive essentially from the massive, rigid and custodial architecture. Educational programs must operate in areas of the prison which allow for little remodeling and were not, in most cases, designed for an educational purpose. The grills and other security facilities will often impede movement of personnel and thus introduce scheduling considerations that are frequently unpredictable. There are a multitude of problems, some unresolvable, that derive from the problem of placing an education facility in a building or set of buildings designed for security rather than education.

The psycho-social aspects of prison design are pervasive but not well defined or researched. It must be admitted, however, that little research has been done on the psycho-social effects of the physical design of most institutional systems.<sup>15</sup> There are elements of sensory deprivation and monotony in penal life. The exact nature and intensity of these deprivations, as well as their effect, is speculative at present. In a directly educational sense, they present a problem in both the cognitive and affective domain in that the student may be dealing with an idea, a happening, or an artifact that he cannot experience while in confinement. While this problem is present in all education, it is often pervasive in correctional education. In a peripheral but important relationship to education, the sensory and aesthetic deprivation of prison dulls the psychological appetite. It produces monotony, listlessness, and ennui which frequently overwhelm the most enthusiastic of students (and staff). The situation may be likened to that of a child in a culturally deprived environment. His learning and growth are adversely affected by a lack of enrichment in his daily life.

Another environmental problem is in the use of outside resources and in certain types of instruction. Some prisons have involved administrative procedures for bringing in outsiders. This may make some outside speakers difficult or impossible to obtain. A former inmate is barred, some hair styles are prohibited even for visitors, and "advance notice" may present difficulties. Certain substances and materials often used in laboratory work will generate problems for science classes. Institutional control of texts and audio-visual materials is sometimes present in an obstructive degree.

Other environmental problems have to do with student control. Some correctional authorities wish to "supervise" education. This they do by operating the program themselves, by having correctional staffs "participate" in the supervision of student behavior, by "approving" of curriculum, etc., by establishing rules of student and staff behavior, etc. A caseworker may have to approve the enrollment of his "clients" in specific classes; correctional officers may dictate student conduct in class; female inmates may be barred from classes with male students; etc. These are examples and are not present in all correctional education situations. They are present in too many, however, and are readily possible in most situations.

The penal facility and its custodial staff, no matter how modern and progressive, tend in too many instances to present a physical and psycho-social setting which is, by itself, not conducive to the educational process. The educator must strive to counteract this while developing a feeling of trust from the corrections world, staff, and inmate. At the same time, he must bear in mind that confinement, as unproductive as it is, is a reality and cannot be abandoned until a better alternative is developed. The final judgment is that the environment -- geographic, psycho-social, and physical -- is a major problem that confronts the correctional educator. Much of it he can do little to change; some of it he can dramatically affect with time and sophisticated effort. The environment of correctional education at its present stage is largely a negative and, while its effect can be negated to some degree, it will probable never become a positive element.



The organization of correctional education presents a major challenge to those who wish to document and evaluate its many structures. At present, there is no evidence in the literature that this topic has been looked at on a descriptive, evaluative, or experimental basis.

The first of several continuums for the organization of correctional education has to do with control. In some states there may be a state-wide system with a fully staffed program managed from state level. In such an instance the education component in an individual institution may be virtually autonomous and independent of the local prison director and subordinate to the central office staff. An outstanding example of this is the Windham School District of the Texas Department of Corrections. This is a unique approach that several other states are examining and plan to replicate. It is a state accredited independent school district with "schools," "principals," and students in the individual adult correctional facilities in the state. It does not include the juvenile institutions. There is a superintendent, board of education, school district staff, transcripts, diplomas, and state funds from the educational appropriation, not the correctional one. The majority of states, however, do not operate a central control and management of the correctional education process. Some allow the educational component to exist in whatever form is desired by the individual warden or superintendent.

Another continuum for the organization has to do with the relationship of penal education to public schools, state departments of education, and other structures and elements of education. Some local individual public schools or school systems have operated the correctional education

system as an "extension" of the community schools. This has been on a fully accredited, transcript and diploma basis, or as an "adult" education system. Some prison schools have been operated by local community colleges, again in several different ways from residence to no-credit continuing education and at all levels, pre-secondary, secondary, and post-secondary. In a number of states the pattern within the state is variable from one prison and one community to another. Some state departments of education have recently demonstrated a major concern with correctional education, most are aware of but little involved with it, while others act as if it didn't exist. Many of the professional associations in education and related fields have shown little if any concern for the subject. There is only one school in the United States which trains teachers to work in corrections, and the various accrediting associations have yet to examine correctional education.

A third continuum in the organizational area has to do with program integration, the relationship to other elements of the corrections system. One of the most significant is the tendency of correctional education programs to deal almost entirely with the cognitive to the virtual exclusion of the affective. The largest and most sophisticated correctional education system, that of Texas, does not have counselors. Psychological growth and development, as a specific target, is left to other staff elements of the prison. In many prisons, the vocational training program is dealt with separately from the academic. There is little effort towards joint planning, coordinated efforts for the individual student, or a consortium approach.

The organization of correctional education is a major element that needs considerable study. In spite of lack of knowledge of practices in this area, it can be readily postulated that it presents a far less than desirable status. This conclusion can be based upon the extreme dissimilarity between correctional education and conventional education. For all its deficiencies, the public system presents a cohesive, integrated and autonomous structure that is clearly lacking in the educational system in penitentiaries.

The personnel staffs of the correctional educational program is another area that needs attention. Generally, these staffs are of five types: correctional personnel, non-correctional personnel who lack professional training in education, professionally qualified educators, inmates, and volunteers. Because relatively few prison education systems are state accredited and none are regionally accredited (except where they are an adjunct of a public-school, college or university), there is no requirement for teaching and administrative personnel to be certified. This has led to the practice in many penitentiaries of using correctional officers and other non-professionally trained persons as educational staff. It can be opined that this has developed for several reasons. Lower salaries can be paid; persons more likely to accept the correctional philosophy are hired; groups such as the American Federation of Teachers and the National Education Association are kept out of correctional education; and educators have tended to ignore and reject correctional education. Some recent inroads and changes are being made in the staffing of correctional education programs. As they are developing status and

attracting attention from the various professional education associations, more skilled and trained persons are entering the field. Some of this can be attributed to a developing concern by state education departments. More of it is probably the result of a focus of attention in all of our society on social problems and particularly on corrections.

Probably one of the oldest sources of teachers for confinement systems was the prison population itself. The inmate as a teacher has been a dominant feature of correctional education. Some did it because it relieved boredom; others found it an avenue to early parole and "easy time." Some were volunteers and others did it as an assignment. Skill levels ranged from highly trained persons with graduate degrees to those without a high school diploma who were often excellent teachers of vocational skills and the three R's. Some systems have even trained inmates for teaching roles, while others are much opposed to any use of the inmate as a teacher. In staffing of correctional education, the inmate-instructor is a very controversial issue. It is a part of the basic philosophical position of many correctional leaders on the question of inmate hierarchies and leadership roles. Are all inmates to be considered equals and none to have any position of leadership or status in relationship to others? This, it is hoped, will reduce kangaroo courts, coercion and bribery, cliques, and "punking." Some suggest that the inmate student cannot see the inmate teacher as anything but another convict and thus the entire educational process is just another "game" in the prison. Those who support the use of the inmate as a teacher see the rehabilitation process as a "self-actualizing" effort rather than

an exteriorly imposed and directed process. The teaching inmate is an example to others and is leading himself away from past behaviors while he inspires others to that same end. The argument is also presented that the inmate learns from his peers more readily because he trusts and understands them more than he does the "Square John." Naturally, economics play some role in the selection of prisoners as educational staff.

Several conclusions regarding correctional education staffing are viable. Because the prison is an enclave, the effectiveness of the particular staffing pattern chosen is more a function of the total institutional philosophy than it is of the education component. As the prison would open up to the outside, the integrity of correctional education will tend to become more critical, leading to personnel patterns more similar to those of traditional education. Like most other aspects of correctional education, there is a pressing need for descriptive research regarding the personnel staffing of correctional education followed by evaluation of various staffing models. To the degree that educational standards of teacher preparation and certification are valid, many correctional educators are deficient. In a larger sense, it may be that education in its traditional garb is unequal to the task of rehabilitation through learning in a penal system. If this be so, then correctional educators, by their non-traditional standards and preparation, are better off not being "trained teachers." Until these points are adequately studied, they will remain only speculations.

The sociology of correctional education is the study of group interactions in the prison setting as viewed by the educator. As in many

other aspects of penal education, this is a relatively undiscussed subject. While several texts have been published regarding the sociology of the prison, they have a scarcity of empirical research and deal little with the educational aspect of the prison.<sup>16</sup> Many factors of a psychosocial nature are present that the correctional educator must deal with. The "we-they" dichotomy between students and teachers, students and society, students and correctional staff, students and non-student peers, and teachers and correctional staff can be a very intense and debilitating element in the social environment. The inmate will often present the characteristics of arrested social development and maturity common with the delinquent. Such a person is strongly subject to peer pressures. This may mean that he is a student or is not a student for the wrong reason -- conformity.

Inmates in education programs become quite possessive regarding education and erect barriers against other inmates. They forget some of their own past and adopt the "I did it, why can't you?" attitude often found among the newly educated. Some educational programs in prisons become cliques and present a group identity image to all others in the institution that is damaging. This group behavior pattern is a strong argument, beyond any others, for a strong group and individual therapy component in correctional education.

Like all other areas, a great need for more current and on-going research on the sociological aspects of correctional education is needed. The impact of sociological considerations in correctional education is believed to be more positive than negative. It probably represents a

resource that could be tapped to considerable advantage once it was adequately understood.

The curriculum and program of correctional education is primarily academic, vocational, and social. The first two, vocational and academic, are the most clearly defined and organized. The latter, social education, is the least defined and structured and is the newest.

Vocational training includes such subjects as carpentry, welding, keypunch, etc. While these courses are often of some value, they have many drawbacks. They are often a part of a production or institutional maintenance program. This, in itself, is not harmful. It does, however, tend to dictate priorities, instructional methods, equipment, techniques, etc. Industrial processes in many prisons range from being "last year's technique" to absolutely archaic. Equipment and facilities to be maintained are often non-representative because of the unique institutional design, i.e., stainless steel toilets and washbasins. Vocational training programs are frequently separated -- physically, organizationally, and philosophically -- from the academic portion of the educational program. They may even be operated by separate agencies, such as a local school district and a state department of vocational rehabilitation. Thus, the academic needs of the vocational student are not met. There is little opportunity to create programs that are both technical and academic, such as drafting technology, data processing specialist, etc. Finally, there is little communication between the labor market and the prison to insure the currency and necessity of the training program. The oft stated but nonetheless valid example of this

is license plate manufacture, a favorite training program in prisons which has virtually no "free world" counterpart.

Academic portions of the system include basic literacy training, adult education, GED preparation, formal accredited high school programs, college programs, and individual specialized courses. Basic literacy training may be a separately identified component or may be a portion of adult education. Likewise, adult education may not be a discrete function but may be also a part of GED preparation. Both adult education and GED preparation may be a melange of subject matter, or they may be separate classes in much the same manner as a high school curriculum. Formal, accredited high school programs are the minority. Generally, they will follow the traditional high school curriculum except for certain classes such as laboratory sciences, physical education, foreign languages, etc.

College level programs have included correspondence courses, television, and actual classroom instruction. Some have been simply the occasional course from a nearby college, while others have been full-scale programs offering both two and four-year degrees in several academic majors. Generally, the open admissions policy is used; however, a considerably higher level of academic capability than in many community colleges has existed. This is probably due to the opportunity for a closer study of the student. These classes have been accredited and generally the same or a higher quality of teaching, grading, and student performance has been required. Curriculum has, in some instances, been limited to the more traditional classes, and some areas such as laboratory science have suffered.



Individual specialized courses, often correspondence, have been brought into the correctional system to satisfy individual or system needs. These have included technical, college level, and other academic subjects, and areas such as art, drama, and salesmanship. They are sometimes a part of an educational program, or they may be purely an individual effort. They are a valuable adjunct to residence programs but should not become a substitute for formal programs.

Social education has traditionally been the term to describe programs to deal with the inmates problems in inter-personal relations, value systems, and social behavior. As such, it is something of a combination of group and individual counseling, pre-release counseling, and religious education. It is probably one of the most important parts of correctional education as far as rehabilitation is concerned. Yet, it is the element given the least attention and the most often missing from the correction education "system."

A judgment regarding curriculum and program of correctional education is that it is too heavily weighted in terms of product rather than process, and it is fragmented in that the several elements -- academic, psycho-social and vocational, correspondence and residence, pre- and post-secondary -- are separated and kept from being a synergistic whole.

The student in the correctional education process has been defined in several ways. His age will range from early teens, if the juvenile system is included, through the years of the geriatric realm. In terms of ability, it has been suggested that while his achievement is low (eighth grade), his potential represents a range no different from the

rest of society. Economically, he comes from the lower ranges, although the white collar criminal is not a rarity. Ethnically, in all too many instances, he is primarily a member of a minority -- black, chicano, etc. While the male sex dominates in prisons, the female inmate is found in almost all jurisdictions. Because of the logistics and societal attitudes regarding female prisoners, it has been found that they are often discriminated against in relationship to the male.

There are many theories regarding the causes of crime. These are of value to the correctional educator primarily in their relevance to the educational process. Probably the most relevant of the criminality causation theories are those of a psycho-social nature, those that deal with the adolescent maturation processes of peer group pressures, delinquent subcultures, and familial deprivations. These must be understood by the correctional educator; he must realize that many of the residues of poor early childhood education, broken homes, resentment against authority, and other feelings must be dealt with if the inmate student is to be helped.

Some students are assigned and others enter the education process voluntarily. The old saw about the horse and the water trough is valid, but many a person has wound up liking what they got into unwillingly. Some consideration and study needs to be given to the degree to which the student enters the education process involuntarily. Along with this is the question of the time element in the education program - part or full-time. Some prisons require the inmate who goes to school to do it in off-duty hours; it is in addition to his regular assignment. Others

consider education as a full-time assignment the same as working in the kitchen or on a grounds crew. Related to this is the question of the prisoner's qualification for the education program. In some institutions the nature of the offense, the sentence, and the prisoner's custody status or behavior category are determinants. In essence, these institutions see education as a reward for "goodness" rather than a means to change the prisoner, even the most difficult ones. In many prisons, the inmate is paid, albeit a token wage, for many jobs. This pittance is very important for the purchase of cigarettes, candy, toothpaste, soap, etc. If the inmate is a full-time student, he will forfeit a "salary" unless he is paid for attending school. This approach is contrary to the philosophical constructs of most educators and exemplifies the conflict between prison and education. It is also one more feature of correctional education that needs research and study.

Of all the components of the education process in corrections, the strongest and the most important is the student -- the resident. The successes of the correctional education system are proof that the individual can overcome the negative aspects of any environment -- any past -- any present.

The resource support for correctional education is a litany of negatives. Over 90 percent of all funds in corrections are spent on security and custody rather than rehabilitation. The number of doctoral dissertations written on correctional education is less than a dozen; only one has been written on higher education in prisons. No state has certification for the "correctional educator." The majority of state

departments of education pay little or no attention to prison schools, and few states appropriate funds for these programs. Only one teacher training program in the United States has courses in correctional education. Only in the past year or two has the National Education Association formally recognized the existence of correctional education. The American Personnel and Guidance Association, the professionals in psychological counseling, make no official mention of it in their statements of goals and purposes. The Correctional Education Association, the professional group for educators in corrections, is an affiliate of only the American Correctional Association. This raises the question of whether the teacher in the prison is first a professional in education and secondly in corrections, or vice versa. There are times when the two professions are incompatible.

The verdict for resource support of correctional education is that it is so low as to be virtually non-existent. Further, this verdict is rendered against the world of education more than of corrections. The disciples of Dewey, Thorndike, and others should know, better than anyone else, that the educational process is the lifeblood of rehabilitation, of human growth, development, and change. These are the persons who should also know, along with psychologists and sociologists, that a successful program in any of the social and behavioral sciences must be based upon solid facts and empirical research. That these facts and research are largely missing is a blot on the escutchson of academe.

The professional status of correctional education has been alluded to above. Correctional education is an element of education that lacks

personnel certification, lacks accreditation by any regional agency, is not officially recognized by the American Association of University Professors, the American Council on Education, the National Society for the Study of Education, the American Association for Higher Education, the American Personnel and Guidance Association, and others.<sup>17</sup> Only one school in the United States has curricula in its teacher education program on correctional education. Only two texts on correctional education have ever been written -- one in 1931<sup>18</sup> and the second in 1971.<sup>19</sup> Both are descriptions and do not resolve the question of "how to do it."

Probably no element of the correctional education scene is more negative, more lacking, than that of professional status.<sup>20</sup> If the educational process is to play any role at all in the rehabilitation of the inmate (or the change of correctional systems), it must have a professional status. This is its greatest lack and, at the same time, the resource with the greatest overall potential for a major breakthrough in penal systems.

The goals and purposes of correctional education are, at present, vague, inadequate, and somewhat defensive. Correctional education speaks not with a single voice. In fact, the most vocal elements are persons not working in education in penal systems but in other agencies. The Correctional Education Association has yet to state a goal, a purpose, a philosophy for correctional education. The American Correctional Association has established goals for the correctional education component.<sup>21</sup> It is interesting to note that of the 135 consultants and contributors to the 1956 Manual of Correctional Standards, only seven were

classified as educators. Even that classification is misleading since six were faculty members of universities, but not in the fields of education, psychology, or counseling and guidance, and the seventh was an educator, but in the correctional system. The twenty-nine persons who made up the commission responsible for this edition of the Manual were all correctional officials. An example of the inappropriateness of the position of the American Correctional Association regarding prison education can be found in the statement that correctional educators should be civil service personnel.<sup>22</sup> This Manual does not address itself at all to the subjects of accreditation, transcripts, diplomas, or operation of educational programs by outside agencies. There is even the statement that two goals are to enable the prisoner to better adjust to the prison and to meet the institutional needs.<sup>23</sup> This reinforces the conclusion that too many prison officials view their educational program as a method to control prisoners and as a public relations device to present a good image.

The goals, purposes, and philosophy of correctional education have been stated almost entirely by correctional administrators with little or no input from educators. Until the goals of an essentially educational program are defined in basically educational terms by persons who are primarily educators, the destiny of correctional education will remain poorly defined and its role will be largely that of serving the correctional system rather than the student.

A small number of persons are doing yeoman work in an alien environment. Corrections is designed for custody and control. Education's

purpose is freedom, growth, and self-actualization. The correctional educator must, at the minimum, maintain an island of sanity in a storm of psychosis. At the most, he must work to change the entire system. Both . . . are a plan -- a plan based on a philosophy, research, program design, professional support, and courage and determination. Correctional education does exist, will survive, and must develop. The rate at which this takes place and the participants and their roles -- problem or solution -- are really the only questions. The sooner and more effectively it is done, the more thoroughly the major problem of crime and delinquency will be alleviated.

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CHAPTER TWO

A BRIEF HISTORY OF PRISONER EDUCATION

by Kenneth T. Martin

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In corrections, as with other social institutions, formal education or instruction came late in the development of the institution. One observer (Eckenrode, 1971) regards correctional education as only forty or fifty years old, although prisons came into existence centuries ago.

Eckenrode's perception is valid only if we accept a limited definition of correctional education. If, however, we define "correctional education" to encompass those programs designed to positively impact on a prisoner's attitudes, skills, and behavior such that a return to incarceration will not occur, we can argue that correctional, or prison, education has a long history.

Indeed, the growth and development of prisoner education has paralleled the acceptance of prisons themselves as an "alternative" means for the punishment of unlawful conduct. The word "alternative" is important to note because from the early records of history up until the late eighteenth century the control of anti-social behavior was almost universally obtained through vengeance and retribution in the most extreme sense.

In spite of the romance of the Count of Monte Cristo, the Man in the Iron Mask, and other literary portrayals of imprisonment, the concept of confinement as a judicial act of sentencing did not develop until

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\*Mr. Martin wishes to acknowledge the contribution of John Marsh and Stuart Adams to this chapter.

fairly modern times. Prior to the seventeenth century, the lot of the guilty was to be flogged, crucified, maimed, burned, tortured, hung, banished, enslaved, fined or otherwise brutalized. The prevalent motives for this were punishment, atonement, revenge, and deterrence. As changes of the age of enlightenment and social reform developed, the first of many of the reforms associated with corrections developed.

Throughout the development of organized societies, the concept of brutal retaliation, tempered by a concern for the welfare of the culprit's soul, effectively survived a transfer from private right to public duty such that lawfully sanctioned castration for rapists, amputation for thieves and the removal of perjurer's tongues were the civilized rules. The medieval concept of punishment by mutilation gradually yielded to a less sanguine but more final method of exacting vengeance such that by the Tudor period England punished up to two hundred crimes by public hanging. Lesser crimes were resolved through fines and such corporal and defamatory punishments as the pillory, the stocks, ducking, and the whipping post. The early eighteenth century saw the European nations introduce banishment or transportation to the new world colonies as a more self-serving than actually humane alternative for the many serious and trivial offenses punishable by death. During the period 1597-1867, England, for example, transported some 134,308 criminals to America and, at a latter time, Australia, over the strenuous objections of colonists in both lands.<sup>1</sup>

Throughout this obscure movement from the violent to the less violent form of punishment, from torture, mutilation and public execution to

banishment and public ridicule, there existed also the use of imprisonment in a very limited form. Too great importance should not be attached here as the concept was initially implemented, at least in a civil sense, purely as a means to detain the culprit pending a determination of appropriate punishment. "In Alfred's time the word prison first makes its appearance in a code of laws (c. 890). If a man fails in what he has pledged himself to perform he is to be imprisoned, the laws say, in a royal manor for forty days and while there, is to submit himself to punishment of the bishop's devising."<sup>2</sup> Thus, imprisonment was less a punishment in itself than a means for restricting freedom until the punishment could be implemented. "The main purpose of the gaols...was the safe-keeping of persons awaiting trial, execution, or transportation, and the function of the judges on circuit was to clear the gaols by their sentences, not to send people to prison."<sup>3</sup> Where imprisonment was imposed as a form of punishment, it was usually in the limited sense of a debtor's prison or as a means of securing fines -- strictly speaking, a means to an end, and not an end in itself.

The roots, but certainly not the substance, of a comprehensive use of imprisonment as it is regarded today are probably to be found in the religious courts of the church in early and mid-medieval times. Drawing upon the presumed fruits of the monastic life, the church sentenced the sinner and heretic to a solitary confinement where contrition and reformation would obtain a pardon for the soul. This concept of correction through solitary repentance was to have a significant influence on the latter development of penal theories.

The narrow reformatory theme developed by the medieval church was broadened somewhat by the presence in England in the middle of the sixteenth century of houses of correction designed to reform the criminally inclined through hard work. Their original intent appears to have been something of a catch-all: "...on the petition of Bishop Ridley of London for help in dealing with the 'sturdy vagabonds' of the city, the King gave his palace at Bridewell to be one of the 'hospitals of the city' for the 'lewd and idle' and a place for the employment of the unemployed and the training of children."<sup>4</sup> The houses of correction and the rehabilitative tone of clerical imprisonment were two important, though obscure, elements in the glacial development of prisons and prison education.

The brutal treatment of the criminal -- an almost daily public event of the times prior to the late sixteenth and early seventeenth century -- gave way to the concept of rehabilitation or change via confinement.

Confinement, prior to this first reform, was a detention process. The prisoner was awaiting justice or was being removed from society for the public's protection but not as a result of a judicial act of sentencing.

While this reform was a great improvement over the prior savagery, it did little to achieve its goal. Confinement was seen as allowing the accomplishment of three processes which would make the reform of the criminal inevitable. The first of these was that he would be taught a skill or trade and thereby would be employable when released, and the economic motive for crime would be removed. The second process was that

of change of character. In addition to economic pressures, his criminal acts were seen as the result of his failure to follow the path of righteousness. If he would be required to spend his non-working time in solitude, he would think upon his past behavior, repent, and change. The third process was one of punishment. It was commonly held that many criminals made a carefully evaluated choice of behavior because the rewards from what they wanted to do outweighed the displeasures resulting from that act. Thus, if the criminal act was to be prevented, the punishment must be increased to a point where it outweighed the pleasures.

Though the late eighteenth century is quite often mistakenly described as a period of 'prison reform', this is something of a misnomer, as the period was actually more noted for the adoption of imprisonment as an alternative punitive measure than for the minimal improvement that occurred in the conditions or purposes of those prisons that did exist at the time. To be sure, some improvements were obtained in the physical condition of debtor prisons and houses of correction, but in the main "prison reform", really represents an expanded use of those common-jails and special prisons. The causes for the development of this form of retribution are intertwined with a growing public revulsion against hangings and corporal punishment as a form of popular entertainment and a growing resentment in the colonies of the transportation policy.

Since, except for treason and murder, criminals were no longer dispatched through the rope or other widely practiced terminal measures, their presence, albeit behind walls, gave rise to a public concern for rehabilitation through penitence. Ironically, this concern was generated

in large part by notorious conditions, particularly that of the Walnut Street Jail in Philadelphia, which spawned more criminal motives than they cured:

It is represented as a scene of promiscuous and unrestricted intercourse, and universal riot and debauchery. There was no labor, no separation of those accused, but yet untried, nor even of those confined for debt only, from convicts sentenced for the foulest crimes; no separation of color, age, or sex, by day or by night; the prisoners lying promiscuously on the floor, most of them without anything like bed or bedding... Intoxicating liquors abounded, and indeed were freely sold at a bar kept by one of the officers of the prison... Intercourse between the convicts and persons without was hardly restricted. Prisoners tried and acquitted were still detained till they should pay jail fees to the keeper; and the custom of stripping every newcomer of his outer clothing, to be sold for liquor, unless redeemed by the payment of a sum of money to be applied to the same object. It need hardly be added, that there was no attempt to give any kind of instruction, and no religious service whatsoever.<sup>5</sup>

Since the public was increasingly faced with the problem of prisoners returning to society worsened by their experiences behind the walls, there arose complementary movements that conditions should be bettered while, at the same time, the prisoner must be reformed; secondarily, at first, for the benefit of the culprit, but primarily for the safe-guarding of society.

Drawing on the Christian tradition of monasticism, the first identifiable improvement, which significantly is the origin of prison education, was the introduction at the Walnut Street Jail of solitary confinement day and night by the Quaker governor of Philadelphia. "...solitary confinement was not originally regarded as a means of making imprisonment more repressive and painful. It was genuinely believed to have a positive value."<sup>6</sup>



Unfortunately, a situation of solitary confinement premised on contemplation of sins and repentance, interrupted only by the theological exhortations of a visiting chaplain, caused more prisoners to go insane than were saved. The notoriety and subsequent reform and failings at the Walnut Street Jail led directly, in 1816, to the Auburn Prison and its precedent setting prototype of congregate work in silence by day, solitary confinement by night, shaved heads, lockstep marching, and menial toil.

Paralleling the institutionalized growth of the physical setting of prisons in the early eighteenth century was the genesis of penal theory and the means by which inmate reform, in conjunction with security, might be obtained. Much of the fertile ground for the new intellectual approach can be traced to the developing beliefs in knowledge and education fostered by the era of enlightenment, Rosseau, and an emphasis on rational thought. Democracy, and especially the belief in the worth of the common man, complemented by attempts at theological instruction, led to the novel idea that the criminal could somehow be rehabilitated.

Admittedly, these early attempts at reform obtained solely through haphazard visitations by chaplains were doomed to failure, yet they did represent the first attempt at education in the form of isolated incidents which gradually began to establish a pattern. The assumption on the part of the prison chaplains that the Bible was the keynote of reform led to basic attempts at reading and writing in order that biblical truths could be effectively mastered and absorbed. Conducted at night or on Sundays, the classes were usually characterized by "...the chaplain standing in the semi-dark corridor, before the cell door, with a dingy lantern

hanging to the grated bars, and teaching to the wretched convict in the darkness beyond the grated door the rudiments of reading or numbers.<sup>7</sup>

In 1801, New York State provided elementary education for the 'meritorious' inmates by the better educated inmates and in 1822 authorized by law the furnishing of a Bible to each resident.<sup>8</sup>

These early, stumbling attempts at religious motivated education obtained an organized impetus in 1825 with the creation of the Boston Prison Discipline Society by Louis Dwight. As the first national figure in American prison reforms, Dwight laid the foundation for rehabilitative concepts, based on the complementary principles of work and education, through his pioneering Sabbath schools and the promotion of congregate work shops such as Auburn. Thus,

...in the Auburn system (enforced silence), inmates had their choice between remaining in their cells alone on Sunday mornings or being taken to chapel, where, beginning in 1826, Reverend Jared Curtis, the first resident chaplain at Auburn Prison, had initiated a program with twenty young theological students who taught illiterate inmates. These chaplains also often loaned books to the inmates. By early 1830, New York State's Auburn Prison had formed thirty-one classes and 160 inmates were attending them.<sup>9</sup>

These early attempts at education, both religious and secular, obtained systematic and legal sanction with the establishment of the first school for public offenders in Maryland during the 1830s<sup>10</sup> and the hiring by the Eastern Penitentiary of Pennsylvania in 1844 of a secular school teacher and the establishment of a library.<sup>11</sup> The most significant legal recognition of academic education as being desirable in correctional institutions occurred with the passage in 1847 of a New York State law

providing for the appointment of secular teachers, supervised by chaplains, in the State's prisons:

In 1847, a comprehensive prison act, prepared by a committee of the Prison Association, was passed by the Legislature of New York, one of the provisions of which was that common school teachers should be appointed for all the state prisons, proportionate in number to the size of each prison, and the number likely to be found therein unable to read...this was the first law ever enacted in the United States, creating a distinct class of officers, whose duty it should be to impart such instruction during the week.<sup>12</sup>

All throughout the period from the early to the middle eighteenth century, there was developing a definite penal theory which valued general education and labor as essential elements of any reformatory program.

Instead of subjecting the culprit to a corporal punishment, or to a short and useless confinement, it will be requisite that he should be committed to a house of industry for such a term as may be sufficient to afford a reasonable prospect of his reformation... Much will also depend on the institution being provided with convenient work rooms, where, under proper inspection, the prisoners may pursue avocations...and the usual means of instruction in morality and religion.<sup>13</sup>

It is these early criminological writings which carried the subdued, though ever-present, idea and principle that a main cause of crime was ignorance and a lack of education. From the initial concept that an individual without moral and religious ties to society is susceptible to criminal influence came the latter concept that formal education, beyond the mere religious sense, combined with skilled labor was fundamental to the maintenance of a legal, moral, and economic social competence. This perceived correlation between education and criminal tendencies and the doctrine of environmental influence fostered by the era of enlightenment

and the rationalistic theories combined to create a true science of criminal rehabilitation, both in theory and in practice.

But, it must be remembered, the prison in the United States was characterized during the late seventeen and early eighteen hundreds as primarily a place of labor and, secondarily, as a place for study and contemplation. Hard work and penitence would reform the criminal. An outgrowth of this through the nineteenth and into the early twentieth century was the desire to make the penal system as self-supporting as possible. In some states the prisoner was "rented" to a landowner or factory manager who paid the warden or jailer for the labor performed. Many a road or other community improvement was built in the early twentieth century with convict labor. Even today, some states operate large penal systems that are self-supporting in many ways through large industrial or agricultural programs.

The decade of the 1870s marks the culmination of the gradual transition in correctional education from basic reading and writing to an organized system of formal academic, vocational, and social education with solid underlying principles. Zebulan R. Brockway, the first warden at the Elmira reformatory, developed in 1861 an industrial program at the Detroit House of Correction that was the first grading system based on prisoner attitudes rather than pure administrative evaluations.<sup>14</sup> Though some two-thirds of the inmates were involved in the school program, this was undoubtedly an exception to a national pattern in 1870 in which only 8,000 of some 20,000 illiterate prisoners were receiving some form of instruction.<sup>15</sup>

Another reform was the formation in 1870 of the American Prison Association. This group, now known as the American Correctional Association, set out to professionalize the penal system and implement principles of rehabilitation, humanitarian treatment of offenders, and the reduction of crime through the application of the behavioral sciences in dealing with inmates.

In his paper presented at the first Conference of the American Prison Association in Cincinnati in 1870, Brockway established the principles of the reformatory approach to corrections through his unique rejection of pain and punishment as a justification for prisons.

...if by any means imprisonment is made so impressive that the prisoner remembers it afterwards as punishment for crime, he must estimate the punishment as either inadequate, and exult at the good fortune or smartness of his evasion of the intended purpose, or else, esteeming his punishment excessive and unjust, he will remain embittered and revengeful; or again, if he esteems his punishment as equal to the offense, he will justify himself as one who has paid for his crime and is now at quits with society and with moral obligations. Each and all of these moods are inconsistent with or unfavorable to his moral reformation and subsequent behavior.<sup>16</sup>

Thus, the central aim of this new prison philosophy was not to punish criminals but to reform them and thereby provide for the protection of society from crime. The recovery of lawful behavior was to be obtained through legitimate industry and education since it was assumed that a healthy economic character was the key to good citizenship.

One would expect that the majority of these principles would be fully implemented by now. Such is not the case. One of today's leading authorities in corrections stated in 1967 that:

"The condition of the correctional apparatus varies greatly from community to community. Typically, the operation of the apparatus is...obsolete, unreliable, unchanging except as offenders themselves force change in the system that holds them... The standards set by policy makers and their day-to-day execution almost never coincide."<sup>17</sup>

The scientific approach of the reformatory movement of the late 1800s recognized the value of the moral motives that affect mankind and went one step further in appealing to the self-interest of the inmate. "The use of motives is not so much to persuade him voluntarily to surrender his accustomed gratification for the blessings of a virtuous character... as it is to induce him to practice that prescribed course of common activity which will create within him the tastes and habits of a reputable life."<sup>18</sup> This realization of moral regeneration through habitual practice was secured by a system of complete discipline and regimentation such that every conscious moment in the day of the prisoner was passed under the most comprehensive of structured direction.

The all-encompassing manipulation of consciousness, from dawn to dusk, was rationalized on the basis of the need to transform mental, physical, and moral habits. The elements of reform, discipline, and motivation were obtained through an experimental concept known as the indeterminate sentence, supplemented by education and employment. This was the origin of the carrot-and-stick approach to correctional reformation.

Success in productive labor, the acquiring of a trade, and the regularity and diligence of conduct were evaluated through a system of marks and assignments to grades. The prisoners had the opportunity to earn, through upward progress in marks and grades, privileges, gratuities,

and finally, qualification as a candidate for parole. The supreme appeal was a controlled, manipulation of the inmate's self-interest through the indeterminate sentence.

The theoretical equality, by the 1870s, of disciplined rehabilitation to the prevailing philosophy of punishment and deterrence was represented not only by the acceptance of education, but also by the transformation in the purpose of prison labor. The original degrading toil of the old "Auburn System" had its counterpart in England under Sir Edmund du Cane who "...regarded it as a matter of self-congratulation that the previous career and character of the prisoner made no difference in the punishment to which he was subjected."<sup>19</sup> As the overriding purpose, deterrence was obtained through a punishment of hard, useless, and monotonous labor. The return of prisoners to society worsened by their period of incarceration and the influence of the innovative experiments at the Elmira Reformatory under Brockway culminated in public cries for reform and the issuance of the Gladstone Report of 1895:

...prison discipline and treatment should be more effectively designed to maintain, stimulate, and awaken the higher susceptibilities of prisoners, to develop the moral instincts, to train them in orderly and industrial habits, and, whenever possible, to turn them out of prison better men and women physically and morally than when they came in.<sup>20</sup>

The battle for the acceptance and introduction of educative labor and training had, on both sides of the Atlantic, largely been won by the turn of the century. Unfortunately, a new conflict quickly developed over the products of educated labor. Once prison labor had reached the large scale level of instruction as characterized by the new

reformatory concepts, it was inevitable that it should emphasize the applied production of goods which carried an inherent purpose, or specifically, a saleable quality. Conflict with the outside free economy was perhaps unavoidable.

Though prison labor had for some time a dual function of direct internal maintenance as well as the sale outside the wall of produced goods, it was the latter which first aroused the attention of the free labor market: "The first opposition appeared about 1801 and came from boot and shoemakers in the amendment of the law, requiring that boots and shoes made by convicts be branded with the words "state prison'."<sup>21</sup>

By 1834, it was a formal policy that prison labor should confine itself to the manufacture of products normally obtained by importation from abroad. The original use of prison labor as a "lease" arrangement in which inmates worked in the facilities of private industry gradually gave way to the "contract" system in which the manufacturer brought tools, materials, and supervision directly within the institution walls. Both methods were finally doomed for good during the post-Civil War period when persistent agitation against the productive employment of convicts culminated in the Yates Law of 1888 in New York.

This attempt to eliminate competition with outside labor helped to create the origin of the current 'state use' system whereby manufactured products are intended solely for the use of state facilities. The 'state use' policy was institutionalized during the depression years with the passage of the Hawes-Cooper Act in 1929 and the Ashurst-Summers Act in 1935, which effectively eliminated nearly all sale of prison goods



made for profit in the free labor market. "In 1885 it was estimated that 75% of the prison inmates in the United States were engaged in productive labor. By 1940, the total was reported to be much lower, 44% for the country as a whole, and 50% in California."<sup>22</sup>

The years surrounding the beginning of the depression period mark an era of some significance in the development of correctional rehabilitation, less because of any substantive event than because prisons and their programs came under renewed examination. Prison labor was essentially stymied by cries of competition from the free labor market and prison education was at a hiatus in its confrontation with the pervasive philosophies of punishment and deterrence.

The rehabilitative impetus was renewed in 1928 with wide publication of a study by Austin H. MacCormick which found "...that there were no schools in thirteen out of the sixty prisons studied, and that not one single prison made adequate provision for vocational education."<sup>23</sup> The labor aspect of rehabilitation was found to be little different: "In 1928, among twenty-seven penal institutions with a total of 36,798 prisoners, two had fifty percent of their population in idleness, three between thirty percent and fifty percent, and six between twenty percent and thirty percent. In the same year, the New York State Prison Commission reported that out of 9,980 prisoners more than 2,500 were kept without employment."<sup>24</sup>

In spite of the declaration at the National Prison Association's Conference that education was of primary importance, the pioneering work of Brockway at the Elmira Reformatory, and the presence of many systems

offering more than just literacy courses and occupational work, comprehensive prison programs were yet to emerge.

The Lewisohn and Englehart Commission of 1933 in New York was instrumental in provoking far-reaching thought and organizing the attention of penologists to focus on education and its potential for rehabilitation. The Federal Prison System took the initiative in 1930 by appointing a trained supervisor of education at each federal institution, organizing updated libraries, allocating funds specifically for the purchase of books, and instituting a system of cell-study correspondence courses to supplement classroom instruction. The approximately four thousand Federal prisoners enrolled in courses in 1932 increased in 1933 to some "...sixty percent of all inmates in Federal institutions..." which "stood out as an education system that provided a model for other systems throughout the country to follow."<sup>25</sup>

In 1934, both New York and the Federal Prison System established compulsory courses for functionally illiterate inmates, who were estimated to comprise fully one-third of the prison population in 1948. Some of the most substantial progress in the significant decade of the thirties occurred when state correctional facilities established working relationships with state education departments. In 1932, Wisconsin State Prison began a full-time program under the tutelage of the State University system.<sup>26</sup>

Today, in New York, the State accredits the school facilities within the correctional institutions, provides examinations, licenses teachers, and awards certificates for vocational and academic achievement

at both the high school and college level. At present, education programs have obtained a limited degree of sophistication through imaginative innovations such as programmed and unit instruction, self-instruction methods, operant reinforcement techniques, audio-visual aids, and computer programming.

One of the most important influences to affect the philosophy of correctional education since the thirties was the concept of "socialization" as raised in the 1933 report of the Englehardt Commission and later codified as an amendment to the Correction Law of New York State: "The objective of prison education in its broadest sense should be the socialization of the inmates through varied impressional and expressional activities, with emphasis on individual inmate needs."<sup>27</sup>

This emphasis on development of the individual as a total personality and attempts to transform anti-social values and attitudes into a socially viable frame of reference owe much to the scientific development of sociological and psychological theories. These behavioral sciences have focused needed attention on social structures and conditions so that, more recently, there has developed an emphasis on prisoner self-realization and the need to educate the individual in the context of lawful social relationships. "The serious business of adjusting to the demands of society, the ability of self-direction, and the knowledge that each individual has the potential of directing his own behavior is extremely important to all of us, and especially to the offender."<sup>28</sup>

The released inmate's adjustment to the community can only be realized through a broad-based system of individualized instruction which

emphasizes the experiences, needs, capabilities, and desires of each offender. Correctional education deals today not with a lack of opportunity for education in the free public school system, but a loss of orientation as to what that education might achieve, in spite of the notorious social and economic roadblocks which abound. The growing rationale is that skills and knowledge obtained through individualized treatment will enhance internalization of, conformance to, and success with society's values.

In spite of this on-going development in the purposes and means of correctional education itself, there remains the eternal conflict with prison security and the historical sympathy toward punishment as the more proper avenue of deterrence:

"Even our modern prison is proceeding on a rather uncertain course because its administration is necessarily a series of compromises. On the one hand, prisons are expected to punish; on the other, they are supposed to reform. They are expected to discipline rigorously at the same time they teach self-reliance. They are built to be operated like vast impersonal machines, yet they are expected to fit men to live normal community lives. They operate in accordance with a fixed autocratic routine, yet they are expected to develop individual initiative. All too often restrictive laws force prisoners into idleness despite the fact that one of their primary objectives is to teach men how to earn an honest living. They refuse the prisoner a voice in self-government, but they expect him to become a thinking citizen in a democratic society. To some, prisons are nothing but country clubs catering to the whims and fancies of the inmates. To others the prison atmosphere seems charged only with bitterness, rancor, and an all-pervading sense of defeat. And, so the whole paradoxical scheme continues, because our ideas and views regarding the function of correctional institutions in our society are confused, fuzzy, and nebulous."<sup>29</sup>

Though the concept of institutionalized education and vocational training now receives sympathy in many parts of the criminal justice system, appropriation of funds and implementation of the programs proceed at an almost invisible pace, with the exception of a few publicized, highly experimental efforts -- the results of which are usually a subject of unrestrained debate.

The 1968 survey of college-level instruction by Adams found that 36 of the state's prison systems provided some sort of opportunity for academic work; but, only about 3,000 of the resident populations, or slightly more than one percent were actually involved.<sup>30</sup> Though Colvin estimates the number of institutions offering instruction to have increased to 80 percent of their total,<sup>31</sup> it still seems evident that the prevalency of college-level education remains superficial at best. Laying aside for a moment definitional problems, an estimated 20-50 percent of the inmates in most state and federal institutions could be considered participating in educational rehabilitation from the primary to post-secondary levels.<sup>32</sup> Local jails fare much worse, an estimated 90 percent have no educational facilities of any nature.<sup>33</sup>

Notwithstanding such dismal statistics, a variety of pioneering and experimental projects are under way. Leading the way through the Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962, the federal government has sponsored the Draper Correctional Center project dealing with intensive educational and vocational training for youthful offenders.

The Robert F. Kennedy Youth Center at Morgantown, West Virginia uses the concept of "skill clusters" to provide a curriculum offering aerospace,

electronics, and graphic arts. Under a grant from the U. S. Office of Education, the Education Research and Development Center of the University of Hawaii is training over a four-year period some 1,700 persons in the development and supervision of Adult Basic Education (ABE) programs.

Perhaps the most publicized program is Project Newgate, funded by the Office of Educational Opportunity. Begun in 1967 and now in operation at a total of six institutions, the projects are attempting to demonstrate the feasibility of post-secondary education in the rehabilitation of inmates through a full-time program encompassing pre-release counseling, intensive education, and a post-release program of guidance and therapeutic support. In New York, approximately thirty percent of the 14,000 prisoners in 20 institutions receive educational and vocational training -- Auburn reputedly offering one of the "best" general programs. New York's Adirondack Correctional Treatment and Evaluation Center at Dannemora gives some 300 inmates individual attention through a reward-non-reward behavior-modification type system.<sup>34</sup>

In spite of all this experimental work being accomplished and the potential for rehabilitation hopefully being established, "...the stigma of a criminal record handicaps a larger number of those (inmates) getting out."<sup>35</sup> The inmate perception of this formidable problem is borne out in a number of studies:

...20 percent of all counties and cities exclude persons for specific criminal offenses (from employment)  
...40 percent of 983 (private business) firms were reluctant to hire ex-offenders, and another 28 percent would hire them for specific jobs only...<sup>36</sup>

Without even discussing what the actuality of statistics such as this may do to inmate attitudinal and motivational levels, it is obvious that obstacles such as these can but negate the promising results of the experimental projects described above.

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CHAPTER THREE

PRISONER EDUCATION TODAY

by Donald M. Stoughton and Michael V. Reagen

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### PRISONER EDUCATION TODAY

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#### I. BACKGROUND AND SCOPE OF STUDY

American prisons are in deep trouble. They are pressure cookers fraught with every societal distress, raised, as always in a prison, to the 10th power. One of the cards in the deck prison officials deal to those in custody is education. But, inmate education stands as a social pariah of the correctional system. Politicians and professionals continually pay it lip service as a means to change the attitudes of errant institutionalized residents throughout the world. And, like other components of correctional institutions, education lacks funds and trained educators. More than one would like to admit, hostile and resentful correctional personnel handicap and frustrate the educational effort.

Consider just six statistics:

1. Unofficial estimates by U. S. Bureau of Prison Officials indicate between 20-50% of the approximately half-million adults incarcerated in American federal and state prisons can neither read nor write.
2. In a majority of American institutions, at least 50% of those in custody over 18 years of age have less than an eight grade education.

3. In some facilities for youthful offenders, as many as 80% of the youngsters incarcerated are illiterate.

4. There is no professional educational association for the approximately 920 full-time educators of inmates.

5. There is a general dearth of reports on empirical studies of correctional education. For example, between 1940-1968, only six doctoral dissertations focus on the subject.

Preliminary work by staff at the Syracuse University Research Corporation (SURC) indicates that several studies have been conducted on specific aspects of prison education. SURC's analysis of the literature suggests that a sizable variety of programs, projects, and courses are underway in a number of penal institutions which have not been publicized. But, it is also clear that a descriptive overview of correctional education in the U. S. does not now exist.

On January 29, 1973, at the suggestion of The Ford Foundation, SURC proposed to conduct a descriptive yet analytical overview of prisoner education programs in the country. The purpose of the study was to: (1) provide answers to basic questions concerning prisoner educational programs, (2) suggest alternative ways of improving and expanding current programs, (3) discuss how the prison system impacts on prisoner education, and (4) uncover for The Foundation crucial topics for further exploration and development.

Specifically, SURC's staff proposed to: (1) gather and review published documents on current programs, (2) make on-site visits at 20 institutions distinguished by the uniqueness and excellence of their

programs, (3) conduct interviews with cluster samples of prisoners, ex-convicts, correctional officers and wardens, (4) survey the opinions of the directors of research for the State Correctional Departments on the state of current programs and how they can be improved, (5) solicit similar opinions from sheriffs who are responsible for maintaining jails and penitentiaries, and (6) synthesize and analyze these data.

SURC proposed that the emphasis in the study be placed on the following areas of inquiry:

1. A comprehensive literature research, bibliographical compilation, and the development of primary data with particular emphasis on the past two years.
2. A descriptive overview of the types of educational programs available -- high school equivalency, college level, technical or vocational training, etc., and percentage of prison population participating in each.
3. An examination of specific aspects of the available programs -- method, time, and location of delivery (correspondence, classroom, TV, study/furlough), funding and sponsorship (in what amount and by whom), pertinent characteristics of participants (race, age, sex, level of pre-enrollment academic achievement, perceived purposes), and criteria employed to determine inmate qualification for enrollment.
4. An evaluation of types of educational programs with particular emphasis on philosophy and purpose underlying them (from both inmate and correctional viewpoint) their educational effectiveness, and their impact -- where measurable -- on recidivism rate.

An analysis of both primary and secondary data to isolate common denominators contributing to "successful" versus "unsuccessful" programs given their distinctive purposes and means, and make recommendations for programmatic modification or expansion by taking into account both favorable and dysfunctional impact on prisoner life.

On March 15, 1973, The Foundation approved SURC's proposal and the study began. SURC staff from The Justice Studies Group was divided into two research teams, one focusing on site visitations to a representative cross-section of American correctional institutions, the second searching, retrieving and analyzing books, manuscripts, previous research studies (published and unpublished), periodicals and other publications.

## II. THE RESULTS

### A. Introduction:

Any study of this nature immediately faces two problems: access to the data and definitional dilemmas.

Each state has its own prison system separate from the federal and military systems. Jails and penitentiaries are usually on a county or regional level. Intersystem communication is often fragmented, infrequent, and informal. Consequently, access to and retrieval of information from the correctional system is typically a problem in projects of this type. SURC sought and gained the assistance of the following organizations and associations to circumvent as much of the bureaucratic constraints as possible on its data collection activities: The National

Council on Crime and Delinquency, The National Prisoners' Alliance, The American Correctional Association, and The National Accrediting Association of American Correspondence Schools, among others. Contacts by SURC researchers were made on a personal basis with executives of these organizations to explain the project and enlist support. Access to and the involvement of over 350 resource persons from the Criminal Justice System resulted from the cooperation of these organizations. (See Appendix for list of resource people.)

It was obvious at the outset of the study that a wide variety of definitions cloud the field of corrections. Common words which appear to need no explanation obviously have different meaning to different people in various sections of the country. Across the nation, terms such as "jail," "prison," "workhouse," "penitentiary," "detention facility," "institution," "correctional center," "reformatory," "penal farm," among others, often mean different things and indicate a variety of philosophical approaches to incarceration.

There also exists several terms for describing those who are incarcerated and those who incarcerate. "Inmate," "prisoner," "convict," "offender," "citizen," and "resident" are common terms for those incarcerated. "Correctional officer," "turnkey," "jailer," "guard," "deputy," "warden," "superintendent," "director," "city sargeant," "sheriff," "commissioner," are also popular terms for those who run institutions. Compounding the researcher's dilemma is the popular use of a vast array of vulgar terms that are operative on both sides of the bars.



For the purpose of SURC's study, the term "prison" was used to identify any institution where people are incarcerated (either pre- or post-adjudication) for crimes committed within local, state, or federal jurisdictions. The term "prisoner" is used to identify those incarcerated. Wherever possible, SURC staff attempted to use the correct term for the system or institution studied to identify those who run prisons. These definitions were adhered to during SURC's review of over 350 documents, books, articles, unpublished manuscripts and publications, and during the personal interviews conducted by SURC staff with prison educators and administrators at 55 locations in 27 states across the country

B. Where Did We Go?

SURC staff made on-site visitations to 55 institutions and systems in 27 states. Figure 1 illustrates the percentage breakdown of the places visited which include federal, local and state jurisdictions and represent a representative cross-section of the American prison system.

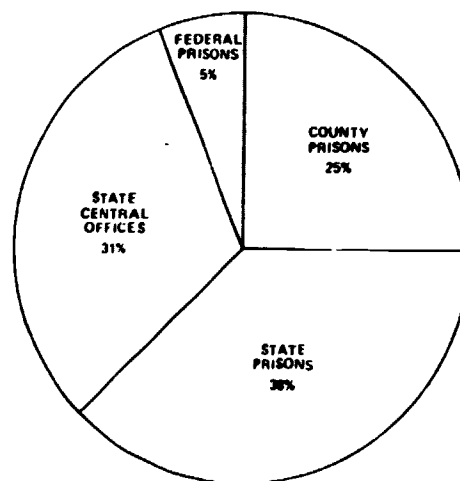


Figure 1  
Breakdown of Places Visited

SURC staff attempted to focus on the larger prisons or prison systems in this study. Some prisons and systems were consciously omitted due to time and financial constraints. The prisons or prison systems visited were selected on the basis of: (1) the size of their adult male and/or female prisoner population (on a daily basis), (2) their geographical location (West, Southwest, Rocky Mountain Mid-West, Deep South, Southeast, Middle Atlantic, and Northeast Regional), (3) jurisdiction (local, state and federal), and (4) perceived levels of educational programming as evidenced by published reports and recommendations from resource people.

In addition to prisons visited, SURC staff visited 17 state central offices. The offices visited were those that held state-wide jurisdiction over their prison systems, where chief executives set and administered basic policy.

C. When Did We Go?

On-site visits were made during April and May 1973. In the majority of instances, SURC staff were able to observe the functioning of educational programs and the regular, working weekday operations of the institutions. "Site visitations" is the proper term for the staff observations because an average of three hours was spent at each location. Obviously, only a quick overview can be made in such a short period of time. In most cases, the prison or central office staff was prepared to receive the SURC researchers and to provide them with both access to information and to individuals to interview.

D. To Whom Did We Speak?

1. Central Offices: At each state central office, SURC researchers first met with the state commissioners. Typically, SURC staff

then met and interviewed the person with state-wide responsibility for prisoner educational programs. Often, other central staff members whose work impacted on prisoner educational programs were also interviewed. Several states do not have any one at the state level responsible for prisoner educational programs. In these states, programs are developed at the individual prison level and there is no central coordination.

Typically, the state-wide directors or commissioners for the prison systems are professional people who hold at least a bachelor's degree and have experience in corrections. Usually, their academic background is in the social sciences. Most of these men and women indicated they are oriented towards "treatment and rehabilitation" in contrast to "custody and control." Most hold appointed positions for which there are no mandated, professional criteria. The average age is 50 and, because they are political appointees, their average tenure in office is three years.

Most hold cabinet or department head status and report directly to the governor. In some states, the prison system is a branch of a department which serves the state as a consolidated or umbrella agency called "Human Services," "Environment, Human Health and Safety," or "Social and Health Care Services." In these instances, the executive officers working under this administrative structure, directly compete with the other service agencies in the department for funds and freedom to change, grow, and improve prison life.

The educational directors at the state central offices are almost all qualified people with educational backgrounds who said they

are more interested in "treatment and rehabilitation" than in "custody and control." Their average age is 35. Only a few hold civil service or merit-rated positions. All are enthusiastic about their programs and mission. Their tenure in office is an average of two years. Most have no background in corrections and evidence little appreciation or understanding of prison management and prison life problems. Usually, their staff is very small. Typically, they say they have little status in their departments. Almost all said prisoner education ranks low on department's order or priorities. All of the educational directors said they are responsible for "prisoner education" throughout the state. But, after careful questioning, it is obvious they exercise varying degrees of power and coordination over their programs. Several said the philosophy of "rehabilitation and treatment" which they hold differs sharply with the department's real goals and practices of custody and control.

2. State Prisons: At the state prisons, SURC staff met with an almost equal number of wardens, superintendents, and educational directors or coordinators. The wardens have overall responsibility for everything that takes place inside the prison. Most wardens "came up through the ranks." While the position of warden often requires a college degree plus experience, most of the states have no formal, mandated standards or professional criteria for the position of warden. All the wardens interviewed were political appointees. Most are over 45 years of age. Most have inherited staffs which consist of career, custodial personnel. Many of the wardens have held their positions for several years or have been in the state system at other prisons.

The educational directors or coordinators at the state prisons visited by SURC staff were generally young. Most had been graduated about two years prior to assuming their duties at the prison. The majority have taught after college graduation at either public schools or at junior colleges. Their college training was typically in liberal arts, social science, vocational education or physical education. Few had any prior experience or training in corrections. SURC staff observed that they looked, acted, and were perceived by other prison personnel as "school teacher types," i.e., they behaved and dressed differently than the majority of the prison staff. While all were responsible to the warden for the prisoner education programs in their prisons, many are clearly isolated from the mainstream of prison life. Their staff are small and appear to be weakly organized. Most were perceived as having low status in the prison hierarchy by the wardens, guards, and prisoners SURC interviewed. Many expressed frustration at having a "treatment and rehabilitation" philosophy in conflict with the predominant "custody and control" philosophy and policy of the prison staff.

3. Federal Prisons: The educational coordinators with whom SURC staff met at federal prisons differed considerably from their counterparts at state prisons. Most are older men (in their late 30s) who have been in the federal prison system for several years. Usually, their academic backgrounds go beyond the bachelor's degree and emphasize vocational education. All hold Federal Civil Service status and viewed themselves as careerists with opportunities for professional advancement within the federal prison system. Most are nominally responsible to

the warden for their programs and "run their own show." They seem to enjoy staff support from Washington and other members of the prison staff. Clearly, these men are more "custody and control" oriented than their colleagues in the state prisons. They also deal with a prisoner population markedly different than those of state prisons.

4. County Prisons: At the local or county level, SURC staff met with sheriffs, commissioners or directors of prisons. In a few rare cases, educational directors were also interviewed. In most local prisons, there are no educational specialists nor formal educational programs.

Sheriffs, of course, are elected officials. Rarely are there professional criteria for holding the position of sheriff. As a result, there was a wide range of backgrounds, tenures and orientations in the group of sheriff's included in this study. Most, however, are over 40 years of age. While a few are college graduates, none have a degree in education. The prisons they run are distinct in purpose, scope, and, usually, size from the federal and state prisons.

Where educational directors or coordinators exist at the local level, they range in status and background from professional, experienced teachers, to former guards, to paraprofessionals, to volunteers. A few have teaching credentials, but the most have no professional teaching experience. All report directly to the sheriff or commissioner and are generally responsible for embryonic prisoner educational programs. Most have small (if any) staffs and are viewed with either scorn or curiosity by the guards and administration of the prisons. Almost all were employed during the past year.

E. What Did We See?

1. State Central Offices: The purpose, scope of services and operation of state central prisoner education staffs vary widely from state to state. Most of the states have central administrative offices in modern facilities at state capitols. The amount of space occupied by central educational staff, of course, depends upon the size of the state prison system and on the priority given to prisoner education within that system. No correlation could be made between advanced prisoner education programs and central office facilities.

2. State Prisons: The style, type, and models of grounds, buildings, and physical facilities varied widely across the 21 state prisons SURC staff visited in this study. (See Figure 2 .) Sixteen were maximum security prisons located in remote sections of the state where they provided a major source of employment in the area. Typically, these prisons are the largest in the system and hold the most prisoners. These were designed in the late 1800s and built after the "Auburn Model" (i.e., high walls with fixed gun towers, cell blocks in tiers forming a ring or hollow square around a central yard often divided into sections). Usually, the cell occupancy ranges from one to four men. Relative to multiple cell occupancy, SURC staff observed that prisoners were not segregated based on age, crime, or deviancy. The way to get a single cell status was: (1) conduct, (2) status as a prisoner, (3) length of time in the prison. Usually a few dormitories for special prisoners exist. But most of these prisons were obviously designed for security, custody, and control -- not treatment and rehabilitation -- of prisoners.

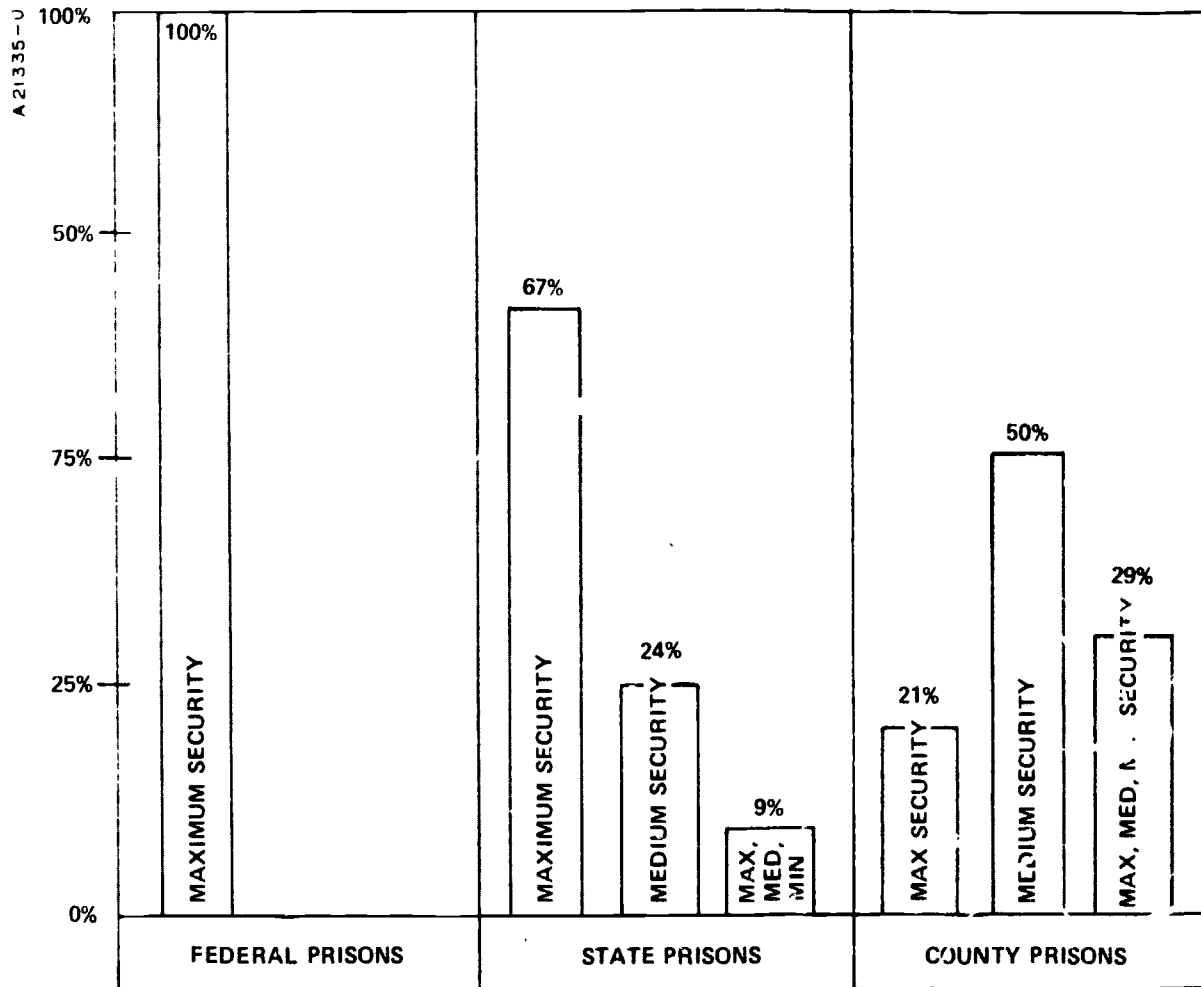


Figure 2

Maximum, Medium, and Minimum Security of Prisons Visited



Many in the West or Southwest were originally territorial prisons. Most are clean and well maintained. A smothering atmosphere of confinement and rigid institutionalization permeate all of these prisons. The average population range is 1000 to 3000 prisoners, most of whom work in factories and maintenance shops located within the prison walls. Because of the emphasis on "locking in and out" and the gun towers which are manned 24 hours a day, all these prisons require considerable numbers of guards to operate them. A variety of elaborate screening and controlling devices are used to limit the movement of prisoner, staff, and visitors. In one location, a key was lowered on a string by a guard on the wall to a SURC researcher. Another prison had a thirty yard space between a high chain fence separating the outside world from the main prison building. In the space, German Shepards roamed. The reason for the dogs was to keep people from breaking in to help prisoners break out.

In the South, maximum security prisons do not resemble the "Auburn Model." Instead, they are located on 10 to 20 thousand acres, having a main building for the central administration, a small heavily secure (maxi-maxi) to hold no more than 100 "violence prone" prisoners, and a series of "camps" or "outposts" sprinkled about on the several thousand acres, each holding 100 or so prisoners. There is very little traditional "prison industry" at this type of facility. Instead, the prisoners are engaged in farming and agriculture. (As one official put it, "...down here, cotton is king and soybean is queen.")

At the camps, the prisoners live in dormitory type dwellings, in groups of 30 to 50. There is no segregation or classification

regarding age, type of crime, or deviancy. All prisoners, other than the maxi-maxi confined and homosexuals who are put in one camp, are assigned on work details and live together in a dormitory.

The guard-to-prisoner ratio is considerably greater in this type of prison than it is in those built on the Auburn Model. As a result, in the South it is the practice that the prisoners help keep each other in line. In fact, in one prison visited by SURC staff, the only people armed were selected prisoners (shooters) placed in charge of other prisoners and held accountable for their actions.

At one location, a SURC staff member observed a road gang or "hoeing crew," as his guard escort explained. It appeared to be a scene right from the motion picture "Cool Hand Luke" -- male prisoners working in the field being overseen by an outrider on a horse. Close by was the "dogman," the prisoners who take care of the bloodhound dogs. The "dogman" keeps his dogs with him and assists the "outrider" in controlling the prisoners working in the field.

As one commissioner in a central office said of maximum security state prisons, "...a prison is a prison and, until we change the concept, little will be accomplished with treatment and rehabilitation."

Five of the state prisons visited during this study were medium security facilities and, in general, were smaller sized and held fewer prisoners than the maximum security prisons. In several of these medium security prisons, during the past few years, walls have been replaced with fencing and cellblocks have been transformed into dormitory style housing for prisoners.

The medium security prisons visited were removed from urban areas; in fact even more so than the larger maximum security facilities. These institutions are typically new, being built since the 1940s, the most recent being built three years ago. The physical layout of the medium security prisons consisted of a main building with several "out" buildings scattered over several acres. Prisoners are not confined in one or two block houses as they generally are in the maximum security prisons.

In many of the medium and minimum security prisons, prisoners are now being given their own room and in some cases a key for their own room. In fact, in a couple of the medium security prisons, if it were not for the fencing and barbed wire, the facilities would closely resemble a small college campus.

3. Federal Prisons: The federal prisons visited by SURC staff were all maximum security. They were patterned after the "Auburn Model," -- large high walls with gun towers looking down into a yard; cellblocks housing prisoners in one to four men cells with a few dormitories. There is an atmosphere of heavy security and confinement as you near a federal prison. The neat, "squared away" appearance of the grounds and buildings, the militaristic guard, neat and well-dressed, are foreboding. The federal prisons appeared to be more traditional, rigid, routinized and established. The prisoners are older than in the state prison systems. They appear to be more reserved and quiet. They do not appear to be as young and active as the state prisoners. The housing and accommodations for the guards and administrative staff at federal prisons are impressive. Several large, well-trimmed houses are

provided for staff. The landscaped grounds and shrubs are manicured and groomed almost daily by prison workers.

4. County Prisons: SURC staff visited 14 county prisons, as indicated in Figure 1 . Ninety percent of them were sheriffs' offices. Most of the sheriff's offices are located in county courthouses, which also serve as the location of the prison or jail for holding preadjudicated people. In some cases, post adjudicated prisoners are also incarcerated here. But, more frequently, there is a separated prison for sentenced prisoners at another location.

County prison facilities were by far the poorest prisons visited by the SURC staff. They were glaringly inferior to state and federal prisons in the following five areas:

- (1) The design of their physical structure (they are designed to merely hold prisoners in cell block areas).
- (2) Their limited (if any) procedures to physically segregate prisoners by age, crime, deviancy.
- (3) Their multiple cell occupancy. (In some cases as many as 40 men to a "tank.")
- (4) Their almost nonexistent programs for work, education, and recreation. Prisoners serve "dead time" in cells, exercise on "catwalks" or in hallways, on rooftops, or in basements.
- (5) Their severe overcrowding. Several county prisons house as many prisoners as are held at medium security state prisons, and sometimes 60% to 70% as many prisoners as are held at most state maximum security prisons. To give some idea, the Los Angeles County Sheriff's Department incarcerates on an average day, 10,000 prisoners, a population larger than the total of most state prison systems.

Twice SURC staff observed county prisoners being led to court. They were chained together in groups of 30 and led from the prison down a city street to the courthouse lobby. The procession tied up motor vehicle traffic and interfered with pedestrians. It resembled something akin to the large "snake dances" popular in the forties.

F. Educational Programs

SURC staff observed and were informed of the widest possible range and quality of imaginable prison education programs during this study. In some cases, a prison would have a reasonably full service program, while nearby, another prison would have barely any program at all.

Again, SURC staff encountered definitional dilemmas. "Education" means different things to different people, both inside and outside the American prison system. The SURC staff defined "education" for this study to mean academic and vocational schooling or training, recreational programs, work release, study release, "on-the-job training" (OJT), and "living skills" or social education. This definition includes anything a prisoner does or has the opportunity to do for reasons other than custody, control or maintenance of the institution (i.e., convict labor), with the exception of psychiatric or medical treatment.

1. Federal and State Prisons: SURC staff found that educational programs called for differentiated prisoner involvement from system to system and prison to prison, depending upon prisoners' varied interests, aptitudes and private schooling and the system constraints.

While education and training programs in the federal prison system are admittedly in a dynamic state of flux, educators and

other staff are trying to work as a team, to create an institutional tone that communicates to the inmate population that the purpose of the federal correctional system is not punishment but help. Highly individual programs of the Bureau of Prisons take into account different learning styles and individual preferences and talents. Programs range from basic literacy and entry level skill training to highly sophisticated and advanced programs.<sup>i</sup>

In some prisons or systems, prisoners participate in at least one, and often more than one, of the several formalized institutionalized school programs which include Adult Basic Education (see Appendix), High School Equivalency preparation, vocational training, community college or senior college courses and miscellaneous opportunities for personal enrichment and self-improvement. (See Figure 3.)

Most educational programming is "inside" the walls (see Figure 4 ). Some "off institutional grounds" programs were observed where, through study or work release or work furlough arrangements, prisoners who were classified as minimum security risks are given the chance to attend academic (primarily at the college level) vocational, or apprenticeship programs.

SURC staff found during its visits to prisons in the state and federal systems that most academic teachers held state teaching certificates and vocational instructors were certified by the various state education departments having jurisdiction over the prisons. The relationship between the state departments of education and the prison education programs varies with location. For example, one state's prison

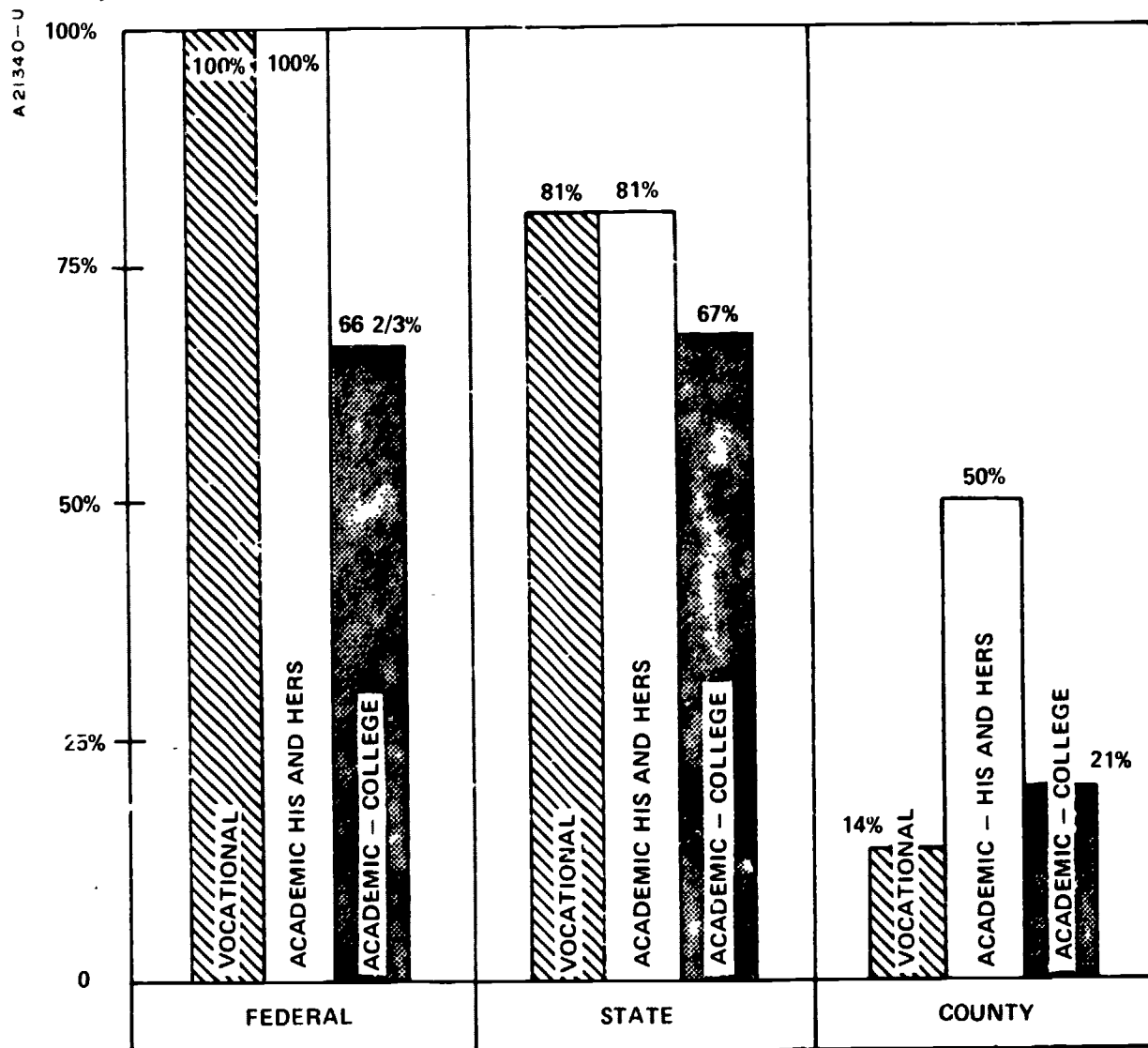


Figure 3

Prisons Offering Vocational Training, Academic Programs (High School and Less), Academic Programs (College)

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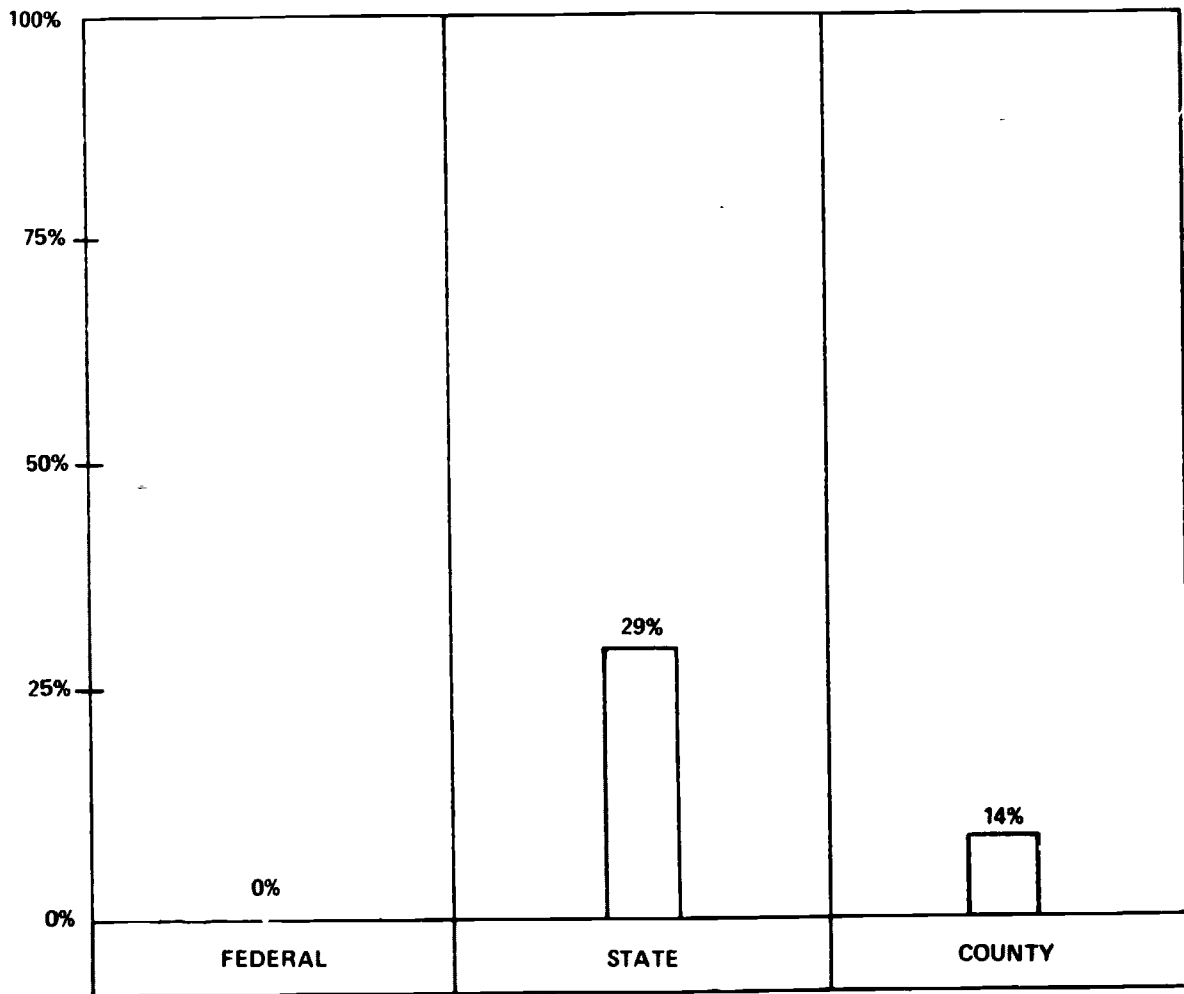


Figure 4

Inmates Attending School Outside Prison Walls



educational system is a designated school district (see Figure 5 ). Others contract with public or private agencies to provide both academic and vocational training courses. SURC staff found correctional educators greatly interested in the contract models for providing prison education. The feeling seemed to be that the contract model would do away with the needless duplication within the prison system of services and personnel already available in outside educational agencies.

The facilities, equipment and materials vary widely throughout the state and federal systems. Most consist of standard classrooms with some learning laboratories or carrels or areas for individualized instruction. Equipment consists of textbooks, programmed learning packets, filmstrips, motion pictures and, in some cases, audio and videocassettes. Almost all state and federal prisons visited had libraries, most with a legal section. Many had close ties with local public library systems to provide prisoners, upon request, with books and materials unavailable in the prison library. With the exception of materials which are obviously intended to incite riots or prompt violence, SURC staff found virtually no censorship of publications. A decade ago, for example, magazines like Playboy, Penthouse, Jet and Oui would never have been allowed in prisons. SURC staff found them readily available to prisoners at the institutions visited for this study.

2. County Prisons: SURC staff found county prisons to be almost totally lacking in academic or vocational educational programs. Although Figure 3 indicates half of the county prisons visited had academic programs, this finding must be put in perspective. In fact,

upon close scrutiny, with only a couple of exceptions, programs in county prisons consisted of two or three informal courses, not certified or for credit in the Adult Basic Education area. Most do not have libraries, although they do permit prisoners to receive outside publications. Most have virtually no physical facilities for programs to be conducted. There were two or three exceptions to this generalization where academic programs were comparable to state and federal programs, but these were rare. Vocational training and contract programs were nonexistent in all county prisons visited by SURC staff (Figure 5 ).

G. How Do Prisoners Participate?

Throughout all three systems (federal, state, and county), most participation in educational programs is voluntary. Where there are exceptions, prisoners whose skill and achievement levels are low enough to justify their classification as functional illiterates, are required to participate in the Adult Basic Education program for basic reading, math, and English skill building.

1. State and Federal Prisons: In the state and federal prisons visited, SURC staff observed some reception processing and involved diagnostic testing and classification of prisoners entering the system. Obviously, all states do not have a central reception center. Where a central reception center does exist, a "prisoner profile" is often made and prisoners are oriented to the system's rules and regulations. Usually, the "prisoner profile," SURC was told and in some instances observed, is primitive. It is typically based on the prisoner's articulated perceptions of what he has done or can do, plus scores from

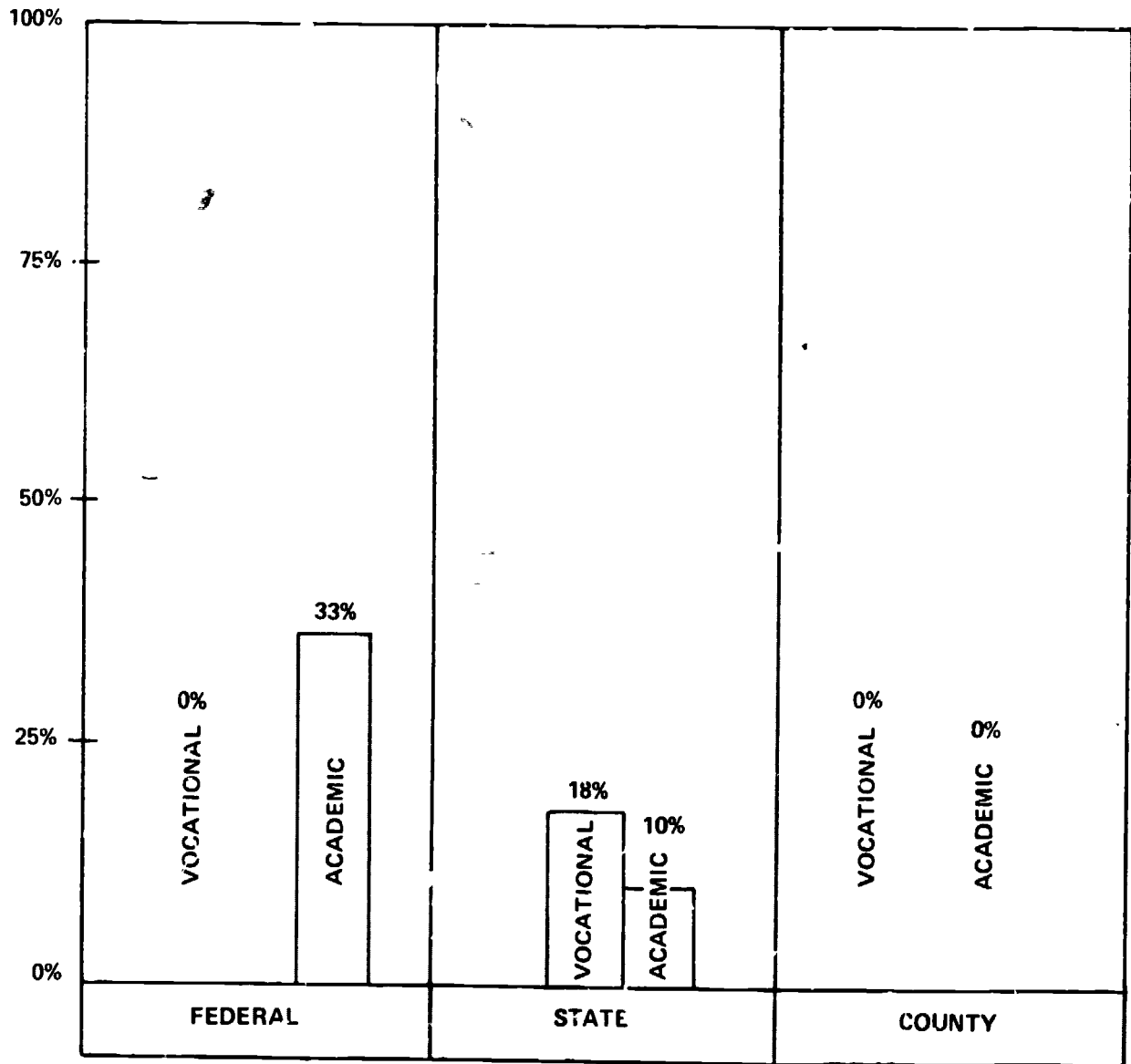


Figure 5

Prisons Contracting With Local School Districts or Junior Colleges to Provide Educational Programming in Academic and Vocational Training

standard achievement tests. Rarely does any sophisticated testing or in-depth analysis of the prisoner's educational strengths or weaknesses, his record, family background and personality take place.

In those prison systems where education is emphasized, the prisoner is tested again once he is assigned to a prison. This testing is usually done by the prison staff. SURC found that most prison staffs had very little faith in the data from the central reception centers. Several said they could get little "decent data" on the prisoners from the central reception centers. They also said most prisoners were not assigned to their prison based on the prisoner's needs. Rather, prisoners were most often assigned to the prison based on the prison's needs, i.e., the prison's need for a plumber, a good field hand, a cook, and so forth.

Several wardens told humorous, yet tragic, stories about receiving inaccurate or incorrect data from central reception centers on prisoners sent to them. One warden had made an arrangement with a local industry to provide work release for thirty prisoners. The program included a heavy instructional component for the prisoners and the assurance by the company that, once the prisoners were ready for parole and familiar with the job, the company would hire them. The warden asked the staff at the central classification center for the names and backgrounds and status of thirty men from his 1800 population. He received the data but found to his chagrin that: (1) over half of the men on the list from the classification center had sentences of "life plus", and (2) several lacked the educational requirements needed for the job. His discovery was based on his recognition of the names of the men on the list.

Disgusted, he made up his own list, interviewed the prisoners involved, got an educational psychologist to volunteer to test the men, and got the program underway.

Once the prisoner is tested at the prison, the staff gets a "general feel" for the needs and level of accomplishment of the prisoners. Prisoners are then given an opportunity to select the program they want to take, as tempered by the prisoner's sentence, security requirements, needs, and the staff's perception of the prisoner's ability to succeed in the particular program. Counselors exist in most state and federal prisons, but their ratio-to-prisoner population is staggering. As a result, they usually play a minor role (if any) in the placement of prisoners in programs. Most often, they function to help prisoners cope with programs to which they are already assigned. Only in rare cases did SURC staff see prisoners actually assigned to a particular prison based on their actual educational needs. Most assignments are based on the need of the system or prison. Prison industry work or maintenance comes first. Available bed space is a prime consideration.

However, examples of excellent diagnosis, tracking, and evaluation of prisoners entering systems do exist. Some are still experimental and related directly to specific programs.

The findings are often valuable. For example, the Student-Tutor Education Project (STEP)<sup>2</sup> is an experiment in education conducted in the Massachusetts prisons. The project seeks to identify inmates of intellectual potential, regardless of previous scholastic achievement, to whom it then offers a program of study in the humanities, including

credit courses, with the purpose of preparing them to continue their education upon release or to assume occupational roles satisfying to themselves and valuable to the community. The students are taught by tutors certified by Northeastern University College, but employed full-time by STEP. The curriculum is designed by the college, and the program runs year around for twelve-week terms separated by intersessions of one week. Participation in the program is voluntary and students are paid 25¢ per day. The groups of students at both Walpole and Norfolk prisons are composed of 13 to 15 inmates, the limit imposed by prison officials. Thus far only nine men who participated in the program have been released from prison. Three of them have disappeared; the satisfactory re-integration of the other six looks promising.

Also, a study was conducted at the Augusta Youth Development Center<sup>3</sup> to evaluate the effects of the institution's treatment and education program on the center's inmates. On admission, all inmates were given the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children and the California Test of Personality. The test was also given prior to release and the results were compared. The study sample consisted predominantly of Negro males and included a total of 117 inmates. The average age at admission was 13 years, 9 months, and at departure 14 years, 2 months. The average length of stay was 5.9 months. Those in the sample showed significant improvement on both the I.Q. and personality tests and it was concluded that the inmates do profit from their stay at the center.

Many things within the prison system restrict or prohibit educational programming. Prisoners are paid to work in industry or

agriculture, with some rare exceptions, receiving little or no financial remuneration for schooling.

In one section of the country, a state prison had a well attended and reasonably good vocational program. Following a natural disaster, a flood, the state gave large amounts of "good time" to any prisoner who would work in the emergency relief. Teachers saw their shops and classrooms abandoned by men seizing an opportunity to save time from their sentences. There are repeated examples of similar incidents that indicate the intangible rewards of educational programs are not realized or taken advantage of by men who have a history of seeking immediate gratification of perceived needs.

Tracking of a prisoner, following his progress, and evaluating his growth and development while in prison is, for all practical purposes, non-existent. For the most part, prisoners participate in educational programs because they want to do what they want and because of the forceful personality of given teachers or instructors, the "Superman" and "Superwoman" in correctional education. The incentives, the punishments and rewards of the prison and system are heavily weighted against the prisoner participating in educational programs.

2. County Prisons: Prisoners in county or local prisons are offered so little and must overcome such great obstacles that anyone who participates in an education program would have to be considered a strong, self-motivated "achiever." SURC staff saw virtually no classification process in county prisons that gave any meaningful data on achievement levels or needs of their population, with a couple of exceptions where

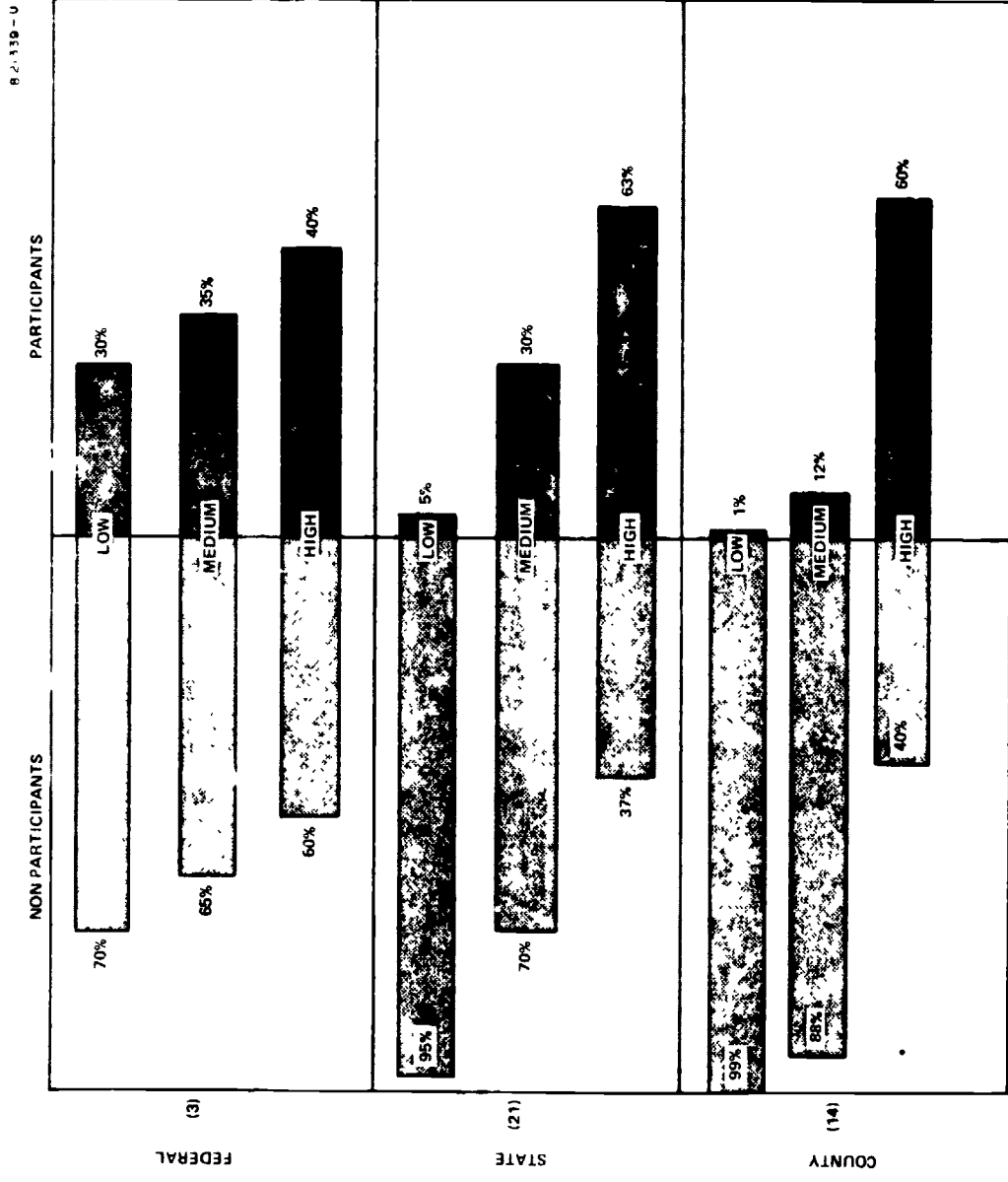
individual "Superman Teachers" were trying to find out what kind of prisoners they had and what they could offer them. Where there were any programs offered, participation was always voluntary, the programs were viewed with amused indifference by most of the prison staff and the inmates were considered troublesome curiosities. No tracking of prisoner evaluation of prisoner education programs, assessment or classification of prisoners based on educational skills or needs were noted by SURC staff at local and county prisons.

#### H. Who Participates?

SURC staff found wide ranges of participation in educational programs throughout the federal, state and county prisons visited (see Figure 6). Twenty-nine percent of the prisoners in state prisons and 35% of the prisoners in the federal prisons visited participated in some form of educational programs. In the county prison, only 12% of the prisoners participated (see Figure 6). Insufficient data are available from the prisons to draw any hard conclusions about prisoner participation. This is because prisons place so little emphasis on prisoner education that few records are kept on participation. Those records which are kept and the data drawn from them are viewed with a jaundiced eye by SURC staff. But, the feeling of most prison education staff and prisoners interviewed indicates it is the younger prisoners who participate in both academic and vocational training; with larger percentages of blacks proportionately participating in academic programs.

It is obvious the majority of prisoners do not participate in educational programs. There are a variety of reasons for this, including





\* ONLY 5 OF 14 PRISONS REPORTED ANY FIGURES  
 5 HAVE NO EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMS AT ALL  
 4 HAVE VOLUNTEER AND SPOTTY PROGRAMS WITH NO STATISTICS AVAILABLE

Figure 6

Range of Inmate Population that Participate in Education Programs of 38 Prisons Visited

time, space, programs available, low self-esteem, limited skills, restricted entries into many programs, and peer pressures, among others.

Because of limited data, it is difficult to say who participates in what programs and why, who doesn't and why not. But, it does appear similar to public education, only multiplied to the 10th power, that the very few who are self-motivated participate and gain something while the majority become further alienated from traditional values, becoming further sophisticated in antisocial behavior and values.

### III. THE USES OF TECHNOLOGY IN PRISON EDUCATION

SURC researchers reviewed 350 documents, books, articles and unpublished manuscripts and publications and conducted personal interviews with prison educators and administrators at 55 locations across the country to gather data to analyze for this report. (See Appendix.) The SURC staff made it a point during its research to focus on the use of technology in prisoner education. This was because in the 1960s, The Foundation made -- through its Comprehensive School Improvement Program (CSIP) -- a substantial investment in helping to demonstrate the impact of the development and use of several types of instructional technology and materials on public education. The results, of course, were mixed.<sup>4</sup> But at the outset of this project, The Foundation staff made it clear that the use in prisoner education of slides, filmstrips, audio and video cassettes, film, television (broadcast and cable), programmed instruction, computer assisted instruction and other special materials, machines and techniques was of special interest to The Foundation.

The task assigned to SURC by The Foundation was not an easy one to accomplish. There are a considerable number of definitions of the term "instructional technology" as used by prison educators. To the majority, instructional technology refers to hardware. To many it means the systematic application of scientific principles to problems. To a minority of correctional educators, administrators -- and to the SURC staff -- it means the creative use of both hardware and software in teaching.

Four facts emerged during SURCs site visitations, personal interviews and literature analysis:

1. There are seemingly an infinite variety of ways in which technology can be utilized for academic and vocational instruction in correctional settings.

In research for this report and in preparation of a recent proposal to The Foundation,<sup>5</sup> SURC used a cross-impact matrix which contrasted eight educational media with twenty-two criteria and eighteen ingredients. (See Figure 7). The criteria and ingredients on the matrix are applicable to almost all educational situations. Several criteria (information intensity, individualized, self-paced experimental, referential, replicable, etc.), are especially important in the correctional education because of inmates and the prison environment. But, prerequisites of their use include things which are generally scarce in the majority of prison education programs: time, money, clearcut instructional objectives, and, of course, skillful and creative teachers.

One of the major problems revealed in the visits of SURC researchers to the prisons studied in this project was stated in terms of

# Educational Media

CRITERIA	Teacher	Slides/ Strip Film	Audio- cassette	Film and Television (Broadcast and Cable)	Programmed Instruction	Computer Assisted Instruction	Books	Video cassette
Fixed Location	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	No	Yes	No
Fixed Time	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	No	Yes	No
Fixed Duration	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No	No	Yes	No
Fixed Length	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	No	Yes	No
Fixed Environment	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No	No	Yes	No
Fixed Teacher/Student	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	No	Yes	No
Fixed Sequence	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No
Fixed Access	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No
Information Intense	No	No	No	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
Portability/Storage	No	No	No	No	No	No	Yes	No
Indexed	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes	No
Self-paced	No	No	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	No
Referential	No	No	No	No	No	No	Yes	No
Creation/Costs	Low	Low	Low	High	Medium	High	Yes	Medium
Revision Costs	Low	Low	Low	High	High	High	Yes	Medium
Overall Effectiveness	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes

INGREDIENTS	Teacher	Slides/ Strip Film	Audio- cassette	Film and Television (Broadcast and Cable)	Programmed Instruction	Computer Assisted Instruction	Books	Video cassette
Text	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Words	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Form	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Experience								
Hear	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
See	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
Touch	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Question	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Discussion	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Data	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Opinion	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Graph	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Object (representation)	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Language	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes
Art	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes
Music	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes
Image	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Life	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes

Figure 7

getting skillful and creative teachers -- where they existed -- to take advantage of available resources and services for the improvement of instruction through educational media. There are several facets to this problem.

First, there is the problem of providing correctional educators with a functional knowledge of the existence of technological resources and services. A distinction is made here between a nominal and functional knowledge, because it is often the case that faculty members nominally know that resources exist.

Another facet to the problem is that mere knowledge of the existence of these resources is not enough; correctional educators must receive sufficient training in the fundamentals of instructional development.

A third aspect of the problem is the most troublesome. This is the need to create conditions and incentives which facilitate a teacher of prisoners to employ instructional innovations. It is one thing to know about the potential instructional advantages of cable TV, audio and video tapes and the like, but quite another to do the planning and development necessary to make optimum usage of them. This is particularly true in the prisons that have substantial prisoner education programs and where the typical teaching load is spread over an eight hour day or where part-time teachers are employed. It is difficult under these circumstances to both carry on day-to-day teaching and coaching responsibilities and, at the same time, be innovative in the use of technology.

The obvious solution to this is to give prison educators released time for course development. This is being tried at a few prisons or prison systems (Florida, for example), where individual instructors or groups of instructors are also encouraged to submit proposals for course development. If a proposal is accepted, released time and the necessary instructional resources will be allocated to allow the individuals submitting the proposal to implement the plan. Clearly, this sort of institutional commitment, backed by system support, is vital if full use of resources is to occur. It makes little sense to spend large sums of money on sophisticated hardware without a sufficient commitment to software development to make that hardware useful to the faculty as a whole. Otherwise, instructional innovation will continue to be done by the few individuals who, by virtue of desperation or accident, begin to take advantage of these resources despite other commitments.

Since the educational background of most instructors at prisons concentrates on their subject matter specialty, there is no reason to expect that they come to the job in possession of instructional development skills. The resultant instructional format is likely to involve a traditional lecture-discussion model. There is a need for faculty to be trained in alternatives, or dominant techniques will continue to prevail out of default rather than reasoned choice.

One solution to the above problems is for the institution to conduct workshops for teachers which acquaint them with available resources and which attempt to teach the fundamentals of instructional development and instructional media utilization. This can provide an

opportunity to bring in people from other institutions who have worked successfully with various technologies. In addition, instructors from within the prison system who have been innovators in instructional development can discuss their endeavors and provide potential models for others in similar disciplines. The Florida Correctional System has used this format and found a heightened interest in and commitment to the use of available instructional technology on the part of the teachers. But, Florida is atypical of most prison systems. Workshops where outsiders are brought in or where instructors from within the system share ideas and techniques on prison education are rare. As one warden told a SURC researcher, "...before Attica, even the wardens of the state's prisons never got together in one room to discuss mutual strengths and weaknesses, much less to tell about ways of helping each other."

2. Generally speaking, advances in instructional technology and the creative use of educational media in academic programs in schools outside prison have had a minimal impact on schools inside prison.

For example, in 1970, Zinn<sup>6</sup> specified three ways in which the computer can directly aid instruction: (1) tutoring (where the computer equivalent of programmed instruction, where the teacher, after having defined his objectives, programs his material as either a drill, a frame-by-frame lesson, or a dialogue allowing for interaction and initiative by the student); (2) simulation or games (where competition among learners and/or the computer is used to help students solve real or theoretical problems); and (3) Information Analysis (where use is made of the computer

to arrange, analyze, and present information). Increasingly, the computer is being used in educational programs outside of prison, especially, as Paul Elliot has pointed out,<sup>7</sup> on college campuses. But, as yet, the computer is not widely used in prison education. Although, as Roberts<sup>8</sup> points out, several courses exist to train inmates for work in the computer field -- e.g., IBM training for inmates at the National Training School for Boys in Washington, D. C., IBM keypunch operator training at the Westfield State Farm (New York State Womens Reformatory), The Montrose School for Girls at Reistertown, Maryland, computer operation, programming and data processing at the United States Penitentiary at Leavenworth, Kansas, and Atlanta, Georgia, The Missouri State Penitentiary at Jefferson City, Missouri, The New Jersey Reformatory for Males at Bordentown, The Indiana State Reformatory, and at the District of Columbia Youth Center at Lorton, Virginia, among others.

3. While there are a number of examples of the successful use of sight/sound/motion media in prisoner education at several institutions, little use is made of these educational media at the majority of American prisons, penitentiaries and almost no use at jails.

For example, the State Prison of Southern Michigan started using its own closed circuit educational television network in 1967. This is believed to be the first prison to do so in the nation. The network offers programs ranging from how to address a letter to college level mathematics. The network's Ampex videotape recorder makes it possible to spend a substantial amount of time preparing programs which



can be stored and played back to those students unable to attend the first sessions. Television, according to prison officials in Michigan, provides a wide range of benefits for inmates.<sup>9</sup>

Currently, according to Willard Kidder, Assistant Principal of the Prison School at the State Prison of Southern Michigan, the prison has a staff of two full-time team teachers, a cameraman, a technician, and a director who work out of four studios and broadcast six shows a day over two channels. The program includes credit courses for high school equivalency in American History, Geography, and Social Studies. Prisoners receive a credit per three week period for each course. At the end of a 15 week period, they receive five credits in the subject area towards high school graduation. William Barnes, director of the program, has even made an arrangement whereby educational programs are broadcast over radio within the prison to prisoners in maximum security confinement. The two-way communication between the prisoner and the teachers for testing and question and answer periods is used in both the television and radio educational programs.

One would think this innovation in prisoner education in Michigan would have had a profound impact on correctional education programs. This, however, does not seem to be the case. Authorities at the Southern Michigan prison have had few inquiries, have not publicized their program, and believe it to be the only one of its kind in the Nation.

At a number of the institutions visited by SURC staff, radio, television and film were used by the prison staff almost exclusively for the entertainment or diversion of inmates. Insufficient funds, minimal

manpower, bureaucratic red tape and lack of interest and knowledge in exploiting these media for instructional purposes appear to be the chief reasons for limiting their use to entertainment.

In several instances, prison authorities admitted that they had tried to use educational television and failed. SURC researchers came across several instances of these failures which involved a cooperative effort among prison educators and faculty from nearby colleges and universities.

"The courses (produced by a nearby community college) were a disaster," said one prison official. "They were just 'talking heads.' The inmates got bored and we had disciplinary problems."

Another prison official, a sheriff in charge of a county jail, could not convince his legislature that television could be used as an educational-informational medium. The sheriff had to resort to seeking donations of televisions from local businessmen and technical assistance from local repairmen in order to take advantage of local educational television programming.

In a few instances, teachers and correctional officers admitted they purposely discouraged the use of television, radio and motion pictures for even entertainment. One correctional officer, a captain, put it this way:

"TV was always a pain in the ass. The prisoners would always argue about which program to watch. Fights would break out. The noise volume was terrible. When the tubes burn out, I just shelve the damned sets."

4. Even at those institutions which use instructional media extensively, it almost always is one medium that is used as an adjunct to constant personal contact with teachers.

Consider the following examples of excellent programs:

-- Programmed Instruction (PI) is currently being used successfully in correctional institutions.<sup>10</sup> One of the earliest significant attempts to use PI in corrections was conducted at Draper Correctional Center in Alabama. Staff at Draper have experimented with developing a model basic education program in which PI is the primary instructional method. To obtain optimum results in basic education, four fundamental steps are employed in the systematic use of PI materials at Draper. They are: (1) diagnosis of learning deficiencies; (2) prescription of the specific materials which will correct these deficiencies; (3) management of the learning activities; and (4) evaluation of the trainees progress and the system itself.

-- Another early example of the use of PI was the CASE project at the National Training School for Boys. Reports from this project claim that students produced; they made substantial gains on academic achievement tests; and they were enthusiastic consumers of this form of education. Cook County Jail in Chicago has used an adaptation of the Draper model in its overall program. Seventy-three of the ninety-one correctional institutions who replied to a questionnaire sent out by Belcastro<sup>11</sup> reported the use of programmed instruction in basic education, vocational education, and related areas. Seventy percent reported their institutions to be experiencing success in the use of PI. Only three institutions reported that their PI had not been successful.

-- Programmed instruction and other self-instructional methods, along with operant reinforcement techniques, have been initiated at a number of institutions, two of the most successful being at the Robert F. Kennedy Federal Youth Center at Morgantown, West Virginia, and the Hawaii Youth Correctional Facility. Other highly imaginative innovations in educational media use and programmed instruction are to be found in the experiments in bibliotherapy at both Green Hill School in Chehalis, Washington, and the Wisconsin State Prison at Green Bay; the Great Books course at the Patuxent Institution for defective delinquents at Jessup, Maryland; the Readers' Circles at the Federal Penitentiary at Fort Leavenworth, Kansas; and a developmental reading and study skills course at the Arlington County Jail in Virginia.

Before an inmate can be rehabilitated, he must feel a sense of accomplishment and worth. Since the basic tool of rehabilitation has been education and since programmed instruction is education individualized for each inmate, it could be quite valuable in the rehabilitative process. It would be reasonable to assume programmed instruction would have universal appeal, that its success at Draper and other institutions would prompt other prison officials to also use it. But, that is not the case. Few of the prisons visited by SURC staff used programmed instruction in their educational programs. Those that did only involved a relatively small number of inmates in programs based on PI.

To determine the extent to which Canadian correctional institutions were using programmed instruction, Belcastro<sup>12</sup> conducted a survey of all correctional institutions in Canada and data were obtained from both users and non-users.

Of all the superintendents of Canadian correctional institutions, 69 percent (72 out of 104) responded, thus assuring moderate validity for the results. Of the 72 returns, 15 (or 21 percent) indicated that they used programmed instruction and 57 (or 79 percent) indicated they did not.

Sixty percent of the non-user institutions had not taken any steps to use programmed instruction and did not contemplate doing so. Further, 64 percent of all the correctional institutions answering this survey will not be using programmed instruction in the future.

-- In most of Florida's prison schools, the use of workbooks takes priority over traditional class texts, with programmed materials (both hardware and software) having been incorporated into the instruction. In addition, every institution has been quite successful in utilizing individualized reading programs, such as Science Research Associates (SRA) and Education Development Laboratory (EDL). Also, modern audiovisual teaching aids, such as movie projectors, overhead and opaque projectors, film strips, records, tapes, charts, and models which have been proven to be valuable in teaching the adult learner, are used extensively throughout the schools.<sup>13</sup>

-- Dr. John M. McKee, Director of the federally funded Rehabilitation Research Foundation at the Draper Correctional Center, has developed, with the assistance of his staff -- particularly his two social skills and prerelease instructors -- a study outline for what they call a program of "social rehabilitation." One of the primary objectives of the program is to improve the inmate's self-image. The program uses audiovisual aids and includes communications (speaking and listening,

reading and writing); personal management and personality development (good manners, grooming, managing money, scheduling time, principles of mental health, and developing self-confidence); intellectual habits (memory development, decision-making and problem-solving); social relations (human relations, citizenship, capitalist system, and supply and demand); laws affecting workers (Social Security, wage and hour laws, workman's compensation and tax laws); and current news events.

The special teaching methods employed in Draper's social rehabilitation program include group discussion, role-playing, guest speakers, audiovisual aids, demonstrations, explanations, question and answer reviews, workbooks, workshops, debates, lectures, panels, group therapy, individualized programmed instruction, and behavior modification principles.

-- Social education programs have been set up in correctional institutions by organizations external to corrections and many of these programs successfully use audiovisual aids. One example is the "Guide to Better Living Program" sponsored by the Stone-Brandel Foundation of Chicago. The basic aim of this program is to give an individual a positive mental attitude about his ability to perform actions that will result in meeting the goals he has set for himself. Recently, there has been increasing interest in prison college programs throughout the United States, several of which use audiovisual aids. Specific examples are the college project at the Illinois State Penitentiary, Menard, developed by Southern Illinois University; the extensive prison college at several of the Texas correctional institutions, beginning in 1965; the San Quentin prison

college project leading to a two year degree, which began in 1966, and was subsidized by a Ford Foundation Grant; the prison college program at the Oregon State Prison in Salem, beginning in 1967, and funded by the Office of Economic Opportunity; and the District of Columbia Youth Center and Correctional Complex college programs from which 32 college program parolees were attending Federal City College as of March 1970.

— Several innovative vocational training programs also show great promise and use educational media well. For instance, specific educational programs aimed at transmitting social skills and changing attitudes have been established in the United States Penitentiary at Terre Haute, Indiana, and Canada's federal institutions, under the administration of the Canadian Penitentiary Service at Ottawa, Canada.

In all of these successful programs, the key element is not educational technology; rather, it is the correctional teacher. In prison education, the teacher has a much bigger task than the ordinary teacher.<sup>14</sup> In addition to being familiar with the scientific foundations of education and the creative use of instructional technology, he must have a working knowledge of specialized areas such as crime and delinquency, vocational education, the culturally deprived child, the emotionally disturbed child, the mentally retarded child, the neurologically handicapped child, and the reluctant learner, because these will be his students. He must increase his understanding of educational theory and practice with relevant aspects of sociology and psychology. The educational needs of his pupils may be academic, social, vocational, psychological, and emotional. He must be part of a team, working with care -- parent,

caseworker, psychologist, chaplain, and others who are key people in institutional life. The same principles and methods that provide the best learning experience in a normal classroom apply more so in a classroom of a correctional institution where the teacher must aid in the rehabilitation process.

This is doubly difficult because in the classroom, prisoners can be truly "coartists." It takes special teachers to teach convicts. Prisoners live "day-to-day." They are concerned primarily with the present, not the future. Many are in prison because they sought immediate gratification of their desires. In the strained, discomforting and dehumanizing prison environment, their prime concern is to make the experience as bearable as possible. Prison is drab. It crushes life. Convicts try to "escape" anyway they can to hide from the stark, grubby realities of serving dead time. Prison classrooms compete with radio, books, television, films, sports as avenues of escape and "income" from the prison shops is usually far more important than learning. "Tomorrow will take care of itself." For education to play any role within the prison community, it must be available at times other than shop hours. Since cell blocks are impossibly noisy, quiet study time is precious.

When "push comes to shove," the instructor, "the man" must prove himself before prisoners will even listen to him, much less learn from him. Intimidation is always possible. Convicts cope by turning everything to their own advantage, be it "black power" or their own form of group therapy. Typically, teachers who survive do so on the strength of their personalities, not because of their training or



expertise. Successful prison courses are a function of the personalities of the instructors who can motivate reluctant learners in far from pleasant learning conditions. At this writing, society has not posited a reward system sufficient to attract and hold educators willing to be "supermen."

Inside and outside prison walls, there have always been a scarcity of "good teachers." Even if there were an abundance of good teachers, few prison or prison systems have sufficient funds to employ them. It is for this reason that SURC has proposed to The Foundation<sup>15</sup> that it sponsor a demonstration of the effectiveness of self-paced learning through videocassettes. The premise upon which the proposal is based is that videocassettes hold the potential of providing low cost, "information and experience intense," highly portable and flexible possibilities for making a major breakthrough in correctional education and, indeed, in the general area of continuing adult education. Most prisons in America will never make the investment of time, energy, or funds to replicate the experience of the authorities at the State Prison of Southern Michigan. Most prisons will never be able to capitalize on the successes of the many programs cited in this chapter, unless a new medium can be found to transport the essence of those successful prisoner education programs to them at low cost and in a format which is conducive to prison life. The videocassette promises to be a revolutionary medium which could have an enormously positive impact on prisoner education in this country. The medium, however, has not yet been demonstrated.

#### IV. LORTON AND SAN QUENTIN: TWO SHORT CASE STUDIES

Any study of this nature only touches upon the highlights. It typically lacks depth. It would be impossible to fully analyze the many successful examples of correctional educational programs or the vast majority of unsuccessful efforts in prisoner education. However, it is useful to examine two projects which have received national attention: The District of Columbia and the San Quentin programs.<sup>16</sup> The comments regarding both programs should be viewed as fragments of a case study, not a comprehensive or systematic account.

##### A. The District of Columbia Program.

The District of Columbia Department of Corrections operates a jail, for pre-trial detention, and four institutions for sentenced offenders. In Fiscal 1972, the jail had an average daily population of 1,175; the four institutions had an average daily population of 2,487.<sup>17</sup>

The jail has virtually no educational program; one staff member provides individual instruction, some classroom work, and conducts GED examinations for inmates who show an interest in this form of advancement.

The four "prisons" provide what might be regarded as a typical educational program for a progressive correctional system. The bulk of the program is provided at the Lorton Correctional Complex, which houses about 1,700 adult males. Another important part of the program is at the nearby Youth Center, with about 350 young males, 18 to 26 years old. The Minimum Security Facility, with about 250 short-term males, and the Woman's Detention Center, with about 100 females, have educational

programs that are less well developed than those in the two larger institutions.

1. Overall Program: A total of 106 courses, both academic and vocational, are taught in the four institutions. In 1972, 1,579 inmates participated in the educational program; this was more than double the 687 individuals (out of an average daily population of about 1,800) who enrolled in educational courses in Fiscal 1968.

Of the 1972 enrollment, 1,169 individuals were in 86 academic courses and 412 were in 20 vocational courses. During the year, 205 students completed the requirements for and received General Educational Development (GED) diplomas. The academic courses range from basic literacy and basic adult education to college courses.

2. College Program: The Lorton Prison College Project was developed by the department in conjunction with D. C. Federal City College in 1969. The program was funded during its first two quarters by the Department of Vocational Rehabilitation and the Sears Roebuck Foundation. For the next three academic years, funding was by the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration. In FY 1973, the program was incorporated in the regular departmental budget -- an easy process, since it had attracted favorable attention from both the District Government and Congress.

The program's primary objectives are to provide a meaningful education program for motivated, able inmates, and to develop individuals capable of leadership in the District's inner city.

All prison college enrollees are self-referred. Eligibility requirements include completion of high school or its equivalent, and being within two years of parole or term expiration.

The program consists of four phases: (a) Pre-college consists of three months of remedial or preparatory reading and mathematics, and counseling, within the institution; (b) Phase Two, the College Phase, consists of college class work within the institution. Credits at Federal City College are earned by satisfactory completion of work, primarily in freshman level courses. Students may choose from among the 16 or more courses offered per quarter and carry three or more courses. All courses are taught by FCC instructors, who commute to the prison from the parent college, 20 miles away. A list of course offerings in a recent quarter is as follows:

- Accounting
- Analytical Geometry
- Basic Computer Programming
- Biological Science, I and II
- Computer Concepts
- Economics, Macro and Micro
- Economic Problems of Black People
- Elements of Algebra
- Expository Writing
- History of Black America
- Introduction to Management
- Journalism
- Poverty Law
- Urban Social Institutions

In (c), the Busing Phase of the program, students are transported to the city for classes at the FCC campus. This usually occurs after completion of the equivalent of a freshman year at the prison. In this phase, students participate in regular classes and in other campus activities. They also engage in various community projects that have been developed by the project students, including inner city tutoring and counseling, working in drug treatment centers, and appearing in court with youngsters who may be released to the students under third-party custody arrangements.

In (d), the On-Campus Phase, students who have been transferred to halfway houses in the community or who have been paroled, continue with classes at Federal City College and also in socially relevant activities or projects such as those mentioned in Phase Three. Students may also take part-time or full-time jobs to help support themselves and their families while they continue their education.

During the first quarter of FY 1973, 67 men participated in the Pre-College Phase, 88 were in the College Phase, 20 in the Busing Phase, and 78 in the On-Campus Phase.

A total of 432 students have enrolled in the project since its inception. Several of these men are expected to receive their B.A. or B.S. degrees during FY 1973. Some have already received A.A. degrees.

Three evaluative studies have been made of the prison college program. The last of these, which was a quasi-experimental design, showed that at one year into the post-release period, program participants had 18% arrests and returns to prison as compared with 25% for the comparison group (inmates who had applied for the college program but did not enter because of early parole or other non-prejudicial reasons).<sup>18</sup>

3. Vocational Training: Vocational training courses are taught by both departmental staff and by outside contractors. The objective of the program is to develop specific trade skills and to qualify participants for entry level employment. At the Central Facility, the program includes training in the following:

Auto Body Work  
Auto Mechanics  
Barbering

Carpentry  
Electricity  
Bricklaying  
Office Machine Repair  
Radio and TV Service  
Retail Food Sales

The vocational program's six full-time instructors emphasize practical application of techniques used in the several fields, but reading of manuals and prints, and completion of various kinds of homework is also part of the training process.

A pre-vocational course, to develop fundamental work skills and to provide an introduction to trades, was initiated in 1972 by Northern Systems, Inc., with a Department of Labor grant.

The vocational training program at the Youth Center differs somewhat from that at the Central Facility. The courses at Youth Center include the following:

Auto Mechanics  
Automatic Data Processing  
Barbering  
Graphics  
Welding

In addition, institutional maintenance skills are taught on-the-job at the Youth Center. These include landscaping, plumbing, food services, and radio-TV repair.

At both the Central Facility and the Youth Center, vocational training changes continuously to meet more adequately the needs of the labor market and the interest of the students.

4. Staff: The department employs 40 professional educational services personnel at the various institutions. These staff are certified as qualified to instruct by the D. C. Public Schools System.

In addition to employed educational staff, a number of volunteers serve as instructors in courses that they themselves propose. An attorney-engineer volunteered a course that began as "How to Invent" and was later modified to "Creative Thinking." He proposed a course in "user's law," and a professor from a nearby law school was persuaded to draft a syllabus and present the course. Other individuals have present courses in other subject matters on a voluntary basis.

Some staff is provided by contractors who operate in grant funded situations. Six vocational training programs are currently in this status. Four courses -- auto mechanics, two in building trades, and printing -- are funded by the Division of Vocational Rehabilitation, the District Department of Human Resources. One course, pre-vocational automotive and building trades, is funded by the Department of Labor.

5. Facilities: At both the Central Facility and the Youth Center, academic education is carried on in relatively new buildings, which contain classrooms, library facilities, and offices for staff. The Central Facility building includes an all-purpose room and an art room. The Youth Center building includes a relatively large auditorium. At both institutions, there are scattered areas for vocational training programs. A special industrial building is being planned for the Youth Center programs.

6. Results: With the exception of the prison college program, there has been no provision nor any attempt to discover what effects the academic or vocational training programs have had except in the most superficial terms. Follow-ups have been made in selected instances to

learn whether the graduates of a program have obtained work in the area of the skills acquired. Such follow-up is the exception rather than the rule. There has been no instance of a comparison of outcomes of persons trained and those not trained, either in controlled experimental designs or in loose, uncontrolled designs.

Reporting on the programs is currently in terms of numbers processed through programs. "At Minimum Security...90 inmates were enrolled in various classes, and 33 GED diplomas were given in Fiscal 1972." "More than 125 trainees in the (Youth Center) vocational training program during Fiscal 1972 were declared job-ready by their instructors and supervisory." "The primary vocational training program at Minimum Security is operated under contract with Northern Systems Corporation. It provides training in construction jobs and placement of all trainees on training-related jobs. Since its inception in July 1970, 140 trainees have entered the program and 102 have completed training and been placed in jobs.<sup>19</sup>

7. Youth Progress House: One aspect of the Department of Corrections educational program not yet mentioned is the instruction given to residents in a community correctional center for youth, ages 18 to 26, who are experimental subjects in a controlled experimental comparison of institutional and community treatment. Following is an illuminating excerpt from a recent research status report by the head of YPH's research unit:

"Results from the first five groups of students participating in the Innovative Science, Inc., teaching program conducted at the YPH have been



received and verified. Average group increases in math have ranged from 2.8 grades to 6.4 grades. Average group increases in the language areas of the program range from .92 grade increase to 2.0 full grade increases.

"While these scores are encouraging initially, it is important to note that there is currently no follow-up testing done on graduates of the ISI course to determine if these grade increases are enduring.

"It is the feeling of many in the House, including ISI instructor Alex Theriault, that these grade level increases must be reinforced with further outside training if they are to provide lasting benefit to the students. Consequently, studies have been undertaken to provide information and opportunities for students to pursue further educational training in the community. Research is currently unable, therefore, to assess the long-term benefits of the ISI program. However, on a short-term basis, at least, the instruction appears to be highly successful."<sup>20</sup>

8. Staff Perceptions of Program: Educational and administrative staff of the D. C. Department of Corrections are not content with the quality and scope of their programs, either academic or vocational. Despite the laudatory tone -- or, at best, neutral tone -- of the discussion of the educational program in the just-issued five-year report on departmental progress, staff sees room for considerable improvement in the best of its programs, and vast room for improvement in the least adequate of the programs.

The college program is perceived the most favorably of the three divisions of the academic program, and the academic program is held in higher regard than the vocational training program in adequacy, quality, and relation to need. If unlimited funds were made available,

one gets the impression the bulk of the funds would go into revision, expansion, and other modifications of the vocational training program.

9. Inmate Perceptions of Program: Inmates at Lorton appear to hold the college program in highest regard, and the vocational training program in lowest regard. Like staff, they consider the vocational training program as most in need of attention, and recently they have begun to exert pressure to secure that attention.<sup>21</sup> Their perception of computer industries and electronics as the most likely areas in which to seek training may be an over-reaction to the prestige of these industries; it may also reflect an inaccurate assessment of the market for trainees in these areas, or of the ease with which black ex-convicts might penetrate this market. However, their general proposition, that vocational training at Lorton is badly in need of revision and augmentation, appears to be very well grounded.

10. Discussion: The foregoing description of the D. C. Department of Corrections' educational program is extremely sketchy. One can easily visualize a monograph of scores or even hundreds of pages attempting to deal fully with all the relevant or interesting aspects of the Lorton program. For present purposes, however, this sketch is sufficient to show in broad terms the general configurations of the Lorton educational program, indicate some aspects of its evolution, reflect a few of its problems, and, perhaps, foreshadow a number of the directions in which future movement is likely to occur.

It will be helpful to follow these descriptive and evaluative comments on Lorton with some even briefer comments on another correctional education program: that of San Quentin Prison, California.

B. San Quentin.

San Quentin, like all prisons in the California prison system, has in recent decades given considerable emphasis to educational programs, both academic and vocational. Because of the impending demise of San Quentin (it is slated for closing in 1975), the population is now in decline and present conditions show great changes from those typical in the 1960s. However, the institution is a useful backdrop for discussion of the problems and prospects of prison education today.

A brochure on life at the prison in the early 1960s<sup>22</sup> describes a population of 5,000 men, engaged in three or four major classes of activity during waking hours -- activities that were being touched by a new concept in penology:

"Some years ago, somewhere along the line, the thinking about 'criminals' began to change. Society began thinking about men convicted of crimes in terms that one noted penologist, Kenyon J. Scudder, sums up neatly in the title of his now famous book, "Prisoners are People."

"With this change in thinking began an encouraging change in the treatment of prisoners. Eventually, the entire concept underwent change. Emphasis shifted solely from the importance of keeping an offender isolated from the community to the importance of returning to society a man rehabilitated. Inasmuch as 98% of all men incarcerated are eventually returned to the community, this was felt to be a wise long-range step in the ultimate best interests of the community. Return a man better adjusted and equipped to handle the demands that life makes of him and you have changed a social liability into a social asset.

"So important was this new concept that it resulted in the establishment of a new and completely staffed department within the administration,

known by the unimposing and unglamorous title of Classification and Treatment. However, its goals and what it is already accomplishing are as the following pages will show. And, we must admit (if it is proper for a man in prison to say he is fortunate), that we are fortunate (considering the fact we ARE here) to be the beneficiaries of this new concept.

"Regardless of our custody classification, we can attend school and earn diplomas for elementary, secondary, and high school education. The academic teaching staff is supplied by a local high school district and the diplomas are awarded by the Marin County Board of Education. At the present time, approximately 2,000 men attend school, some during the daytime and some during the night school periods. For those of us who are already high school graduates but who desire higher learning, correspondence courses are available from accredited universities.

"The Trade Training program that is available to us is -- to put it boldly -- pretty terrific. There are eighteen crafts and trades in the Vocational Department that we can attend classes in and learn, not just by theory, but by practical application, to become skilled craftsmen.

"In addition to the trade training classes shown in the accompanying photos (Vocational Baking, Vocational Bookbinding, Vocational Meat Cutting, Vocational Shoe Repair), there are also classes in Auto Mechanics, Body and Fender Repair, Carpentry, General Shop, Drafting, Handicraft, Plumbing, Machine Shop, Practical Nursing, Sheet Metal Shop, and Printing.

"The instructors are Civil Service employees whose qualifications include full apprenticeship as well as seven years' experience as a journeyman, twenty-two college units in directed study, and a valid Vocational Teaching Credential. So successful has the Vocational Department become that employers have made known not only their willingness, but their desire, to hire tradesmen trained at San Quentin.

"Under the heading of what is called "doing hard time" one of the principal causes is idleness. Nothing makes the hours drag more than not knowing how to fill them. Not everyone can attend school or trade training classes; there are only so many institutional job assignments. In order to combat this problem, the Department of Corrections established the Correctional Industries program.... This program not only gives employment to some 1,000 of us in San Quentin's seven industries, it gives PAID employment. We can earn from three to fifteen dollars a month."

This slightly laudatory description of the structure and processes of life in San Quentin needs comment in two or three particulars. The sequence of activities described -- education, vocational training, industries -- to a large extent reverses the history of the development of the activities. San Quentin began in 1852 as an industrial prison ship, then an industrial prison,<sup>23</sup> with vocational training and education following. The fact that education is now one of the major activities of the prison -- perhaps the primary rehabilitative program, in terms of numbers involved -- may be conveying a significant but, as yet, unclear message to prison officials, the public, and other interested parties alike.

The statement by the San Quentin inmates predates by five years the birth of the idea of a prison college at the prison. In 1965, the Institute for Policy Studies, D. C., The Ford Foundation, and the School of Criminology at U. C. at Berkeley joined in formulating an idea for a major correctional venture -- a four-year liberal arts college in a prison setting, for prisoners, with the objective of rehabilitating prisoners, transforming prison climates and processes, and impacting

significantly on the attitudes and policies of free colleges and the free community.<sup>24</sup>

The feasibility of this concept was put to a preliminary test at San Quentin over a two-year period, beginning in April 1966. At the end of five semesters of a college program that enrolled about 100 inmates per semester, the idea of a two-year (A.A. degree) program at San Quentin was accepted by prison and state departmental officials, and a college program, offering A.A. degrees in five areas, has been operational since 1968.

As a result of the initial publicity and subsequent visits by persons from other agencies, the San Quentin Prison College became a center for the diffusion of the prison college idea. This was not the first prison college by any means, but it was at the moment the most visible. As an illustration of the diffusion process, Thomas Gaddis, consultant to the Oregon State Division of Continuing Education, paid two visits to the trial project in 1966 and 1967, and in 1967 secured a grant from the Office of Economic Opportunity to start an Upward Bound Program at the Oregon State Prison at Salem. The program was built on a prison college program that had been started without fanfare at Oregon State Prison two or three years previously.

The Upward Bound Project was innovative, and showed several advantages over the San Quentin Project. The obvious merits of the former made OEO receptive to further experimentation with the plan, and several other programs of the same kind were inaugurated in six or eight prisons over the nation, with OEO funding. Recently, OEO has sought to

have definitive information on the effectiveness of the Newgate programs, as they are now called. Early in 1972, a contract for evaluation of ten prison college programs, including five Newgate programs, was awarded to Marshall Kaplan, Gans and Kahn, San Francisco, a research firm. A final report on the evaluation is presently in preparation.

Discussion: These "case studies" of the Lorton and San Quentin prisons and their educational programs have been presented to make more vivid the documentation of the present status of prison education in contemporary America. It is not known how close either or both of these systems is to the statistical average for correctional institutions and their educational programs. It appears safe to presume that the two cases are well within the middle range of institutions on most of the relevant factors, and, hence, provide a reasonable basis for examining the status and trends of prison education today. Following is a listing of what appears to be some of the major trends evident:

1. Ascendance of education, particularly academic education, in the correctional process. Prisons emerged two hundred years ago as industrial centers, with opportunity for penitence. They are gradually transforming themselves into educational institutions, by process and under influences that are not fully understood. This appears to be a significant development, worthy of intensive analysis.

2. Persistence of traditional forms in the prison educational process. At first glance, the education department in the modern prison looks like the school system in a backward neighborhood. Staff is marginal, facilities are poor and crowded, books in the library are old,

procedures are often archaic. Some of this backwardness is related to lack of resources; some to the fact that the education department takes its cues from the nearby school district. There are both strengths and weaknesses in the "traditional" appearance.

3. Evolutionary change is evident. Programmed learning, learning laboratories, other new techniques and procedures become adopted in correctional education soon after they show up in the outside world. Sometimes, it appears, its location between the conservative educational community on the outside and the security-conscious and rigid custodial community on the inside makes it possible for correctional education to make some changes faster than they occur on the outside.

4. Innovation. For various reasons, the inmate in the prison community may occasionally be involved in new experiences that have few precedents in free society. Busing of students to nearby colleges or universities is not without remote counterparts, but it is also a strong break with tradition. So is the idea of a college program within the prison.

5. Evaluation Lacking. Whatever the reason, it is clear that there is a dearth of evaluative research on the correctional educational process. In a field where there are literally hundreds of studies of the effectiveness of individual and group counseling, of the effects of psychotherapy, or of other treatment procedures, studies of the effects of different sized parole or probation caseloads, studies of the effects of different kinds of treatment environments or settings, it seems remarkable that there are so few studies of the effects of



correctional education. A recent lengthy volume of papers on punishment and correction presents 75 studies of the correctional process, but only one of these studies, "The Girls' Vocational High Study," even mentions vocational education.<sup>26</sup> Ironically, this study attempts to measure the effects of social service, not correctional education.

6. Official or formal statements about educational programs by staff or inmates tend to draw favorable, laudatory, or at worst neutral portraits of the structure, quality and processes of the programs. Informally, however, there is much criticism of various aspects of the programs by both staff and inmates.

Sometimes the programs are subverted by varieties of improper behavior. A San Quentin staff member stated that the "going price" of a GED diploma was four packs of cigarettes. Or the training received is of little value on the outside because there is no market for the skills. "Who makes license plates outside of a prison?" Or the equipment on which the men are trained is obsolete. "All our automobile engines are several years old." Or the market for trainees is virtually nonexistent. "We trained 20 keypunch operators and only five of them found jobs." Or the training program is manipulated by the inmate. "Some men want into the college program because it will get them out on the streets quicker than anything else."

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CHAPTER FOUR

PRISONER EDUCATION TOMORROW

by John Marsh and Stuart N. Adams

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### PRISONER EDUCATION TOMORROW\*

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In many ways it is presumptuous to speak of correctional education ten or twenty years hence. Corrections is changing so rapidly and the educational needs to be served are so diverse that our question is in actuality: What models, and for what situations?

At first glance it would appear that the overriding issue is the shape of corrections in the future. In speculating on possible shapes, it is useful to refer to two documents: 1) the 3-volume Correctional System Study carried out for the California Board of Corrections under the leadership of Robert E. Kelgord;<sup>1</sup> and 2) the 110-page report by New York State's Department of Correctional Services to Governor Rockefeller, proposing a major revision and reconstruction of corrections in the state.<sup>2</sup>

The California report is notable for its proposal that state participation in the institutionalization of offenders be greatly reduced and that alternative correctional programs be provided at county level. If implemented, this would mean the end of California's system of large prisons -- and the obsolescence of an education-training model predicated on large institutions.

Apart from the prison reduction proposal, the report is of interest for what it says about current training programs and future training ideas. Following are excerpts from the report:

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\*Compiled by SURC staff from position papers prepared for this report by Drs. Marsh and Adams.

"It is almost a truism that today education is indispensable... Yet, despite the strong case which can be made for it, there is much to suggest that correctional education as presently constituted, has often been rather unsuccessful. The evidence grows that education for prisoners should be custom-tailored to their diverse needs, and that too much reliance has been placed in prison on a traditional educational approach designed for youth...

"Basic to success in correctional education are: (1) information about the inmate pupils and their individual potentials; 2) an awareness of the society from which the prisoner comes and the society to which he is going; (3) individualized instructional materials; (4) incentives to educational achievement; and above all, (5) a "climate for learning."

While noting that California correctional education at best is "very good indeed," the report sees considerable variability from institution to institution. One aspect of the program is "a commendable amount of vocational education," with over 1,000 men enrolled full-time in 150 trade courses that take from six months to two years to complete.

Of most interest in the present context is the series of suggestions for improving education and training of California prisoners. These are 12 in number, and they are listed here without the elaborative comments of the report:

- 1) Inmate students should be paid a nominal sum, comparable with prison industry scales, at a rate contingent on their individual progress in education.
- 2) Two or three hours of evening school should be available for optional participation in every institution.
- 3) The use of newer educational techniques, methods and materials should be expanded.

- 4) A resource center for lending a wide variety of instructional and informational materials should be provided to service smaller facilities; larger prisons should set up their own centers.
- 5) Educational television, including closed-circuit television, should be developed.
- 6) The Department of Corrections should explore the use of nearby schools and their resources for certain prisoners who can safely be released daily to them.
- 7) Vocational training equipment and facilities should be improved.
- 8) Job training values of prison industrial and maintenance operation should be studied and exploited by development of training programs or integration with present vocational training.
- 9) The vocational courses taught in each institution should be re-evaluated.
- 10) Follow-up of prisoners receiving vocational training should become routine for continuous guidance of prison training programs.
- 11) Work furlough should be expanded.
- 12) Greater enrollment in educational programs should be encouraged.<sup>4</sup>

There are no surprises here. The suggestions fall into familiar patterns, and in virtually every instance recommended procedures already in existence in some prison system. It is of interest that the report did not go as far in two respects as some California prisoners, in the Folsom Manifesto, November 1970. Two articles in the Manifesto relate to vocational training; namely,

- Item 11. We demand that industries be allowed to enter the Institutions and employ inmates to work eight hours a day and fit into the category of workers for scale

wages. The working conditions in prisons do not develop working incentives parallel to the money jobs in the outside society, and a paroled prisoner faces many contradictions on the job that adds to his difficulty to adjust. Those industries outside who desire to enter prisons should be allowed to enter for the purpose of employment placement.

- Item 23. We demand establishment of unionized vocational training program comparable to that of the Federal Prison System, which provides for union instructors, union pay scale, and union membership upon completion of the vocational training course.<sup>5</sup>

The concept of private industries entering a prison system to employ prisoners, provide on-the-job training and compensate prisoners at regular rates while training or working was under active exploration and development in the D. C. Department of Corrections in 1971 and 1972. There were many obstacles to be overcome and not all were successfully dealt with. At present the proposed program is in abeyance except as a training program operated by a supermarket, which employs the trainees after they are paroled.

The unionized vocational training program also has been worked with by the D. C. Department of Corrections, but in its work release program. Men who had undergone building trades training before a release to work daily in the community engaged in building rehabilitation projects, as members of unions, and with union wage rates.

It may be noted in passing that both the Folsom Manifesto and the "manifesto" of the Lorton Inmate Grievance Committee,<sup>6</sup> make strong observations about vocational training but are completely silent on the



matter of academic education. This may reflect the fact that both prison systems provide relatively more academic than vocational education. It may, on the other hand, indicate the relative value placed on the two types of education by the prisoners.

By way of contrast, the 28 Points of the Attica prisoners in September 1971 included a demand regarding "education" (Modernize the inmate education system) but did not specifically mention vocational training (New York State Special Commission, 1972). Rahway inmates came back to the position of the Folsom Manifesto in their petition. Point 5 states:

- 5) EDUCATIONAL-VOCATIONAL: Rahway Prison is a place where the educational system is truly inadequate. The programs are irrelevant to the needs of the inmate. There is no vocational training at all. General Motors has tried in the past to put a plant in the prison so that inmates could at least learn a skill that would be beneficial to them upon release, but unfortunately they were turned away by people who deemed it unnecessary, because their way was the best way to rehabilitation.<sup>7</sup>

The report of the New York State Department of Correctional Services is important for the same reason as the Kelgord Report: It foreshadows major correctional changes in the state's prison system. Most of the prisoners would, in future, be housed in minimum security rural camps or placed in urban work release and parole centers. Many changes would be introduced into daily operations. Among these would be what was reported as "the basic ingredients of the master plan": Improved diagnostic and research programs for inmates, better schooling and vocational training, and a generally more "humane" physical setting.<sup>8</sup>

The New York State Correctional Services report as cited here does not provide serious assistance in the development of a correctional education model. The California report is much more useful, although it neglects some aspects of a fully adequate plan. It fails to mention college-level instruction for adult prisoners (although there is reference to such instruction to youthful offenders), and it has little to say about educational or vocational training programs for probationers, jail inmates or parolees. Furthermore, its references to youthful offender education lack emphasis, and its perception of the role of education in offender rehabilitation generally is without serious insight.

Undoubtedly, the greatest institutional resource available for the orderly future development of correctional education -- both vocational and academic -- is higher education. Some would suggest that higher education has set so poor an example vis-a-vis the student rebellions of the 1960s that it would be ill-advised to concern itself with anything in the correctional arena. Such a position ignores many salient features of higher education's reaction to those disturbances. It dealt with a problem by adjusting, changing, compromising, in some instances resisting, and ultimately surviving and improving. This is what the critic from the stone walls ignores when he views the campus scene.

Some authorities within the correctional establishment are speaking out for a closer relationship between corrections and the academic system. W. J. Estelle, Jr., Director of the Texas Department of Corrections, has spoken of the value to be gained when corrections personnel and the university faculty commingle.<sup>9</sup> Norman A. Carlson, Director, Federal

Bureau of Prisons, has referred to "co-locations of correctional institutions with universities."<sup>10</sup>

The strongest statement in this regard is probably that of Drs. Leonard M. Zunin and Norman I. Barr. Barr was formerly the Chief of Psychiatric Services for the Federal Bureau of Prisons. Both were with the Institute for Reality Therapy in Los Angeles when they said, in 1970:

"The building of prisons on university campuses is the third evolutionary direction for corrections to assume. American universities, as centers of knowledge, have helped solve problems ranging from the development of the atomic bomb to landing a man on the moon. Corrections and academia have always maintained a cool relationship with each other, though some of the largest American universities like California, Illinois, Michigan and Ohio State, are in the same states as the largest prisons. We suggest that the next 50 prisons constructed in the United States be built on college campuses, one in each state. Not off-campus, or just beyond the city limits, but right smack in between the law school, the medical school and the social sciences building; near the campus chapel. It would help educate the public to the fact that resolution of correctional problems is in its own best interest; with particular regards to eventual success in improving law enforcement, crime control techniques and understanding of the relationship between criminal behavior and social policy."<sup>11</sup>

While this position may be somewhat extreme, it represents a point of departure for discussions and a challenge to education and to corrections. What makes the point interesting is that correctional education is an avenue for entry of the university into the corrections process. Some of the possibilities are obvious, while many are covert and will only arise through further study.

For openers, some of the employments of higher education just in correctional education are:

- (1) The creation of an experimental or laboratory school in a prison to develop the various techniques and approaches to be used in the education of the inmate. Some of these techniques may interface with other educational programs such as adult education, drug abuse education, education of minorities, education of inner city culturally deprived, education of emotionally maladjusted and certain other exceptional students, dropout prevention programs, etc.
- (2) Research into all psycho-social aspects of the educational process in the correctional system as well as other research. It must be remembered that any study that improves or better understands the correctional process, either custody or treatment, will ultimately affect and enhance all parts of the system.
- (3) Development of programs at the undergraduate and/or graduate level for the training of teachers, counselors, media/audio-visual specialists, and administrators specially qualified for employment in correctional education programs. This effort can lead to certification and accreditation for persons and programs as well as the enhancement in other ways of the professionalism of correctional educators.

There are numerous other avenues for the involvement of higher education in corrections beyond correctional education, per se.<sup>12</sup> One of those sometimes mentioned is development of training programs for staffs. It is unfortunate that few, if any, persons in corrections or in education

can see the larger and more innovative possibilities in a university/corrections synergism. They tend to block their vision with value judgments revolving around the result in terms of the survival of either corrections or education as autonomous systems.

Higher education is definitely involved in correctional education on a nation-wide basis.<sup>13</sup> Few of these programs are more than a part-time extension effort. What is lacking is a complete program with student personnel services, counseling efforts, and a major commitment to education as a framework upon which to restructure the correctional rehabilitative system.<sup>14</sup>

As correctional education programs grow, the involvement of higher education will increase. What form will this involvement take? What relationships will be developed? What goals will be pursued? What will be the philosophical basis for the relationship? At present the answers can only be surmised. What cannot be denied is that there will be an ever-increasing involvement and its ultimate result will be a considerable change in the correctional system from the architecture through the organization and staff to the inmate, and finally out into society as a whole.

There are many possibilities for organizational patterns for correctional education. The independent school district such as Texas uses is one of the most promising. It represents an involvement of public education in corrections yet retains some of the "control" of the correctional system over its educational programs. While other models put professional educators in charge of prison education, they have

drawbacks. If the local school or school district brings an extension program into the prison, then each penal facility will have a different educational program subject to the autonomy of local education and a centrally coordinated and managed correctional education program is virtually impossible.

Little appears to have been done regarding the integration of educational programs between adult and juvenile systems. In many states these two correctional systems are completely separated. While many philosophical and operational problems must be dealt with, juvenile and the adult systems must eventually be brought together into a more integrated correctional educational pattern. At present, there is little movement in this respect as various jurisdictions have rather firmly established their particular patterns of organization vis-a-vis separation or merger of the adult and the juvenile correctional systems. It can be suggested that as adult educational systems improve there will be greater opportunity for an operational relationship with the juvenile systems regardless of the organizational pattern.

This opens up another issue: that of the city and/or county jail and their education programs. While little activity has taken place in these areas, there are some isolated examples.<sup>15</sup> The shorter duration of the sentence and the preponderance of pre-trial confinements does not make education unnecessary or unwarranted. In fact, it makes it even more needed. These types of confinement systems may be more amenable to a relationship with the local school system rather than being a part of a state correctional education system. So little has been done in

this area that not even theories are available. It can be surmised, however, that as local -- particularly county level -- confinement facilities are upgraded, the demand for educational programs for their residents will increase. At its present stage of development, correctional education is not ready to meet this new demand and urgently needs research, pure and applied, to prevent further disintegration of an already fragmented profession.

The relationship of academic to vocational education in the penal system needs to be considered. The Texas system integrates the two; however, many systems separate them. One problem develops when vocational education is not a true learning situation but is more of a training program which is a by-product of an industrial, agricultural, or institutional production or maintenance program. Here the correctional educator is challenged to develop techniques by which he can input into these operations to effectively influence the training element while not adversely affecting the production and housekeeping processes. As the junior-community college movement emphasizes non-academic efforts and as career education concept develops in the public schools, there will be a greater impetus for the merger of academic and vocational education programs in confinement systems.

Another organizational issue is that of integration of the education program with the other treatment efforts of corrections such as casework, classification, group therapy, pre-release training, etc. Until a true philosophy of correctional education is developed, it will be difficult to deal with this issue. If education is simply a training

process for pragmatic reasons, then other treatment processes and functions will not be included. If, however, it is seen as the primary instrument for treatment, then counseling, classification, and other elements of treatment will be gathered unto it as a part of a conceptual totality of treatment through growth, development, and change -- treatment through education.

Vertical integration is an issue that has not been mentioned anywhere. What is the relationship of a higher education program to a secondary program in a given prison or penal system? While some few schools exist with an 8-14 or 10-14 grade structure, there has been a virtually nationwide line of demarcation between high school -- the twelve grade -- and higher education. To continue such a separation within correctional education seems purely negative. The correctional education cause with all its problems, questions, and needs requires a high degree of collaboration among all of its elements. One approach is that of an advisory panel -- a consultative body -- a central planning agency in which the heads of every educational program in the penal system meet to coordinate their efforts. Another model could be the laboratory school approach in which the university operates all programs.

Organization is clearly a major issue in correctional education. It presents a pressing demand for research and evaluation. As states move into an improved correctional education program, one of the first issues they deal with is the organizational pattern.

Richard Cortright of the National Education Association has spoken of the possibility that correctional educators should be employed by the



public schools as leaders of adult educational programs because of their experience with the pedagogically alienated adult.<sup>16</sup> He is dealing with the area of educational "feedback." A correctional institution is likened to a psycho-social morgue in the sense that it is a repository of rejections, dropouts, pushouts, defectives, failures, etc. A doctor worth his degree will eagerly await the word from the pathologist who reports why the patient died, whether enroute in the ambulance, on the operating table, in the hospital ward, or wherever. What of the educator? Does he seek out the places where his errors and failures are found to learn why? This is not to suggest that all in confinement are there because of the failures of the schools. Certainly other reasons and causes are present. But, this does not excuse the lack of educational pathologists to determine what part education played, if any. Of course, the hospital pathologist can only transmit his subject to the mortician; the educational pathologist can hopefully see his subject return to the world of the psycho-socially well.

Correctional education must include the role of educational pathology. Not only is this essential for the effective design and operation of its own processes, but also as a preventive. The correctional educator must send back into the entire educational system the results of his research, study, and experience. He must advise administrators, teachers, counselors, and others that certain of their behaviors in some situations are contributing to the eventual incarceration of their students. Thus, through his feedback involvement in the classroom, the correctional educator can make major contributions to the improvement of education

through new methods to teach the adult and change of methods to deal with the adolescent and other youth.

Probably no greater gap exists in the profession of education than that between correctional educators and the rest of the academic world. There is only one college known to train correctional educators. No one is training educational administrators or educational counseling and guidance persons for corrections. Certainly there are programs in criminal justice, corrections, etc., which introduce correctional persons to the educational process for inmate treatment. This is not denied, but it is not adequate. Teacher training facilities -- schools and colleges of education -- must offer courses, majors, areas of concentration, graduate and undergraduate degrees in correctional education, both teaching and administration, and in counseling and guidance. This must lead to certification and program accreditation as well as professional standards. Correctional educators must be trained by the preparers of educators, not by the trainers of guards.

Like the public schools which will benefit greatly from the feedback, the teacher education program will derive much from such an involvement. They will also, by their training of professionally qualified persons for correctional education, "pay their dues" to society in the amelioration of a social problem.

Throughout this document have been frequent references to the need for and the possibilities of research. Virtually every authority in corrections, regardless of his orientation, speaks of this need. There has been some, but it has primarily focused on specific treatment

programs. Research must start with the historical, move through the descriptive, and finally go into experimental and evaluation. Each stage depends upon the preceding one. We know entirely too little about correctional education. Who are its students and staff? What are its programs, requirements, and results? Where is it located and how is it conducted? Each of these questions is simply a hint of the virtually endless and important series of questions that will follow. A number of programs have been initiated in correctional education that have focused much of their evaluative research on recidivism rates. While this is an important point to the public and to legislatures, it is no more valid than it is to assume that every patient who finally dies of his illness represents a complete failure and waste of time and money on the part of the doctors who labored in his behalf. Research in correctional education is a part of the previously mentioned pathology effort and must be present to insure that any increase in knowledge is brought back out of prisons and into the "free-world" classrooms.

It would seem that the education of the kept and that of the keeper should find regular and frequent points of contact and unity. A few institutions have allowed their correctional officers to attend the very same classes as the residents, particularly at the college level. Too much of this would be bad in that the benefit of contact with a wider variety of students in a campus setting would be forfeited. There is also the thought in some quarters that it tends to have an adverse effect upon the inmate-student. The points that do seem important, though, are the benefit of the correctional education system in other ways regarding

the correctional staff. A correctional education component should represent the best source of persons to conduct seminars, workshops, and other in-service training programs for the staff in such areas as counseling techniques, inter-group relations, report writing, interviewing techniques, etc. It also can be a resource to advise and assist correctional personnel in the development of their own education programs with respect to higher education.

Finally, it is through the education staff of a prison that outside educative resources can be developed for the benefit of the entire correctional system. As correctional education programs develop, there will be more and stronger spin-offs into the training of correctional staffs. Any time that a correctional education program is contemplated, the planners should build in a provision for these extra results.

The current literature of corrections frequently contains references to community-based corrections.<sup>17</sup> This is a movement away from the multi-tiered 2000-man fortress and towards the maximum effort in treating prisoners in a non-penal or minimally-penal setting in small groups as close to the community as possible. This and the numerous other changes and developments in corrections depend upon local communities for support, for resources, for reception in a positive manner of both the prisoner and those whose job it is to fulfill society's dictum regarding lawbreakers.

The correctional educator can accomplish much in this regard. He does not come to the community as a stereotype of a warden or guard. He does not have those labels which are often pejorative. He belongs

to a constituency and a profession that is found in every community. We have a long tradition of respect for education and educators. Some of it is undeserved at times, and we generally agree that teachers have feet of clay like the rest of us. But, for the most part, pedagogues, particularly those from higher education, are respected in many circles as purveyors of thoughts and ideas, social change and reform, and as searchers for truth.

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CHAPTER FIVE

A MODEL FOR CORRECTIONAL EDUCATION

by T. Antoinette Ryan



CHAPTER FIVE  
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OVERVIEW

This model is a generalized model, for use in planning and evaluation of systems for delivery of education which meet the needs of the offenders and satisfy the demands for social and economic accountability.

The individuals who make up the nation's offender population are victims of double disadvantage. Not only are they cast into prison and labeled convict, they also suffer from a severe lack of educational, social, and occupational skills. There is a need for developing and expanding viable programs of education so that "adults can continue their education through completion of secondary school, and make available the means to secure job training to help them become more employable, productive and responsible citizens."<sup>1</sup>

There is a critical need for development and implementation of viable correctional educational programs, in place of demoralizing and unprofitable efforts of punishment and retribution. Only through planned educational intervention can the nation's offender population be prepared for meaningful and rewarding participation in the world of work and positive, productive contribution to social well-being. This need is not new. A century ago, the National Congress on Penitentiary and Reformatory Discipline meeting in Cincinnati recommended that,

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"The prime goal of prisons is not to punish, but to reform; the academic education and vocational training of prisoners would receive primary emphasis."<sup>2</sup> The tragedy and the reality are that so little has been done in the century since the 1970 meeting of the National Congress on Penitentiary and Reformatory Discipline to mount programmatic efforts to implement the recommendations for education and training.

Murphy (1972)<sup>3</sup> condemns the criminal justice system as a perpetual motion machine which produces no viable product at staggering cost. It has been conservatively estimated that it costs approximately \$11,000 a year to keep a man in a correctional institution. A five-year sentence costs the taxpayers \$55,000.<sup>4</sup> It costs the American public \$2 billion annually to support the failure of the criminal justice system. The American system of criminal justice has been called the nation's disgrace.<sup>5</sup> "Of the three components of criminal justice -- police, courts, and corrections -- corrections is perhaps the most critical yet it is often the least visible and least understood part of the system... It is burdened with a performance record which would plunge any business into bankruptcy."<sup>6</sup> Corrections includes much more than prisons. Among other things, corrections includes detention, probation, jails, juvenile centers, aftercare, community residential centers, and parole programs for adults and juveniles, both male and female.<sup>7</sup> "The corrections process begins when an offender is placed in detention status and continues until he is released from probation or parole... It includes...all the programs dealing with the offender prior to final release from correctional custody."<sup>4</sup> Richard W. Velde, Law Enforcement Assistance

Administration Association Administrator, concludes, "Improving the corrections system in the United States is the most pressing need of our criminal system."<sup>8</sup> Corrections, with its manifold areas of operation, has demonstrated its potential for rendering as under those individuals relegated to correctional authority. "If corrections fails to rehabilitate, then all the efforts of police, prosecutors, and judges can only speed the cycle of crime."<sup>9</sup>

The jails, workhouses, penitentiaries, reformatories, community treatment centers, and half-way houses of this nation admit, control, and release an estimated three million individuals each year. This is roughly equivalent to the combined population of Alaska, Delaware, Hawaii, Idaho, Maine, and Vermont. On any day during the year, approximately 1.3 million individuals -- more than the population of any one of fifteen states in this nation -- are under correctional authority. The American Bar Association projected the 1975 average daily population in corrections settings at 1.8 million individuals.<sup>10</sup> The charge to corrections is to control, support, and correct this large segment of the nation's populace. "However bad a man is when he enters prison, he will leave it a worse man."<sup>11</sup> This will continue to be true as long as corrections fails to implement, on a systematic, all-out basis, programs to correct and redirect the offenders. "What we must never forget is that, barring few, every inmate of our prisons is due to mix and mingle again in society, sooner or later."<sup>12</sup> The challenge to the nation is to implement a system for "correcting and redirecting behaviors of offenders...so they can become capable of realizing individual well-being and contributing

to the betterment of society."<sup>13</sup> Nineteen out of every twenty men who enter prison one day return to society.<sup>14</sup> Ninety-six percent of those under correctional jurisdiction will walk the streets again as free men and women after an average stay of only two years.

Those arrested on criminal charges in 1970 had an average of four prior criminal arrests and an average of nearly 1 1/2 convictions at local, state, and federal level. The nearly 38,000 arrested on federal charges in 1970 had a total of more than 22,000 prior imprisonments of six months or longer in one type of institution or another. The statistics continue to document the failure of the corrections system by virtue of the number of individuals who continue a life of crime despite conviction and imprisonment. Murphy (1972)<sup>3</sup> observed:

Crime exists and the police are arresting criminals, the courts are processing criminals, but the corrections system is correcting few. In 1931, it was estimated that 92% of the prison population had been in prison before. Today, we have reduced this to the glorious figure of approximately 80%. Eighty percent of all prisoners are serving a second or third or fourth sentence. Eight percent were not helped.

The President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice (1967)<sup>15</sup> reported a total inmate population of about 426,000 including 222,000 in adult felon institutions, 141,000 in correctional institutions for misdemeanor offenses, and 63,000 in juvenile institutions. In addition, there are roughly 600,000 on probation or parole. The jails hold approximately 200,000 prisoners.<sup>16</sup>

The profile of the prison population which was drawn by the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice in 1967 holds true in 1972:<sup>15</sup>

...a horde of individuals, each of whom is likely to be a member of the lowest social and economic group in the country, poorly educated, and perhaps unemployed, unmarried, reared in a broken home, and (with) a prior criminal record.

Corrections officials estimate that eighty-five percent of state prison inmates are school dropouts. Nearly all of the individuals in penal institutions in the United States lack the educational, vocational, and social skills for entering and maintaining gainful employment. "The percentage of inmates in all institutions who cannot read or write is staggering. Another and largely overlapping category is made up of those who have no marketable skills on which to base even a minimally successful life."<sup>17</sup> The American Bar Association estimated the average educational achievement of offender at fifth to sixth grade level with at least forty percent lacking prior work experience.<sup>10</sup> Data from the University of Hawaii Adult Education in Corrections Program substantiate the American Bar Association estimates. Analysis of data from a sample of correctional institutions, including state and federal facilities, penitentiaries and reformatories, with populations ranging in size from 179 to 2,823, reveals that 85 to 99 percent of the offenders have less than high school equivalency in educational achievement, with the average ranging between fifth and sixth grade level, and in all but one instance between 80 and 99 percent of offenders lack prior work experience in anything other than semi- or unskilled employment. The average mental ability ranges from 90 to 110 in all instances. The prison population is made up of individuals with distorted value systems. Their values are not consonant with the dominant values of a work-oriented society. They have not integrated work values into their

personal value systems. They have not been prepared to implement work values in their lives. They are insecure, have a low self-image, and lack self-discipline. Because of their deficiencies in occupational and social relationship skills, they are denied full opportunity for upward mobility on a career ladder. They are unable to achieve satisfying and productive participation in civic and community affairs.

For the most part, the offenders in the nation's correctional institutions are functionally illiterate and occupationally unskilled. How can they implement social and civic responsibilities -- either in an institution or the free society -- if they cannot read and write at least at fifth grade level? How can they get and maintain employment if they have not acquired basic and job-related skills? How can they have a self-image other than that of failure, outcast, reject? The only place the inmate has status is in his prison subculture. Is it any wonder why he returns again and again as a recidivist, or graduates to higher levels of anti-social behavior by virtue of the training he receives from his peers inside the prison walls? Mitchell (1971)<sup>2</sup> concludes, "It is as simple as the words of the novelist, Dostoyevsky: '...neither convict prisons, nor prison ships, nor any system of hard labor ever cured a criminal.'"

There is urgent need to equip those in correctional settings with the knowledge, skills and attitudes necessary to overcome the inadequate preparation for earning a living and meeting the needs of the labor market. This means equipping individuals with more than job skills. They must develop healthy attitudes and values to work and leisure; they need to develop self-realization and to be capable of civic responsibility. They

must have social relationship skills, knowledge of alternative career choices, and the capability of evaluating these alternatives in terms of consequences. They must be able to manipulate the labor market, to experience on a lifelong continuum lateral and vertical career mobility. They must have mastered the basic communication and computation skills to equip them for occupational, social, and civic roles, and to fulfill their needs for self-realization. Without this kind of capability for self and career development, there is little hope that the nation's offenders can become productive, contributing members of society. Punitive measures and compulsory confinement will not, in and of themselves, fulfill the mission of corrections. The failure of corrections as a system of punishment and retribution is fact. The social and financial costs are staggering. The need is for a systematic, all-out, programmatic effort of education and training, which will prepare the offender, at the first possible opportunity, for a productive, contributing role in society. The evidence is overwhelming to support the failure of the punitive, retributive system. There must be a massive attack through education and training.

To insist on the dignity of the individual, to assure him health and education, meaningful employment, decent living conditions, to protect his privacy and the integrity of his personality, to enforce his rights though he may be the least among us, to give him power to affect his own destiny -- only thus can we hope to instill in him a concern for others, for their well-being, their safety and the security of their property. Only thus can we bring to him a regard for our society, our institutions and our purposes as a people that will render him incapable of committing crime.<sup>9</sup>

The need for education and training in the nation's correctional institutions can be met through a systematic program of delivery systems implementing a generalized model of correctional education.

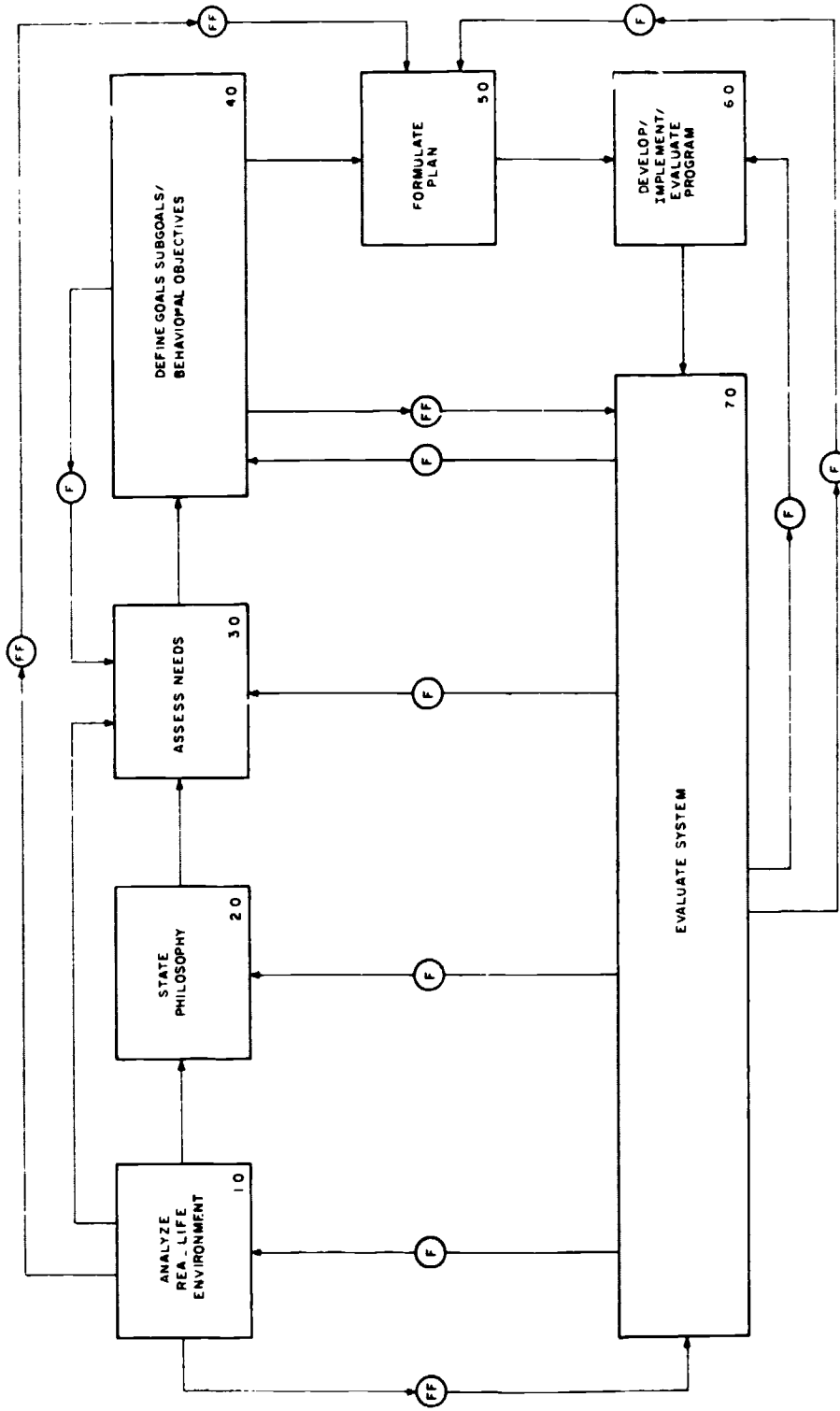
## INTRODUCTION

This conceptual model of correctional education has been synthesized to implement a set of basic assumptions about the needs of the offender population and the requirements of an educational intervention for accomplishing the mission of corrections. The model shown is based upon and adapted from the Model of Adult Basic Education in Corrections,<sup>18</sup> which was developed following synthesis, simulation, evaluation, test and revision between 1969 and 1972.

The purpose of the conceptual model of correctional education is to provide a strong rational approach for planning and evaluating delivery systems of education to meet the assessed needs for correcting and re-directing the offender in the nation's correctional institutions. The planning model is a vehicle for optimizing outcomes and fulfilling public demand for accountability. The model is a tested vehicle for solving one of the nation's major social problems -- education of the academically, socially, and vocationally disadvantaged adults in federal, state, and local correctional institutions.<sup>18</sup> A graphic analog of the conceptual model is shown in Figure 1.

There are several elements which must be present in a delivery system of correctional education: (1) analysis of the real-life environment; (2) synthesis of a philosophy to depict an idealized environment; (3) assessment of needs; (4) synthesis of goals, subgoals and objectives;





(5) synthesis of a plan for achieving system goals; (6) implementation of the program; and (7) evaluation of the system.

### I. ANALYZE REAL-LIFE ENVIRONMENT

Analysis is the process of taking an existing whole, breaking it into its parts, identifying the parts, relating the parts, and limiting the process. This is the process that takes place in Analyze Real-Life Environment. The parts which combine to make up the corrections system are identified, their relationships described, and the parts considered separately. A system is an organization or structure of an orderly whole, with all of the parts individually and in consort working to achieve a defined mission.<sup>19</sup> Every system operates in an environment. Corrections is a system. The parts of the corrections system consist of actions, information, and objects. The actions are the functions of the institution. The objects are the individuals for whom the system operates -- offenders and staff. Analysis of a corrections system is accomplished by considering carefully the available information about offenders, institutional functions, and the setting or environment in which the system operates.

The central concern of corrections is with the behavior of offenders.<sup>20,21</sup> A correctional system is concerned with securing and controlling individuals who have demonstrated behaviors which did not contribute to the welfare of society or the well-being of the individual. At the same time, a correctional system is concerned with changing behaviors of these

individuals so they can become contributing, productive members of society. It is essential to begin the production of a system of correctional education by determining the present behaviors, that is, the knowledge, skills, and attitudes of the offenders in a particular correctional setting.

It is important to know the functions which are being implemented in the existing system and environment, since this points to gaps in the present operation, unveils weaknesses, and indicates problems of incompatibility between the system and its environment. A system which is designed for one environment and which may be functioning effectively in that environment may be a complete failure in a different setting. It is utterly inconceivable to expect a public school model of education to meet the needs or fulfill the mission of corrections. Fisher (1970)<sup>22</sup> makes the point, "...the biggest mistake that correctional institutions have made and some are still making...is patterning their school system after public schools." Synthesis of a delivery system of correctional education requires at the onset analysis of the real-life environment, including offenders, institutional functions, and system environment. Innovation and improvement can take place only if there is a clear and complete understanding of that which is to be proved.

The function Analyze Real-Life Environment is accomplished by making three analyses: analysis of the system environment; analysis of the offender population; and analysis of the institutional functions. In developing a delivery system, each of these analyses must be made and the results reported in detail, as a basis for the subsequent synthesis of a delivery system model.

(A) ANALYZE SYSTEM ENVIRONMENT

The system environment consists of the physical setting of the institution and the communities which accommodate the offender group. The setting is important because it influences the system operation.<sup>23,24</sup> The setting is analyzed by describing the physical, social, cultural, economic, and psychological factors which surround the institution and influence its operation. In making this analysis, it is important to consider under physical factors items such as type of terrain, distance from nearest cities or towns, rural or urban setting. The facility is described by reporting the construction dates; number, size, and structural design of buildings; size of grounds, nature of security; capacity and actual count; and personnel. In considering social-cultural factors, it is important to describe the general social structure and identify the social groupings of classes in the institution among offenders and staff. In considering psychological factors, it is important to consider the general feeling and to identify the psychological climate of the institution. The system environment includes the community of the institution. This is an important part of the setting since it is this community in which a large part of the institutional staff resides, and it is to this community that the institution looks for support of program operations and system goals.<sup>25,26,27,28</sup> The local community exerts a tremendous effect on the institutional operation.<sup>24</sup> The public attitude toward rehabilitation and correction and the community response to rehabilitative and corrective programs, as well as support and opinions of prominent political figures

in the local, state, and federal jurisdictions influence the level and nature of system operations.<sup>29,30</sup>

In a delivery system model, the geographic, social, economic, and psychological factors which constitute major elements in the community life are described. The main concern in this subsystem is the analysis and description of factors that affect the operation of the particular correctional institution, rather than factors universal to all communities.

The post-release community, which is the community to which the offender will go upon release from the institution through discharge, parole, furlough, or work-release, is important because the correctional system in the institution must operate to prepare the offender for return to free society. The only way in which the correctional system can prepare an individual for effective, productive, constructive functioning in a given environment is to provide a program designed intentionally and realistically to fit the individual for the particular socio-economic-psychological setting to which he will return.<sup>31,32,33,34</sup> If there are groups in a community who are opposed to having ex-offenders in the area, it is critical to help the individual while he is in the institution to develop the coping skills he will need for this situation. If there are occupations which are not open to ex-offenders, the institution must provide training in other areas to equip the individual with skills and knowledge for the kinds of employment that will be available in the post-release community. The offender must be prepared while he is in the institution to assume family responsibilities, and he must learn how to make worthy use of the leisure time he will have in the post-release

community. Communities are not all the same. It is important to know the communities to which the offenders will go upon release, in order that programs in the institutions can be designed to prepare individuals for the real-world to which they will return.<sup>35</sup> One of the major challenges of corrections is to bridge the gap between the institution and the free world.<sup>18</sup>

This cannot be accomplished without careful and considered analysis of the post-release community, as a prerequisite to planning viable programs of correction in the institution. Information about the post-release community can be obtained from a variety of sources. Social-cultural information can be obtained from the Chamber of Commerce, newspapers, welfare agencies, social agencies, and civic groups, as well as from offender records and interviews in cases where the offender is returning to the same community from which he has come. Economic information can be obtained from State Employment Offices, U. S. Department of Labor, labor unions, and newspapers.

(B) ANALYZE OFFENDER POPULATION

The offender population is defined as the total number of individuals sentenced to a given institutional jurisdiction. The offender population for any institution consists of all the individuals sentenced to the institution for the purpose of correction. The function, Analyze Offender Population, requires identification of the offender population according to social-cultural characteristics, economic characteristics, and

personal psychological characteristics. There is no function more critical to the achievement of a viable system of operation than the function Analyze Offender Population. The delivery system in any correctional setting must be designed to change the behaviors of the offender population in that particular setting.<sup>36,37</sup> Offenders must be motivated to want to change their behaviors. Without reliable, valid, objective and complete information about the offenders in any given setting, it is not possible to plan strategies for motivating them. It is not possible to define the changes that must be made in the behaviors of the offender to equip them for return as fully functioning, productive members of society without first determining what they are like at the starting point. Any delivery system must be designed with the offender in mind.

(C) ANALYZE OFFENDER SOCIAL-CULTURAL CHARACTERISTICS

The social-cultural characteristics of an offender population are made up of social and cultural factors describing the groups in an institution. Social factors constitute the characteristics which typify individuals or groups of individuals living together. Cultural factors constitute the characteristics which typify patterns of behavior expected from a group of individuals. Social-cultural characteristics of an offender population are important because these factors bear heavily on the planning and implementation of programs to change offenders. It is critical to know the power groups among the offenders and to be aware of the patterns of behavior expected from different ethnic or

culture groups, in order to develop and operate successful programs of correction. The development of programs must take into account the ethnic backgrounds and socio-economic levels of the total population in a given institution. The information can be obtained from probation/parole offices, church, family, personal interview, court records, pre-sentence reports, and welfare and social agencies.

(D) ANALYZE OFFENDER ECONOMIC CHARACTERISTICS

Economic characteristics of the offenders refer to employment and job related factors which characterize the individual. These include present earning power and prior occupational history. The present earning power of the offender is determined by projecting the most likely expected income he might receive giving his existing job skills, interpersonal skills, work attitudes, and basic skills with the existing job market. Prior occupational history is defined as the sequence of jobs held by the individual over a time span encompassing the previous work years. Economic characteristics of the offender are important, since one of the major aims of the correctional system is to change the offender so he can obtain and maintain employment commensurate with his potential abilities. The economic characteristics of offenders vary, but generally they have lower earning power than the average citizen, and their prior occupational history is one of disoriented, irregular, and low level jobs. Employment has been on jobs of short duration. They have been mainly in unskilled or semi-skilled occupations. The programs to help offenders



acquire the occupational skills, decision-making skills, basic communication and computation skills, interpersonal skills, and science and technology skills for productive participation in the labor force must be designed on a foundation of information about the employment history and earning power potential of the individuals involved. This information can be obtained from interview, previous employers, family, friends, records, and tests.

(E) ANALYZE PERSONAL AND PSYCHOLOGICAL CHARACTERISTICS

Personal and psychological characteristics of the offender are those factors and behaviors which combine to make up the personality of an individual, including his unique set of interests, values, attitudes, aptitudes, mental ability, educational achievement, age, sex, race, marital history, and offense history. The personal and psychological characteristics of the offender are important since these factors determine in large measure the kind of program which will be needed to achieve correction of the individuals in a given setting. The educational process is a process of changing behaviors of individuals in defined directions deemed to be desirable. The kinds of behavioral change, including change in knowledge, skills, and attitudes, for any group of individuals to become the persons they are capable of being, depends on the personal and psychological factors which characterize them at the start. Typically, offenders have a value structure which varies considerably from that of individuals in the free world.<sup>38,39</sup> The offender often has been exposed to

only a limited amount of parental guidance. He possesses a poor self-image, lacks self-discipline, resents authority, and is failure-oriented. Information about the personal and psychological characteristics of the offenders is obtained from test records, school records, interview, and reports.

(F) ANALYZE FUNCTIONS

A function is an activity carried on to implement a system mission. Functions or elements are integral parts of the organization or structure designed especially to accomplish a stated mission. The functions of corrections are those activities carried on to accomplish the mission of correcting the offender. There are two kinds of functions, those that relate primarily to the offender and those that relate primarily to operation of the institution.

(G) ANALYZE OFFENDER RELATED FUNCTIONS

Offender related functions are those activities in the corrections system which are concerned primarily with redirection of the offender population from anti-social into socially productive and constructive avenues of life, and those activities concerned with securing and controlling the offender for the protection of society.

(H) ANALYZE SECURITY AND CONTROL FUNCTIONS

Security refers to the securing or custodial operations in the correctional institution. Security is accomplished through physical adjuncts such as towers, walls, fences, gates, locks. Control is accomplished through rules and regulations that make an orderly operation in the prison setting. There is strong agreement that without security and control, the other functions would be impossible.<sup>27,40</sup> Security and control of the offender population within the correctional jurisdiction, including movement inside and outside the walls, must be recognized as a precondition for any kind of treatment program.

(I) ANALYZE TREATMENT FUNCTIONS

Treatment is the process of managing and providing remedial and corrective services. Treatment can take place in a correctional institution, such as a prison or reformatory, or in a community treatment facility. The treatment function in corrections is a key element, since the mission of corrections calls for redirecting the behaviors of the individuals. This is accomplished only through remedial and corrective services. Treatment functions include education, psychology-psychiatry-therapy, medical-dental, social work, classification-probation-parole, ombudsman-legal, and religion.

(J) ANALYZE EDUCATION FUNCTION

Education is a process of changing behaviors of an individual in a direction deemed to be desirable. Changing of behavior takes place because of a planned, intended sequence of activities specifically designed to bring about the desired changes in knowing, feeling, and doing. Education, as part of the treatment function in corrections, is intended, planned, and directed experiences to bring about specified behavioral changes. These behavior changes include changes in knowledge, skills, attitudes, and values of the individuals making up the population in the particular corrections setting. Education typically has been classified under the following headings: social adjustment; vocational-technical; basic; academic, including General Educational Development preparation; health and education or recreation; guidance and counseling; and post-secondary.

In analyzing the education function in any institution, it is necessary to provide information about the purpose and procedures to implement each educational program and the description of the program, including number of learners enrolled, staff, hardware/software, and methods/techniques.

(K) ANALYZE PSYCHOLOGY-PSYCHIATRY-THERAPY FUNCTION

The psychology-psychiatry-therapy function is concerned with treating individuals who are severely disturbed. Counseling psychologists

work with persons whose problems are of a less severe degree. Psychiatry, in a broad sense, is defined as medical psychology. The psychiatrist is a medical doctor specializing in treatment and prevention of mental disorders. Psychotherapy is concerned with treatment of personality maladjustment or mental illness through personal consultation. Therapy can take place in individual or group sessions. Techniques include encounter, sensitivity, behavior modification, desensitization, and aversive therapy. Psychological services are concerned primarily with diagnosis and treatment of individuals with emotional or mental problems of a neurotic nature. The function of psychological services is to understand, predict, control, or modify the behavior of an individual. The adjustment of the person is an important prerequisite to the achievement of behavioral changes to equip the individual for constructive, productive participation in free society. The majority of offenders have experienced, at least on a temporary basis, personality disorders of one kind or another, ranging from neurotic to psychotic maladjustments. These services concerned with adjustment of the person are vitally important in the correctional setting. The majority of offenders have behavior problems. If they are to become capable of functioning in the free world as productive, contributing members of society, they must first overcome problems of personality adjustment.

(L) ANALYZE MEDICAL-DENTAL FUNCTION

Medical services are concerned with cure, alleviation, and prevention of disease, and the restoration and preservation of health. Dental services

are concerned with treatment of diseases and injuries to the teeth, extraction of diseased or injured teeth, and the insertion of artificial dentures. Medical and dental services are important because physical well-being is essential to learning.

(M) ANALYZE SOCIAL WORK FUNCTION

Social work services are organized efforts to help in adjustment of the individual to home and community, as well as adapting home and community to needs of the individuals. As such, social work services promote the welfare of families, of individuals, and of the community. Social work involves case work and group work. Case work is concerned with assisting needy individuals and families. The needy or unadjusted person may be physically handicapped, mentally handicapped, or socially handicapped. Social group work is concerned with supervised recreation, social settlement work, and supervised handicrafts.

The social work function is important because it is essential to understand the individual as a part of a social group -- a family, peer group, or community -- in order to devise meaningful educational experiences. Social work is important because the offender is a member of a social group, and must be understood in this frame of reference. One of the most important social roles an offender must learn is that of family member. The impact of the family on the individual prior to his entry into the institution, as well as the need for preparing the individual to adjust to the family role upon release and assisting him in maintaining

a semblance of family contact during incarceration are critical elements influencing his adjustment and correction.

(N) ANALYZE CLASSIFICATION, PROBATION, PAROLE FUNCTION

Classification is the process whereby information from many sources about the individual offender is processed and used as a basis for making decisions for establishing and maintaining a program to redirect the person. Probation is the process of releasing convicted individuals on suspended sentence under good behavior and under supervision of an officer. Parole is the process of granting release of an offender under supervision on condition of good behavior after the individual has served a portion of his sentence. A parole does not release the individual from custody; it does not discharge or absolve him from penal consequences of his act; it does not mitigate his punishment. Unlike a pardon, it is not an act of grace or leniency. The granting of parole is merely permission for an offender to serve a portion of his sentence outside the correctional institution, during which time he continues to be in the custody of authorities and is under restraint. His sentence remains in full force.

Classification, probation, and parole are important functions of a corrections system and relate to the education function. Information from classification is used in developing programs to meet needs of individual offenders. It is necessary to devise special programs to meet the needs of individuals on probation or parole, since these individuals

are outside the institution. The conditions of probation or parole may specify participation in an education program as a condition of release.

(0) ANALYZE OMBUDSMEN-LEGAL FUNCTION

The ombudsman's function is defined as the planned efforts to serve three related purposes: redressing individual grievances, improving the quality of administration, and helping to supervise the bureaucracy. The ombudsman receives complaints in addition to initiating complaints by his own volition. The function of an ombudsman is important in light of the changing emphasis on rights of offenders. When offenders have real or imagined problems stemming from their perceptions of infringement on their rights by authorities, these problems mitigate against efforts to bring about behavioral change in desirable directions. The legal function concerns opinions, actions, decisions of the courts relating to correct and just procedures, and denoting bases for securing redress of grievances and protection of individuals rights. These services assist individuals in understanding and implementing the edicts, decrees, orders, statutes, ordinances, and judicial decisions which serve as controls or regulations for society. Legal services pertain to the lawful rights of offenders. Legal services are important because offenders' rights are a constant source of unhappiness, and a great many legal cases are pending. Offenders spend a great deal of time preparing writs and other legal documents, and they are using time which otherwise might be devoted to participation in a program designed to help them accomplish redirection of their behavior.



(P) ANALYZE RELIGION FUNCTION

Religious services are concerned with belief in, reverence for, or desire to please a divine ruling power, and provide an opportunity for faith and worship. Religious services are important because they satisfy the spiritual and moral needs of the offenders. The services may be provided at the institution or in the community.

(Q) ANALYZE INSTITUTION RELATED FUNCTIONS

Institution related functions are those activities in a corrections setting which are concerned primarily with and contribute to efficient operation of the total system. These functions are implemented in four categories of activity: administration, mechanical services, personal services, and industry operations. These functions are important because the environment in which the corrections system operates determines to a significant degree the extent to which learning can take place. The offender related functions depend on an institutional environment.

(R) ANALYZE ADMINISTRATION FUNCTION

Administration is defined as planning, organizing, developing, scheduling, coordinating, staffing, budgeting, and decision-making activities conducted to direct the operation of a given institution or work unit. The administration function is important because the tone and

atmosphere of the facility reflect the decisions, plans, and organization of the administration. Every element in the system is touched in some way by administration. Administrative decisions gives direction to staffing, budget allocation, space allocation, physical plant design, and community involvement. The psychological climate of an institution is a reflection of the attitudes and values of the administration.<sup>41,42</sup>

(S) ANALYZE MECHANICAL SERVICES FUNCTION

Mechanical services are the activities carried out to maintain the physical condition of the facility in good repair and in operating order. Mechanical services are responsible for painting, lighting, sanitation, ventilation, and heating of the facility. Mechanical services are important because a sanitary, well-heated, well-lighted, freshly painted, ventilated facility in good repair is essential for physical and mental well-being of the offenders. There is an opportunity for relating work assignments in mechanical services to the educational program.

(T) ANALYZE PERSONAL SERVICES FUNCTION

Institutional personal services are those services provided to the total population to support the physical and mental well-being of the individuals. These services include food service, laundry service, barber service, and other similar services of personal nature contributing to the welfare of the inmate. These services are important because

well-balanced and nutritious meals, clean clothing, and neat appearances make for healthy growth and development of the offender. These services also provide an opportunity for offenders to have work assignments which can be related to their educational programs.

(U) ANALYZE PRISON INDUSTRY OPERATIONS FUNCTION

Prison industries, including farm operations, are those activities which are carried out for the purpose of making a profit. Industry operations include manufacture of products or provision of services.<sup>43</sup> Industry is important in a correctional setting because of the large number of offenders who can be employed, the utility of the products or service, and the income derived from the operation. Many treatment functions in the institution would not be possible without the support from industry.

CONCLUSION

The function, Analyze Real-Life Environment, provides the basis for developing a viable delivery system of education in corrections. The analysis of the real-life environment identifies the elements that make up a corrections system, determines the relationships among these elements, and conceptualizes each element separately. This analysis gives the picture of the situation, exactly as it is, in a given corrections setting. A delivery system must be designed for a particular environment. It is

not possible to produce a system for deliveryng education to any correc-  
tional setting without first knowing what constitutes the real-life en-  
vironment in which the system will operate. A basic rule of systems re-  
search is the rule of compatibility.<sup>44</sup> This principle states that the  
efficiency of a system is determined by the extent to which the system is  
compatible with its environment. Programs must be designed for particular  
learners. The analysis of the real-life environment presents the  
characteristics of the offender population. Programs must be designed  
for the particular setting of the institution and the post-release setting  
to which offenders will be going. The analysis of the environment depicts  
the institutional and post-release settings. Programs must build on what  
already is there. Programs do not start in a vacuum. It is important to  
know what functions are being implemented in the institution and the way  
in which these functions are being carried out. This function, Analyze  
Real-Life Environment, deals solely with the real-life environment  
exactly as it is. The next step, Establish Philosophy, will be devoted  
to synthesizing a set of beliefs to represent the ideal. When the ideal  
is compared to the real, needs are assessed. The analysis of the real-  
life environment is the first step in making a needs assessment.

## II. ESTABLISH PHILOSOPHY

It is important to establish a philosophy because this statement of  
beliefs will undergird all functions and activities of the correctional  
education delivery system. Establishing a philosophy should be done in

a systematic way. This is accomplished in four steps: Define Philosophy Concept, Establish Corrections Philosophy, Establish Institution Philosophy, and Establish Educational Philosophy.

(A) DEFINE PHILOSOPHY CONCEPT

Philosophy is the department of knowledge or study dealing with ultimate reality or truth. Philosophy is concerned with the ideal, rather than the real. Erickson (1970)<sup>45</sup> defines philosophy as the "I believes" of the individual or "we believes" of an organized group. Ryan (1972)<sup>46</sup> defines philosophy as a statement of beliefs elucidating the ideal situation which provides a framework and gives direction to goal setting and decision-making.

(B) ESTABLISH CORRECTIONS PHILOSOPHY

Corrections is defined as that part of the justice system concerned primarily with protecting society from further wrongs and changing the behaviors of individuals found guilty of prior wrongs and transgressions through violation of moral, legal, and ethical codes. Corrections seeks to redirect these individuals to make them capable of performing constructive, productive roles in society. Philosophy is the statement of beliefs which depicts the ideal. Philosophy is always related to something, object or situation. The corrections philosophy establishes what corrections would be if it were perfect. The corrections philosophy is

extrapolated from analysis of the literature on corrections, the charters of professional corrections societies.

A general corrections philosophy is expressed in the American Correctional Association's Manual of Correctional Standards (1966):<sup>47</sup>

A general corrections philosophy calls for individualized as opposed to mass treatment to the fullest practicable extent, even in maximum security institutions, with rehabilitation as a fundamental aim of the institution.

Rehabilitation is no longer a vague, haphazard and loosely defined process. The essential elements of a well-rounded correctional program of individualized training and treatment in an institution for adult offenders...include...scientific classification and program-planning on the basis of complete case histories, examinations, tests and studies of the individual prisoners; adequate medical services, having corrective as well as curative treatment as their aim, and making full use of psychiatry; psychological services, properly related to the problems of education, work assignment, discipline and preparation for parole; individual and group therapy and counseling, and application of the therapeutic community concept, under the direction of psychiatrists, psychologists, or other trained therapists and counselors; casework services, reaching families as well as prisoners; employment at tasks comparable in variety, type and pace to the work of the world outside, and especially tasks with vocational training value; academic and vocational education, in accordance with the individual's needs, interests, and capabilities; library services, designed to provide wholesome recreation and indirect education; directed recreation, both indoors and outdoors, so organized to promote good morale and sound mental and physical health; a religious program so conducted as to affect the spiritual life of the individual as well as that of the whole group; discipline that aims at the development of self-control and preparation for free life, not merely conformity to institutional rules; adequate buildings and equipment for the varied program and activities of the institution; and, above all, adequate and competent personnel, carefully selected, well trained, and serving under such conditions as to promote a high degree of morale and efficiency.

(C) ESTABLISH INSTITUTION PHILOSOPHY

The correctional institution is an institution designed to correct or redirect offenders. The institution may be located in more than one geographic area, but where it is in a single area bounded by wall or fence, or with two or more satellite installations located in widely separated areas, the institution will be unified by a central administration. The institution philosophy is established by stating the accepted beliefs about the mission of the institution, the functions to be implemented in the institution, the roles of staff, rights and worth of offenders, and the concepts of rehabilitation, security, and treatment. Formulating a workable, intellectually honest philosophy for an institution is a challenge. The statement of beliefs should be developed as a team effort by those who are part of the operation. When a written statement of philosophy has been developed for the institution, this should be checked against current beliefs to see if it reflects the thinking of the present administration.

(D) ESTABLISH EDUCATION PHILOSOPHY

The central focus of any philosophy of education in corrections must be the offender. Many have transgressed against human dignities, and many have lost their personal dignity. The offender must be exposed to a total educational experience which will help him regain self-confidence, recognize individual worth, achieve self-respect and realize personal

dignity.<sup>48</sup> If the offender is to gain respect for himself and others, he first must acquire basic skills of literacy, coping skills to equip him for participation in the mainstream of society, decision-making skills for functioning on a career ladder, interpersonal skills for social relationships, and citizenship skills for becoming law-abiding. He must be prepared so that upon release he can accept his role as a family member, person, citizen, and worker. Education in corrections must provide a logical, rational approach to bringing about positive change in the behaviors of the offenders. Education must bring about behavioral change that relates not only to academic proficiency, but also to social, vocational, civic, and personal dimensions.<sup>48,49</sup> A philosophy of corrections education presents the set of beliefs, or assumptions, about the offenders, corrections mission, program, and administration. Erickson (1970)<sup>45</sup> synthesized a philosophy of corrections education in the beliefs that:

1. there are constraints to be considered, and programs to be built to circumvent these obstacles;
2. a concentrated effort must be made to educate society regarding the way in which benefits to the offender ultimately benefit society;
3. treatment programs provide a logical approach to positive change in behaviors of offenders;
4. total staff commitment is essential to the success of a treatment oriented program;
5. the learner in corrections is disadvantaged by a unique combination of characteristics -- educational, social, vocational, psychological;
6. specific behavioral objectives must be designed to fit each individual, with continuing evaluation of progress toward the objectives;



7. the counseling process must be continuous and concomitant with academic education;
8. materials, environment, and learning atmosphere are critical and must be functional parts of the learning process;
9. education is a means and not an end in transformation of the offender;
10. education must prepare the offender for his role in free society;
11. each offender is a potential asset to society and deserving of the best efforts of the correctional institution to take him from where he is to the most advanced point he can reach.

#### CONCLUSION

The function, Establish Philosophy, is concerned with synthesizing a set of beliefs about corrections, the institution, and education to make a picture of that ideal. This set of assumptions provides the frame of reference for goal setting and acts as a yardstick against which the real-life environment is compared in order to assess needs. The assessment of needs is the next step in creating a delivery system for education in corrections.

#### III. ASSESS NEEDS

In producing a delivery system, the first step is to analyze the real-life environment, setting up a baseline for planning programs to achieve realistic goals. The next step is to establish an ideal, describing the kind of ultimate reality for the correctional setting by

specifying the beliefs about who among the offenders has the right to education, why education should be provided, what should be included in the education program, and how the education function should relate to other functions in the corrections system. The next step is to assess needs by comparing what is with what should be .

The importance of assessing needs cannot be overemphasized. The needs assessment, alone, will unveil weaknesses or deficiencies, and, when done logically and rationally, will provide data to justify requests for increased budgets, additional staff, or new facilities. The overriding purpose of the needs assessment is to give some direction to improvement. A needs assessment is accomplished by stating the needs and rank-ordering needs in order to identify the most critical.

#### (A) STATE NEEDS

Needs are discrepancies between what is and what is desired.<sup>48</sup>

It is important to state needs so the deficiency areas can be identified and plans can be made to meet these needs. Needs are stated by listing the programs offered, the offenders served, the administrative program support and the staff. This list describes what is, and is followed by another listing of what should be, including programs to prepare for self-realization, the job opportunities in post-release communities, the number of offenders who should be served, and the staff development to support treatment programs. The needs are stated as the deficits to overcome to make real and ideal congruent. These deficits are expressed

as (1) changes in behaviors of learners and (2) administrative changes, such as staff development.

#### (B) RANK ORDER NEEDS

To rank order means to place in order of priority. It is important to determine which needs are the most pressing and deserve immediate attention, which ones can be delayed for later consideration, and which ones, under prevailing conditions, appear impossible to fulfill. The function of rank ordering is accomplished by identifying each need and rating it on the basis of urgency of attention and feasibility of attack. This is a subjective evaluation, but numerical values can be attached to each of the needs to facilitate the rank ordering process. It is not unlikely that the comparison of real with ideal will yield a listing of needs so long that it simply would not be possible to attempt to meet all of them at one time. The rank ordering of needs serves the purpose of focusing attention on those needs which should be given first consideration.

#### CONCLUSION

The real-life environment was analyzed first and the ideal was synthesized. This was followed by a comparison of the existing real-life situation with the ideal as depicted in a set of assumptions or beliefs. The discrepancies or needs are rank ordered to determine where the focus of attention should be. The three steps which have been implemented to

make the needs assessment have been concerned with analyzing the existing situation. Next will be the establishment of goals, subgoals, and objectives. In these two steps a design is synthesized for meeting the assessed needs. The combination of analysis and synthesis represents the conceptualization of the system.

#### IV. DEFINE GOALS, SUBGOALS, OBJECTIVES

The needs identified in III. form the basis for establishing system goals, subgoals, and objectives at management level. In State Needs, needs were established by comparing the existing situation with the ideal. There is a direct relationship between needs and goals. The system goals specify the outcomes which must be obtained in order to satisfy the needs.

##### (A) DEFINE CONCEPTS

A goal is a collection of words or symbols describing a general intent or desired outcome.<sup>46</sup> A goal statement is a broadly defined statement of intent, such as "achieving self-fulfillment" or "developing self-actualization." A goal sets the direction and indicates the general nature of desired outcomes, but does not specify characteristics of the expected outcomes. Goals are broad, general, idealistic.

A subgoal is a component of a goal. Each goal is made up of two or more parts. Analysis of a goal will identify the kinds of behavioral

outcomes which must be achieved to prepare the offenders for return to society. A system subgoal defines the general area for which programs need to be developed.

A management behavioral objective is a performance objective, concerned with the total population in an institution. A management behavioral objective specifies the desired changes to be realized as a result of management functions for a given percentage of the total population.

Ryan (1969)<sup>44</sup> defined a SPAMO quality test for objectives. This test is used to determine whether or not an objective satisfies criteria for a performance or behavioral objective. The SPAMO test calls for checking each objective on five criteria: (1) specificity; (2) pertinence; (3) attainability; (4) measurability; and (5) observability.

#### (B) DEFINE MANAGEMENT GOALS, SUBGOALS, OBJECTIVES

The mission of corrections is to redirect and correct offenders so they can return to society as socially productive individuals. This mission is implemented in four goals of education in the correctional setting: (1) the development in the offender of knowledge, skills, and attitudes to make each one capable of being civically responsible; (2) the development in the offender of knowledge, skills and attitudes to make him capable of initiating and maintaining interpersonal social relationships; (3) the development in the offender of knowledge, skills, and attitudes/values so he can be economically efficient as producer and

consumer; and (4) the development in the offender of the knowledge, skills, and attitudes/values to make it possible for him to achieve self-realization.

In each institution it is necessary to convert these goals to subgoals which are appropriate for the particular setting and the population of offenders in the setting. The subgoals are broken down into management behavioral objectives which specify the programs which must be implemented in order to fulfill the needs identified in the needs assessment.

#### CONCLUSION

This subsystem is concerned with the definition of goals, subgoals, and objectives. These goals, subgoals, and objectives provide the direction to be taken in designing and implementing educational programs in any correctional setting. The management goals specify the development of civic responsibility, social relationships, economic efficiency, and self-realization in the offenders. These four goals are universal to all correction settings.<sup>18</sup> The goals are converted to subgoals which specify for each corrections setting the programs to be implemented in order to fulfill the needs. Each subgoal is broken down into behavioral terms, and presented as objectives for management. These objectives are the basis for achieving accountability, since evaluation will be made of the extent to which the objectives are achieved.

## V. FORMULATE PLAN

A system is produced through analysis, synthesis, simulation, and modeling. Analysis is employed when the elements which make up the real-life environment are identified, separated, and studied independently. This is accomplished in Analyze Real Life Environment. As elements which would make up an ideal situation are identified and combined, analysis and synthesis are employed to make a new whole in the form of a set of assumptions or beliefs. This is accomplished in Establish Philosophy. The needs assessment is completed by comparing what is with what should be, using analysis to separate the existing from the ideal. Synthesis is used in IV as needs are converted into a set of goals, subgoals, and objectives defining the outcomes which must be achieved in order to satisfy the assessed needs. The goals defined in IV define the desired outcomes. The next task, involving synthesis, simulation, and modeling, is one of formulating a plan for achieving the goals. This is done in V., Formulate Plan.

A plan is an operational description which includes the goals to be accomplished, the specifications within which operations will be carried out, and the description of operations to be implemented. Hatrak (1972)<sup>50</sup> raised the question: "How is it possible for...educators to make management and/or educational decisions without a thorough understanding of the planning process?... The answer is quite obvious, it is not possible." Formulation of a plan requires five steps: (1) statement of mission and parameters; (2) analysis of constraints and resources;

(3) synthesis of possible solutions; (4) modeling and-simulating to evaluate solutions; and, finally, (5) selection of the best possible solution.

(A) STATE MISSION AND PARAMETERS

A mission is an ultimate accomplishment or a charge to be performed. The specifications or requirements to be met in accomplishing the desired end are called parameters. Every system has specifications or requirements. These specifications, or parameters are essential characteristics or conditions established in the design and operation of the system. The parameters are fixed and will not change; however, the numerical value attached to the parameters can change. Parameters which will be basic to any educational system in corrections are:

1. time (remaining to be served, allocated for education);
2. cost (projected budget);
3. staff (full-time equivalent, including certified, non-certified, volunteer, offenders);
4. facilities (allocated space and buildings; projected space and buildings);
5. equipment (usable);
6. learner population (number, age-range, ethnic background; available for education).

The development of plans for the educational program for any correctional setting must begin with the mission statement. The mission is defined by the goals established in IV, and the parameters are determined during the analysis of the real-life environment in I.



(B) ANALYZE CONSTRAINTS AND RESOURCES

Constraints are known limitations and restrictions in the capabilities of human material factors relating to design, development, and maintenance of a system. A constraint can be overcome. Ways can be found to get around the obstacle. If the system specification calls for raising the reading level of a given population of offenders by two grades, and the offenders are without motivation to learn, this lack of learner motivation constitutes a severe obstacle in the way of realizing the goal. However, the obstacle can be overcome. The challenge is to find ways to motivate the learners.

Resources are assets which contribute to the realization of the system mission. Resources are means which have the capability of achieving ends and which facilitate accomplishment of the mission.

The analysis of constraints and resources is accomplished by identifying obstacles and assets related to the system mission, and by determining the relationships of these obstacles and assets to system operation and achievement of the mission. The constraints and resources are considered. Ways to get around or overcome constraints must be found, and ways to optimize resources must be devised. The systems approach is concerned with optimizing outcomes. This means making tradeoffs to capitalize on resources.

In designing a delivery system model, it is necessary to identify all constraints and resources and to describe the way in which each factor affects system operation.

(C) SYNTHESIZE POSSIBLE SOLUTIONS

A solution is a method for settling an issue or answering a question. A solution represents a decision. In the delivery system model of education in corrections, the issue is how to provide education to meet the needs in any correctional setting. Synthesizing possible solutions involves two steps: (1) brainstorming possible solutions; and (2) determining feasibility of possible solutions.

Brainstorming is a group process of creative thinking, with no attention to possible limitations or constraints in the real-life situation. In a brainstorming session, every idea must be recorded. As many ideas as possible must be considered. Brainstorming can be accomplished in a staff conference, in which the mission is presented and the group is asked to present possible ways for achieving the desired outcomes. In brainstorming, it is important to think in terms of goals. Brainstorming is intended to result in innovation. Goals are idealistic. When the target is somewhat idealistic, the brainstorming session will eventuate in the synthesis of plans that are innovative. The ideas suggested during brainstorming should result in at least two possible plans for accomplishing the mission. In designing a delivery system of education in corrections, the brainstorming of possible solutions is accomplished by presenting at least two possible solutions, that is, plans for achieving the mission.

Each possible solution must be checked to see if it is feasible. Since brainstorming involves idealistic and creative thinking, it is

likely that some aspects of the proposed solutions will not be implementable. Feasibility refers to the extent to which something is capable of attainment. In determining feasibility of proposed solutions, it may be that another look at resources and constraints would suggest modifications in the possible solutions. The result of the feasibility check should leave at least two possible solutions, or plans, for accomplishing the mission.

#### (D) MODEL/SIMULATE TO EVALUATE SOLUTIONS

Modeling is a process of producing a highly simplified, but controllable, version of a real-life situation. A model is an analogy or simplified version of the real world. When modeling is used to evaluate the possible solutions synthesized in Synthesize Possible Solutions, each solution is described with essential elements, identified, and relationships among the elements described. This can be accomplished by presenting the model of the solution in narrative and graphic forms.

Simulation is a process by which a model is tested under conditions made to resemble the real world. Simulation of possible solutions for achieving the mission of education in a correctional setting is accomplished by talking through each possible solution and weighing the advantages and disadvantages, costs and benefit

Evaluation is a process of interpreting quantitative data to provide a basis for making decisions about value or worth of an object, action, or concept. Evaluation of possible solutions is the process of determining

relative worth of each solution, in terms of the capability of accomplishing the system mission. Evaluation is made by defining criteria to judge the value of a solution, and rating the proposed solution on each of the criteria. Criteria for evaluation of a solution should include (1) relevance to system objectives; (2) extent of innovation; (3) flexibility; (4) simplicity; (5) time required; and (6) cost involved. Other criteria might be added to meet unique situational requirements. The most important criterion is relevance to system objectives. If a proposed solution is not relevant to the system objectives, it should be abandoned at once. There is no use in even thinking about a solution, no matter how beautiful it might be, if it does not relate to the objectives. Relative cost can make a difference between two otherwise equally attractive solutions. Some degree of innovation is required. Synthesis is synonymous with innovation. It is here that innovation is accomplished in designing models for delivery systems of education in corrections. There must be a degree of flexibility in order to provide for adaptation to change. The corrections setting must be geared to change. A solution should be characterized by as much simplicity and ease of operation as possible. Systems which are too complex stand the chance of floundering because of the difficulty in operation. The more complex the system, the more chance for error.

In the delivery system model the synthesis of possible solutions is a vitally important element. It is in this subsystem that information is presented to justify selection of a plan for accomplishing the mission, as well as providing alternatives which might be implemented at a future

time. The presentation of solutions, with careful attention to evaluation of the possible plans for accomplishing the mission, can be the basis for allocation of funds at a future time. If two possible solutions are presented, one of which cannot be implemented under existing conditions because of funding limitations, this can be the basis for obtaining funds at a future time to support the proposed solution. The solutions are rank ordered, or listed according to priority, following evaluation. The rank ordering is done by considering the possible solutions against the criteria of cost, time, feasibility, flexibility, innovativeness, simplicity, and maintainability, in addition to other criteria which might be established in a particular correctional setting.

#### (E) SELECT BEST POSSIBLE SOLUTION

Selection of the best possible solution is the process of identifying the solution which will become part of the system plan. The best possible solution may be the one which was given top priority in the rank ordering of solutions, or it may be a combination of elements from two or more solutions. The three elements which constitute the plan for education in any corrections setting are (1) the mission, (2) parameters, and (3) solution.

#### CONCLUSION

This subsystem, Formulate Plan, is the major synthesis subsystem in the model of education in corrections. In I, analysis of the existing

situation was made, presenting the real world, as it is. In IV, a new plan is devised. This function, Formulate Plan, is a management function. The plan which is formulated sets the directions and prescribes the limits for the instructional program which will be implemented in the corrections setting.

## VI. IMPLEMENT PROGRAM

The management plan devised in V. provides the foundation for implementing the instructional program. Implementation of the program requires management support and curriculum development.

### (A) PROVIDE MANAGEMENT SUPPORT

Management is comprised of the functions of organization and administration, and includes responsibilities for planning, organizing, coordinating, directing, controlling, and supervising, with obligations to account for results. Managers are concerned with activities, projects, and programs. Management is a decision-making process, and managers are responsible for their decisions.

An environment which encourages learning is a necessary part of the total education in corrections program. Learning experiences will be ineffective if not supported by administrative decisions that maximize possibilities of achieving corrections goals and instructional subgoals and objectives. The instructional program needs to be developed on the

basis of findings from relevant research. The progra. requires coordination of funds, space, equipment, materials, supplies, personnel, and community resources. There must be a concerted effort to maximize community resources in a systematic way in the instructional program. The support of management is necessary for human and material resources to be used most effectively in developing and implementing the instructional programs. Administration and instructional decisions must be made for organizing instruction. These decisions must be mutually reciprocal. Management must support the achievement of instructional objectives through allocation and expenditure of funds, design/construction/modification of facilities; recruitment/selection/training of staff; scheduling of time; coordination of institutional and community resources; and maintaining a climate for learning.

(B) SURVEY/DISSEMINATE RELEVANT RESEARCH

Research is defined as a process of sequentially related, systematically implemented activities, conducted for the purpose of seeking answers to hypothesized questions through the scientific method.<sup>44</sup> The degree of control exercised in carrying out research activities and the amount of sophistication applied in developing the plan for research activities varies from a rigidly controlled, highly experimental program aimed primarily at theory-building to the action-type projects where controls are minimal. Regardless of the degree of sophistication involved, research is intended to produce information relating to defined problems.

The use of research should result in more effective utilization of human and material resources to accomplish stated goals. Keve (1972)<sup>51</sup> points out that "in addition to the conventional use of research for testing the effectiveness of methods, it can also be used for its direct therapeutic or instructional value to the student himself when he is put in the role of researcher."

The process of surveying research involves looking at available information relevant to developing, implementing, and evaluating education in corrections. Dissemination of research is the process of making the information available in usable form to those who are involved in the system operation. Three areas of research are relevant to the design, implementation, and evaluation of education in corrections: (1) learning research; (2) social interaction research; and (3) human growth and development research.

There are a number of clearinghouses operated by government agencies and professional organizations concerned with identification and dissemination of information dealing with education in corrections. Government agencies maintain files and issue periodicals and other reports. Materials in major professional journals are indexed in Education Index, Psychological Abstracts, Sociological Abstracts, and related indexes. Inquiries to research and development centers, centers for criminal justice studies, and schools of education, sociology, and psychology can help to identify on-going studies. Several professional organizations are engaged actively in information dissemination and report periodically in newsletters. The professional organizations also provide a platform for research reporting



at annual meetings. The following list illustrates sources of information about research related to education in corrections:

1. Government Agencies

A. U. S. Office of Education

- (1) National Multi-Media Clearinghouse (evaluates, abstracts, and indexes materials on Adult Basic Education).
- (2) Regional Officer (on ongoing projects and reports).
- (3) Regional Laboratories and Clearinghouses (reports on special studies related directly to specific regional problems and populations).
- (4) ERIC (indexes all education research and research-related literature).
- (5) Division of Adult Education (teacher training and special demonstration projects; in-house reports).

B. U. S. Bureau of Prisons (central office clearinghouse on special projects in education).

C. Law Enforcement Assistance Agency (research office, and clearinghouse).

D. U. S. Department of Labor (research on manpower development and training).

E. National Institute of Corrections (clearinghouse of corrections materials).

2. Publications

A. Books, monographs, special reports, bibliographies

B. Professional journals

- (1) Adult Education.
- (2) Adult Leadership.
- (3) American Educational Research Journal.
- (4) Review of Educational Research.

(5) American Journal of Corrections.

(6) Correctional Education Journal.

(7) Psychology Today.

C. Dissertation Abstracts

3. Institutions of Higher Education

4. Professional Organizations

A. American Correctional Association

B. Adult Education Association

C. National Association of Public and Continuing Adult Education.<sup>18</sup>

(C) SURVEY/DISSEMINATE LEARNING SYSTEMS RESEARCH

Learning systems research includes all information produced through a systematic study on motivation, repetition, transfer of learning, reinforcement, goal setting, individual instruction, group instruction, teacher characteristics, learning materials, classroom climate, facilities, and educational technology. This research deals with the learning process.

Bennet (1972)<sup>52</sup> cites principles of learning which apply to the adult learner in corrections:

1. Principles of good teaching apply to adults as well as to children;
2. Learning is more rapid and efficient when the learner is a participant rather than a spectator;
3. Interest is greater and learning is more effective when a visible and tangible product appears as the result of a learner's activity;

4. Group learning is more effective than individual learning;
5. The greater the number of sensory channels used in the process, the greater the amount of learning;
6. The more learning is used, the more it will be retained; and
7. Learning is more effective when the approach is an informal laboratory concept, using flexible time blocks, capitalizing on learner needs, and using positive behavioral modification techniques.

The need to generate motivation on the part of the learner is nowhere more critical than in corrections. Motivation is the key to success. Unless information can be used to help the learner develop motivation to learn, it has little value. Several approaches to accomplish this have been tested. Positive results have come from considered use of outside resource persons, teacher enthusiasm, and positive classroom climate. Learning is more rapid when the learner is involved as a participant and when material is presented in graspable units. Michael (1967)<sup>53</sup> states that the offender possesses all the human qualities that distinguish him as an individual. These qualities are of varying degrees in their appearances, but are quite critically significant in affecting his motivation to learn. The offender has a need for understanding, acceptance, success, love, status, education, verbal skills, positive motivation, emotional gratification, vocational skills, human relations, friends, models, recognition, goals, relevance, reality, communication, and self-image. Sherk (1970)<sup>54</sup> further emphasizes this by pointing out that failure or threat of failure will only result in avoidance behavior which inhibits learning.

One of the most compelling kinds of motivation for a confined offender is the reasonably certain knowledge that efforts he might make while confined can result in a tangible pay-off later in the free world.

Another aspect of learning that is important is knowledge of results. This factor is important especially when attention is given to the fact that the offender probably has been subjected to repeated failures, particularly in educational settings. Feedback of results has been demonstrated to be important. Individuals need almost immediate feedback about how they are doing in order to progress. It is important to plan practice sessions. In most situations, distributed practice will produce learning of a more lasting nature.

The law of effect is a basic principle of learning. The principle points up the fact that responses to a situation that elicit positive conditions are likely to be repeated. The offender group is characterized by a need for immediate gratification, and it is important to understand the reward system of the learner's immediate reference group. Reinforcement theory contends that what a person learns is contingent upon the consequences of his acts. Consequences which strengthen or reward the behavior they follow are positive reinforcers. McKee and Clements (1967)<sup>55</sup> concluded that the warden is the most powerful reinforcer in a correctional setting, because he is in a position to cause things to happen. Contingency management relies on enhancing approach responses and decreasing or extinguishing avoidance response tendencies. This system of manipulating and controlling learning contingencies to maximize learning was found effective in correctional settings in the Draper Project

(Rehabilitation Research Foundation, 1968).<sup>56</sup> The approach which was taken at Draper involved a system of extrinsic reinforcers which were applied frequently and immediately to keep the inmate involved in achieving long-range success.

The system was effective.

We were able to get trainees to increase their academic productivity by paying them for points earned by completing programmed instruction. A point value was assigned to each programmed course on the basis of its length and difficulty, and the monetary value of the points was established. A trainee could then earn money according to his own productivity. He was not, however, paid for merely completing frames. He had to pass one unit and/or final examinations in a course in order to earn points.

Such a plan offered flexibility in delivering reinforcement. For example, trainees might have been paid once a week for all points earned in that week; or they might have been paid whenever they accumulated a certain number of points; or payment for points earned in one course would be made contingent upon earning points in another course. The instructor could schedule reinforcement and vary the schedule as he saw the need.

Bennett (1972)<sup>57</sup> feels that instrumental behavior is important in instructing adults in a correctional setting. Adults are more likely to learn those skills that are of most value to them in assisting them to progress toward defined objectives.

In a delivery system model, the important research findings on learning systems will be reported.

#### (D) SURVEY/DISSEMINATE SOCIAL INTERACTION RESEARCH

Social interaction research is information obtained through systematic study of group dynamics, leadership, morale, productivity, communication,

sensitivity, social class and structure, and roles and status. Research on social interaction is important because of the tremendous peer group influence in the correctional setting. There is a need to design and implement programs in an environment where there are two dominant social classes and two social structures -- peer and establishment. Leadership and morale among the offenders are important variables related to learning, and communication and sensitivity must be understood in relation to both staff and offenders. The sociology of the correctional setting is critical to the implementation of an effective program.

The prison functions as a social system because individuals interact with each other with sufficient uniformity so that behaviors can be classified as conforming to the environment. Individuals in prison share similar orientations to the setting, and this orientation causes individuals to be motivated to behave in predictable ways to seek gratification. The individuals have learned to anticipate attitudes and social responses from other members of the group. The prison as a social system is heavily populated by aggressive and undisciplined persons. Reliance on coercive techniques for social control encourages hostility, dependence, and manipulative efforts on the part of the offender.

Within the prison, two social systems compete for allegiance of the offender. Officials make up a formal organization, structured by a set of rules. A maximum custody institution operates a social system designed to maintain total control over offenders through power concentration in the hands of the establishment. Rules are imposed and surveillance and coercion are employed to maintain control. A rival social system

among offenders is in contradiction to the formal social system. Offender groups emerge and form social systems to provide protection against the power groups. The offender gains satisfaction from membership in a group of peers who understand him and are interested in his problems. The conflicts which arise between the two social systems in the correctional setting must be understood and taken into account in developing and implementing programs for education in corrections. Individuals in correctional settings are delinquently oriented. The question is, what is the relationship of this delinquent orientation to learning? To reach the majority of offenders, it is wise to select material that relates to concrete manipulations or tasks that involve abstraction without verbal skills. Bennett (1972)<sup>52</sup> cites Rohwer (1971) suggesting an approach to increasing learning skills by using concrete, explicit, and specific instructional programs, taking into account that differences in school success depend on ethnicity, socio-economic status, and mental ability.

In a delivery system, the factors of social class and structure must be taken into account, and important findings must be presented.

(E) SURVEY/DISSEMINATE HUMAN GROWTH/DEVELOPMENT RESEARCH

The research on human growth and development provides information about characteristics and needs of the offender, the relation between heredity and environment, the growth and development of individuals in different cultures, the influence of values, and the causes of conflicts and anxiety. Information about human growth and development is important,

since learning is a function of the growth and development of the individual. An effective program can be designed only if it is planned for a target group. A complete understanding of the person is necessary if a viable program is to be developed. Learners likely to be entered into the educational program in correctional settings share a number of characteristics in common. They are apt to be delinquently oriented. They are likely to be of a minority ethnic origin and come from lower socio-economic levels. They will have a long history of failure in academic pursuits. Forty percent of offenders are without previous work experiences. Most inmates are insecure, exhibit little self-discipline, have a low self-image, and manifest distorted value systems. The average educational achievement will range between fifth and sixth grade level. Offenders are basically in opposition to the mores of society. The social structure in the institutional setting is an artificial one. According to the Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training ((1969),<sup>58</sup> persons in the lower socio-economic class are likely to have more frequent contact with criminals, antisocial individuals or groups than are members of the middle or upper class, enhancing the probability that these individuals, when unemployed, will become involved in criminal behavior.

The expectation of failure is a characteristic typical of the majority of offenders. The individual entering a correctional institution is apt to be educationally retarded, with a mean tested grade level about two years behind the level of grade last attended in school.<sup>52</sup>



The need for the instructor to relate to the learner is critical in the correctional setting. Bennett (1972)<sup>52</sup> cites the conclusions of Truax and Carkhuff (1967)<sup>59</sup> that characteristics essential to effective interpersonal communication between learner and teacher in corrections are empathy, positive regard, and congruence.

The forces and beliefs dominating minority groups must be considered, and efforts should be made to capitalize on their pride in the background and culture of the group. It is essential to attend to ways in which traditions, subcultures, common relationship and role sets complicate the job of motivating and assisting confined offenders (Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training, 1969).<sup>58</sup> It is necessary, but not sufficient, to take into account the generally accepted information relating to characteristics of the learner.<sup>49</sup>

Any delivery system model of education in corrections must take into account the pool of data on human growth and development as this pertains to the offender population.

#### (F) ALLOCATE/EXPEND FUNDS

There are two support functions performed in the area of financial resources: allocation of funds and expenditures of funds. Allocation means to designate the fund for a specific purpose. Expenditure means to actually spend the money for the purpose designated. Until expenditures takes place, the allocation always can be reviewed and changed or modified.

Allocation and expenditure of funds are important functions performed by management to support an instructional program. Without funds to support the program, it is almost impossible to have an educational program.

(G) DESIGN/CONSTRUCT/MODIFY FACILITIES

A facility is an installation in which a program will be implemented. This refers to the architectural product, and includes requirements for storage, ventilation, acoustics, color, lighting, and electrical outlets. The construction or modification of a facility should not be seen as a one-time support function. This must be continuous. Chapman (1970)<sup>60</sup> has noted:

For more than half a century architects and designers have been living with the dogma form follows function -- but it is important to recognize these times in which we live are characterized by CHANGE. If we understand that form permits function, we have a rational modification of Sullivan's doctrine. Changing functions may require responsive change in physical and environmental factors.

Gilbert (1970)<sup>61</sup> described the management function in relation to facilities:

...before proper consideration can be given to the design of an educational facility, appropriate educational objectives must be established. How the established objectives are to be achieved, type of educational methods, curriculum content, and other questions must be determined before planning can proceed intelligently.

A special facility is needed in corrections to accommodate the educational function. Gilbert (1970)<sup>61</sup> states the plant should provide flexibility in program and create an environment which encourages student activity. The education plant must not be a replica of a typical

public school. The educational plant must be designed to permit individual student development, with provision for flexible scheduling and group activities. It is important to provide for student movement and control.

No one layout can satisfy all purposes. The size and dimensions of instructional space must conform to changing emphasis in the educational program. If the decision is made to incorporate extensive individualized study into the program, space must be designed to support this approach. Additional space must be available for teachers, so that conferences can be conducted with a minimum of interference from the outside. If large group instruction is to be part of the program, space must be allocated based on number of learners and program requirements. It is the responsibility of management to see that facilities provide for adequate storage, physical climate, lighting, acoustics, and color. Since correctional institutions operate educational systems on a fifty-two week basis, thought must be given to ventilating heating, and air-conditioning the plant. It is important to think in terms of climatizing the area in which the educational program will operate.

(H) RECRUIT/SELECT/TRAIN STAFF

Recruitment is a process of purposefully and systematically seeking to enlist fresh supplies of personnel for a given unit. Selection is the process of choosing particular individuals from among those potentially available for specified assignments on the basis of defined criteria. Training is the process of preparing workers to do their jobs well by

developing skills for effective work, knowledge for intelligent action, and attitudes of enthusiastic motivation. Training not only increases production but also increases self-confidence and improves morale.

Recruitment, selection, and training of staff are important since the efficiency and effectiveness of system operation depends on qualifications and competencies of staff. A carefully specified system of recruitment should be established to insure that the best available persons are attracted to the institution or agency, and a planned procedure for selection from among those available should be instituted in order to have the best possible persons to fulfill a specified function in the system operation. Pre-service and in-service training must be provided on a continuing, systematic basis, both as a means of giving individuals opportunity for professional growth and development and as a means of contributing to the improvement of the correctional system.

#### (1) SCHEDULE TIME

Scheduling time is the process of deciding which part and how much of the day is to be devoted to different activities. Scheduling time for education refers to allocation of time for the educational activities in the institution. It is important to make time available for education and to provide a system which insures that learners can be available at the time the education program is offered.

(J) COORDINATE INSTITUTIONAL AND COMMUNITY RESOURCES

The process of coordinating institutional and community resources involves placing the elements in the institution operation and those in the outside environment in relation to each other in such a way as to implement the total system of corrections education. This means identifying resources in the institution and community and determining the ways in which these resources can be related to accomplish the mission. One of the most important functions of management is to obtain support from the power structure in the community.

Hilfiker (1972)<sup>62</sup> has pointed out the importance of coordinating institutional and community resources:

Many education programs in the correctional setting, due to restrictions and limitations of budgets and equipment, must rely on other available sources for assistance. Educators should be cognizant of the available sources of institution residents, staff, retired personnel, civic organizations, labor, business, federal and state agencies, local and state-wide school systems and other professional personnel to contribute their time and energy to the institution education program. Existing programs can be expanded, and new exciting and dynamic beneficial programs developed if the community is made aware and sold on the needs of the program.

(K) MAINTAIN CLIMATE FOR LEARNING

The climate for learning is the motivational effect of the total environment on the learner deriving from combined physical and psychological factors in the system. The total environment must be construed as the total setting, including the facility, equipment, staff, and

offenders. Each of these elements contributes either by virtue of physical design or psychological impact on the environment, and together the elements determine whether or not the atmosphere is one which supports learning and places education in a status position. A positive climate for learning can obtain in any setting, if the attitudes of staff and offenders are supportive of education. The responsibility for developing and maintaining a positive climate for learning rests on management. Staff roles should not be identified solely as treatment or custody, but, rather, must, by definition, be united under the banner of corrections if the challenge of correcting the offenders is to be met. "It should be the goal of every educator in the correctional setting to develop an environment that is conducive to learning and encourages the learner to reach his goals."<sup>62</sup>

(L) DEVELOP CURRICULUM

The curriculum is defined as the totality of learning experiences and environments purposefully created and contrived for the sole purpose of bringing about desirable changes in the behaviors of the learners. The curriculum is implemented in a defined setting, which indicates the institutional environment and the extra-institutional environment servicing the system. Analysis of the total curriculum in any correctional setting will reveal major content areas around which sets of experiences and environments are to be created. The total curriculum must be designed to achieve the four major goals: development of self-realization;

development of economic efficiency; development of civic responsibility; and development of social relationships. The curriculum is developed by considering each of the elements that goes into making up the curriculum, and producing curriculum guides for each area. The curriculum is the heart of the instructional process. It is essential to the success of the instructional program. Without a rational, logical, systematic procedure for organizing learning experiences and environments, it is not possible to optimize learning outcomes. The curriculum must describe what the learners will know or do and how they will feel, and conclude with a procedure for evaluating the extent to which the content and activities were effective in accomplishing the goals.

(M) CONSIDER/DESCRIBE CURRICULUM ELEMENTS

The curriculum has four major elements: (1) the research principles underlying the curriculum development; (2) the instructional philosophy (3) instructional goals, subgoals, and objectives; and (4) alternatives for achieving the objectives.

The research principles underlying any curriculum must be stated. These derive from the reported research on learning, social interaction, and human growth and development.

The instructional philosophy is the statement of beliefs about the nature of and ultimate purpose of the learning experience and environments. Philosophy includes the beliefs and truths held about the learners, purpose and nature of instruction, and roles and responsibilities of staff.

Instructional goals are statements of general intent, to be realized as a result of planned instructional intervention. The goals of instruction are the same as the goals of management -- to make individuals economically efficient, civically responsible, capable of maintaining healthy social relationships, and capable of achieving self-realization. Instructional subgoals refer to the knowledge, skills, and attitudes to be developed by the learners in any given setting. The objectives must meet the SPAMO test.<sup>44</sup>

(N) DESCRIBE STRATEGIES FOR ACHIEVING OBJECTIVES

The instructional philosophy gives the frame of reference and provides direction to be taken in creating learning experiences and contriving learning environments. The instructional goals, subgoals, and objectives describe the changes in behaviors which are desired. The next step is the creation of the learning experiences and the contrivance of learning environments. This is accomplished by strategies of instruction. A strategy is a predetermined plan that specifies the response to be given to each possible circumstance at each stage of an operation. An instructional strategy is a predetermined plan that specifies the methods, techniques, devices, and motivational elements to be implemented under varying circumstances at different stages of the program. This predetermined plan serves the function of giving projection for and direction to the creation of learning experiences and contrivance of learning environments. The instructional plan is composed of five



elements: scope, sequence, methods/techniques, hardware/software, and motivation. This subsystem, Describe Strategies for Achieving Objectives, is the heart of the curriculum. It is this subsystem that provides the basis for all learning experiences and environments in the curriculum. Everything the teachers or instruction-related personnel do, and every aspect of the teaching-learning situation is prescribed by the strategies for achieving objectives.

(0) DESCRIBE SCOPE

Scope is concerned with depth and breadth of coverage. It includes those experiences necessary to achieve the predetermined behavioral objectives, decisions to be made concerning where to begin, essential concepts needed, and minimal skills to be acquired. Total coverage must be sufficient to permit maximum flexibility and individualization and at the same time sufficient to achieve objectives. The depth of coverage is one aspect of scope. This refers to the depth of understanding required for the lowest level concept included in the curriculum. Decisions about where to begin building the scope of concepts can be made by measuring the learners on their entry performance on a representative sample of behaviorally defined curriculum objectives. Scope of learning experiences is an important aspect of strategies for achieving instructional objectives. There are many options for making up the scope of any curriculum. There are many sources from which to identify the elements that will combine to make up the essential knowledge, skills,

and attitudes for learners in order to become economically efficient, and develop interpersonal skills, civic responsibilities, and self-realization.

A total education must include development of a new life perspective, awareness of family and social responsibilities, and changing attitudes from defeatism and rejection to confidence and leadership. Scope of a comprehensive program should provide for language, reading and writing, culture-academic elements, and emotional development. Education, in a correctional setting, must provide for academic instruction, vocational training, and social adjustment.

(P) DESCRIBE SEQUENCE

Sequence is the systematic order or arrangement of activities to be compatible with the way individuals learn. Sequence refers to the order in which learners interact with elements making up the scope of any curriculum. Scope and sequence are integrally interrelated. Sequencing decisions must be made at two levels in developing a curriculum:

(1) sequence of units within the overall curriculum; and (2) sequence of learning experiences within the unit. Sequencing is a systematic, logical, rational process of ordering activities to achieve curriculum goals, subgoals, and objectives. There are basic principles derived from learning theory to guide the process of sequencing.

1. Materials should be sequenced to move from the big picture to the details.

2. Materials should be sequenced according to interest. Start with a unit that contains information in which the learner is highly interested.
3. Materials should be sequenced logically. Arrange the units so that prerequisite information is mastered before succeeding concepts are presented. Logical sequence can be achieved by presenting material chronologically -- whole to part, or general to specific.
4. Materials should be skill-sequenced. Organize tasks or units to provide orderly development of skills.
5. Material should be sequenced according to frequency of use.
6. Material should cover the total package.
7. Material should be sequenced from simple to complex.
8. Material should be sequenced according to developmental patterns of learners.
9. Material can be sequenced to provide a pattern of enrichment.
10. Material can be sequenced to provide a pattern of remediation. Sequencing of experiences within the unit serves the purpose of achieving individualization of instruction.

(Q) DESCRIBE METHODS/TECHNIQUES

Verner (1962)<sup>63</sup> defines method as the organization of prospective participants for the purpose of education. A method is the way in which individuals are organized in order to conduct a learning activity.

A method establishes the relationships between learner and the institution or agency through which the learning task is accomplished. Knowles (1970)<sup>64</sup> equates method with format, and identifies two major categories of instructional method: (1) individual, and (2) group. Methods for individual learning include: (a) apprenticeship; (b) correspondence courses; (c) clinical counseling; (d) independent study; (e) programmed instruction sequence; (f) supervision; and (g) individually prescribed instruction.

Verner (1962)<sup>63</sup> defines techniques as the ways in which the learning task is managed to facilitate learning. Knowles (1970)<sup>64</sup> identified a number of categories of instructional techniques:

1. presentation
2. participation
3. discussion
4. simulation
5. skill practice

Both individual and group methods are important in education in corrections. Utilization of the full range of techniques should be made. It is extremely important to provide for individual instruction and group learning. It is important to consider sensory appeals, relevancy to the learning process, and practical advantages when selecting the technique for accomplishing a given behavioral objective. Without precise, systematic educational planning, individualization of instruction results in educational chaos. Miller (1971)<sup>65</sup> defines an individualized program as learning activities organized in a sequence that permits each adult to move at his pace and work at his own level of ability, under

the guidance of a teacher. "Individualizing instruction...does not mean that all responsibility for learning is turned over to the student. Nor does it mean that the program resembles an electronic arsenal with each student plugged into his appropriate socket."<sup>65</sup>

(R) DESCRIBE HARDWARE/SOFTWARE

Verner (1962)<sup>63</sup> refers to devices as all those particular things or conditions which are utilized to augment the techniques and to make learning more certain. Devices can be classified in two categories: 1) hardware, and (2) software. There is an important and essential relationship that exists between the use of instructional methods and techniques and the selection and use of devices, including hardware and software.

Sherron (1972)<sup>66</sup> defines hardware as those machines, physical equipment, and audio-visual devices that perform a physical function in the presentation of educational software. These items range in complexity from the simple filmstrip viewer to computer controlled carrels containing cathode ray displays, image projectors, talking typewriters, and playback mechanisms. Hardware can be classified in eight categories:

1. projection equipment
2. audio recording and playback equipment
3. multimedia equipment
4. television
5. photographic equipment

6. teaching machines
7. reading machines
8. computer assisted instruction and dial access systems

Sherron (1972)<sup>66</sup> defines software as those materials that provide learning experiences, including various media that require hardware for presentation. There are nine categories of software:

1. printed textual materials
2. still pictures
3. films
4. transparencies
5. audio materials
6. simulation games
7. realia
8. media pack and unipack
9. multi-level kits

The learning center in the corrections center would employ the following features and strategies:

1. applies latest programmed learning techniques
2. utilizes latest educational technology
3. designs individualized program for each learner
4. utilizes learning coordinator and assistants to conduct and manage experiences, advise learners, maintain records
5. provides flexibility of scheduling and variety of instructional strategies.

The delivery system models to meet the needs which generally characterize corrections will include a wide range of hardware, including the following:

1. Projection equipment. There are advantages to use of projection equipment. Hill (1971)<sup>67</sup> and Frank (1972)<sup>68</sup> point out that visual media bring the distant and remote directly to the learner. This is important in the correctional setting. The 8 mm motion picture camera makes it possible to include tailor-made materials. It does not have instant replay feasibility. The film loop projector makes use of continuous loop cartridges with viewing sequences of varying lengths. Sherron (1972)<sup>66</sup> states that projection equipment provides for linear or random viewing and stimulates interest.
2. Audio recording and playback equipment. Audio hardware includes the variety of equipment which mechanically or electronically captures sound and stores it for subsequent playback. Sherron (1972)<sup>66</sup> states that the advantage of audio record and playback equipment are stimulating interest, maintaining motivation, and capturing the real-life environment. The tape recorder can be used in self-evaluation, recording of events, role playing, narrations, and public speaking. The telephone can bring reality and practically to the corrections setting.
3. Multi-media equipment. This group of hardware combines sight and sound, including video tape systems, sound filmstrip devices, slide-tape recording combinations, and print and sound

systems. Sherron (1972)<sup>66</sup> states the multi-media equipment allows a closer simulation of real-life, provides flexibility, and allows for a variety of software combinations. Hill (1971)<sup>67</sup> recommends the use of the video tape recorder in self-evaluation, role playing, and public speaking. It is possible to purchase prepared sequences of instructional material for use with the video tape recorder.

4. Television. Sherron (1972)<sup>66</sup> quotes the National Education Media Study Panel regarding utilization of television:

The basic question is how to combine it most effectively with other learning experiences and resources.

The well-planned television program can motivate students, guide and sharpen their reading by providing background and demonstrations, encourage responsibility for independent learning, arouse curiosity, and develop new insights and the excitement of discovery.

5. Photographic equipment. With the Kodak Ektagraphic Visualmaker kit, the teacher or learners can copy pictures, drawings, maps, and charts, and make excellent slide presentations.<sup>69</sup>
6. Teaching machines. Udvari (1972)<sup>69</sup> describes teaching machines and auto-tutor devices. Teaching machines are either manually or machine operated. Manually operated varieties utilize printed programs of the linear variety. The learner manually advances the programs to the next frame and makes a response. On the next advance, the correct answer is given. Many auto-tutors are highly sophisticated devices. Some employ slides or filmstrips with or without an audio track.



7. Reading machines. Udvari (1972)<sup>69</sup> describes reading and tachistoscopic devices. Reading machines are highly specialized instructional tools, operating by projecting printed words, phrases, and paragraphs on a screen. The tachistoscope is an image timing device. Another type of reading machine is the language master, which utilizes a strip of magnetic tape carrying a prescribed sound, word, or group of words. The learner reads the word, hears it, and records his own speaking of the sound.
8. Computer assisted instruction and dial-access systems. Weinberg (1972)<sup>70</sup> describes computer assisted instruction as a learning system conducted totally within the computer. The computer tests, diagnosis, and prescribes. In addition, all learning materials are presented by the computer at a connected terminal. There are large group terminals and equipment systems for small group self-pacing use. Weinberg (1972)<sup>70</sup> states the large group terminal includes all sorts of projection and reception equipment but not facilities for interaction. It is possible to provide for a response system at each learner position. A question is asked, and the learner presses an appropriate button. The answers are recorded, and a combination of percentage correct/incorrect is printed out. The instructor can repeat or re-emphasize concepts which are not grasped. With equipment systems for individual or small group use, the terminals are similar. The terminal equipment systems for self-pacing use consists of a learning carrel with a single unit.

The dial access retrieval system is a sound system having storage and retrieval capabilities from reel to reel or cassette programs. These programs can be dialed into by students from various local stations with either monitor response, self-recording playback, or only tutorial feature. Private line circuits link the control center with the prison. Portable conference telephones in the prison transmit the instructor's voice to the learners. Microphones built into the sets enable the learners to ask questions. Electrowriters at the college and in the prison are used to show diagrams or other materials. The lectures can be tape recorded and stored in the library.

The software which will be built into the delivery systems to meet the needs of education in corrections includes the following:

1. Printed textual materials. This includes texts, programmed materials, newspapers, and text-workbooks.
2. Still pictures. This includes opaque and film.
3. Films. There are two classes of film: motion and still.
4. Transparencies. These are teacher made or commercially prepared textual or illustrative material on acetate for projection with the overhead.
5. Audio materials. These materials are made up of the different types of software that capture sound via recording and store it for subsequent playback.
6. Simulation games. Weinberg (1972)<sup>70</sup> describes simulation games in social studies, economics, environmental studies, business,

government, life careers. Games may or may not be computer-based, and can be used by individuals or groups.

7. Realia. In addition to actual objects, modified real things such as specially prepared specimens can be used effectively.
8. Media pack and unipack. A media pack is a self-contained arrangement of teacher prepared learning materials designed for individual and independent learners who are performing at the same level. The instructional packet focuses on a single concept. The teacher's packet contains introduction, behavioral objectives, pretest, lessons, posttest, quest activities, and learner evaluation.

The unipack is similar to the media pack except that its content is broader in scope.

9. Multi-level kits. These kits offer a package of individual lessons on several different levels. Each lesson is independent of the other, and skills are not sequentially developed from lesson to lesson, but from level to level.

The learning environment of delivery systems which will meet the needs in corrections will include learning laboratories and media centers. The learning laboratory is a unique, self-contained learning environment providing individualized, self-paced instruction by combining a multimedia approach with programmed instructional materials. Lane and Lewis (1970)<sup>71</sup> identify fifteen characteristics of the learning laboratory:

1. Individual programs provide a combination of learning experiences.

2. Individual programs are planned in terms of student needs.
3. Materials and test items are selected on basis of behavioral objectives.
4. Each learner proceeds at his own rate.
5. Different learning strategies are used for objectives representing different types of learning.
6. Each program is individualized.
7. The learner learns by doing and is actively involved in planning, mastering, and evaluating learning.
8. Remedial help is provided to enable success.
9. The learner spends as much time as needed to master a concept.
10. Instruction is at the convenience of the learner.
11. Immediate reinforcement and correction are provided.
12. Tests are designed to measure mastery of all objectives.
13. Equipment, materials, and methodology can be combined to meet needs.
14. Programs and subject matter can be updated with minimum cost and effort.
15. Every learner is assessed initially and given an opportunity to state his educational objectives, which guide design of an instructional sequence and learner's placement.

A well-equipped media center should perform the following functions:

1. Provide professional audio-visual services to learners and staff, including production of creative professional software.
2. Design individualized media mixes to accomplish specified educational objectives.
3. Display and demonstrate latest and most effective audio-visual devices.
4. Disseminate information concerning audio-visual resources available in the center and elsewhere.

5. Conduct research concerning effectiveness of various media in accomplishing specific educational objectives with selected types of learners.

(S) DESCRIBE MOTIVATION

Motivation techniques are those intrinsic or extrinsic actions, objects, or factors which make the individual want to accomplish the goals of education. Motivational techniques must be high priority considerations in corrections. Most learners are dropouts and do not value educational achievement to the same degree as in normal situations. Motivation techniques must be selected and implemented as integral elements in the curriculum. There is no other single element as critical to the success or failure of the learning process in correction as motivation. Swyhart (1970)<sup>72</sup> stated:

After an individual has matured to the point where he can be classified as an adult, and he has not learned to read and write, it is very difficult to convince him that now is the time to learn. The typical inmate response upon being approached is, "I've made it for forty years without learning to read'n write, why change now?" What is needed to overcome this barrier is a magnet -- a lure -- a motivation force.

Techniques for motivation must be planned. Motivation is a selling job. First get their attention, then stimulate interest, arouse desire, and finally compel them to action. Woodward (1970)<sup>73</sup> lists the following points to consider in planning motivational techniques for offenders:

1. Try to determine what the person's interest is and build on this.
2. Give the person an opportunity to experience success frequently.

3. Plan ahead by putting a time limit on the achievement of goals to be sure goals are accomplished.
4. Use successful persons in different fields as models.

Individual behavior is characteristically a group phenomenon. Human beings in general are motivated to act in certain ways by factors which are influenced by their immediate reference group.<sup>74</sup> Making learning a status activity in the peer group can help motivate offenders. Barrett (1972)<sup>57</sup> identified four elements that are keys to good learning situations and which contribute to learner motivation: (1) ample student activity; (2) opportunities to exhibit behavior; (3) realistic environments; and (4) satisfaction of learner's needs. Offenders have had a history of failure in public education. Providing opportunities for success in achieving educational objectives is important in developing motivation to learn.

#### (T) IMPLEMENT PROGRAM

To implement means to initiate and maintain the system. Implementation of an instructional program is the operation of the instructional program. The program includes the learners, the staff, facilities, hardware and software, physical space, psychological climate, and curriculum. Implementation of the program means putting together in meaningful relationship the program elements and operationalizing this synthesized subsystem in a rational, logical fashion. If the program is to prove successful and worthwhile, the potential learners must be identified, selected, and

enrolled, and the instructional plan formulated in the curriculum guides must be put into action. The identification, selection, and enrollment of learner entails a systematic screening which is accomplished by testing together and analyzing information about the potential learners. Before full scale operation of a new or greatly modified curriculum, a pilot test should be carried out to insure the viability of major and minor changes specified in the system design.

Johnston (1972)<sup>75</sup> states that the successful implementation of the curriculum in a correctional institution is totally dependent upon:

...(1) attitude of the administration toward the program, (2) competency and empathy of the instructors, (3) instructional materials selected for use, (4) methods of instruction, and (5) physical facilities at their disposal.

The administration of the correctional institution in the past has placed emphasis on work programs to the detriment of the educational programs. After working all day, most inmates would choose recreational activities or inactivity in preference to an educational program. Inmates should have a choice between an educational or a work program during the regular day. True, some might choose education just to get out of work, but this would be a challenge to the instructor to motivate the inmate to further educational goals.

The selection of the instructor is most important because he must understand the unique characteristics of incarcerated adults... The primary job... is that of motivation.

Selection of appropriate instructional materials should be determined by asking this question: To what extent does the textbook, workbook, visual aid, or programmed learning system relate to the student, provide for initial success, provide for natural progression, serve a diversity of learning abilities, respect the adult's maturity and his background of experiences, and motivate acquisition of occupational and social skills? There is a great need for the instructor to be able to innovate and create teacher-made materials.

The methods of instruction must be adapted to the basic needs of the individual because of the diversity of environment and experiences of the students involved. Inmates should be encouraged to work with the staff to develop educational programs which will satisfy their individual needs.

The physical location and arrangement of the classroom are very important in contributing to a pleasant educational atmosphere. Whether it is within the institution or outside, there should be ample room with...furniture arranged in such a way that there can be inter-communication between all members of the group, but also provide for individualized activities.

The process of conducting the program is the process of bringing together the learners, the curriculum, and the management support. It is this function that puts the planning and preparation into action.

Selected learners are given pretests to determine the extent to which they have progressed toward the curriculum objectives before instruction begins. The learners who have not yet reached criterion level are assigned. During the course of instruction, supportive testing is done to provide information about learner progress and indicate the need for program modifications. Finally, posttesting is done to determine the changes in behaviors of learners in relation to curriculum objectives.

A pilot-test is an abbreviated version of the full scale operation, carried out for the purposes of (1) determining accuracy of predictions and validity of content; and (2) directing modifications in the program plan. After the pilot test has been completed and modifications made, the full scale program is implemented. This involves the total commitment of supporting staff, budget, facilities, equipment, supplies and community involvement together with the curriculum and the learners.



## CONCLUSION

This subsystem is concerned with putting into action the programs which implement the plan developed in V. in order to meet the needs assessed in III. This is accomplished by bringing together the management support, curriculum, and learners. Management and curriculum functions are combined and related to optimize efficiency and effectiveness of a working system which will accomplish the goals.

### VII. EVALUATE SYSTEM

The final element in the conceptual model is evaluation of the system. This is the process of determining the efficiency and effectiveness of the system design and implementation. Subjective judgments are made to ascribe value and worth to the system, and conclusions are reached about benefits in terms of the costs involved. This is the most important function in the system. It is important for system evaluation to reflect the extent to which offenders, identified as the target population, have changed their behaviors, and to determine the effects of the instructional and management components of the system in redirecting the offenders into socially productive and acceptable avenues. One index which has been used, even though it is not a completely accurate measure of program effectiveness, is the recidivism rate. It must be recognized that recidivism is not a true index of either success or failure of the system.<sup>18</sup>

Evaluation impacts on the total system operation are shown in the following:

1. Evaluation results supply data to broaden the foundation of data concerning the real-life environment.
2. Evaluation provides interpretation of all major areas of the system.
3. Evaluation is needed for organization of a successful community oriented system.
4. Evaluation provides the means to update system operation.
5. Evaluation provides the basis for education of society concerning corrections.
6. Evaluation provides the basis for determining the extent to which a system is operating with close relationships among all departments.
7. Evaluation provides the basis for determining system and environment compatibility.
8. Evaluation provides the basis for assessing system wholeness.
9. Evaluation provides the basis for determining the extent to which all parts of the system are designed to accomplish the mission of the system.

There are two methods of evaluating an educational delivery system in corrections: (1) self-evaluation; and (2) outside team evaluation.

#### (A) CONDUCT SELF-EVALUATION

Self-evaluation is the process of determining the value and worth of a system by those involved in the system design and operation. Self-evaluation is important because it provides a vehicle for involvement of staff and offenders in the continuing improvement of the system. Self-evaluation can be made regularly and can provide formative data to monitor

the system and direct changes before malfunctions become too gross. The cost of self-evaluation is far less than that of outside team evaluation. Self-evaluation should be made at least once a year.

#### (B) CONDUCT OUTSIDE TEAM EVALUATION

Outside team evaluation is the process of assessing the effectiveness and determining efficiency of a system by an outside audit from an independent contractor. This outside team evaluation is important since this provides a check on the results of the self-evaluation and also has the advantage of being free from bias. An outside team evaluation should be made at least once every five years, and more often if possible.

Whether evaluation is internal or external, it must provide for assessing the effectiveness and determining the efficiency of the system in terms of accomplishment of the stated objectives. Evaluation also must relate strengths and weaknesses in system operation to achievement of objectives.

#### CONCLUSION

Evaluation serves as the basis for improvement. The instructional whole was identified, management goals established, and a management plan formulated to reach these goals. The evaluation serves the purpose of determining the effectiveness of management functions and assessing the instructional program. The substance and methodology of education

can be improved and innovation achieved as a function of evaluation. The growth and development of the offender for whom the system is created and implemented can be obtained by tailoring training to his needs and characteristics. Social well-being can be increased through use of evaluative data indicating the extent to which social needs are being fulfilled. Evaluation is the key to the design and implementation of viable, dynamic systems which will accomplish the mission of corrections -- redirection of the offender into socially productive and civically responsible avenues.<sup>18</sup>

#### POSTVIEW

This is a conceptual model of correctional education. The model identifies seven major functions which must be performed in order to develop and implement effective, efficient systems for delivery of education in the correctional setting. The model was designed following a national assessment of needs for education in corrections. The needs survey carried out initially in 1969 and replicated in 1973, revealed discrepancies between real and ideal in educational facilities, educational programs, and management support. In general, the same factors operating to mitigate effective corrections education when the initial survey was made were found to be present again when the assessment was made in 1973.

The conceptual model is intended to serve as a planning and management model to guide the design and implementation of viable systems of

education for corrections. The conceptual model delineates the seven essential functions and the interrelationships among these functions which must obtain in order to have effective delivery systems of education in corrections. The conceptual model is a generalized model, which can be used in producing and maintaining systems of education for any correctional setting -- regardless of size, type of security, nature of population, geographic location, or administrative jurisdiction. This model has been tested and proven to be effective as a vehicle for meeting the challenge of corrections -- design and implementation of programs to redirect the offender.

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CHAPTER SIX

FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

## CHAPTER VI

### FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### I. BARRIERS TO PROGRAMS

As Adams<sup>1</sup> has pointed out, Roberts,<sup>2</sup> with unintended irony, has given us an interesting insight into the status of prison education in contemporary society. The introduction to Roberts' recent book (Sourcebook on Prison Education: Past, Present and Future) begins with the statement, "Prison education serves a vital function in the correctional rehabilitation process." The final sentence in the Appendix concludes that "...effective rehabilitation and resocialization of inmates can only take place if new experimental programs are developed and extensive research implemented."<sup>3</sup>

Between these two statements, Roberts arrives at an interim judgment that "Nobody knows conclusively and precisely the effectiveness of correctional education."<sup>4</sup>

What Roberts is telling us is essentially this: (1) Education may be capable of playing a vital role in correctional rehabilitation; (2) thus far, no one has conclusively demonstrated that this is the case; (3) however, with innovation and adequate evaluation, there is no doubt that the importance of education for the rehabilitation of offenders can be established.

Items 1 and 3 may be as much value judgment as fact. They may also be myths rather than realizable objectives. In a pragmatic, positively

oriented society, however, it is useful to regard them provisionally as goals and to discuss how they may be attained.

But, to proceed in this fashion "puts the cart before the house" because the total state of correctional education today is so volatile and fluid that it virtually defies description and severely lacks clear-cut objectivity. "Prisoner education" encompasses both academic and vocational programs, has made some efforts towards dealing with the psychosocial, and ranges from basic literacy through college level programs with the occasional granting of two and four year level degrees. As of 1970, 33 states offered college level programs in penal facilities, the most extensive program in number of students, courses, graduates and institutions being in Texas.<sup>5</sup>

"Education Programs" are present in almost all penal systems and institutions in the United States today. Some of them are highly innovative, some are almost simplistic in their focus and method; some are widely known and contribute greatly to the advancement of the state-of-the-art, others are almost secretive in their content and procedure; some are a major effort of educators, while many are a minimal action of correctional personnel.<sup>6</sup>

Correctional education today is a lusty adolescent whose maturation is inevitable. Like the human teenager, however, we don't quite know what it is about and where it is headed. The challenge is to define it, nurture and organize it, and give it direction and purpose.

However, before the definitional and developmental processes are focused in correctional education, attention must be paid to corrections

themselves. In recent years, there has been much talk but little progress in improving correctional facilities and programs because of seven major barriers.

Barrier I: The American public views prison as punishment.

Criminologists hold that punishment has three main purposes: retribution, deterrence, and rehabilitation. All forms of punishment have components of each of these elements, although not in the same proportions. The precise combination of these purposes which will best serve the needs of society and those of the criminal is a matter about which there is considerable controversy.

The basic purpose of punishment as deterrence is to prevent other people from committing a crime. How much punishment, however, is enough to deter a potential criminal? Does the threat of execution deter a potential murderer? For how much time should a person found guilty of a crime be expected to remain incarcerated? These questions have yet to be answered.

Rehabilitative punishment marks another step forward. This punishment should be of such a nature that those forces that triggered the crime are destroyed and the criminal can return to society with socially desirable behavior patterns. "Hate the crime but love the criminal," is a simplification of this difficult concept. Those who advocate punishment as rehabilitation suggest: (1) that the causes of crime can be ascertained and removed; and (2) that punishment should be related to the needs of the individual rather than to the enormity of the crime.



The ideal of punishment as rehabilitation is difficult to achieve. The causes of crime are not well known enough to extricate them from the criminal, although we do have a greater understanding now than in the past.

Punishment as retribution alone is based on the theory that society has a right to "get even" with those who have broken the law. Retribution is society's retaliation against the criminal. Those who believe in retributive punishment think that man can control what he does and is, therefore, responsible for his own acts. If a man chooses to break the law, society has a responsibility to retaliate. Throughout history, retribution has been the largest single component of punishment.

Today, most criminologists and social workers frown on punishment as society's retaliation. They maintain that most criminals violated the law because they are mentally or emotionally ill, or because of circumstantial factors (e.g., the confinement of the ghetto) from which they can see no escape except through crime. Those who can't "make it" within the law sometimes choose to do so outside the law. A criminal act may be due to personal or social factors beyond the control of the offender. Hence, punishment as retribution remains a dominant element in our penal system.

As a result, society, to many convicts, is a wall they can never hurdle. "Once a Con, always a Con." Many believe they will always be "captives" of society. Consequently, their pride and dignity prompts them to seek ways in which they can crack the "wall" to get at the "good life." They want their "piece of the action" and have a desire to learn how to get it.

The prison experience often shows them how. That is the reason why it has been estimated that between 60 to 80 percent of all the criminals incarcerated throughout the United States at any given time have been arrested, convicted, and confined at least once before.

Barrier II: Professional educators have focused little attention on inmate education for a host of reasons.

Prisons have historically received minimal funding. Within correctional priorities, education has received the least. Politicians do not feel pressure from their constituencies to pay inmate education anything but lip service. Few qualified professional educators have been interested in inmate education. A recent survey yielded a ratio of one educational staff member for every 88 prisoners. (Included in this ratio were administrators, secretaries, teachers -- both academic and vocational -- recreation specialists, counselors and psychologists.)

Teachers in inmate education programs use traditional methods despite the fact that prisoners have, in one way or another, previously rejected or failed to master traditional pedagogical methods. Inmates' educational needs vary all the way from basic literacy to vocational and graduate education. Many prisoners speak their families' native tongue and not English. While at least half of the approximately 420,000 prisoners in American prisons are over 18 years and have less than eight years of formal schooling, the specific educational needs of inmates in any given prison are as varied as can be imagined. Inmates are not grouped by ability, class or prior education as are school students. One prisoner may require remedial reading while his cellmate needs continuing, graduate education.

Any prison education program must serve many men of varying abilities and help them all improve without favoring any one element or group over the other.

Most convicts are dropouts from and have rejected the traditional educational system. Clearly, for a variety of reasons, they did not accept, participate, and progress in the educational system outside prison. The traditional, middle class school is for "sissies" not "real men" who know their way around. Traditional education, in retrospect, is rarely viewed as having been a positive or helpful experience. Prison schools typically do nothing but remind convicts that the middle class never accepted them. It is foolish to assume they will accept and participate in traditional programs in a hostile prison environment.

Moreover, many inmates are convinced they are going to "be smarter next time," meaning they aren't going to get caught and imprisoned again in the future. They see prison as the place to become "con smart" "street savvy" or how to "negotiate the system." This doesn't mean "selling out" to the system. It means, if they can, they would like to avoid a return to prison by learning how to "beat the system" illegitimately. But, obviously, this desire to "make it" is expressed at a variety of "teachable moments" that should challenge educators to recast them into positive, productive learning experiences.

This, however, is not an easy task because in the classroom prisoners can be truly "con artists." It takes special teachers to teach convicts. Prisoners live "day to day." They are concerned primarily with the present, not the future. Many are in prison because they sought immediate

gratification of their desires. In the strained, discomforting and dehumanizing prison environment, their prime concern is to make the experience as bearable as possible. Prison is drab. It crushes life. Convicts try to "escape" any way they can to hide from the stark, grubby realities of serving dead time. Prison classrooms compete with radio, books, television, films, sports as avenues of escape and "income" from the prison shops is usually far more important than learning. "Tomorrow will take care of itself." For education to play any role within the prison community, it must be available at times other than shop hours. Since cell blocks are impossibly noisy, quiet study time is precious.

When "push comes to shove," the instructor, "the man" must prove himself before a prisoner will even listen to him much less learn from him. Intimidation is always possible. Convicts cope by turning everything to their own advantage, be it "black power" or their own form of group therapy. Typically, teachers who survive do so on the strength of their personalities, not because of their training or expertise. Successful prison courses are a function of the personalities of the instructors who can motivate reluctant learners in far from pleasant learning conditions. At this writing, society has not posited a reward system sufficient to attract and hold educators willing to be "supermen."

Barrier III: Correctional officers are threatened and jealous of education or training programs for inmates.

Correctional staff have a perception of penology and incarceration that differs from those who try to design and run inmate educational programs. Correctional personnel generally come from white lower-middle

class, rural backgrounds. Usually, they are modestly educated and poorly trained. They are responsible for the custody and control of city-bred men and women who are Black, Spanish-speaking and/or Red and whose culture they either do not know or misunderstand. Inmate educational programs make guards' jobs more difficult -- more risky from a security and control or custody viewpoint -- because they allow prisoners more movement and more free time. Many guards believe -- and perhaps have experiential data to substantiate their belief -- that in prison as in school, the smarter cons start the trouble and the dumb ones get caught. One of the perennial problems in prisons is how to preoccupy the smarter, better educated convicts. The smarter convicts, on the other hand, know the value of knowledge (if not school knowledge, then street knowledge) and feel a need to get more. Unfortunately, most prison education programs are oriented to high school completion, offer the majority of prisoners little to which they can relate, and leave the better educated cons on their own.

Many guards, however, are jealous of all educational programs because they don't believe inmates deserve to have the opportunity they themselves have not had. Guards believe inmates are in the prisons "to do their time" (to be punished) because they could not cope with society and had to resort to crime. To educate prisoners is, in the guards view, to pamper or coddle them.

Barrier IV: Inmate education programs have also failed because of cultural and practical pressures within prisons.

Prison populations are divided into several sub-groups or sub-cultures which differ with the prison's location and racial and socio-

economic make-up of its inmates. The overwhelming majority of prisoners conform to the norms of particular inmate groups. From the moment they are processed through the prison's receiving unit, prisoners are pressured to join an inmate group. Blacks join one of the several Black groups. White, Puerto Ricans, or Mexican-Americans must join peer groups to survive. Nonconformity means being prey to force from all inmate groups. Independence means being subject to psychologically and physically devastating sexual attacks, general humiliation, and ostracization. SURC research indicates racial groupings play a role in the failure of many prison education programs. Blacks tend to dominate academic programs. Whites, typically, dominate vocational training programs.

Obviously, peer pressure inside prison is ferocious. No convict wants to be the "kid" or the "pet" (rat) for a teacher, an authority figure. Prisoners are always "on guard" because of peer pressure. Any formal education is impossible until confidence has been established, and peer approval has been secured. A crucial step in bringing this about is to convince each convict that his participation in an education program is "embarrassment free," approved by his peers and can be fun. The challenge is to reinforce his attitudes toward learning by allowing him to progress at his own pace without "putting down" his peers or losing his self-esteem. This is problematic in any institutional setting. It is exceptionally difficult in a prison environment.

Barrier V: Prisoner groups have traditionally paired with guards in negatively rewarding inmates who want to learn,

Prisons are organized around the work prisoners do. Inmates are paid money for work in prison industrial shops. Work programs and

educational programs are often scheduled simultaneously. Pay for work is higher than for study (often three times higher). But, prisoners seldom see much of a transference from even work programs. Many prisoners think what they learn in formal programs inside prison has no applicability to what they can do on the outside. Prisoners often learn trades in prison that are useless outside prison. Too many exconvicts have discovered they have not learned the skills nor the techniques necessary to allow them membership in a union.

Barrier VI: One of the greatest barriers to prisoner education is the physical structure of prisons.

The architect and industrial designer follow the concept, "form follows function." Most prisons were built for the primary function of security. Structurally massive, rigid, cold, unadaptable to modification, they are usually isolated from any community. Their location is a barrier to the resources of university, community, social agencies, and a concerned public which are needed in the system. Social attitudes that caused the prison to be isolated are reinforced by that very isolation. The physical structure of the prison is frequently a barrier to the operation inside "the walls" of therapeutic processes such as education, group counseling, etc. No matter how much paint and progressive attitude are applied, there are still grills, bars, fences, guard towers, and massive walls to overwhelm the perceptions and sensory inputs.

Barrier VII: Research in corrections and correctional education is inadequate.

Even if they can find ways to deal with the prison structures, authorities who have the power and desire to improve conditions in prison

through prisoner education must seek funds from legislators who are responsive to public opinion. To date, little evidence has been presented to sway public opinion to pressure politicians to appropriate the large amounts of monies necessary to launch substantial prisoner education programs. Correctional officials and educators simply lack sufficient, empirically valid, causative data to support current theories of rehabilitation. Hence, inadequate research is, perhaps, the greatest barrier to programs in corrections

Corrections is one of the least adequately researched of man's social institutions. Our understanding of criminal behavior and our ability to deal effectively with it have not improved very much over the past thousand years.<sup>8</sup> While some research regarding treatment methods of inmates has been done, the environment, the organization of corrections, the policies, procedures and philosophy of the system(s), and the effective behavior of the prison administration have been almost ignored.

Little research, moreover, has been done to dispell the popular misconception that correctional education is a recent idea whose time has "come." While it is true that society has only recently focused on "prison education" as such, in many respects it is both historically inaccurate and conceptually unfair to say that correctional education is a new concept. SURC's review of the historical literature (see Chapter II) indicates that institutional education and its relationship to rehabilitation is a concept that has been latent but potentially explosive for many years. Having reached a plateau of identifiable maturity, however, there remains the necessary task of determining the ramifications of the varying conceptual bases for existing rehabilitation programs.



Most of the arguments in favor of institutionalized education and training result from the realistic acceptance that prisons will continue to exist for the foreseeable future and, due to unacceptably high recidivism rates, must be modified to more effectively facilitate the rehabilitation of the incarcerated:

The entire correctional system is failing and in need of drastic reconstruction. Intensive research may yield clearer directions over the long run, but pending such results pragmatism would dictate this guiding principle: rehabilitation efforts should be maximized in every aspect of the correctional apparatus, while the loss of personal freedom should be used as a deterrent only under constructive conditions emphasizing ordinary human decency and avoiding punitive degradation.<sup>9</sup>

Perhaps it is unfair, but more often than not the word "rehabilitation" is very often defined narrowly and synonymously with institutionalized education and training programs. An evaluative study of the federal correctional institutions at Lompoc and Terminal Island, California, for example, determined that the rehabilitation programs were not receiving the emphasis they deserved. This conclusion was reached on the basis of the rationale that an increase in the prisoner's educational level would obtain positive change in behavior patterns and thereby contribute to a lessening of recidivistic tendencies.<sup>10</sup>

A similar study was conducted in 1965 which surveyed 1,000 paroled prisoners from the Indiana Reformatory.<sup>11</sup>

Of the 775 inmates who attended school at the Indiana State Reformatory and have been paroled, 500 were selected at random and compared with an equal number of prisoners who were paroled but did not attend school while in the institution. Of the 500 parolees who received institutional education, 15.8 percent were returned for parole violations; the group who did not receive this education had

a total of 36.6 percent returned. Age groups 18 to 20 and 21 to 25 receiving education contributed the largest percentage of parole violators with a percent of 16.7 and 17.8, respectively. Of the parolees not receiving institutional education, age groups 14 to 17 and 18 to 20 had the largest violation rates with a percent of 39.7 and 45.1, respectively. Of those receiving institutional education, 24.9 percent completed the eighth grade and 13.6 percent completed high school. Of those not receiving education, 25.0 percent claimed to have completed eighth and ninth grade. The mean I.Q. level of those receiving education was 94.2; of those not receiving education 91.0. The Stanford Achievement Tests mean reading level of inmates attending institutional school was 6.3; of those not attending 6.7. A total of 64.6 percent of the parole violators who attended institutional school were single as compared to the 68.3 percent of violators in the latter group. The prevalent age groups with the highest number of single parole violators ranged between 16 and 21.

Studies like these are few and far between. Even where they exist, few contain significant longitudinal follow-ups. Often, statistical procedures are suspect and generalization must be kept to a minimum.

Proponents of education for prisoners also point to an increase in inmate morale, facilitation of the management and governance of entire inmate populations, a lessening of inmate-custodial friction and the development of a prison environment more congruent with what the prisoner will eventually find, when released, in the free world. Perhaps the most recent favoring argument to develop is one which visualizes the provision of skill training as a relatively simple problem in the rehabilitative process as compared with the far more difficult and important task of successfully recovering personalities emotionally and socially deformed:

The first and greatest challenge to any correctional administrator interested in effective education and

in an institutional setting is to try to create an institution which communicates to the inmate population that the purpose of the institution is not punishment but 'help' .... If we can convince someone that we will seriously and genuinely take his individual needs, preferences and talents into account, and that, together, we will identify his learning style and his capabilities and build on them, there may be some hope of success. These first steps, creating a 'helping' milieu, and winning the inmate-student's trust, are two critical considerations in the development of effective correctional education and training programs.<sup>12</sup>

Arguments supporting institutionalized rehabilitation notwithstanding, detractors are quick to point out that substantial prison education programs are typically few and far between, and more often than not characterized by inadequate facilities, insufficient courses, and staff members whose qualifications are inferior to the basic requisites of a school system in the outside society. Further, these practically non-existent or half-hearted attempts at training are usually perceived by some of society's hardest cynics (inmates) as purely a necessary requirement to be fulfilled for the purpose of impressing a hostile parole committee.

An even stronger argument against institutionalized treatment is that, "...on the whole, it is the characteristics of the offender more than the characteristics of the program that affect the likelihood of recidivism."<sup>13</sup> Thus, even if achievement in an educational program can be improved, no lasting rehabilitation will be obtained since the security syndrome of confinement is an omnisciently damaging environment in the first place which complements the inadequacies an inmate carries in with him. The detractors criticize the treatment programs by describing them

as simplistic concepts which see crime as a defect that can be cured as readily as the repair of a broken limb or other physical defect. The argument is made that the criminal tendencies learned on the outside cannot be "unlearned" on the inside through a subtly coercive atmosphere of rehabilitation which probably does more damage than might be obtained through an alternative measure such as probation. An unpublished study sponsored by The Division of Criminal Justice of the State of New York concluded that:

...there is a kind of social damage being done today which has...a lot to do with the fact that persons are removed from society at particular points in the life cycle.... You can damage a person much easier in this age of specialization.... To fit into society today, a man has to have a certain set of skills and attitudes built up in an orderly sequence of events.... We can't break up a man's life cycle at a critical point with the shock of incarceration and expect him to recover.<sup>14</sup>

Finally, the detractors point to the rather gloomy "hypothesis of the interchangeability of penal measures" developed by Nigel Walker, which argues that a criminal will recidivate at the same rate, no matter what the form of rehabilitation.<sup>15</sup>

No matter which side of the controversy a protagonist may take, it is perhaps inevitable that a wealth of substantiating research will be referred to for support. Those in favor will argue that treatment programs in prisons do work, have a positive value, must be expanded and are the only pragmatic course of action; those opposed counter by arguing that institutionalized programs are doomed by their environment and whatever evidence of their value is slight, inconsistent, and of questionable validity. The only definite value of this ad infinitum and

inconclusive marshalling of rationales pro and con is the clear indication of the need for expanded evaluative research and, most importantly, research in areas that have been heretofore ignored. This vacuum is emphasized by a growing number of researchers such as Kerle who, in his assessment of the state of inmate education in the United States and Europe, found a surprising dearth of evaluative research.<sup>16</sup> A recently completed study of General Education Diploma (GED) testing in state prisons by Marsh concluded there was:

...a lack of information at a national level regarding details of the procedures and policies of administration of the GED in correctional facilities of the states...with the possible exception of religion, corrections is the least researched institution of modern society.... The problem lies in the lack of study regarding the implementation of this program at the local level, particularly as it relates to the role of the GED test in a total rehabilitation plan in a penitentiary.<sup>17</sup>

In a paper presented to the Canadian Congress of Criminology and Corrections, Colvin discovered that:

...statistics bearing out the success of each state's higher education program are not available. The reason is that adequate follow-up and research had not been initiated during the initial stage of program planning, and we now are relying on hearsay and gross approximation.<sup>18</sup>

Finally, in his pioneering study of college-level institutions Adams pointed out a lack of:

...any evidence that research on the college-level program(s) was being carried on by the prison system, or that systematic and rigorous evaluation of the effectiveness of the program(s) was a matter of concern to the prison administrator or education department supervisor.<sup>19</sup>

Undoubtedly, this lack of programmatic research, analysis and evaluation could prove more dysfunctional than favorable in the rehabilitation of the offender insofar as it may create expectations for which there is no vehicle of realization following release. Thus, a worsened social adjustment created by unrealistic goals will cause more harm than it does good for the inmate and may amount in cost-effectiveness terms to a simple waste of rehabilitative resources.

Fortunately, there is a growing number of researchers who are beginning to address themselves to this chronic lack of evaluative evidence. In his examination of the relationship between vocational training and available jobs, Torrence, for example, discovered that state and federal institutions offered training in a mere 56% of the 36 major occupations having job openings.<sup>20</sup> His research led to the conclusion that much of what passed for training was merely illusory, inasmuch as the primary goal appeared to be the satisfaction of institutional maintenance needs rather than the rehabilitation of the residents. Also concerned with vocational training, a study by Patrick focused on the results of such a program, properly implemented, and obtained tentative signs encouraging programmatic expansion: "...there is a slight tendency for those who are successful in vocational training also to be successful in parole behavior as well as those who are failures in vocational training to be failures in parole behavior."<sup>21</sup>

A most recent study completed under the auspices of the Manpower Development and Training Act found that: "...overall, trainees had significantly lower recidivism rates than control group members."<sup>22</sup>

Though Bowyer argues that, "It is impossible to measure the success of correctional education on the basis of the minority participating in these programs...",<sup>23</sup> an examination completed by Zink discovered that, "In all areas of measurement, consistent differences in post-release criminality existed favoring the school group members...".<sup>24</sup>

When all is said and done, the rhetoric overlooked and the emotional arguments sympathized with, the contradictory surveys and studies taken into account, there obtains the inevitable conclusion that much more evaluative research remains to be done at both the general level of correctional systems as a whole and at the specific level of individual institutions.

## II. CRITERIA FOR SUCCESS

Throughout this report, we have emphasized that there is a paucity of meaningful educational programming for the majority, perhaps 80%, of the men and women in American prisons. Efforts have been made to provide college level programs for a very small percentage of the total convict population in America, perhaps 15%.

Laudable as these programs have been, they stand in sharp relief to the programs for the vast majority of American convicts. Evidence exists to suggest prisoners who participate in programs such as Newgate and Lorton are self-motivated achievers. They are individuals who want to learn. For them, special programs present a viable vehicle for self-improvement.

But, the majority of American convicts serve "dead time." For all the reasons just discussed, they learn little of positive value from prison life. Indeed, the majority become socialized to criminality through their prison experiences.

The challenge, then, for those who want punishment to be rehabilitative is to either completely recast the current prison system or to work at making prison a positive life experience for the majority of prisoners. While there are several articulate advocates of gradual depopulation of our nation's prisons, most experts agree our current prison system will remain substantially unaltered for the foreseeable future.

However, many dedicated prison authorities and correctional educators have taken their situation as a "given" and successfully "negotiated" (not surmounted) the seven barriers to significant prisoner education programs. These men and women, as we noted in the previous chapters, have made do and produced impressive programs that appear to have high "face validity." SURC researchers have found that many of these programs were supported by legislators and senior correctional authorities, often for the "wrong reasons," i.e., not because the people in power were enthused and supportive of efforts to rehabilitate prisoners (usually, in fact, they were not), but because the programs met the following five criteria:

Criteria 1: They could be managed by those managing the prison community.

They were free of traditional educational institutions. Limited programs conducted by nearby Community Colleges and Universities specializing in extension courses can provide positive experiences for, perhaps,



15% of any typical prison population, but they do not meet the needs of most prisoners or the anxieties of most guards because the program is still (a) dependent on institutions having agendas other than prison education and regarding prison education as additive but not essential to their purpose, and (b) dependent upon the teachers from those local institutions who, because they are mostly volunteers, will continually come and lend a little stability or continuity to the program.

Criteria 2: The programs contained education that was relevant to both guards and convicts.

"Passing time" is important to both prison officials and inmates. But, if the time is spent on activities which reinforce negative attitudes, the result will be trouble. Inmates typically fall below the educational norms for their age group. They also associate education with their failure and rejection. Considerable evidence exists to suggest inmates tend to be the most maladjusted people in their age groups. Their academic attainments are often far below what their intelligence test scores indicate they are capable of attaining. Many experts believe the essential problem in instructing convicts is to make learning a more relevant and rewarding experience for them, rather than a situation where they can anticipate only failure and humiliation. This means that the results of any inmate education program must be positive prisoner attitude change. Inmates need to be "turned on" not "turned off." Prison education must help not hinder inmates. It must boost the morale and abilities of the inmates not reinforce their feelings of inadequacy or inferiority. Convicts need more positively reinforcing and anxiety reducing experiences than most typical students.

This means that convicts in the ideal prison education situation are not in a class competition with one another, but are motivated by diverse rewards, credits, praise, diplomas, or anything that is practicable to administrators and warranted by their progress.

Criteria 3: The programs involved "teachers" or teaching systems which instructed in a positive manner.

Authoritarian instructional techniques reinforce the convict's perception that they are just "putting in time." All too often outside civilians hired to teach at correctional institutions are castoffs of public school systems. Like the inmates, they are primarily interested in "putting in their time." At some institutions, this situation has been alleviated by enlightened prison officials who solicit volunteers from the ranks of new, young, concerned teachers. However, these volunteers often are transient and have unequal or undeveloped skills. Many of them possess an obvious "missionary zeal" that "turns off" convicts.

Criteria 4: The programs helped the inmate make the transition from inside "forced employment" to outside "productive employment."

Work programs are desperately needed. Many prison vocational programs are not relevant. They teach trades or skills no longer in demand or which are controlled by unions. Convicts need "job getting skills," and an awareness of the jobs that are available and open to them. These jobs cannot be menial, temporary, or other insecure jobs usually consigned to the "secondary" labor force. They must be real jobs with a future. Prisons' vocational programs must not artificially raise

expectations. They must be realistic and beneficial. They must be programs that will work if the convicts participating in them work.

Criteria 5: Finally, the programs were flexible ones that adapted to prison schedules, space restrictions -- and budgets.

Most prisons are overcrowded. Space allotments and time schedules are of primary concern to prison officials. Budgets are, of course, always limited. Prison administrators are always forced to decide how and when to utilize their limited funds for the maximum benefit of the institution and its inmates.

Since society takes a dim view of prison education at a full and proper level, any prison education program must be flexible, adaptable, and low cost.

### III. IMPROVEMENTS THAT CAN OR SHOULD BE MADE

SURC research has indicated that correctional education is a slowly growing force in the prison community, tolerated by custodial staff, ignored by treatment (counseling, psychotherapeutic) staff, apologized for by the educational department, underfunded by management, left essentially unexamined by research, and criticized by everyone, quite frequently with ample justification.

The many excellent programs SURC uncovered in its interviews, site visitations and document analysis, however, gives hope that this force may in the end prove to be the most remarkable "sleeper" in the history of corrections. If reintegration into the community rests mainly on an

appropriate combination of cognitive and motor skills, and if becoming an offender is primarily a learning process, the unmaking of offenders and the making of useful citizens is perhaps more the task of education than of custody, punishment or therapy. A spreading belief in this possibility may explain the growing ascendancy of education in the correctional process mentioned earlier in this statement.

If correctional education has the potential of becoming one of the most, if not the most, significant influence in the rehabilitation of offenders, there is as yet little if any evidence that the potential is being realized. Is there such a potential? And how, if there is, can it be realized?

We can start with the premise that education has great potential for transforming individuals from unskilled persons into remarkable performers -- astronauts, heart surgeons, scientists, and so on. It could conceivably transform offenders into non-offenders, given the proper organizations of the instructional process and the environment in which it can function optimally. As a further condition, one might ask for suitable motivation on the part of the learner, along with opportunity to practice newly learned skills and motivational as well as experiential reinforcements during future practice.

Given these premises and preconditions, what improvements should we look for if correctional education is to become a real force in the rehabilitation of offenders? SURC research has yielded six general improvements and eight specific ones.

A. General Improvements.

Several needed improvements in correctional education may be approached first in general terms, although when followed up they need to be viewed as more numerous and more specific entities. In general terms, we are concerned with: 1) basic research into education as an aspect of corrections; 2) extensive and rigorous evaluation of the educational process, both academic and vocational; 3) rationalization of the educational process, using both empirical and conceptual frameworks; 4) expansion of the proportion of the correctional population that is involved in the educational process; 5) elaboration of the educational curriculum; 6) achieving a better balance in the curriculum; 7) using instructional methods that are more appropriate for offender populations; and 8) adaptation of the evolving educational design to changes that are occurring and will occur in correctional structures and procedures.

1. Basic Research: Descriptive and analytical research on correctional education is sparse. The characteristics, trends and dynamics of the process are only vaguely discernible from the fragmentary information that is readily available. Under the circumstances, to understand what is going on in correctional education is difficult; to make sound plans for the use of such education is even more difficult. It is clearly evident that the value of this rehabilitative force will remain largely inaccessible until its structures and processes are much better understood.

2. Evaluative Research: The effects of correctional education, no less than its structure and process, are poorly comprehended. Several studies have<sup>25</sup> addressed this matter, but thus far the surface has only been scratched. At the moment, two of the most important items on the agenda of correctional educational development are fundamental research into the structure and processes of such education and well designed evaluative studies that uncover the effects of the education.

3. Rationalization of the Educational Process: As an historical phenomenon, the development of correctional education has been fortuitous, opportunistic and impulsive. Sentiment as much as reason has been the guiding principle. Education exists as an important value and tradition in this society, hence, education must be of consequence in the reformation of offenders. There is some virtue in this manner of decision-making, but probably not enough for times as complex as these. For the present and future, correctional education should be guided by hard knowledge of what works and what does not work in particular situations. This means research, planning, and development; re-research, replanning and redevelopment.

4. Expansion of the Educational Process: At present, a minority of inmates in many prisons are involved in the educational process, either academic or vocational. In many other prisons, at least half and sometimes a large majority are involved. At Central Facility, Lorton, perhaps one-half are occupied in one or the other of the two activities. At the D. C. Youth Center, involvement is virtually universal, as is generally the objective in all "youth training" facilities.

Universal involvement in either vocational or academic education may be a difficult task for many prison systems, but it is not an unthinkable objective. The latter is particularly true if it can be established by careful evaluative research that there are definite gains to practically all prisoners if an appropriate and feasible educational experience can be provided.

Assuming that universal involvement of incarcerated offenders in education is meaningful, feasible, and not economically disadvantageous, it is apparent that for many correctional systems there is considerable room for expansion of educational programs. This is particularly true for the society as a whole if jails -- detention centers -- are brought within the scope of such a plan. It should be stated that the full development of this plan is contingent upon the findings of basic and evaluative research. Idealists might propose an immediate push toward a population-wide education program for offenders, but the final results are likely to be more satisfactory if the expansion process is based on a concerted effort of planning and research.

For those systems that have already achieved wide involvement -- North Carolina, Texas, California, Florida, the District of Columbia, for example -- there is still need to link research and planning to the educational operation. Widely involved systems are not necessarily rationalized -- i.e., efficient systems -- although it may eventually be concluded that wide involvement is one of the ultimate or necessary steps in rationalization.

5. Elaboration of the Curriculum: Training and educational curricula for incarcerated persons are presently constricted for reasons of tradition, availability of resources, and perceptions of what is possible both in the job marketplace and in the training site. Ultimately, there should be various kinds of enlargement or elaboration of the curriculum as part of an improvement process.

Some of the elaboration will result from the inclusion of segments of the correctional population that now go unserved. If persons detained in jails while awaiting trial or preliminary hearings were to be given education that was suitable and useful, the content would probably be different from that now offered to the sentenced prisoner. Other elaboration will come from still other sources. If better information about the potentialities of new educational delivery systems, about the learning capabilities of offenders, and about the job marketplace were available, new curricular features would immediately become apparent to the innovative correctional educator or the progressive prison administrator.

6. Adaptation of Education to Correctional Change: Some of the changes or improvements needed in correctional education will have their origin in changes that occur in the correctional process. If large prisons disappear in the next few decades, and are replaced by smaller institutions near centers of population or by community correctional centers and halfway houses within urban areas, the organization and content of correctional education will change adaptively. If corrections moves toward massive diversion of offenders away from the adjudicatory



process in the hope that training for adjustment will make adjudication and incarceration unnecessary, education and training of new types may become a prominent and standard feature of the diversion process.

The foregoing changes and improvements in correctional education are reasonable expectations in the future. Some of these changes imply gradual development of new structures and processes; others will require extensive resources for implementation. Consequently, it is hard to formulate timetables for the introduction of the changes, or even predict the appearance of certain "landmark" events on the correctional education scene. At the present time, it is more useful to think about directions of development than to anticipate particular elements of structure or levels of functioning at given points in time.

B. Specific Improvements.

SURC research has yielded eight specific ideas about changes in a desirable direction. These ideas are implicit in several of the suggestions just covered, but they merit further elaboration. These are:

- o Redefinition of educational objectives;
- o Raising of training standards;
- o Achieving affective as well as cognitive goals;
- o Utilizing technological aids to communication;
- o Focusing on reintegration of offenders into the community as an educational goal;
- o Performing adequate diagnoses of educational and training needs;
- o Improving the quality of teaching or training staff;
- o Improving educational management.

It is immediately evident that this list is not exhaustive. In a more comprehensive catalog of needed changes in correctional education, scores of changes of widely varying specificity might easily be listed and described.

1. Redefinition of Educational Objectives: The present objectives of prisoner education fall into two general categories: a) those associated with vocational training, which prepare individuals for specific crafts or work roles, and may include mathematical and reading skills; and b) those associated with academic education, including remedial work, and the impartation of information and communication skills that are aids to functioning in a wide range of social and occupational areas. There are other objectives stated or implied by various correctional educators or prison directors, but these are perhaps the most commonly recognized.

In themselves, the foregoing are worthwhile objectives, but to a large extent they fail in application. The trained offender typically does not get a job in the area in which he was trained.<sup>26</sup> What are the implications of this finding in much vocational training evaluation? Certainly, one implication is that the purposes and outcomes of correctional education need a thorough review, and the contents and methods of the field need to be revised accordingly.

It is not immediately clear what the revisions may entail. One possibility is that special procedures for following up into the community must be established. If prisoners are trained in a given field, which had been ascertained to be a valid job market in the first place,

then machinery to place all the trainees, or to supplement their training, possibly even to undertake a retraining process in special cases, may be called for.

In the D. C. Department of Corrections Youth Center, an outside contractor trained a cohort of youth in keypunch skills. After the training was completed, most of the youth failed to obtain jobs in the specialty they had been trained in. This was learned only through a special follow-up that was done by the department. When the facts became known, and communicated to the training firm, it set out to provide job-finding services that resulted in placement of practically all the youths in the data processing field.

Experiences such as these suggest that many of the findings on the absence of carry-through from prison training to free community job placement are not inevitable, and that relatively simple structural or procedural changes are sufficient to alter the outcomes of training considerably. There are other findings that indicate that some failures in placement are more complex, and special kinds of training, as proposed below, are needed.

2. Raising of Training Standards: If some prison training run into difficulties in the job market, part of their problem may arise from the quality of the instruction received. Either the curriculum, the teaching staff and methods, or the equipment on which training may depend, could be a source of the problem. There is some sense in regarding the education of disadvantaged persons, such as prisoners, as needing superior techniques and personnel. Therefore, standards of instruction, of

recruitment of staff, and of teaching equipment and material should be maintained at high levels, and care should be taken to avoid trying to accomplish "something with nothing." It is pertinent to keep in mind, during the continuing evaluation process that should be a part of correctional education programs, that cost-effective education will be secured most readily by raising rather than by lowering standards from the state we are presently in.

3. Affective as Well as Cognitive Goals: Some studies of offender education and outcomes<sup>27</sup> have reported that part of the problem of failing to find work or remaining employed in the community is not lack of capability in work performance but rather attitudes and behaviors such as hostility, resistance to supervision, indifference to rules of attendance, punctuality, and so on.

These findings suggest that the objectives of training should include not only job skills but also attitudes and interpersonal skills as well as capability of orienting towards employing organizations and their work rules.

A focus on attitudinal or affective training may call for teachers with special skills and possibly special characteristics. It will also undoubtedly call for inclusion of measurement of job attitudes and interpersonal skills in the diagnosis process and in the research designs of the educational evaluation unit.

4. Using Technological Advances: Some technological advances appear well suited for use in the situation that confronts the prison educator. Educational TV makes readily available to incarcerated

persons certain kinds of instructional materials. While the program at the State Prison in Southern Michigan is unique in that it emphasizes high school preparation and is run strictly by "in-house" staff,<sup>28</sup> the Illinois State Prison at Joliet has for more than a decade organized a prison college curriculum around the courses broadcast from Wright Junior College in Chicago. A. A. degrees can be earned in the space of two years or so by attending the classes, which are held before TV screen in the basement of one of the Joliet "roundhouses," and by completing the examinations which are sent down from Wright Junior College.

San Quentin receives courses broadcast from San Mateo Junior College. These TV courses supplement the more numerous courses that are taught "live" by instructors who come in every day from nearby Marin Junior College at Kentfield, California.

What the recent total of prison systems that cooperate formally with a college to receive its educational course broadcasts is not readily known. In a survey in 1967, Adams<sup>29</sup> ascertained that three prisons were using TV courses in their educational programs. In a survey in 1970<sup>30</sup>, it was found that out of 100 junior colleges that worked with prison systems to provide college-level instruction to prisoners, 3 percent used TV as an instructional medium, and 1 percent (one college) made use of an electro-writer. The vast majority relied primarily on live instruction in the institution, while about one-third made use of on-campus instruction on a study-release basis, usually in conjunction with intra-institutional classes.

In this report and in a proposal to The Foundation, SURC has emphasized the tremendous potential videocassettes hold for prisoner education. But, other technological devices or processes are known and used or have been considered for use in correctional education. TV tapes are available through borrow or purchase; educational cassettes are common in the training field, for use with teaching machines of various kinds; electro-writers or "electronic blackboards" are studied for possible use in San Quentin prison college during its trial years; closed-circuit television hook-ups with the University of California at Berkeley also were considered during that period but were found to be too costly for implementation in a grant-funded project.

The whole field of technologically oriented instruction is one that merits careful examination since it contains the possibility of a variety of innovative procedures that may be attractive either for their motivational properties (talking typewriters, teaching machines), validated and standardized procedures (programmed instruction), barrier annihilation (TV courses, electro-writers, speaker-phones, closed-circuit TV), or for other important reasons.

5. Reintegration of Offenders into Community: One of the significant superiorities of Oregon's Newgate project over the San Quentin prison college project was that the former included specific structures and procedures for aiding the offender in making a successful transition from the highly regimented life in prison to a workable and satisfying role in the free community. For the Newgate students, the latter meant enrollment in college, a place to live, a full- or part-time job, or

alternatively, a scholarship or loan, and regular counseling with a Newgate staff member whose main responsibility was that of supervising the transition process.

In the D. C. Youth Center experience, the importance of attention to reintegration into the community was seen in the relative rates of success in finding keypunch operator jobs with and without the help of the training contractor.

Traditionally, education has not been intensively involved in the bridging process between school and community. The student has been given his diploma and allowed to depart in search for a place in the community. Files of credentials are sometimes kept for distribution if requested; a meeting ground for recruiters and students about to leave the school is commonly provided.

Correctional education must apparently go beyond this laissez-faire role or see much of the effect of training go for naught. There must be a bridging, supporting or reinforcing activity, and this reintegrative role may need to be filled for a considerable period of time. Cohen<sup>31</sup> noted that when behavior modification techniques were used with youth at the National Training School for Boys, there was definite improvement in performance at the time of application of the techniques. Three years later, however, a follow-up disclosed virtual disappearance of the early gains. Absence of positive reinforcement in the intervening years showed up as loss of the initial treatment or training effect.

6. Adequate Diagnosis of Educational or Training Needs: There are at least three matters that need to be clarified before effective educational processing of an offender can begin. First, his present level of achievement needs to be ascertained. Is he literate? Can he do high school work, given his previous education? Is he ready for college-level work? Can he be a journey-man electrician? Second, what are his native abilities? Would it be unwise for him to get into the college program, given his intelligence level? Is he stable enough to enter a skilled trade apprenticeship that will require four years for completion? Third, in what direction should he be encouraged to move? Academic, or vocational, or both? If academic, should he be pointing toward college? Graduate school? In what fields?

Many of these questions are already being answered for some offenders at various institutions. Reception centers and diagnostic units are commonplace in the more progressive prisons, youth centers, and other kinds of correctional agencies, including some of the larger probation departments.

If education is to realize its full potential in the rehabilitation of offenders, expansion and improvement of the diagnostic function is clearly called for. This assumes that such functions are necessary for the efficient use of education in rehabilitation. The assumption is open to verification, and a comprehensive evaluation of educational programs would include studies of the diagnostic process.

7. Improved Teaching and Training Staff: Correctional teachers and vocational training staff are often described as marginal,



as not trained for the types of students and teaching situations they confront in corrections, as being unsuccessful in establishing themselves in teaching in the free community, and so on. The validity of these criticisms is open to examination. However, it appears appropriate to conclude that effective correctional education requires good teachers, specifically trained for their roles either in relevant academic programs or by on-the-job training of resourceful kinds, or both. It is interesting to note that there is discernible movement toward professionalization of prison teaching staffs. Codd<sup>32</sup> reports that in Texas, degrees in education can now be obtained through the Ph.D. level; at Coppin State Teachers College in Maryland, one can earn an M.A. in Correctional Education; and Washington State Penitentiary was asked to provide supervision of students from two colleges as they did their practice teaching in the prison school.

Ultimately, it would appear, one might expect to find correctional education increasingly administered by able persons who elected and trained for this field out of personal interest; similarly, the teaching process will become increasingly manned by persons who enter the role as professionals, out of choice. The personal characteristics and training backgrounds of persons who fill these roles well will be matters of interest to college administrators, researchers, and prison heads.

8. Improved Educational Management: No less than correctional teaching, correctional education management must be improved in a drive to rationalize the educational process. This implies increased professionalization of the managerial role, the recruitment of able

individuals with appropriate kinds of training, the development of professional associations, a professional literature, the identification of superior methods and procedures for structuring and developing educational departments, the effective processing and utilization of information in the guiding of the educational activity, and so on.

As in the case of correctional teachers, the higher institutions of the nation are beginning to meet some of the needs in this area of personnel and skills by experimenting with curricula and programs. The extent of this movement is worthy of examination, and the results thus far should be reviewed to obtain some estimate of progress.

#### IV. WHAT CAN THE FOUNDATION DO?

What can The Ford Foundation do to improve prisoner education in America? Where and how can it focus its philanthropic efforts to obtain a maximum impact on correctional education?

SURC researchers asked these questions of those whom they interviewed, in the documents they analyzed, and of the resource persons contacted during the course of this study. SURC's inquiries and analyses produced ten general guidelines and specific recommendations.

##### A. General Recommendations.

SURC recommends that when reviewing prisoner education proposals from correctional authorities, academies, businessmen, community, and ex-offender groups, The Foundation use the following guidelines:

1. The Foundation should insist that the proposed educational program or project will be able to adapt to rapidly changing demands in a complex society. It should be flexible, guided by pragmatic considerations, and oriented toward definable results. Heavy commitments to traditional procedures and structures should be avoided.
2. The Foundation should insist that the program has a strong evaluation component or plan which sets forth procedures and techniques to actively seek and use information on the program's status, activity and results. There should be full provision for descriptive, follow-up and evaluative information. The research and development orientation characteristic of many contemporary organizations should become clearly evident here. The great emphasis on research into "treatment" that emerged in corrections in the 1950s and 60s should now be directed, in large part at least, into research on correctional education
3. The proposal should place emphasis on re-education or retraining of the new offender -- the person who is making his first contact with the criminal justice system. Effective work with such persons may avert the development of criminal careers, with their concomitants of expensive institutionalization, growing resistance to rehabilitation, loss of productivity, and a growing array of related social problems. Probation departments, which are at the first rung of the offender rehabilitation process, would become more heavily involved with offender education. County jails and penitentiaries should be encouraged and supported in their efforts to conduct educational programs for prisoners.

4. The program should place emphasis on re-education or re-training of the youthful offender. This criterion has essentially the same rationale as the preceding one. The new offender tends to be a youthful offender.

5. The resources committed to the program should be relatively large by current standards. As a somewhat neglected adjunct of the offender rehabilitation apparatus, education has chronically suffered from lack of support. In view of the great potential of this instrument of rehabilitation, and also its cost-effectiveness possibilities, it merits heavier investments than have hitherto been made.

6. The Foundation should insist that the proposed program articulate more closely with institutions and organizations of the free community. This will make available to the education process facilities and resources that cannot be duplicated within the walls of institutions, or within the structures and budgets of probation departments. It will also facilitate innovation and ease the problem of reintegrating prisoners into the free community.

7. The Foundation should encourage and support the use of new technologies of communication and education in prisoner education programs. The difficulties of imparting educational materials to persons who live constantly in cells, as in many detention centers; the problems of motivating offenders to learn -- problems that arise from environmental as well as personality characteristics; the diseconomies of providing college courses in prisons; these and other problems call for the demonstration and enlistment of communication and educational media whenever possible.

8. The proposed program should stress an important aspect of the total educational project. Cognitive and motor skills are important for reading blue-prints and threading a pipe, but without concern for others and a commitment to tasks something important is missing. In the past, counselors and psychiatrists on the prison staff attempted to deal with the deficiencies in affect that characterize so many offenders. A better location for this role may be the educational process.

9. The Foundation should encourage business and industry to become important adjuncts of prisoner educational programs. Arrangements should be made for working relationships between the prison or probation department and units of business and industry for vocational training purposes. For the prison system, these training activities will be organized both within the institutions and in the free community on work-release or parole bases.

10. The Foundation should assist central educational staff in state prison systems to become key elements in enabling the step from institution to community. Where formerly there was no bridge, then a parole surveillance and counseling bridge, now there will be a perception of a bridging function that goes beyond previous limits and is concerned with new learning as well as reinforcement of old learnings.

B. Specific Recommendations.

The implication in the previous discussion is that The Ford Foundation is in a position to influence progressive prisoner education programs by reacting in accordance with the recommended guidelines. With the lessening emphasis on federal funding for higher education and

the move to depopulate the large, maximum security institutions in favor of community-based correctional facilities, it is reasonable to assume The Foundation will receive more proposals relating to prisoner education programs in the future than it did in the past.

But, The Foundation is also in a position to act positively to improve the quality of prison education. Obviously, there are a variety of ways in which The Foundation could take the initiative. However, several reoccurring themes echo throughout most of the interviews SURC researchers conducted for this study. We have recast them into the following specific recommendations which focus on (1) general prison reform, (2) prisoner education, and (3) educational technology.

1. General Prison Reform:

Recommendation I: SURC recommends that The Ford Foundation establish a National Corrections Foundation to parallel the Police Foundation which The Ford Foundation has already established.

The proposed Corrections Foundation would establish at a major university A National Academy for Corrections. The Academy would focus on the major issues in corrections, provide training programs and external, credit-bearing courses toward bachelors and masters degrees in corrections.

The university at which the National Academy of Corrections will be located should have a heavy orientation towards graduate level programs in education, strength in counseling and guidance and in student personnel services, and a considerable program in educational research.

The National Academy of Corrections will have four divisions: a Division of Research and Evaluation, a Division of Operations, a Division of Educator Training, and a Division of Professional Activities. This Academy would be operated by the specified university and would have an advisory board consisting of educators, corrections officials and others, but would be an integral part of the university.

The Division of Research and Evaluation would plan a research strategy to gather all available information in the field, build a library of resources, and evaluate the existing programs. It would also work in coordination with the Operations Division to assist in the development of a statewide and fully integrated education program for the penal institutions of that state. After the initial stages, much of the activity of the Division of Research will be done by graduate students of the Division of Educator Training who will be preparing dissertations, theses, major term papers, and conducting research projects being performed on contract to other states, schools, etc. A major effort of the Division of Research will be to assist staff and students of the institute in preparation of scholarly papers, monographs, special reports and textbooks, all on the general topic of correctional education.

The Division of Operations will operate a fully integrated education program in the adult and juvenile institutions of the state and in selected city/county jails. The organizational pattern will be developed to insure that the greatest number of residents are afforded whatever benefits education has to offer. It will include academics, vocational training, counseling and guidance of all types, and remedial/

special education. Academics will range from literacy training to the baccalaureate. Every detail of the program will be planned to allow for a thorough evaluation by the Division of Research and Evaluation. Graduate students from the programs of the Division of Educator Training will spend large amounts of time as instructors and in other capacities such as counselors, administrators, etc., in the Division of Operations. This division shall combine some of the concepts, structures, and philosophies of the laboratory school, continuing education, and the community college.

The Division of Educator Training will offer training at the graduate and, in a few cases, at the undergraduate level in every field of education. The courses will be specifically related to the correctional education problem and will supplement course work given outside of the institute in other departments of the university. Only in such areas as administration and counseling will a degree be granted in correctional education. In other areas, the degree will be granted in another area and the student will have a minor or supporting area in correctional education. Students will be required to teach in the penal system as a part of their training. Graduate degree candidates will conduct their research and write their thesis or dissertation under the guidance of the Division of Research and Evaluation.

The Division of Professional Activities will start by becoming the headquarters for the Correctional Education Association. It will initiate efforts to increase membership. Related groups, such as the National Education Association, American Association of Correctional Psychologists, etc., will be contacted and interchanges will be developed.



Symposiums, workshops, and other professional activities will be developed. Intensive public relations programs to insure knowledge and support of correctional education, financial and otherwise, will be conducted. Consulting programs, graduate student recruiting, and related activities will be supervised by this office. To a large extent, this division will draw upon other staff and students as its workload will fluctuate greatly.

The staff of the National Academy of Corrections will represent various disciplines but will all have had experience in correctional education and research. They will number some ex-convicts in their rank and will include an appropriate number of ethnic minorities. Their faculty appointments will be joint. A concerted effort will be made to have them teach courses outside of the academy and even in the public schools. This will keep them from becoming isolated and will provide feedback to other educational systems.

Some degree of self-support through graduate student tuitions, research and consultation, and related activities can be realized. It may be that after several years such an academy could be self-supporting. Many questions remain to be answered and much study must be done. What has been proposed here is a concerted and synergistic effort to deal with all of the pertinent issues in a single problem. It is going to take something this big to bring correctional education up to a fully professional level. If 95% of the persons who are confined leave prison no better than when they went in, then the multi-billion dollar system is a waste. If the correctional education approach has any value, and most feel it does, then several million dollars spent to put it on its feet is worthwhile.

The Academy would be the only one of its kind in the world. It is only fitting that it be located in the United States, the country which appears to incarcerate more people than any other nation in the "free world." As such, it is expected that the National Academy of Corrections will become the international forum for debating the major problems and issues in corrections and for housing research efforts aimed at resolving these issues.

SURC discovered that correctional authorities are not exposed to modern concepts, techniques, strategies and practices of management, rehabilitation, or, indeed, penology. Practitioners are often threatened by "outsiders," especially academics and social scientists who, all too often, have used them rather than helped them. The National Academy of Corrections will serve to bring together in one institution dedicated to prison reform all who have an interest in improving corrections and rehabilitating prisoners.

Recommendation II: Through the National Academy of Corrections as well as through other appropriate institutions, groups and individuals, the Corrections Foundation would sponsor both basic and evaluative research on the many problems discussed at length in this report.

One of the Corrections Foundation's major undertakings should be to develop practical guidelines in handbooks on how to initiate, manage and evaluate the several alternatives to incarceration currently being discussed in the country. It is reasonable to assume other funding sources would have an interest in supporting this effort. The handbooks should emphasize such topics as "how to start and finance halfway houses,"

"how to sell progressive and innovative reforms to legislators," "how to plan, design, manage and evaluate prisoner treatment and rehabilitation programs," "how to enlist involvement from the commercial and industrial communities in prison reform and prison programs," "how to conduct needed in-service training for staff," and so forth.

Recommendation III: Through the National Academy of Corrections and other appropriate vehicles, the Corrections Foundation would sponsor national and regional conferences to discuss and promote correctional reform. Increased public awareness of prison rehabilitation efforts, recognize outstanding contributions to correctional improvements and establish practical job standards for professional correctional personnel.

Recommendation IV: The Corrections Foundation would sponsor an appropriate number of annual traveling fellowships, perhaps six a year. "Traveling Fellows" would be selected from the ranks of both practicing corrections professionals and correctional scholars who would study and teach at the National Academy of Corrections and travel to various state prison systems and institutions to share information, lead in-service workshops, assist prison authorities and prison reform groups, and provide general consultation services.

2. Prisoner Education:

Recommendation V: The Corrections Foundation would sponsor the development and publication, again in practical handbook form, of guidelines for the establishment and management of central reception, testing, classification and evaluation projects in select state prison

systems. Such systems would enhance the progressive assignment of prisoners to specific prison education programs, track their progress through the programs, provide evaluative data on the programs' success and failure, and assist prison and parole authorities to properly follow-up prisoners once they leave prison by assisting them to get jobs and obtain additional educational or training opportunities.

Recommendation VI: The Corrections Foundation would establish a National Clearinghouse on reception, testing, classification and evaluation information for prisoner rehabilitation and education programs. At present, the few prisons or prison systems that have formalized total classification and evaluation procedures suffer from isolation. Officials do not know where to go with their problems, how to improve their procedures, much less what is being done in other states or at other prisons.

Recommendation VII: Through the National Academy of Corrections and other appropriate institutions, the Corrections Foundation would establish and disseminate professional standards for correctional educators. It would also assist prisons in attracting and employing professional and competent correctional educators.

Recommendation VIII: Through the National Academy of Corrections and other appropriate institutions, the Corrections Foundation would sponsor and disseminate the results from research on practical ways to deal with the "educational pathologies" of the majority of prisoners in American correctional facilities. As one Commissioner of a Regional Penitentiary said, "Cons may be crazy but they are not stupid." Prisoners

can learn, they can be taught. But, they need help. The Foundation would make a major contribution if it sponsored the design and dissemination of practical handbooks on the use of educational media, participation teaching techniques, process-oriented instructional methods for the use of teachers in prisoner education programs.

### 3. Educational Technology.

Recommendation IX: The Corrections Foundation, through the National Academy of Corrections and local educational institutions, could at low cost design and offer workshops to teach correctional teachers how to use and employ the vast array of audio visual aids presently on the market in prison education programs. At almost every institution SURC researchers visited, the teachers did not know how to creatively use what educational media he already had at his disposal.

Recommendation X: The Corrections Foundation should sponsor the demonstration of videocassettes for prison education as discussed in SURC's recent proposal to The Ford Foundation.<sup>33</sup>

Recommendation XI: The Corrections Foundation should support the further development and expansion of the use of television and other sight/sound/motion educational media discussed in this chapter to other prisons. This can be done through direct grants to the institutions mentioned or through the assistance of other foundations and the communications industries.

Recommendation XII: The Corrections Foundation should support the development of materials (software) for generic courses in the majority of prison education programs. SURC's recent proposal<sup>34</sup> to The

Foundation called for the development and demonstration of courses in Social Education (Practical Psychology) and Problem Solving (Mathematics for Beginners). These and other basic courses are greatly needed and would be enthusiastically received by the majority of prisoners and prison officials

#### V. SUMMARY

American history is rich with examples of the development of solutions to societal problems before the problems themselves were clearly defined. We are an impulsive people who have a tendency to act swiftly more than wisely when "things happen."

Most of those interviewed for this study indicated "strange things are now happening" in our prisons. Considerable evidence<sup>35</sup> exists to suggest that an increasing number of young Americans are now and will continue to be incarcerated in our nation's jails, penitentiaries, prisons and correctional facilities in the future. If the present trends continue, the majority (65% in the next few years) of those who go to prison will be much younger and from more affluent families than those who have traditionally been incarcerated.

Since the tragic Attica rebellion, there has been considerable interest in "the prison problem" which has obvious cultural and pathological implications and threatens to recast the basic fabric of our society. Americans have several theories about why we have a prison problem and many notions about dealing with it. But, we do not have any real answers.

In fact, in recent years, as a society, we have spent more energy publicizing our prison problems than we have in trying to understand them. We are spending more funds to cope with them than we are in researching basic questions about them. Only very recently, through the efforts of The Ford Foundation and other foundations, have we attempted to seriously and systematically study prisons and prisoners.

This study by the Syracuse University Research Corporation (SURC) was not intended to be a definitive work; rather, it merely represents an attempt to provide The Ford Foundation with a descriptive overview of some of the complexities of one facet of "the prison problem," prisoner education.

Yet, the report comes at a good time. If current trends continue, Americans will soon "decide" how to resolve the dilemma of growing numbers of prisoners and exconvicts. The Ford Foundation has the opportunity to intervene in that decision-making process. By reacting wisely to requests for assistance and by boldly taking the initiative, The Foundation has an opportunity to promote prisoner reform through prisoner education and positively redirect the lives of hundreds of thousands of Americans.

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CHAPTER SEVEN

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VIII. APPENDICES

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Stuart N. Adams studied at the University of Cincinnati and received his B. S. (1937), his M.A. (1941) and his Ph.D. (1948) from Ohio State University. Currently residing in Washington, D. C. and working as a private consultant Dr. Adams has a substantial background in correctional education and correctional research. He has served as Chief of Research at the Washington, D. C. Department of Correction; Research Criminologist, School of Criminology, University of California at Berkley; Research Director, Los Angeles County Probation Department; Senior Research Analyst, Research Division, California Youth Authority; Senior Research Analyst, California Bureau of Criminal Statistics; and Research Director, California Special Study Commission on Correctional Facilities and Services. Dr. Adams has served on the faculties of American University, University of Maryland, University of California at Berkely, Sacramento State College, Wooster College, Northwestern University and Ohio State University. In addition to serving the Syracuse University Research Corporation (SURC) on this project, he has been a consultant to the Ford Foundation, The American Justice Institute, The American Correctional Association, Avis Corporation, the Los Angeles Youth Opportunity Board and on the Advisory Board for the Newgate Evaluation Project. Dr. Adams is the author of 113 publications on correction and criminal justice.

Jonathan C. Davis received his B. A. (1967) from the University of Buffalo, his M.A. (1972) from Syracuse University where he is presently completing his Ph.D. dissertation. Mr. Davis was Research Assistant at the Policy Institute of the Syracuse University Research Corporation (SURC) during this project. He has previously served as Assistant Director of Admissions at Bucknell University and as Administrative Assistant, Office of Admissions, at Syracuse University. Mr. Davis is currently a consultant to the Director of Admissions at Syracuse University and an Instructor with the University's Department of Sociology.

Kenneth T. Martin received his B. A. Degree (1967) from the University of Maryland, studied at the Syracuse University College of Law and has recently completed all requirements for his M.A. degree at the Maxwell Graduate School for Citizenship and Public Affairs at Syracuse University. Mr. Martin is Administrative Director for applied Social Science Research at the Syracuse University Research Corporation (SURC). He has recently completed extensive research on two topics: the development of a qualitative study examining the relationship between assigned and retained counsel as each affects the resolution of felony prosecution involving indigenous defendants; and an examination and analysis of rehabilitative education in the Auburn Correctional Facility and its impact on the rehabilitation of parolees in Onondaga County, New York. Mr. Martin is an instructor at Syracuse University's University College.

John J. Marsh studied at the University of Alaska, Belleville Jr. College and received his A.B. (1966) and his Ph.D. (1969) from the University of Northern Colorado. He has done post doctoral study at the University of Albuquerque. A veteran of twenty-one years of service in the United States Air force, Dr. Marsh has served as Psychometrist-Counselor at the University of Northern Colorado; Dean of Students, College of Sante Fe; and presently is Assistant Professor at Eastern New Mexico University and Director of Project Newgate at the New Mexico State Penitentiary. Dr. Marsh is the author of eighteen publications on educational and correctional topics.

Michael V. Reagen received his B.S. with honors (1964) from Fordham University, his M.S. (1965) from the University of Illinois and his Ph.D. (1972) from Syracuse University. He has received advanced training at the Institute for Applied Behavioral Science of the National Training Laboratories. Dr. Reagen is currently Research Fellow at the Policy Institute of the Syracuse University Research Corporation (SURC) and Director of the Justice Studies and Human Services Groups at SURC. He has served as President, Associated Organizational Consultants, Inc. Director of the Institute for Drug Education; Director of the Human Resources Laboratory Project; Co-Director of the Maxwell International Development Seminar for the United States Agency for International Development; Program Administrator at the Continuing Education Center -- all at Syracuse University. He has taught at The State University of

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T. Antoinette Ryan studied at the University of Geneva, and the University of Oslo. She received her A.B. and M. A. (both with honors) from Sacrement State College and her Ph.D. from Stanford University. Currently, Professor of Educational Psychology and Researcher, Education Research and Development Center at the University of Hawaii, Dr. Ryan has an extensive background in educational and correctional research. Prior to assuming her current duties at the University of Hawaii, Dr. Ryan served as: Head Counselor and Director of Testing and Counseling, Sacramento City College; and Associate Professor, Oregon State University. Dr. Ryan has served as chairman, Association for Counselor Education and Supervisor's Committee on Effectiveness of Counselor Education; consultant and Reader, United States Office of Education; Director American Educational Research Association Pre-session on Systems Approach in Counseling and Educational

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Thomas E. Smith received his B.A. (1965) from Glassboro State College and is presently a doctoral candidate at the Maxwell Graduate School for Citizenship and Public Affairs at Syracuse University. Currently, Mr. Smith is Research Associate, The Justice Studies Group at the Syracuse University Research Corporation (SURC). Mr. Smith's other recent research activities have involved an analysis of the research community's findings and the academic and social benefits of busing children to achieve racial desegregation. Prior to joining SURC, Mr. Smith was an Educational Specialist for the U.S. Commission on Civil Rights. His primary responsibilities in that position included analyzing and identifying the use of Federal funds in elementary and secondary schools and colleges. Part of his responsibilities with the Commission included the design, writing and testing of several

reports and study guides focusing on the manifestation of institutional racism in schools, urban government and poverty programs. From 1967 to 1969, Mr. Smith was a field representative and employment specialist with the Commission. From 1965 to 1967, Mr. Smith was a field representative for the New Jersey Department of Law and Public Safety's Division of Civil Rights.

Donald M. Stoughton attended Onondaga Community College, Auburn Community College and St. Lawrence University. Mr. Stoughton's academic background includes undergraduate work in police science, police administration and criminology. His major research interests lie in public safety, criminal justice, drug abuse and prison reform. Mr. Stoughton is currently, Assistant Director of the Justice Studies Group at the Syracuse University Research Corporation (SURC). He recently assisted in the design and direction of an intensive training program for the newly established security guard staff of New York City high schools. Other recent research activities have included a complete analysis, evaluation and reorganization of the Baldwinsville, New York, Police Department. Prior to joining SURC, Mr. Stoughton was President of Police and Security Management Consultants, Inc.; a Syracuse firm which specializes in security consultation to hospital administrators and management consultation to police administrators. From 1964 to 1966, Mr. Stoughton was the Chief Criminal Deputy, Onondaga County, New York Sheriff's Department. In that position, he was responsible for the administration of the

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Security and Law Enforcement Section  
Security Branch, G-1 Division  
Washington, D. C. 20380

Duane McFatier  
Director of Education and Inmate  
Training  
Louisiana State Penitentiary  
Angola, Louisiana 70712

Perry McGee, Superintendent  
Orange County Juvenile Hall  
331 City Drive South  
Orange, California 92668

Donald McGehee, Director  
Metropolitan Rehabilitation Center  
710 South 5th Street  
Nashville, Tennessee 37206

Ellis C. MacDougall, Commissioner  
815 Trinity-Washington Building  
Atlanta, S. W., Georgia 30334

Claire E. MacDowell, Consultant  
3701 South Salina Street  
Syracuse, New York 13205

Frank I. Madigan, Sheriff  
Santa Rita Rehabilitation Center  
PO Box 87  
Pleasanton, California 94566

Mr. Daniel T. Mahon  
Director of Education  
Bureau of Corrections  
State of Virginia  
337 West Main Street  
Richmond, Virginia 23220

Benjamin J. Malcolm, Commissioner  
Department of Correction  
100 Centre Street  
New York, New York 10013

John R. Manson, Commissioner  
Department of Correction  
340 Capitol Avenue  
Hartford, Connecticut 06106

Alfonse Maresh  
Educational Coordinator  
Minnesota Department of Corrections  
310 State Office Building  
St. Paul, Minnesota

John J. Marsh, Ph.D.  
Research Specialist  
Correctional Education Association  
724 Zia Road  
Santa Fe, New Mexico 87501

Warden R. D. Massey  
Union Correctional Facility  
PO Box 221  
Raiford, Florida

Raymond W. May, Director  
State Board of Correction  
Box 7309  
Boise, Idaho 83707

David E. Mehus, Administrator  
Division of Rehabilitative Services  
1004 King County Court House  
Seattle, Washington 98104

Albert J. Meyer, Superintendent  
Erie County Penitentiary  
Box X  
Alden, New York 14004

Mr. Terry Miller  
Union Correctional Facility  
PO Box 221  
Raiford, Florida

William G. Miller, Director  
State Department of Corrections  
Room 116 Capitol Building  
Jefferson City, Missouri 65101

Vincent A. Miro, Chief  
Broward County Sheriff's Department  
PO Box 8069  
Fort Lauderdale, Florida 33310

F. Terrance Moore, Warden  
Community Correctional Center  
1106 North Avenue  
Bridgeport, Connecticut 06604

Warren H. Moore, Superintendent  
District of Columbia Youth Services  
614 H Street, N. W.  
Washington, D. C. 20001

Winston E. Moore, Executive Director  
Department of Corrections  
2600 South California Avenue  
Chicago, Illinois 60608

John J. Morgan, Director  
Department of Health and Social  
Services  
Division of Adult Corrections  
R. D. No. 1, Box 246-A  
Smyrna, Delaware 19977

Mr. John Moran, Director  
1601 West Jefferson Street  
4th Floor  
Phoenix, Arizona 85007

Captain James Murphy  
Draper Correctional Center  
PO Box 1107  
Elmore, Alabama 36025

R. Brent Murphy, Commissioner  
Division of Adult Services  
9th Floor Mezzanine  
Civil Centers Building  
St. Louis, Missouri 63101

Harrey Murray, Deputy Warden  
Camden County Jail  
6th Floor, City Hall  
Camden, New Jersey 08101

Dr. Lane Murray  
Superintendent of Schools  
Texas Department of Corrections  
Box 99  
Huntsville, Texas

James A. Musick, Sheriff  
Orange County Jail  
550 North Flower Street  
Santa Ana, California 92702

Fred W. Murray, Chief  
Jacksonville Correctional Institution  
4727 Lannie Road  
Jacksonville, Florida 32218

Mr. L. S. Nelson, Warden  
San Quentin State Prison  
San Quentin, California 94904

William Ray Nelson, Director  
Denver County Jail  
10500 Smith Road  
PO Box 1108  
Denver, Colorado 80201

Dwaine E. Nickeson, Warden  
Community Correctional Center  
72 Seyms Street  
Hartford, Connecticut 06120

Richard D. Nikiel  
Education and Program Developer  
10500 Smith Road  
PO Box 1108  
Denver, Colorado 80201

Mr. John Nipper  
Correctional Services Director  
Pentagon Court  
"C" Building  
Baton Rouge, Louisiana 70804

Fred F. Nugent, Warden  
Hudson County Jail  
576 Pavonia Avenue  
Jersey City, New Jersey 07306

Elaine K. Offutt, Registrar  
Coast Navigation School  
Drawer Y  
418 East Canon Perdido  
Santa Barbara, California 93102

Gerald H. O'Loughlin  
Massachusetts State Prison  
Box 100  
South Walpole, Massachusetts

Milton S. Olson, Deputy Commissioner  
Division of Youth Conservation  
310 State Office Building  
St. Paul, Minnesota 55101

Ralph Oriscello, Sheriff  
Union County Jail  
15 Elizabethtown Plaza  
Elizabeth, New Jersey 07202

James Orrell, Principal  
San Quentin State Prison  
San Quentin, California 94904

Russell Oswald, Commissioner  
Department of Correction  
Alfred E. Smith State Office Bldg.  
Albany, New York 12225

Norman G. Owens, Executive Officer  
Department of Correction  
804 State Office Building  
Indianapolis, Indiana 46204

Joseph S. Palmquist  
Supervisor of Education  
U. S. Penitentiary at McNeil Island  
Steilacoom, Washington 98388

J. D. Parkinson, Executive Director  
State Board of Charities and  
Corrections  
Capitol Building  
Pierre, South Dakota 57501

Howard B. Parks, Acting Warden  
Baltimore City Jail  
401 East Eager Street  
Baltimore, Maryland 21202

Ronald H. Parsons, Sheriff  
Kent County Jail  
701 Ball Avenue  
Grand Rapids, N. E., Michigan 49503

Alvin H. Petersen, Jailer  
Milwaukee County Jail  
821 West State Street  
Milwaukee, Wisconsin 53223

Karl P. Pfeil  
Director of Correctional Camp  
Department of Correctional Services  
Division of Correctional Camps  
2 University Place  
Albany, New York 12203

C. Paul Phelps, Assistant Director  
Department of Corrections  
PO Box 44304  
State Capitol Station  
Baton Rouge, Louisiana 70804

Mr. Thomas G. Pinnock  
Deputy Assistant Secretary  
PO Box 1788  
Olympia, Washington 98504

Mr. S. Pipkin  
Senior Research Associate  
Texas Department of Corrections  
Box 99  
Huntsville, Texas

Peter J. Pitchess, Sheriff  
Los Angeles County Jail and  
Corrections System  
211 West Temple Street  
Los Angeles, California 90012

Sanger B. Powers, Administrator  
Department of Health and Social  
Services  
Division of Corrections  
PO Box 669  
Madison, Wisconsin 53701

Mr. Raymond K. Procunier, Director  
Department of Corrections  
714 P Street, 6th Floor  
State Office Building No. 8  
Sacramento, California 95814

J. Bard Purcell, Sheriff  
Rocky Butte Jail  
9755 N. E. Hancock Drive  
Portland, Oregon 97220

Mr. Robert R. Raines, Superintendent  
Washington Correctional Center  
PO Box 900  
Sheiton, Washington 98584

Mr. Ward Ramos  
Union Correctional Facility  
PO Box 221  
Raiford, Florida

George W. Randall, Secretary  
Department of Social Rehabilitation  
and Control  
840 West Morgan Street  
Raleigh, North Carolina 27603

Mr. Amos E. Reed, Administrator  
Corrections Division  
Department of Human Resources  
2775 Center Street  
Salem, Oregon 97310

Lt. Colonel Donald E. Reeves  
Staff Officer for Correction  
Department of the Air Force  
Directorate of Security Police  
Headquarters, United States Air Force  
Washington, D. C. 20314

William J. Reilly, Sheriff  
Spokane County-City Detention Center  
West 1100 Mallon Avenue  
Spokane, Washington 99201

R. Vance Robertson  
Acting Commissioner of Youth  
Development  
Office of Youth Development  
116 West Hargett Street  
Raleigh, North Carolina 27602

Warden James Rose  
Tennessee State Penitentiary  
Centennial Boulevard  
Nashville, Tennessee 37209

Raymond B. Rowe, Sheriff  
Imperial County Jail and  
Minimum Security Facility  
PO Box 1040  
El Centro, California 92243

John Rush, Warden  
Essex County Corrections Center  
Box 349  
Caldwell, New Jersey 07006

Dr. T. A. Ryan, Research Professor  
Adult Basic Education in Corrections  
College of Education  
University of Hawaii  
1776 University Avenue  
Honolulu, Hawaii 96822  
Phone: (808) 948-7905

Jack Sandstrom, Director  
Dade County Jail  
1321 N. W. 13th Street  
Miami, Florida 33125

Hilbert Schauer, Director  
State Department of Institutions  
328 State Services Building  
Denver, Colorado 80203

Walter G. Schiepe, Warden  
Berks County Prison  
Box 797  
Reading, Pennsylvania 19603

Lieutenant Donald A. Schmidt  
Superintendent  
Multnomah County Correctional  
Institution  
Route 2, Box 58  
Troutdale, Oregon 97060

Arnold Sessions, Teacher  
Seattle Corrections Center  
1004 King County Court House  
Seattle, Washington 98104

Mr. David Sheboses  
Assistant Supervisor of Education  
New Jersey State Prison, Trenton  
Third Street  
Trenton, New Jersey 08606

James C. Shoultz, Director  
Orange County Correctional  
Institution  
Route 7, Box 36  
Orlando, Florida 32805

Allyn R. Sielaff, Commissioner  
Department of Justice  
Bureau of Correction  
Box 200  
Camp Hill, Pennsylvania 17011

Burton K. Smith  
Title I Project Director  
1601 West Jefferson Street  
Phoenix, Arizona 85007

Harvey Snyder  
Commanding Officer in Charge  
Denver City Jail  
13th and Champa  
Denver, Colorado 80204

R. Kent Stoneman, Commissioner  
Department of Corrections  
State Office Building  
Montpelier, Vermont 05602

George E. Studt, Superintendent  
Cincinnati Workhouse  
3208 Colerain Avenue  
Cincinnati, Ohio 45225

Samuel J. Sublett, Jr.  
Administrator  
Office of Institution Services  
PO Box 246  
St. Charles, Illinois 60174

Dr. Daniel Sullivan, Superintendent  
Commission of Corrections for  
Higher Education  
New Jersey State Department of  
Corrections

L. B. Sullivan, Commissioner  
State Board of Corrections  
101 South Union Street  
Montgomery, Alabama 36104

Mr. Paul Surface  
Union Correctional Facility  
PO Box 221  
Raiford, Florida

Jacob Tanzer, Director  
Department of Human Resources  
318 Public Service Building  
Salem, Oregon 97310

Sheriff Fate Thomas  
Court House, Room 12  
Public Square  
Nashville, Tennessee 37209

Gerald Thomas, Assistant Secretary  
Department of Social and Health  
Services  
Service Delivery Division  
PO Box 1788  
Olympia, Washington 98504

Mr. Nelson N. Thomas  
Principal of Prison School  
Central Prison  
835 Morgan Street  
Raleigh, North Carolina

Mr. Robert Thomas  
Educational Director  
Division of Corrections  
Ferris Bryant Building  
Tallahassee, Florida 32304

Myron Thompson, Director  
Department of Social Services and  
Housing  
Correctional Division  
PO Box 339  
Honolulu, Hawaii 96809

Mr. C. Tracy  
Administrative Assistant  
Texas Department of Corrections  
Box 99  
Huntsville, Texas

Anthony P. Travisono, Director  
Department of Corrections  
600 New London Avenue  
Cranston, Rhode Island 02920

James J. Treuchtlinger  
Commissioner of Corrections  
Nassau County Jail  
Box 172  
East Meadow, New York 11554

John F. Trezza, Acting Warden  
Essex County Jail  
60 Nelson Place  
Newark, New Jersey 07103

Robert D. Trujello, Chief  
Division of Corrections  
1525 Sherman  
328 State Services Building  
Denver, Colorado 80203

James A. Turman, Ph.D.  
Executive Director  
Texas Youth Council  
201 East 14th Street  
Austin, Texas 78701

Leonard Valore, M.A., Vice-President  
Director of Education  
North American Correspondence Schools  
4500 Campus Drive  
University Plaza  
Newport Beach, California 92663

Joseph C. Vitek, Warden  
New Hampshire State Prison  
Box 14  
Concord, New Hampshire 03301

Albert C. Wagner, Director  
Division of Corrections and Parole  
135 West Hanover Street  
Trenton, New Jersey 08625

Louie L. Wainwright, Director  
Department of Health and  
Rehabilitative Services  
301 Farris Bryant Building  
Tallahassee, Florida 32304

Mr. Lawrence G. Waldt, Sheriff  
King County Jail  
1004 King County Court House  
Seattle, Washington, 98104

John Wolfe, Warden  
Community Correctional Center  
245 Whalley Avenue  
New Haven, Connecticut 06510

Earl B. Whitmore, Sheriff  
San Mateo County Jail  
450 Bradford Street  
Redwood City, California 94063

Melvin A. Wilmoth, Sheriff  
Fresno County Sheriff's Office  
Detention Facilities  
PO Box 1788  
Fresno, California 93717

Mr. Charles G. Wilson, P. E.  
Director of Research and Planning  
State Department of Corrections  
831 West Morgan Street  
Raleigh, North Carolina

Thomas "Pete" Wilson  
Director of Basic Education  
Mississippi State Penitentiary  
Parchman, Mississippi 38738



Robert Windrs, Deputy  
Administrative Assistant to  
William Anthony  
Los Angeles County Jail  
211 West Temple Street  
Room 269  
Los Angeles, California 90012

Sargeant Andrew J. Winston  
City Sargeant  
Richmond City Jail  
1701 Fairfield Avenue  
Richmond, Virginia

Frank Woodson, Director  
San Diego County Department  
of Honor Camps  
555 Overland Avenue, Building No. 6  
San Diego, California 92123

Robert N. Woodson  
Director of Prisons  
Department of Penal Institutions  
State Office Building  
Topeka, Kansas 66612

Wayne D. Woolverton  
Assistant Director  
Department of Penal Institutions  
State Office Building  
Topeka, Kansas 66612

Ernest D. Wright  
Division Director  
Division of Corrections  
104 State Capitol  
Salt Lake City, Utah 84114

John Wright  
Superintendent of Education and  
Staff Development  
1601 West Jefferson Street  
Phoenix, Arizona 85007

Robert J. Wright, Commissioner  
County of Westchester  
Department of Correction  
Valhalla, New York 10595

Walter F. Young, Sheriff  
Contra Costa County Jail  
and Rehabilitation  
PO Box 391  
Martinez, California 94553

John T. Ziegler, Warden  
Delaware County Prison  
Broadmeadows Farm  
Thornton, Pennsylvania 19373



C. SITE VISITATIONS

SITE VISITATIONS

Alabama State Board of Corrections 101 South Union Street Montgomery, Alabama 36104	Department of Correctional Services State of Washington PO Box 1788 Olympia, Washington 98504
Arizona Department of Corrections 1601 West Jefferson, 4th Floor Phoenix, Arizona	Division of Corrections State of Florida 301 Farris Bryant Building Tallahassee, Florida 32304
Arkansas Department of Corrections State Office Building Little Rock, Arkansas 72201	Department of Corrections State of South Carolina 4444 Borad River Road PO Box 766 Columbia, South Carolina
Board of Corrections State of Georgia 815 Trinity-Washington Building, S. W. Atlanta, Georgia 30334	Department of Correction State of Tennessee 1007 Andrew Jackson Building Nashville, Tennessee 37203
Bureau of Corrections State of Virginia 406 South Belvedere Street Richmond, Virginia 23220	Draper Correctional Center PO Box 1107 Elmore, Alabama
California Department of Corrections 714 P Street State Office Building No. 8 Sacramento, California 95814	Essex County Jail 60 Nelson Place Newark, New Jersey
California State Prison at San Quentin San Quentin, California	Goree Unit Box 38 Huntsville, Texas
Central Prison (County Facility) 835 Morgan Street Raleigh, North Carolina	Huntsville Unit Box 32 Huntsville, Texas
Central Prison (State Facility) 835 Morgan Street Raleigh, North Carolina	Jackson County Jail Jackson County Courthouse Kansas City, Missouri
Colorado State Department of Institutions 328 State Services Building Denver, Colorado	Kansas Department of Penal Institutions State Office Building Topeka, Kansas 66612
Denver County Jail PO Box 1108 Denver, Colorado	

Kansas State Penitentiary  
Box 2  
Lansing, Kansas

King County Jail  
1004 King County Courthouse  
Seattle, Washington 98104

Los Angeles County Jail and  
Corrections System  
211 West Temple Street  
Los Angeles, California

Louisiana Department of Corrections  
PO Box 44304  
State Capitol Building  
Baton Rouge, Louisiana

Louisiana State Penitentiary  
Angola, Louisiana

Maricopa County Jail  
102 West Midson  
Phoenix, Arizona

Massachusetts Correctional Institution  
Box 355  
Bridgewater, Massachusetts

Massachusetts Correctional Institution  
Box 99  
Concord, Massachusetts

Massachusetts Correctional Institution  
Box 99  
Framingham, Massachusetts

Massachusetts Correctional Institution  
Box 43  
Norfolk, Massachusetts

Massachusetts Correctional Institution  
Box 100  
South Walpole, Massachusetts

Mercer County Jail  
96 Cooper Street  
Trenton, New Jersey

Metropolitan Workhouse  
Nashville Davidson County  
Nashville, Tennessee

Minnesota Department of Corrections  
310 State Office Building  
St. Paul, Minnesota 55515

Mississippi State Penitentiary  
Parchman, Mississippi

New Jersey State Prison  
Rahway Unit at Marlboro

New Jersey State Prison  
Third Street  
Trenton, New Jersey

North Carolina Department of Social  
Rehabilitation of Control  
840 West Morgan Street  
Raleigh, North Carolina 27603

Office of Corrections  
State of North Carolina  
831 West Morgan Street  
Raleigh, North Carolina

Oregon Department of Human Resources  
318 Public Service Building  
Salem, Oregon

Oregon State Penitentiary  
2605 State Street  
Salem, Oregon 97310

Orleans Parish Prison  
531 South Broad Street  
New Orleans, Louisiana

Richmond City Jail  
1701 Fairfield Avenue  
Richmond, Virginia

Rocky Butte Jail  
9755 N.E. Hancock Drive  
Portland, Oregon

San Francisco County Jail  
City Hall  
Room 333  
San Francisco, California

Suffolk County Jail  
215 Charles Street  
Boston, Massachusetts

Tennessee State Penitentiary  
Centennial Boulevard  
Nashville, Tennessee

Texas Department of Corrections  
Box 99  
Huntsville, Texas 77340

Union Correctional Facility  
PO Box 221  
Raiford, Florida

United States Penitentiary at  
Atlanta  
Atlanta, Georgia 30315

United States Penitentiary at  
Leavenworth  
Leavenworth, Kansas 66048

United States Penitentiary at  
McNeil Island  
Steilacoom, Washington

Washington Corrections Center  
PO Box 900  
Shelton, Washington

Wynne Unit and Treatment Center  
Route 1, Box 1  
Huntsville, Texas

D. INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

E. DOCUMENT ANALYSIS SHEET

NAME OF INSTITUTION \_\_\_\_\_

ADDRESS \_\_\_\_\_

SUPERINTENDENT/WARDEN \_\_\_\_\_

Responded with records/reports/misc. data \_\_\_\_\_

Visited on-site and responded to questionnaire \_\_\_\_\_

POPULATION

MEN:

Total \_\_\_\_\_  
Caucasian \_\_\_\_\_  
Negro \_\_\_\_\_  
Other Races \_\_\_\_\_

WOMEN:

Total \_\_\_\_\_  
Caucasian \_\_\_\_\_  
Negro \_\_\_\_\_  
Other Races \_\_\_\_\_

YOUTH:

Total \_\_\_\_\_  
Caucasian \_\_\_\_\_  
Negro \_\_\_\_\_  
Other Races \_\_\_\_\_

AGE RANGE OF INMATES:

Men: under 18 \_\_\_\_\_  
18 - 35 \_\_\_\_\_  
35 - 50 \_\_\_\_\_  
Over 50 \_\_\_\_\_

Women: under 18 \_\_\_\_\_  
18 - 35 \_\_\_\_\_  
35 - 50 \_\_\_\_\_  
Over 50 \_\_\_\_\_

EDUCATIONAL LEVEL ON ENTERING FACILITY:

Men: Caucasian \_\_\_\_\_  
Negro \_\_\_\_\_  
Other Races \_\_\_\_\_

Women: Caucasian \_\_\_\_\_  
Negro \_\_\_\_\_  
Other Races \_\_\_\_\_

Youth: Caucasian \_\_\_\_\_  
Negro \_\_\_\_\_  
Other Races \_\_\_\_\_

-----  
EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMS OFFERED

PRIMARY: Grades \_\_\_\_\_

1. How taught \_\_\_\_\_
2. By whom \_\_\_\_\_
3. Other remarks \_\_\_\_\_

HIGH SCHOOL: Grades \_\_\_\_\_ Equivalency \_\_\_\_\_

1. How taught \_\_\_\_\_
2. By whom \_\_\_\_\_
3. Other remarks \_\_\_\_\_

JUNIOR COLLEGE: \_\_\_\_\_

1. How taught \_\_\_\_\_
2. By whom \_\_\_\_\_
3. Other remarks \_\_\_\_\_

FULL COLLEGE \_\_\_\_\_

- 1 How taught \_\_\_\_\_
- 2 By whom \_\_\_\_\_
- 3 Other remarks \_\_\_\_\_

PARTICIPANTS IN EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMS

MEN	WOMEN
1 Total _____	1 Total _____
a Caucasian _____	a Caucasian _____
b Negro _____	b Negro _____
c Other _____	c Other _____
2 Age range _____	2 Age range _____
a Under 18 _____	a Under 18 _____
b 18 - 35 _____	b 18 - 35 _____
c 35 - 50 _____	c 35 - 50 _____
d Over 50 _____	d Over 50 _____
3 Programs participated in _____	3 Programs participated in _____
a Primary Ed _____	a Primary Ed _____
b High School _____	b High School _____
c College _____	c College _____
d Other _____	d Other _____

FACILITIES PROVIDED FOR EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMS

- |                               |                        |
|-------------------------------|------------------------|
| 1 Classroom instruction _____ | 4 Study/Furlough _____ |
| 2 Cassette _____              | 5 TV _____             |
| 3 Correspondence _____        | 6 Other _____          |

VOCATIONAL TRAINING  
PARTICIPANTS IN VOCATIONAL TRAINING

MEN	WOMEN
1 Total _____	1 Total _____
a Caucasian _____	a Caucasian _____
b Negro _____	b Negro _____
c Other _____	c Other _____
2 Age range _____	2 Age range _____
a Under 18 _____	a Under 18 _____
b 18 - 35 _____	b 18 - 35 _____
c 35 - 50 _____	c 35 - 50 _____
d Over 50 _____	d Over 50 _____
3 Programs participated in _____	3 Programs participated in _____
a Primary Ed _____	a Primary Ed _____
b High School _____	b High School _____
c College _____	c College _____
d Other _____	d Other _____



COURSES TAUGHT

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HOW TAUGHT

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Practical application and/or experience using trade learned \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

TRAINING STAFF

TEACHING STAFF (vocational programs)

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TEACHING STAFF (educational programs)

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OTHER PROGRAMS PROVIDED (work/furlough, etc.)

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FUNDING:

Educational programs \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

Vocational programs \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

RECIDIVISM: (information available from literature received and/or on-site visits)

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INSTITUTIONAL STAFF TRAINING

TOTAL NUMBER OF STAFF PERSONNEL \_\_\_\_\_

PRE-EMPLOYMENT QUALIFICATIONS: \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

PRE-EMPLOYMENT TRAINING: \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

IN SERVICE TRAINING \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

SUPERVISORY/ADMINISTRATOR TRAINING (in-service) \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

SUPERVISORY/ADMINISTRATOR PRE-EMPLOYMENT QUALIFICATIONS \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

INSTITUTION \_\_\_\_\_ STATE \_\_\_\_\_