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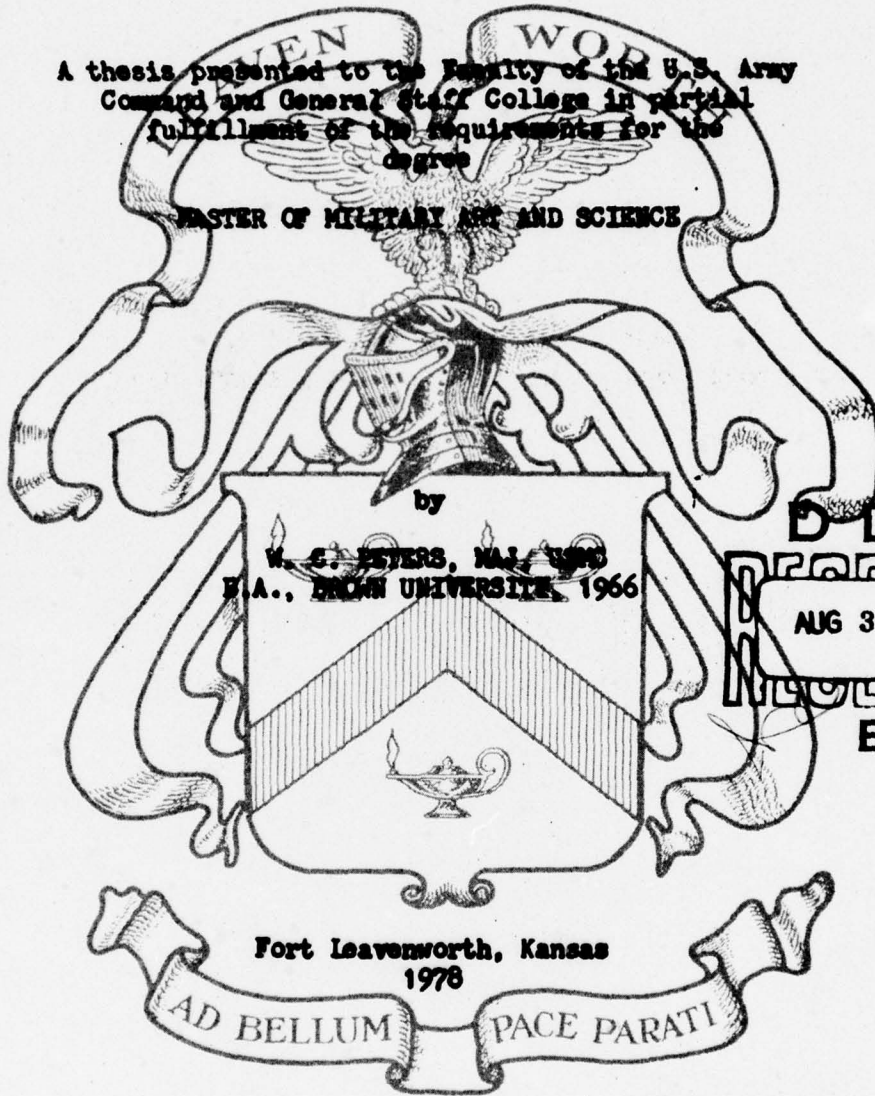
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REHABILITATION OF USDB INMATES: A FRESH LOOK

A thesis presented to the Faculty of the U.S. Army
Command and General Staff College in partial
fulfillment of the requirements for the
degree

MASTER OF MILITARY ART AND SCIENCE



by

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| REPORT DOCUMENTATION PAGE | | READ INSTRUCTIONS BEFORE COMPLETING FORM |
|---|-----------------------|--|
| 1. REPORT NUMBER | 2. GOVT ACCESSION NO. | 3. RECIPIENT'S CATALOG NUMBER |
| 4. TITLE (and Subtitle) REHABILITATION OF USDB INMATES: A FRESH LOOK | | 5. TYPE OF REPORT & PERIOD COVERED Final Report 9 June 78 |
| 7. AUTHOR(s) Peters, William C., MAJ, USMC | | 6. PERFORMING ORG. REPORT NUMBER |
| 9. PERFORMING ORGANIZATION NAME AND ADDRESS Student at the U.S. Army Command and General Staff College, Fort Leavenworth, Ks 66027 ✓ | | 8. CONTRACT OR GRANT NUMBER(s) |
| 11. CONTROLLING OFFICE NAME AND ADDRESS US Army Command and General Staff College ATTN: ATSW-SE | | 10. PROGRAM ELEMENT, PROJECT, TASK AREA & WORK UNIT NUMBERS |
| 14. MONITORING AGENCY NAME & ADDRESS (if different from Controlling Office) | | 12. REPORT DATE 9 June 78 |
| | | 13. NUMBER OF PAGES 79 |
| | | 15. SECURITY CLASS. (of this report) Unclassified |
| | | 15a. DECLASSIFICATION/DOWNGRADING SCHEDULE |
| 16. DISTRIBUTION STATEMENT (of this Report) Approved for public release; distribution unlimited. | | |
| 17. DISTRIBUTION STATEMENT (of the abstract entered in Block 20, if different from Report) | | |
| 18. SUPPLEMENTARY NOTES Master of Military Art and Science (MMAS) Thesis prepared at CGSC in partial fulfillment of the Masters Program requirements, U.S Army Command and General Staff College, Fort Leavenworth, Kansas 66027 | | |
| 19. KEY WORDS (Continue on reverse side if necessary and identify by block number) PRISONS, REHABILITATION, CORRECTIONS, DRUG ABUSE AND PREVENTION, DRUG TREATMENT | | |
| 20. ABSTRACT (Continue on reverse side if necessary and identify by block number) See reverse. | | |

↙ The future of the United States Disciplinary Barracks (USDB) and the Army Corrections Program is under debate. One side argues that the USDB is archaic and too expensive to maintain. The other argues that the USDB is needed to provide the rehabilitative programs for the long term inmate and that the USDB could become self-sustaining with an expansion of industry.

This study compares and contrasts the current populations and rehabilitation programs of the USDB and the Teen Challenge Program to determine whether the techniques and services, espoused by the Teen Challenge Program, could apply to or benefit the USDB.

To accomplish the cited task, the study describes the evolution of the penitentiary in America and the shift towards community-based corrections today; examines the values, perceptions, and keys toward rehabilitation; analyzes the rehabilitative programs of the USDB and Teen Challenge to determine strengths, weaknesses, and implications; and provide conclusions and recommendations concerning the implementation of the Teen Challenge community-based program at the USDB. ↘

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Final Report 9 June 1978

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Final rept.

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86 p.

Approved for public release; distribution unlimited.

A Master of Military Art and Science thesis presented to the faculty of the U.S. Army Command and General Staff College, Fort Leavenworth, Kansas 66027

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Title of Thesis Rehabilitation of USDB Inmates:

A Fresh Look

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The opinions and conclusions expressed herein are those of the individual student author and do not necessarily represent the views of either the U.S. Army Command and General Staff College or any other governmental agency. (References to this study should include the foregoing statement)

ABSTRACT

REHABILITATION OF USDB INMATES: A FRESH LOOK, by Major William C. Peters, USMC

The future of the United States Disciplinary Barracks (USDB) and the Army Corrections Program is under debate. One side argues that the USDB is archaic and too expensive to maintain. The other argues that the USDB is needed to provide the rehabilitative programs for the long term inmate and that the USDB could become self-sustaining with an expansion of industry.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION TO THE PROBLEM

BACKGROUND

The future of the United States Disciplinary Barracks (USDB) and the Army Corrections Program is under debate. One side argues that the USDB is archaic and too expensive to maintain.¹ The other argues that the USDB is needed to provide the rehabilitative programs for the long term inmate and that the USDB could become self-sustaining with an expansion of industry.²

Frustration is felt by penologists and Army correction professionals because "prisons are failing to rehabilitate convicted criminals and deter others from crime."³ The Lowery Study on military confinement facilities concluded that rehabilitation efforts of inmates are generally unsuccessful and cost effective. It recommended that all military prisoners be sentenced to federal prisons.⁴ The USDB is presently under-utilized;⁵ consequently, opponents have recommended that it be transferred to federal control as it was in 1895 and 1929.⁶ Such a transfer of military prisoners to the Federal Bureau of Prisons does not appear to be a viable solution because federal prisons are overcrowded and floundering.⁷

The future of corrections is uncertain. Anthony P. Travisono, Executive Director of the American Correctional Association, recently stated that a state of confusion exists in corrections today.

"We still have a very long, unclear pattern in our country for

what we do with the person who breaks the law. We are in the midst of changing philosophies. . . . Society's responsibility toward the lawbreaker lies in holding and helping the person, but there is disagreement among corrections professionals concerning the meaning of punishment." ⁸

In an attempt to resolve these disparities, a Joint Service Military Corrections Conference convened at the USDB in January 1978 to formulate recommendations for future military prison rehabilitation programs and policies.⁹ The urgency to conserve resources and maintain cost-effective programs complicated the already conflicting perceptions of corrections. The trend was to terminate rehabilitation programs which were cost-ineffective.¹⁰ It was determined that rehabilitation was intangible and not readily quantified to fit neatly into the cost-effective model.¹¹ When scrutinized according to dollar value alone, rehabilitation programs seemed to become dehumanized. In the closing address to the conference, General John H. Johns, Director of Human Resources Development, stated, "We've got a moral obligation to rehabilitate the individual soldier who has gone wrong and prevent him from being his own worst enemy for the rest of his life." ¹²

In an endeavor to resolve these problems, this paper investigates an alternative corrections program which may effectively rehabilitate individuals at greatly reduced costs.

ASSUMPTIONS

1. That the USDB is a model prison which is well managed by a competent and professional staff.¹³
2. That the role of the USDB in corrections and rehabilitation will not change in the foreseeable future.¹⁴
3. That the mission and goals of the Army Correction Program

currently published will remain unchanged. The main objective is to return the maximum number of military prisoners to duty or to civilian life with improved attitudes and motivations.¹⁵

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

To compare and contrast the current populations and rehabilitation programs of the USDB and the Teen Challenge Program to determine whether the rehabilitative techniques, espoused by the Teen Challenge Program, could apply to or benefit the USDB.

OBJECTIVES

1. Through a chronological study of the development of corrections, acquire a valid perspective of where corrections is today.

2. Through a demographic comparison of the USDB inmates and Teen Challenge members, determine similarities/dissimilarities of the populations.

3. By comparing and contrasting the available rehabilitative programs of the USDB and Teen Challenge Programs, determine the strengths and weaknesses of each.

4. By analyzing the strengths and weaknesses of the rehabilitation programs, determine whether the successful elements of the Teen Challenge Program can be applied to or benefit the USDB.

APPROACH

Chapter 1 sets the scene, states the problem, establishes objectives, and explains study delimiters. Chapter 2 describes the evolution of the penitentiary in America and the shift towards

community-based corrections today. Chapter 3 presents a demographic comparison of the USDB and the Teen Challenge Program to determine significant similarities and differences that will affect adaption of the Teen Challenge community-based model to specific USDB programs. Chapter 4 examines the values, perceptions, and keys toward rehabilitation. Chapter 5 analyzes the rehabilitative programs of the USDB and Teen Challenge to determine strengths, weaknesses, and implications. Chapter 6 provides conclusions and recommendations concerning the implementation of the Teen Challenge community-based program at the USDB.

SCOPE AND METHODOLOGY

Pertinent data was collected using the historical research and personal interview techniques. Study resources were limited to reports and officials from the U.S. Army, Fort Leavenworth facilities and the civilian Teen Challenge treatment program. The study is unclassified to facilitate handling and wider distribution. Research was conducted during the academic year 1977-78.

DEFINITIONS

1. Rehabilitation - "The action taken to prepare immobilized individuals, such as military prisoners and hospital patients, for their return to military duty or useful civilian employment. It is considered synonymous with correctional treatment." ¹⁶
2. Correctional Facility - A facility providing correctional treatment to military prisoners to motivate and re-train them for return to military duty or return to civilian life as better citizens. It applies to re-training brigades and disciplinary barracks.¹⁷

3. Correctional Treatment - An individualized program designed to enhance and accomplish behavior and attitude change by the prisoner. It includes medical and/or mental health treatment programs, educational and vocational training, useful and constructive employment, recreational activities, religious affiliation, mature supervision, and counseling and guidance.¹⁸

4. Recidivism - It is measured by:

a. "criminal acts that result in a conviction by a court, when committed by individuals who are under correctional supervision or who have been released from a correctional institution within three years and,

b. technical violations of probation or parole in which sentencing or paroling authority took action that resulted in an adverse change in the offenders legal status."¹⁹

CHAPTER 1 - ENDNOTES

¹Kansas City Star, January 4, 1978, p. 15.
Statement by Wayne King, Chaplain USDB, in a personal interview, Ft. Leavenworth, October, 1977.

Statement by Capt. L. Perry, USDB Classification Officer, in a personal interview, Ft. Leavenworth, October, 1977.

²Kansas City Star, January 4, 1978, p. 15.

³John Irwin, "Ideals of 'Rehabilitation' Solidified Into Dogma," Kansas City Star, December 4, 1977.

⁴Patrick Lowery, Military Confinement: Needless Luxury or Viable Necessity? May 30, 1974, p. 88.

⁵Erroll L. Murphy, LTC., "Military Penal System Under Review," Kansas City Star, January 5, 1978.

⁶Department of the Army Field Manual 19-60, Confinement and Correctional Treatment of Military Prisoners, October, 1970, pp. 5-18.

⁷Anthony P. Trivisono, "Military Penal System Under Review," Kansas City Star, January 5, 1978.

⁸Ibid.

⁹Ibid.

¹⁰General John H. Johns, Director of Human Resources Development, DCS Personnel, U.S. Army, in an address to the January Symposium on Corrections at the USDB, January 5, 1978.

¹¹Ibid.

¹²Ibid.

¹³Robert M. Carter, "Findings and Discussion," USDB TRADOC Study, June 10, 1977, p. 5.

¹⁴See Endnote 1, Chapter 1, King interview.

See Endnote 1, Chapter 1, Perry interview.

¹⁵Gene Famiglietti, "Army Confinement Facilities Staffs To Be Reduced," Army Times Magazine, February 6, 1978.

¹⁶See Endnote 6, Chapter 1.

¹⁷Ibid.

¹⁸Department of the Army Regulation 190-47, Military Police, The United States Army Correctional System, December 15, 1975, p. A-1.

¹⁹Ibid.

CHAPTER 2

HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF CORRECTIONS

"The mood and temper of the public with regard to the treatment of crime and criminals is one of the most unfailing tests of the civilization of any country." Sir Winston Churchill

INTRODUCTION

The American response to the treatment of criminals has been the development of the penitentiary. This chapter briefly describes the evolution of penology in America and the recent shift toward community-based corrections.

DEVELOPMENT OF THE PRISON IN AMERICA

American colonial towns were self-sufficient and independent. For their own security, the people viewed strangers suspiciously and guarded their town boundaries against outsiders. It was common practice for the towns to banish suspicious characters and petty offenders. Jails were simply used to hold prisoners until trial. The courts punished the guilty with shaming, fining, whipping, hanging, or prison confinement.¹

The first prison in America was erected by the Massachusetts Bay Colony in 1632. The first state prison was established in 1773 at an abandoned copper mine in Simsbury, Connecticut. This prison, like

many European prisons, combined poor sanitary and living conditions with harsh punishment. By day the prisoners worked the mine, and at night they were chained in the mine shafts. Conditions became unbearable and in 1774 it was the site of America's first prison riot.²

In 1790, the modern American prison system began with the founding of the Walnut Street Jail in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. Through the influence of William Penn and the Quakers, the Pennsylvania legislature designed a wing of the Walnut Street Jail as a penitentiary. It was called a penitentiary because the inmates were there to do penance.³

Convinced that man became a lawbreaker through evil influences and corrupt companions, the key to reform was in separating him from all negative associations. Therefore, he was provided a small cell totally isolated from other inmates. After a period of isolation, he was given a Bible and small bits of handicraft work. His entire world was his cell and small exercise yard. He never saw another inmate.⁴

By 1825 imprisonment had become the principal method of punishment in America.⁵ To discipline individuals, the American Army had implemented the British Army practices of corporal punishment, i.e., tattooing, flogging, chaining, solitary confinement, and capital punishment. In addition the U.S. Army had adopted the civilian system of incarceration as the primary form of mass punishment.⁶

In the first quarter of the 19th century, there were many experiments with new prison methods. New York State prisons differed from the Pennsylvania System in that common work and common dining facilities were used. However, silence was strictly enforced. The New York officials were committed to the view that a steady, predictable, unrelenting routine of hard work, moderate meals, silent evenings, and

restful nights in individual cells would reform prisoners. Because the inmates left their cells each day to work together, the cells in the "Auburn Style" or congregate style prison could be made smaller than the Pennsylvania style penitentiary. Auburn cells were primarily for sleeping and not intended to be the prisoner's entire universe. The inmates were awakened early and marched to work after breakfast. After lunch, they returned to their jobs until dinner. After the evening meal, they marched back to their individual cells to relax, reflect, and sleep. The routine was only interrupted on Sunday when a chaplain would preach to them. The rest of the day would be spent in their cells.⁷

Implementation of the "Auburn System" was the responsibility of Warden Elam Lynds. He was a strict disciplinarian who perceived convicts as cowards who could not be reformed until their spirits were broken. He used brutal punishment, especially flogging, to keep the prisoners under total control.⁸ New innovations included the distinctive striped prisoner uniform, the lock-step march, congregate work in shops, and the emphasis on silence. The Auburn prison gradually developed into a silent prison factory. In fact, the prison industry made a profit during the early years of its existence.⁹ For economic reasons, the "Auburn System" became the standard approach for most American prisons and remained without modification for the next 100 years.¹⁰

The philosophy "Out of sight, out of mind" prevailed. As one prison became overcrowded, another was built along the Auburn pattern in remote areas. Prisons were managed following the repressive Elam Lynds' example. Prison administrators were judged by shop production

records and the number of escapes. The punitive philosophy of rigid repression, regimentation, silence rules, severe punishments, poor food, and confinement in small unsanitary cells was the standard. Prison labor involved chain gangs, contract shops, and lease systems.¹¹ In short, the prison system from the beginning has been a maximum security institution.¹²

During the decade 1820-30, a new wave of prison humanitarianism began. Reformers maintained that prisons should rehabilitate the criminal. The "Medical Model" was developed and it maintained that prisoners were ill and should be classified in prison according to their crime and treated similarly to a sick person receiving medical treatment. This approach grew in popularity. The penitentiary was envisioned by some as a model utopian community, but little progress was achieved in the ensuing years.¹³

The severity of prison routine was criticized by penal reformers. In 1870 the National Prison Association affirmed that the purpose of penal treatment should be "Reformation, not vindictive suffering." At the Cincinnati Prison Congress of 1870, the National Prison Association advocated penal reform in accordance with its Declaration of Principles:

1. The prisoner should be made to realize that his destiny is in his own hands.
2. Prison officials should be trained for their jobs.
3. Prison discipline should be such as to gain the will of the prisoner and conserve his self-respect.
4. The aim of the prison should be to make industrious free-men rather than orderly and obedient prisoners.
5. A more adequate architecture should be developed, providing sufficiency for air and sunlight, as well as prison hospitals, school rooms, etc.

6. The social training of prisoners should be facilitated through proper association, and the abolition of silence rules.

7. Society at large should be made to realize its responsibility for crime conditions.¹⁴

The first effort to implement these principles was at the Elmira Reformatory opened in 1876 for young first offenders.¹⁵

In the 1870's the "Treatment Approach" was first introduced. This program advocated indeterminate sentences whereby convicts would be released after earning a certain number of good conduct marks. The emphasis was on productive labor, education, reformation, and parole.¹⁶ This is about the time that the first military prison was established.

Prior to the 1870's military offenders served long sentences in state prisons nearest the military unit. In March 1873, the first military prison was established at Rock Island, Illinois, but by May 1874 it was moved to Fort Leavenworth. In March 1895 control of the U.S. Military Prison at Fort Leavenworth was transferred to the Department of Justice. A year later control of the prison returned to the War Department. From 1913-1915 administration and control of the U.S. Military Prison was maintained by the Judge Advocate General of the Army. In 1915 the prison came under control of the Adjutant General of the Army and its name was changed to the U.S. Disciplinary Barracks (USDB).¹⁷ Following the 1929 Leavenworth Federal Prison riot, the USDB was transferred to the Department of Justice to reduce the overcrowding of the federal institution. In 1940 the USDB was transferred back to the military. Over the years, the military prison environment has been greatly influenced by practices and experiences accrued in civil penal institutions. Prison industry, which made the institutions self-sustaining and provided employment for the inmates, gradually was viewed

as a threat by civilian industry. During the first decades of the 20th century, political pressure resulted in the passage of two federal laws which terminated large scale prison industry. During the depression, 33 states passed laws prohibiting the sale of prison products. The result was that many prisoners were left idle. From 1900-1935 the prison population increased 140% and the prisons became overcrowded. Idleness and overcrowding set the stage for the 1929-32 prison riots.¹⁸

During the period 1900-1920, progressives sought reforms that would abolish harsh punishment and aid rehabilitation. The rules of silence, the lock step march, and the striped prisoner uniforms were abolished. Progressives worked to establish freedom in the yard, prison schools, and vocational training. The philosophy of indeterminate sentences and parole was tested. This meant implementation of a system of prisoner classifications along the lines of a psychological model, individual counseling, and new modes of therapy.¹⁹

In 1930 there was a complete reorganization of federal prisons. Because of the depression, federal prisons were able to attract more highly qualified personnel as guards and administrators. Rehabilitative programs were established and began to show success. With this success the federal prisons gained new status and set the standard for state prisons.²⁰

During World War II, prison industries boomed and produced over \$138 million worth of war materials. Some prisoners "volunteered" for dangerous medical experiments and in agricultural states prisoners harvested crops that otherwise would have been lost.²¹

Following World War II the penitentiary declined. The new classification system, education and vocational training, indeterminate

sentences, and parole were all implemented. Texas and California led the way in prison reform during this period.²² However, inmate grievances persisted and in 1946 there was even a riot at the super maximum security prison at Alcatraz.²³ The 1950's brought a wave of over 100 prison riots. Contributing factors were official and public indifference, inadequate financial support, unwise sentencing, substandard corrections personnel, enforced prisoner idleness, overcrowding, and poor management.²⁴

In August 1954, the U.S. Army Provost Marshall General assumed responsibility for the entire Army Corrections Program, including the USDB. A study of Army corrections at that time discovered that the program was custody oriented, that little attention was paid to the prisoner's problems, and that the inmate's potential for future service was neglected. By 1957 the Army correctional program at the local stockade was revised. Less emphasis was placed on the strict custody orientation and prisoners were required to work and to undergo vocational training. Through counseling and individual prisoner evaluations, the Army attempted to determine the prisoner's potential for further military service.²⁵

The 1960 riots brought a new era of reformers. These reformers questioned the concept of incarceration, the worth of rehabilitation, and the penitentiary as an institution. They theorized that punishment should aim to reduce harm and that short sentences used to punish criminals are more just than indeterminate sentences. These reformers also questioned the cost-effectiveness of correctional programs. Many prison farms were judged inefficient and were sold.²⁶

A summation of current thinking on penology can be gleaned from

the findings of President Johnson's Task Force on Corrections:

1. Corrections as a system must encompass all aspects of rehabilitation service including mental health, employment services, education, and social services.
2. Some offenders need extensive secure confinement and treatment. The staff of these institutions must be of the highest quality.
3. Most inmates derive maximum benefit from incarceration during the first two years; after that it is less likely that they will function as productive citizens when returned to society.
4. Eighty-five percent (85%) of the prisoners do not need to be incarcerated.
5. Most inmates are not mentally ill, but suffer from a variety of educational, medical, psychological, maturational, economic, and interpersonal handicaps which are seldom reduced in contemporary correctional systems.
6. Inmates must be given the opportunity and capability to earn a living wage. They should be paid the minimum wage for their work to help support their families and keep them off welfare.
7. Laws which prohibit the meaningful development of prison industry must be replaced. The private economic sector must be sought out and used to provide training and jobs for inmates after release.
8. Community-based corrections are more realistic, less expensive, and as effective as incarceration. The trend today is to use alternatives to incarceration such as community-based programs.²⁷

The late 1960's found the military correctional system overcrowded and turbulent. The country was in a state of social and political unrest as a result of the Vietnam War. Motivation to serve in the military was low and, consequently, the military brigades, stockades, and prisons stretched to capacity. Turmoil at the USDB resulted from the rapid turnover of guard personnel and the rising prisoner population.²⁸ In 1968, the General Accounting Office conducted a review of military corrections and discovered that the military services had neither developed a common approach to corrections nor established a single office in the Department of Defense responsible for standardizing the military

correctional program. A year later, the Army approved a plan to improve corrections by constructing new facilities and training custodial specialists.²⁹

In October 1970, the American Correctional Association, formerly the National Prison Association, met in Cincinnati for its centennial meeting. The purpose of the meeting was to reaffirm the high ideals espoused in 1870. These principles were significant because they were the goals which the correctional experts of America had established for themselves. The principles adopted differ little from those of 1870. The major difference was the inclusion of articles relating to community-based corrections programs.³⁰

Principle IV emphasized that it was the responsibility of the community to care about crime and delinquency and provide the financial resources to fund a professional and progressive corrections program.

Principle VII - The correctional process has as its aim the re-integration of the offender into society as a law abiding citizen. In the course of institutional stay, constructive community contacts should be encouraged and maintained. The success of the correctional process in all its stages can be greatly enhanced by energetic, resourceful and organized citizen participation.

Principle VIII - Corrections, comprising both institutional and community-based programs, should be planned and organized as an integrated system responsible for guiding, controlling, unifying, and vitalizing the correctional process.

Principle XI - Emphasized that understanding of the offender is a complex skill requiring professional education and training. Recognized that ex-offenders are tremendously valuable as correctional workers.

Principle XVIII - Community-based correctional programs are essential elements in the continuum of services required to assure the integration of the offender into society.

Principle XXI - Community-based correctional facilities such as community treatment centers and halfway houses provide important alternatives to more formally organized institutions and facilitate access to supportive community services.

Principle XXII - The transition of the offender from the institution into the community should be facilitated wherever feasible by measures which permit has participation in normal community activities such as work and study furlough programs.

Principle XXV - New correctional institutions should be located with ready access to community agencies which provide services, such as mental health centers, and educational training institutions - all of which provide support to correctional programs.

Principle XXXI - The last principle stressed that religion represents a rich resource for moral and spiritual regeneration. The chaplain's program is an essential element of the correctional program.³¹

ATTICA

History was repeating itself. As in 1870, implementation of the high ideals of the 1970 American Correctional Association was disappointing. The conflict between penal ideals and prison reality was exemplified at the New York State Prison at Attica. In September 1971, 43 inmates and hostages were killed as the state police attacked to quell the prison riot.³²

The Attica prison environment was repressive. The official report of the New York State Special Commission in Attica published in September 1972 revealed that the Attica prison had reverted back to a worse state than the original Auburn system under Elam Lynds. All inmate movement was regulated and mail was censored. Petty rules were enforced to the letter, clothes were old and ill-fitting, and meals were unappetizing. Showers were taken only once a week and medical treatment was callous. The racial conflict prevailed between guards and inmates. The inmates consisted mainly of rebellious, young blacks and chicanos from the ghettos of New York City. In contrast, all the guards were whites from the Attica area. The guards viewed their jobs as monotonous. To them the only hope was a pension at the end of 25

years service. The atmosphere was foreboding.³³

The Attica riot brought the plight and condition of American prisons to public attention. Since by design, prisons were built in remote areas essentially they and the prisoners were invisible to the public. Despite the reality that most of the prisoners would return to society, the correction officials focused on security instead of inmate rehabilitation.³⁴ The emphasis on confinement, the shortage of jobs, the lack of educational programs, the pervasive idleness and racial conflict between the staff and inmates were essentially the same causes for the prison riots of the 1950's. The presence of these factors set the stage for the riot.

The recommendations of the Attica investigators emphasized the shift toward community-based corrections. They recommended:

1. That prisoners must not be cut off from contacts with society and that programs be created to get prisoners back into society on a controlled basis, such as the work-release program.
2. That programs should be directed toward elevating the dignity, worth, and self-confidence of the inmates and not debasing and dehumanizing them.
3. That the community participate more in the life of each correctional facility. The correctional system cannot solve the problems of rehabilitation without public support, understanding, and involvement.
4. That the correctional facilities be staffed by persons motivated to help the inmates. Correctional personnel should be better trained and sensitized to the problems of the young inmate. Rehabilitated ex-offenders should be encouraged to take these positions.³⁵

With the attention that Attica received, it was apparent that a shift to community-based corrections was needed. However, what is community-based corrections?

A community-based institution is viewed as a new model, the architectural and methodological antithesis of the traditional fortree-

like prison. As a small and informal structure, it would be located near the population center from which its inmates are drawn.³⁶ Instead of mass-housing, mass-feeding, mass-recreation, etc., it would be configured on the small group principle in size of living quarters, dining facilities, work programs, and leisure-time activities. It would promote community contacts by bringing the community within its walls and taking the inmate to the outside world.³⁷ Instead of regimentation, it would encourage inmate participation in joint activity with the staff. Instead of life in a "monkey cage," it would promote normalcy in activities and human relations.³⁸

The shift toward community-based corrections has already begun in earnest. In 1973, the National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals published its standards on corrections and the community.

1. That each state and federal correctional system begin to analyze its needs, resources, and gaps in services and by 1978 develop a systematic plan of community-based programs.

2. Each state and federal system immediately establish effective working relationships with the major social institutions, organizations, and agencies of the community including employment and educational resources, social welfare services, law enforcement system, etc.

3. Develop a graduated program of inmate involvement in community programs.³⁹

In May 1974, the Office of Provost Marshall General, U.S. Army, which had responsibility for the corrections policy and program was dissolved. The corrections division was integrated into the Directorate of Human Resources in the Deputy Chief of Staff for Personnel, U.S. Army. Command and control of the USDB passed to the Commanding General, TRADOC.⁴⁰ A 1977 TRADOC study examined the military responsibilities for human development and its relationship to military confinement at the

USDB.⁴¹ In January 1978 the USDB hosted a Joint Services Corrections Conference to formulate a joint agreement on the future of corrections in the military.⁴²

THE FUTURE OF CORRECTIONS

Daniel Glaser, the esteemed penologist, predicts that prisons of the future will be located in the communities from which the inmates come. Therefore, most prisons will be located in the metropolitan vice rural areas. This contradicts with the traditional pattern of building prisons in remote areas "out of sight, out of mind" mentality. The advantages of community-based corrections are many. First, it more easily adapts to a program of graduated release on a trial basis. Second, it facilitates the reintegration of the inmate into society by assisting him in getting a job through the work release program. Third, it establishes extensive links with the community resources available through churches, social, fraternal organizations, and professional groups. Fourth, a professional staff would be more easily attracted and recruited from the metropolitan area. Ex-offenders would be encouraged and recruited for staff positions. Finally, the institutions would be small and, consequently, there would be no requirement for the regimentation that dehumanizes and blocks rehabilitation of the inmate.⁴³

Glaser predicts that community-based corrections will only evolve fully as the society of the future changes. Such will occur as government and private groups become interested in assisting their fellow man not just with kindness, but with care and understanding.⁴⁴

SUMMARY

Like a pendulum, the determining philosophy of American penology has cycled between harsh punishment and social reform. As societal concerns changed, traditional penologists moved to protect society through prisoner isolation, harsh punishment, and total control of prisoners. Reformers emerged who espoused to treat the prisoner as a sick person who could be rehabilitated under the right circumstances.

Today it is recognized that punishment alone is counterproductive and that rehabilitation is the answer. In reality, prisons are fulfilling their designed purposes of punishing and isolating the criminal.⁴⁵ Some are rehabilitated in prison, but it usually occurs despite the system rather than because of it.⁴⁶

The pendulum today appears to be swinging toward community-based correctional programs which are believed to be a more cost-effective, efficient way of integrating prisoners back into society. U.S. Army corrections policies throughout history have generally followed civilian practice. The current emphasis on community-based correctional programs could have a favorable impact on military corrections. Therefore, it is important to examine community-based corrections to determine if any elements are applicable to the U.S. Army rehabilitation program in the USDB specifically.

CHAPTER 2 - ENDNOTES

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CHAPTER 3

DEMOGRAPHY

A COMPARISON OF USDB AND TEEN CHALLENGE POPULATIONS

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to present a demographic comparison of the USDB and Teen Challenge populations to determine if the two groups are analogous. If the two groups are similar, then an analysis of the Teen Challenge program may reveal principles and techniques which may be transferable to and improve the existing USDB programs.

The Teen Challenge Program is an international Christian evangelical, community-based rehabilitation program. As such, it receives no state or federal funds and must rely on voluntary donations and grants from individuals and organizations in the community.¹ It was founded by David Wilkerson in 1958 to help juvenile drug addicts and street gang members of New York City, hence, the name Teen Challenge. Since 1958, it has been a highly successful rehabilitation program. It now consists of 57 induction centers in the USA and 27 centers in Europe, the Middle East, Australia, South Africa, and Brazil. Its mission has broadened, and today it not only reaches out to drug and alcohol abusers, but also ministers to juvenile delinquents and inmates of jails and prisons. In short, Teen Challenge helps anyone who wants to be helped regardless of age or origin.²

The Teen Challenge data was extracted primarily from a National Institute on Drug Abuse Services Research Report entitled, "An Evaluation

of the Teen Challenge Treatment" which was published in April 1976 by the U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.³

ANALYSIS OF POPULATIONS

| <u>USDB</u> | <u>TEEN CHALLENGE</u> |
|-------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| | AGE |
| Average 23.3 yrs. | Average 24 yrs. |
| Range 17-50 yrs. ⁴ | Range 15-50 yrs. ⁵ |

The age groups of the two programs are nearly identical. The average age of the Teen Challenge program presently continues to drop as more and more teenage alcoholics and drug addicts join the program.

| <u>USDB</u> | <u>TEEN CHALLENGE</u> |
|------------------------|--|
| | SEX |
| Male only ⁶ | Male and female ⁷ (heterosexual) |

The Teen Challenge program has 41 induction centers for men and 16 for women in the USA. During the training phase, males and females are integrated into the same classes.⁸ The USDB is presently male only. A section of the prison has been renovated for future use by women prisoners.⁹

| <u>USDB</u> | | <u>TEEN CHALLENGE</u> | |
|-------------|-------------------|-----------------------|---------------------|
| RACE | | | |
| Hispanic | 6% | Hispanic | 64.0% |
| Black | 54% | Black | 20.4% |
| White | 39% ¹⁰ | White | 15.6% ¹¹ |

The high percentage of Hispanics in the Teen Challenge program occurred because the data was taken from the NIDA study in Rehrersburg, Pennsylvania. A great percentage of the population there came from the induction centers in New York City. It shows that the training center was serving a geographic area and does not represent the overall Teen Challenge program.¹² The USDB statistics also do not constitute a representative sample of the racial composition of the total military population. The higher USDB black population may indicate a greater propensity for unit commanders to use more stringent UCMJ measures with that minority group.¹³

| <u>USDB</u> | <u>TEEN CHALLENGE</u> |
|-------------------------------------|-----------------------|
| REGIONAL OR HOMETOWN BACKGROUNDS | |
| Entire USA | Entire USA |

The homes of the USDB inmates are widely distributed over the entire USA. More than half of the inmates came from metropolitan areas. As a partial consequence of this, the men receive very few visitors.¹⁴ The Teen Challenge program initially started in the ghettos of New York City. Today it has community-based centers all over the United States, and thus its population is a cross section of our society.¹⁵

| <u>USDB</u> | <u>TEEN CHALLENGE</u> |
|--|--------------------------------|
| EDUCATION | |
| 9-11th grade (overall average less than high school education) . . . 25% | 9th grade 23.5% |
| 12 or more 75% ¹⁶ | 9-11 grade 60.9% |
| | 12 or more 15.6% ¹⁷ |

The USDB group enjoys a higher overall scholastic average than Teen Challenge participants. It was discovered that some of the Teen Challenge educational data were deceptive and a poor indication of academic accomplishment. The Teen Challenge Program found that many who stayed in school were promoted to keep them with their social group regardless of academic achievements.¹⁸

| <u>USDB</u> | <u>TEEN CHALLENGE</u> |
|---------------------------|-----------------------------|
| MARITAL STATUS | |
| Single 69% | Single 70.4% |
| Married 26% | Married 29.6% ²⁰ |
| Divorced 3% ¹⁹ | |

The two populations are quite similar with about 70% single and nearly 30% married. One may deduce that the problems which the two groups face in married and non-married life are similar. Marital conflicts in some instances have contributed to the individual's escape into drugs or crime.²¹

| <u>USDB</u> | <u>TEEN CHALLENGE</u> |
|---|--|
| HEALTH | |
| Overall the inmates are in good health. ²² | At induction many drug addicts and alcoholics are in poor health. Generally health improves after joining the program. ²³ |

The USDB inmate overall is in good health and not suffering from mental health problems. Those with serious mental problems would be transferred to the Federal Mental Hospital at Springfield, Missouri.²⁴ The Teen Challenge Program in accordance with their motto to help anyone who seeks help is now admitting alcoholics and some kids with emotional problems.²⁵

| <u>USDB</u> | | <u>TEEN CHALLENGE</u> | |
|------------------------------------|----------------------|-----------------------|-------|
| RELIGION | | | |
| Catholic | 18.7% | Catholic | 43.6% |
| Protestant (non-demoninational) | 10.8% | Protestant | 29.5% |
| Jewish | .37% | Jewish | 1.6% |
| Muslim | 2.9% | Muslim | 2.7% |
| Baptist | 41.89% | Other | 0.5% |
| Lutheran | 1.75% | None | 23.1% |
| Methodist | 4.14% | | |
| Other | 8.92% | | |
| Unknown | 10.53% ²⁶ | | |

The high percentage of Catholics in this Teen Challenge data (43.6%) reflects the 64% Hispanic population in the NIDA study. Both groups are predominantly Christian with Teen Challenge having over 73% and the USDB having less than 76%.²⁸

USDB

TEEN CHALLENGE

ADMITTED UNDER LEGAL PRESSURE

100%
(sentenced to prison)

22.5%²⁹

PREVIOUSLY ARRESTED

100%
(prior to confinement)

83% of those who complete
program³⁰

The high percentage of Teen Challenge members who have previous arrests (83%) make this population quite compatible with the USDB group. Note that 22.5% of the Teen Challenge population was admitted under legal pressure, probably by juvenile courts.³¹

USDB

TEEN CHALLENGE

DRUG RELATED CRIME

19%³²

47.9%³³

Although there exists a low data correlation, the contribution of drugs to populating the USDB cannot be over-emphasized.³⁴ Many of the inmates reflect a background of alcohol and drug abuse. Narcotics was tied with larceny as the highest percentage of civil type crime at the USDB. Of the total USDB population, 22.10% were drug offenders with at least one offense.³⁵

USDB DRUG OFFENSES

| THE TYPE OF OFFENSE | AT LEAST ONE OFFENSE | PCT. OF TOTAL DRUG OFFENDERS |
|---|----------------------|------------------------------|
| Opiates | 59 | 28.64 |
| Marijuana | 61 | 29.61 |
| Dangerous Drugs | 30 | 14.56 |
| Hallucinogens | 6 | 2.91 |
| Other Drugs (Article 134) | 50 | 24.27 |
| Total Drug Offenders | 206 | Total USDB Populations = 932 |
| Percent of Total Drug Offenders in the USDB | 22.10% | ³⁶ |

The type of USDB offenses includes sale, possession, use, smuggling, and manufacture of each type of drug. The degree to which drugs contributed to other crimes of larceny, assault, robbery, and murder is difficult to determine, but drugs are a factor.³⁷

In the Teen Challenge program 87% of the population was using heroin at induction. The average age of first use was 17 years and 31% have been hospitalized for overdose.³⁸ Other drugs being used at admission:

TEEN CHALLENGE DRUG OFFENSES

| <u>DRUG</u> | <u>PERCENT OF POPULATION</u> |
|-------------|------------------------------|
| Alcohol | 39% |
| Marijuana | 37% |
| Other Drugs | 44% ³⁹ |

The drug withdrawal ordeal is common at the Teen Challenge induction centers. The staff is experienced and able to help the person

through the difficult withdrawal period. The method used is simply the cold turkey approach in which the individual shoulders the total burden of kicking the habit. Despite the extreme discomfort and humility, participants are very cooperative and responsive. This positive attitude seems to grow overtime as the program progresses.⁴⁰

At the USDB, cases of drug withdrawal are rare. Drug users probably went through withdrawal while incarcerated elsewhere prior to transfer to the USDB.⁴¹ The USDB inmate profile is that of a young first offender with little history of criminality or delinquency. Compared to state and federal prison inmates, those at the USDB would be considered juvenile offenders relatively unsophisticated in prison culture. At the USDB there is little evidence of militant gang activity. The low incidence of possession and use of prison made weapons attests to good security and a relatively non-threatening environment. The population overall appears to be positively motivated and does not demand the high level of custodial supervision as in a state or federal penitentiary.⁴²

SUMMARY

Externally the populations of the USDB and Teen Challenge Program are analogous. Their background, sex, religion, marital status, and age are relatively similar. Generally, both groups consist of motivated juvenile offenders with histories of alcohol and drug abuse. In the next chapter, the study focuses on the juvenile offender's intrinsic values and perceptions which run counter to those of society. It also explores some keys to rehabilitation.

CHAPTER 3 - ENDNOTES

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CHAPTER 4

PERCEPTIONS AND KEYS TO REHABILITATION

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to describe the perceptions and values of the USDB inmates and Teen Challenge populations, and to present the keys to rehabilitation as espoused by various authorities.

PERCEPTIONS

Man perceives the world from his individual position in time and space through filters colored by his own unique combination of values, needs, and experiences. Perceptions are important because man acts on the way he perceives his environment.¹

Both the USDB and Teen Challenge groups perceive themselves in similar ways. Individuals of both groups are in disharmony with themselves, their families, and their environments. They exude resentment, frustration, and alienation.²

Resentment is a powerful force which leads many into crime or drugs. Both populations abhor their treatment as children by parents and teachers. Consequently, they commit acts of defiance in order to gain recognition. Eventually their actions result in conflict with the law. Subsequent treatment by social workers, juvenile authorities, and police, further infuriate their resentment, internal aggression, and desire for revenge.³

Frustrated behavior such as aggression, rationalization,

regression, fixation, resignation, and escape are common reactions to resentment. The following cursory investigation of the various manifestations of resentment is intended to engender understanding and provide a common reference for further investigation.

1. Aggression - Murder and assault are two examples of destructive behavior resulting from aggression.

2. Rationalization - This behavior is seen in the inmate who refuses to admit his guilt and perceives himself as a victim of society framed by the police and the courts.

3. Regression - Resorting to childish or outgrown modes of behavior are forms of regression.

4. Fixation - Institutionalization and recidivism are two forms of fixation. Institutionalization occurs as the prisoner gradually perceives society as a threatening environment and is more at home within the institution. There have been many instances where ex-convicts commit a crime and then turn themselves in so that they can return to the familiar prison system.

5. Resignation - Apathy and lost hope are two examples of resignation. In prison resignation manifests itself in the philosophy of doing time as painlessly as possible.

6. Escape - Suicide, alcoholism, drug addiction, or retreat into dreams are all forms of escape.⁴

In general, the subject population can be characterized as a group of young individuals in rebellion against the society which they perceive has betrayed them. This sense of betrayal destroys one's confidence in others and causes a person to escape and isolate oneself. Man in rebellion is usually blinded by resentment and, therefore, cannot understand himself or his predicament. Rebellion has its origin in the conflict between an individual's and societal values.⁵

VALUES

The basic values which determine man's behavior were programmed

around his tenth birthday.⁶ The people, events, and experiences of the 1960's shaped the basic values of the two subject juvenile groups. They witnessed the triumph of evil over good in the assassinations of the Kennedys and Martin Luther King, Jr. They witnessed the inconsistency of our society supporting a multi-billion dollar space program while large scale unemployment and poverty continued. Many of the youth of that era participated in civil-rights marches and demonstrations. They witnessed, during the Vietnam War, a diminishing national patriotism. They saw Vietnam veterans return home to ridicule while draft evaders received amnesty. They were confused by America's conflicting national goals and questioned the country's values. They experienced the decline of the public school systems and discovered that they would be promoted to the next grade regardless of their achievement. It was popular to challenge the status quo; and the draft evaders, rioters, and the Jane Fondas, who rebelled against society, were the real heroes.⁷

There was conflict and disharmony at home. Parents could not understand their children's anti-social behavior. Parents worked hard to provide their children with everything there was in life, but the youth rejected their parents' life style. Long hair was an outward manifestation of rejection of the traditional societal values. Drug and alcohol use was adopted by the youth as a socially acceptable means of escape, unfortunately it started many on a path toward drug addiction and/or prison.⁸

Resentment and rebellion, when projected toward the correctional institution, are tremendous blocks to prisoner rehabilitation. Prison officials, ministers, psychiatrists, and social workers cannot remove the invisible "We - They Conflict" between themselves and the prisoners.

After so many years of fighting the establishment, the prisoner finds joining it difficult.⁹ Consequently, the inmate listens politely to words of help, but usually rejects them because he perceives the professional corrections worker as a paid pawn of the establishment and questions his motivations.¹⁰ The inmate perceives that he is being coerced to change and each in his individual way, rebels against the institution. Manipulation of counselors and social workers by the inmates is a common way of resisting the institution. For example, one inmate refused to change his work clothes for a year as an act of defiance. He utilized every opportunity to complain that the institution was not providing him with clean clothes. It was not true, but it was his way of getting back at the system.¹¹

The inmate feels cut off from the forces that determine his future. He perceives that parole boards have little understanding of him or his thinking, yet he is dependent on their decisions. Once released, the ex-convict finds it very difficult to re-enter society and perceives himself once again rejected. This frustrating experience feeds his resentment and is a major cause of recidivism.¹²

The history of penology, Chapter 2, contains many theories of prisoner reform. The "Pennsylvania System," the "Auburn System," and the "medical model," have given way to new approaches. The National Prison Association followed by the American Correctional Association have set idealistic goals for themselves as correctional managers. In contrast, an analysis of rehabilitation from the perception of the prisoner reveals some keys to rehabilitation.

KEYS TO REHABILITATION

An appreciation for the prisoner's view of his rehabilitation can be gained by analyzing the "Seven Steps to Freedom" code written by the inmates of the Kansas State Prison at Lansing. This code is significant because it was developed by inmates for inmates. It has validity in that it is the keystone of the national Seven Step Organization.¹³

"THE SEVEN STEPS TO FREEDOM"

1. Facing the truth about ourselves and the world around us, we decided to change.
2. Realizing that there is a power from which we can gain strength, we have decided to use that power.
3. Evaluating ourselves by taking an honest self-appraisal, we examined both our strengths and our weaknesses.
4. Endeavoring to help ourselves overcome our weaknesses, we enlisted the aid of that power to help us concentrate on our strengths.
5. Deciding that our freedom is worth more than our resentments, we are using that power to help free us from those resentments.
6. Observing that daily progress is necessary, we set an attainable goal towards which we can work each day.
7. Maintaining our freedom, we pledge to help others as we have been helped."¹⁴

Step One, "Facing the truth about ourselves and the world around us, we decided to change . . .," reinforces Dr. Walker's thesis that the youthful offender himself is in control of his own destiny. According to Elton Mayo's Theory, change starts with knowledge. Progressing in difficulty of change are attitudes, individual behavior, and finally group behavior.¹⁵ Mayo's model shows that attitudes, individual, and group behavior change is a long term process. The will or motivation to change is the first and most important and is the toughest step in

the change process.¹⁶

Step Two is "Realizing that there is a power from which we can gain strength, we have decided to use that power." Chaplain Post of the Kansas State Prison, one of the founders of the Seven Step Program, explained that the "power" was the power of God that man could draw on to help change his life. He stated that the "truth" came from the Holy Bible, John 8:31-32, where Jesus said, "If ye continue in my word, then are ye my disciples indeed; And ye shall know the truth, and the truth shall make you free."¹⁷ Unfortunately, as new inmate leaders took over the program, the emphasis on the spiritual dimension decreased. Consequently, Chaplain Post observed that the program has become secular and has lost much of its effectiveness.¹⁸ Today, Seven Step leaders describe the "power" as the power of the individual self-will. This is contradictory because many inmates attribute their problems to a lack of self-will and lack of responsibility.¹⁹

Step Three is "Evaluating ourselves by taking an honest self-appraisal, we examined both our strengths and our weaknesses." A critical self-evaluation is painful, but integral to obtaining a realistic view of oneself. Examining strengths is important to build inmate self-esteem. This principle is reinforced by the Attica investigation which recommended the development of programs to build up inmate self-esteem.²⁰ According to Maslow's hierarchy of needs, esteem is essential to self-acceptance and must be satisfied before one can progress to self-actualization.²¹

Step Four is "Endeavoring to help ourselves overcome our weaknesses, we enlist the aid of that power to help us concentrate on our strengths." This step reveals the game plan. In order to change one

needs a positive self-image and positive idea of where he wants to go. The power of a supporting community is important in this step.²² Generally, during the daily walk of life, humans easily lose sight of their goals and need a gentle reminder and loving support of those around them.

Step Five, "Deciding our freedom is worth more than our resentments, we are using that power to help free us from those resentments," supports the previously stated fact that resentment is a tremendous block to prisoner rehabilitation. Giving up resentment is a difficult step for many because resentment becomes part of one's personality and provides a rationalization for feeling sorry for oneself, yet it is important because change is frustrated when resentment persists.²³ In the prison environment resentment is usually projected onto the institution itself, consequently rehabilitation is frustrated. In contrast, in community-based programs the power of a caring community is focused to help the inmate overcome his resentments.²⁴

Step Six, "Observing that daily progress is necessary, we set an attainable goal towards which we work each day," emphasizes Mayo's theory that changes in attitudes and behavior are a long term process which must be worked on daily. It shows that there is no instant cure or cram course for rehabilitation. It reinforces the Teen Challenge concept of a caring group of individuals who work to help each other through the rough spots in life. The community support of inmates working together has achieved success in the Seven Steps Program and in the inmate Teen Challenge Program at the Leavenworth Federal Prison. This success reinforces the concept that a supporting community works even among inmates in a hostile prison environment.²⁵

Step Seven, "Maintaining our freedom, we pledge to help others

as we are helped," reinforces the importance of community support after the inmate gets out of prison. Alone the inmate has great difficulty integrating into society. The stigma of being an ex-convict follows him wherever he goes and makes it very difficult to find a job without the help of a friendly community.²⁶ Helping others also is a service which helps the inmate build up his own self-esteem.

From the above analysis, four keys to successful rehabilitation stand out. The first key to change is genuine caring, support, and acceptance of the individual during the training program. The thought that people really care is a revolutionary idea to the inmate. That realization marked a turning point in numerous individual lives and was a common factor in many of the successful rehabilitation cases studied.²⁷ Investigation also showed that many of the ones who help inmates the most were non-paid volunteers. Because they were not paid by the institution these people were outside the "we - they conflict" and were readily accepted by the inmates.²⁸ Norman Vincent Peale wrote:

"There is nothing greater that you can do for others than show them that you believe in them and have a real regard for them . ." ²⁹

According to Elton Mayo, change starts with knowledge, or in the case of the prison inmate, knowledge that someone cares. Attitudes, individual behavior, and group behavior are increasingly more difficult and time consuming to change.³⁰ The journey of a thousand miles begins with the first step. In rehabilitation that first step usually occurs after the inmate realizes that someone cares about him and only he can decide to change.

The second key is that the individual must be committed to and actively participate in his own treatment program. Edgar Schien in his

book Management Development refers to this as "internalization." Basically this means that the individual must want to adopt new modes of behavior as part of his personality. Nothing is gained if he merely goes along with the program. New behavior learned through coercion will persist only as long as the threat remains.³¹ This lesson was learned by prisoners in the authoritarian Auburn Prison systems where prisoners were kept under total control by threat of punishment. They learned to be obedient, but once they were released and the threat was gone, those modes of behavior disappeared.³² According to Dr. Herzberg's "Motivation - Hygiene Theory" social personal acceptance and recognition are powerful motivators where as physical comfort, security, education, and other programs merely reduce the potential dissatisfaction and do not motivate individuals.³³

The third key to rehabilitation is hope. Representative Tom Railsback of the U.S. House Judiciary Committee commented, after conducting a government investigation into corrections, that in order to rehabilitate the penal system must offer hope. Hope for self-respect, hope for a new opportunity, and hope for a better life.³⁴ Lack of hope commonly leads to recidivism and institutionalization. Railsback believes that community-based correctional programs are better able to provide the hope for a new future. Remote prisons tend to further isolate the inmate from normal community and make it difficult for relatives and friends to visit. The lack of visitations was one of the frustrations leading to the Attica Riot and coincidentally, this is also a factor at the USDB. Since many of the inmates' homes are so distant, many of the inmates receive few or no visitors.³⁵

The fourth key to rehabilitation is follow up support and acceptance by a friendly community after the individual leaves the training

program. Psychologists agree that the environment is crucial to rehabilitation. If the individual returns to an environment which upholds values counter to the ones taught in the rehabilitation program or totally rejects the ex-convict, then the effects of the training will soon be lost.³⁶ Chief Justice Warren E. Burger recognizes this problem as a contributing factor to the high rate of recidivism in America today. He stated that 66% of all 200,000 inmates of federal and state prisons were "alumni" of non-correcting correctional systems.³⁷ For rehabilitation to succeed, there must be support and follow up from the community. This is an ingredient behind Step 7 of the Seven Step Program. A supportive community to the ex-offender eases the transition back into society. Many inmates find it difficult to rejoin a hostile society and this tends to reinforce their resentment and drive them further into crime.³⁸

SUMMARY

According to Maslow's "Hierarchy of Needs" and Herzberg's "Motivation Hygiene Theory" social personal acceptance and recognition is a powerful motivator, whereas physical comfort, education, and other programs merely reduce the potential dissatisfaction and do not motivate individuals. Self-acceptance, self-love, and healthy introspection which, when nurtured and supported by a caring community, are powerful tools in the reformation of lives. Also, such self-examination allows a person to determine his shortcomings and change accordingly.

A loving, caring, non-judgmental environment allows the inmate to discover, test, and accept new values and alternatives which are more compatible to those of society. This is the fundamental test of

rehabilitation i.e., whether the inmate has adopted a socially acceptable and productive lifestyle.

In this chapter we have examined the perceptions, resentments, frustrations, and values to gain an understanding of what the youthful offender thinks internally. In order to comprehend the way the inmate views his own rehabilitation, the Seven Steps to Freedom code was analyzed. From that analysis four keys to positive change emerged and encompassed (1) genuine caring during the training program, (2) individual commitment to his own rehabilitation, (3) hope for the future, and (4) community support after release from the program.

The factors discussed in this chapter will be used in the next chapter to analyze the overall effectiveness of the USDB and the Teen Challenge Programs.

CHAPTER 4 - ENDNOTES

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Statement by Wayne King, Chaplain USDB, in a personal interview, Ft. Leavenworth, January, 1978.

³Bill Sands, My Shadow Ran Fast (Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1965) p. 130;
Jerry Golden, Too Tough for God (Waco: Word Book Publisher, 1977) p. 75.

⁴Sands, op. cit., p. 84.

⁵Carroll Stuhlmuehler, C.P., Biblical Meditations for Lent (New York: Paulist Press, 1978) pp. 86-87.

⁶Robert N. Walker, Phd., Psychology of the Youthful Offender (Huntsville: 1972) p. 102; see also Endnote 4, Chapter 4.

⁷Video Tape of a lecture by Morris E. Massey, Phd. Associate Dean of Undergraduate Studies, University of Colorado, "What You Are Is Where You Were When ..." 1975; also Sands, op. cit., p. 130.

⁸See Endnote 7, Chapter 4; see also Walker, op. cit., p. 84;
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⁹The 7th Step Program (United States Disciplinary Barracks: Ft. Leavenworth); also Sands, op. cit., p. 105;
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¹²Sands, op. cit., p. 120
ATTICA: The Official Report of the New York State Special Commission on Attica (New York: Bantam Books Inc., 1972), p. 203

Curt Shoup, Heart of America Job Therapy, Inc., in a personal interview.

- ¹³Sands, op. cit., p. 84.
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- ¹⁴Bill Sands, My Shadow Ran Fast (Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1965) p. 85.
- ¹⁵Hersey and Blanchard, op. cit., p. 123.
- ¹⁶Sands, The Seventh Step, p. 167; see also Walker, op. cit., p. 136.
- ¹⁷The Holy Bible, King James Version, John 8:31-32.
- ¹⁸See Endnote 2, Chapter 4, Chaplain Post interview.
- ¹⁹Sands, My Shadow Ran Fast, p. 125.
- ²⁰ATTICA: The Official Report of the New York State Special Commission on Attica (New York: Bantam Books Inc., 1972), p. 131.
- ²¹Hersey and Blanchard, loc. cit.
- ²²Sands, op. cit., p. 126 also David Manuel, The Jesus Factor (Plainfield: Logos International, 1977), p. 14, also see Endnote 2, Chapter 4, Chaplains Post and King interviews.
- ²³Bob Mumford, Prison of Resentment (Ft. Lauderdale: CGM Publishing, 1977), p. 140; also Sands, op. cit., p. 75; also Walker, op. cit., p. 82.
- ²⁴Manuel, op. cit., p. 78; also Endnote 12, Chapter 4, Curt Shoup interview.
- ²⁵See Endnote 2, Chapter 4, Chaplain Post and James Collier interviews.
- ²⁶Sands, op. cit., p. 105.
- ²⁷Sands, op. cit., p. 56; also Endnote 3, Chapter 4 also Endnote 2, Chapter 4, James Collier interview.
- ²⁸Ibid.
- ²⁹Norman Vincent Peale, "How to Help Other People", Kansas City Star Magazine, March 19, 1978, p. 84.

³⁰Hersey and Blanchard, op. cit., p. 159.

³¹Hersey and Blanchard, op. cit., p. 163.

³²ATTICA: op. cit., Chapter 2.

³³Hersey and Blanchard, op. cit., p. 163.

³⁴Tom Railsback, Member, U.S. House of Representatives, "Corrections: A Long Way To Go" (Department of Justice, Washington, D.C., 1975) p. 49.

³⁵Robert M. Carter, Richard A. McGee, and E. Kim Nelson, Corrections in America (New York: J.B. Lippincott, 1975)p. 125

³⁶Hersey and Blanchard, op. cit., p. 163.

CHAPTER 5

ANALYSIS OF PROGRAMS

PART I

The purpose of this chapter is to analyze the rehabilitation programs of the USDB and Teen Challenge to determine strengths, weaknesses, and implications. The keys to rehabilitation summarized in Chapter 4 will be used to contrast the various programs. This chapter is divided into two parts. Part I presents a general comparison of the mission, structure, induction process, training, and employment at the USDB and Teen Challenge. Part II is devoted to an analysis of how individual needs are satisfied in these two different program environments. Dr. Maslow's hierarchy of needs is used as a framework for the analysis. Such an analysis is important because psychologists and doctors agree that often the rebellion and destructive behavior of youth offenders has its origin in frustrated needs. Without meeting the needs of the total man and providing the environment conducive to his self-acceptance and introspection, the rehabilitation program will have limited success.

USDB MISSION

The mission provides direction and purpose to the USDB programs. The USDB is the only maximum security confinement facility for U.S. Army, U.S. Air Force, and U.S. Marine prisoners. Its mission is "to provide the correctional treatment, training, care, and supervision necessary to return military prisoners to duty as effective soldiers or to society as

useful citizens with marketable skills and improved attitudes." ¹ Attention is centered on the individual inmate in order to administer treatment according to his particular needs. ² The philosophy of corrections is articulated in the official motto "Our Mission -- Your Future." ³ The goal is to provide every inmate the opportunity for a new beginning in life. ⁴

USDB STRUCTURE

The USDB structure is described to give an understanding of the organizational setting. The USDB is organized into six directorates: Administration, Classification, Training, Custody, Mental Hygiene, and Logistic Services under the Commandant. ⁵ The Office of the Commandant exercises command and directs the activities of the directorates and special staff sections. ⁶ The Director of Classification maintains the prisoners' files and monitors the actions of assignment and disposition boards. ⁷ The Director of Mental Hygiene duties involve psychiatry, psychology, social work, counseling, and prisoner evaluations. He coordinates the inmates' mental health activities and recommends individual training programs. ⁸ The Director of Training plans, coordinates, and directs all academic and vocational training. In addition, he directs the activities of the USDB farm and manages the revenue producing agencies of the USDB Vocational Training Fund. ⁹ The other directorates support the USDB but are not directly involved with rehabilitation and therefore will not be discussed.

The Staff Chaplain, a special staff officer to the Commandant, conducts religious services, performs pastoral counseling, and directs the community outreach program. He is the Commandant's advisor concerning moral and spiritual welfare of the cadre and prisoners. ¹⁰ Chaplain

sponsored activities include choirs, group discussions, welfare programs, Christian Lay Ministry, and Bible study groups. The Chaplain is a trained counselor and is frequently able to establish a mutual understanding with individual prisoners more rapidly and effectively than other confinement personnel. Religious educational programs, stressing moral truths and socially acceptable values, are vital ingredients needed in order for the inmate to change his life. Pre-release classes on the family and religion stress the relationship of the prisoner to his family, the value of strong family ties, and the need for reconciliation.¹¹ These essential points were discussed in greater depth in Chapter 4.

On September 2, 1976 the USDB was assigned to the U.S. Army Combined Arms Center. During the realignment, the Chaplain Section was transferred to the post chapel. However, the USDB Chaplains maintain their offices in the prison and function basically as before with no loss of service to the prison.¹²

One implication of the current spiritual program is that the inmate must come to it rather than having it go to the inmates. The Chaplain's program contains many activities, but it is still difficult to reach the individual prisoner. There is much social and peer pressure not to go to the chapel.¹³

USDB PRISONER INDUCTION

A prisoner arrives at the USDB with feelings of fear, anxiety, and hopelessness. The 30-day period of in-processing ensues. This is of utmost importance because attitudes and behavior patterns established at that time influence long term adjustment to the correctional treatment program.¹⁴ Reception is conducted in a mechanical, impersonal,

and efficient manner. The newly-confined prisoner is segregated from the main population until in-processing is complete. The process includes a strip search, shower, clothing issue, photographs, fingerprinting, and receipt of an inmate identification card. He then hears a lecture explaining the rules, regulations, and rights as a USDB inmate.¹⁵ Within three days after arrival, requests for information from the FBI, American Red Cross, and prisoner's family are solicited.¹⁶ A series of interviews and examinations follow in preparation for appearance before the Assignment Board. This board makes recommendations regarding correctional treatment, custody grade, quarters, training, work, and special treatment.¹⁷ Sometime during in-processing, the new inmates are introduced to a chaplain. This meeting is not designed to be a counseling session, but merely an opportunity to describe the various available religious programs. The chaplains are readily available should an inmate desire a personal consultation, but usually the invitation is declined.¹⁸

The primary implication of the in-processing experience is that the inmate's initial feelings of anxiety, alienation, and hopelessness are reinforced because of the mechanical, depersonalized treatment. In-processing is designed to convey a large volume of information to the inmate and meet his physical but not deeper personal needs. The inmate receives conflicting messages from the institution. He is told that the USDB mission is his future and yet he is stripped, issued a prison uniform, and identification number that is his new identity while incarcerated. The first key to rehabilitation, care, support, and acceptance is not followed during this phase. Consequently, the new inmate doesn't know who to trust and perceives that the institution is lying to him already.

USDB PRISONER TRAINING AND EMPLOYMENT

It is Army policy that inmates' educational and training activities be given priority over work assignments. Those inmates not engaged in training are required to perform a full eight hours work six days a week. Inmates are prohibited from dangerous work or labor involving the handling of drugs, ammunition, and alcohol. Prisoners may work in clubs, commissaries, and service stations when this contributes to the efficiency and economy of the installation. With the exception of the work release program, employment is performed in the immediate vicinity of the USDB. On Sunday, the prisoners work only on essential tasks such as maintenance, dining, and housekeeping.²⁰

Inmates voluntarily participate in academic courses which are selected according to individual needs. All prisoners are encouraged to complete their high school education, and educational counseling and aptitude testing are provided. Vocational training includes courses in agriculture, carpentry, barbering, plumbing, electricity, sheet metal work, shoe repair, printing, and automobile mechanics. These courses are designed to be professional, practical, and challenging.²¹

The vocational training program is being adversely effected by the dwindling USDB population while at the same time the administration is trying to make these programs cost-effective. Reduction of the USDB population is one of the effects of the Army expeditious discharge program. For example, the 932 inmate population in October 1977 dropped to 797 as of February 3, 1978. Also more inmates are coming to the USDB with sentences of only a few months and thus are precluded from participation in the vocational training programs. Consequently, the long timers receive the benefits of the vocational training programs while

the short timers are employed in the daily routine work details.²²

TEEN CHALLENGE MISSION

The Teen Challenge Program was founded in 1958 by the Reverend David Wilkerson to help the juvenile gangs of New York City. His work was publicized through the book and movie The Cross and the Switchblade. It is a non-profit, community-based organization which by means of spiritual emphasis seeks to help drug addicts, alcoholics, prostitutes, prisoners, and juvenile delinquents find new directions in life.²³ Of particular interest in this study is the Teen Challenge prison ministry and how it helps prisoners reform their values and conform with society. Chapter 3 showed that the Teen Challenge and USDB populations are similar. Therefore, since the populations are similar, an analysis of the two programs may reveal successful elements which could be applied in the USDB.

TEEN CHALLENGE STRUCTURE

Today Teen Challenge is an international organization with induction centers in Africa, Europe, Middle East, and South America. Furthermore, there are more than fifty-seven induction centers and several training centers throughout the United States.²⁴ The program consists of two phases, namely, induction and training.

TEEN CHALLENGE INDUCTION CENTER

In contrast to in-processing at the USDB, during the induction phase at Teen Challenge the inmate finds a caring fellowship who helps him stabilize, acquire introspection into his sordid life, and discover

new alternative life styles. At the induction center each individual is provided psychological/physiological support and spiritual guidance. In many cases it involves the individual going through the experience of drug withdrawal, or the trauma of legal or family problems. The person may have been referred to Teen Challenge by juvenile courts, but regardless of how one arrives, each person is accepted as an equal. The student brings with him feelings of rejection, guilt, low self-esteem, and lack of trust. Trust can only grow when one is accepted as he is and feel he is sincerely cared for. The first key to rehabilitation, care and acceptance, is fundamental to this phase. The induction phase usually lasts two months after which the student is transferred to a training center.²⁵

TEEN CHALLENGE TRAINING AND EMPLOYMENT

The caring, nurturing philosophy carries over from reception and pervades the training phase. In the United States training centers are located at Rehrersburg, Pennsylvania; Riverside, California; and Cape Girardeau, Illinois. There is also a training center at Wiesbaden, Germany.²⁶ The center provides a therapeutic community environment emphasizing spiritual growth, vocational or educational training, and strict supervision during the eight to twelve month training period. The program is flexible enough to meet the diverse environments from which the various participants come.

The training program is divided into four divisions, i.e., academic, counseling, vocational, and public service. Academic courses are taught with the purpose of initially bringing the students up to a high school graduate level. One of the major problems is the lack of

reading skills, thus special remedial reading classes are held. Many of these students were troublemakers in school and were promoted to get them through the school system. Consequently, they never learned to read. They were promoted without achieving academic requirements for that grade level, and thus there was no incentive to study.²⁸ This fact supports Dr. Massey's theory of value programming described in Chapter 4. Teaching the habit of responsibility is one of the most important goals of the academic course. Being on time for classes, completing homework on time, coming under the authority of teachers, and making the best use of available time are the ultimate goals of the academic division. After leaving the training program, seventy-three percent (73%) of the students have gone on to improve their education.²⁹ Most of the teaching is done by example. They learn not so much by what we say or do, but who we are becoming inside.³⁰ In essence the teachers are "role models" which places tremendous responsibility on each staff member. The biggest mistake a staff member could make is to try to be perfect or hide the fact that he is human.

"Whenever you try to cover up a wrong they lose respect for you. Our point of view is the sum of our attitudes. The thing we deal with the most here at the center is attitudes. Christ saves us and that's an instantaneous thing. Changing our attitudes is difficult and takes time....But, man is the most changeable of all creatures."³¹

The counseling division is an important part of the rehabilitation program. Many of the students have hurts which have never been healed, and they need someone to help them understand themselves. One counselor commented,

"You know you can't feign your love for them. If you really love them, they know it. And if you don't, they know that too."³²

It was the genuine caring concern and love that the staff members exuded that kept many in the program. One student stated,

"Being a drug addict, you get used to gaming and conning. It was the love that I saw in the faces of the others (staff members and counselors) that kept me in the program whenever I wanted to go....It's not what you say that counts, it's what you live." 33

The care, support, and acceptance received by all students during the training program, which is rehabilitation key number one, is the main success ingredient. Teen Challenge students or USDB inmates alike cannot be fooled. They are turned off by hypocrites and know if a counselor or staff member is motivated by the desire to help or simply putting in time.³⁴

The vocational training division provides the student with real hope of learning a trade and securing viable outside employment. The Teen Challenge vocational program and the USDB vocational program are similar in many areas. Skills in auto mechanics, auto body repair, greenhouse, printing, and farming are a few examples. One primary difference is that the Teen Challenge vocational training program are self-supporting financially.³⁵ The primary ingredient for success is the expertise and dedication of the staff and the stability of student input. Work and training are combined and a student could conceivably work eight to twelve months in the shop vocational training shop. The main implication is that the student perceives a realistic hope of learning a trade during his training phase. In addition, because of the close relationship with the community, many students find jobs waiting for them in the community when they graduate. Keys to rehabilitation 3 and 4, i.e., hope for the future and follow up after the training program, are essential to the success of this program.³⁶

The public service program returns to the community some of its good will. More importantly, it helps the student internalize his training and builds self-esteem. Examples of these activities include choir tours, missions to outside churches and high schools, radio broadcasts, and jail ministry. The students even publish a monthly newsletter to 30,000 people.³⁷ The implication of public service is profound on the community and the students. Teen Challenge members play an important role in helping the community's rebellious teenagers. Since they experienced similar problems, the Teen Challenge students' admonitions have credibility. The student's self-esteem grows as he learns that he has something to give and can help others. Through community service the student's new values and convictions are developed, tested, internalized and strengthened.³⁸ According to Dr. Maslow's theory, if the individual's need for esteem is not satisfied in a constructive manner such as public service, the individual will satisfy this need through disruptive, immature, or self-destructive acts.³⁹

PART II

ANALYSIS OF PERSONAL NEEDS

The remainder of this chapter will be devoted to an analysis of USDB and Teen Challenge programs using Dr. Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs. Essentially his theory espouses five levels of human need, i.e., physiological, security, social, esteem, and self-actualization. The basic physiological needs must be satisfied before the next higher level need, security, predominates. In short, the process of need satisfaction continues up the hierarchy until all the human needs are satisfied.⁴⁰

PHYSIOLOGICAL NEEDS

Physiological needs are the basic human needs to sustain life itself, i.e., food, clothing, shelter, etc. In the USDB a large mess hall is used for feeding the entire population. Meals are typical military cafeteria style prepared by a supervised inmate mess detail. Because of the large number of people, there is time pressure to eat and get out. Inmate groups tend to occupy self-claimed areas of the mess hall which become the group's "turf." As a consequence, the separation between inmates is reinforced and violence could result if the "turf" of one group was invaded by an individual from a rival group.⁴¹ In the Teen Challenge Program a spirit of harmony is present at meals. There is a much smaller group, and all members assist in preparing and cleaning up after the meal. Duties are assigned to each member on a rotating weekly basis. The staff and members eat together, and the meal is a relaxing time of fellowship and communication.⁴²

The shelter need is satisfied by both institutions, but in two completely different environments. The USDB inmate lives in a prison built in 1874 following the "Auburn Model." In Chapter 2 we learned that the Auburn prison developed a repressive environment with the emphasis on production, control, and silence. Compared to other American prisons, the USDB is a model, but no amount of modernization can change the depressing environment. From the inmates' viewpoint the prison walls, guards, and bars tend to confirm any suspicions that society has rejected him. Regardless of the crime, all inmates are incarcerated similarly. The felons and sex offenders are freely mixed with the drug abusers and minor crime offenders. In contrast, to the desperate kid on the street, the Teen Challenge Center is a warm and inviting sanctuary

where people are concerned and eager to help. Some view it only as an opportunity to momentarily satisfy their physiological needs. These are the first to drop out. Those who remain find hope for the future and support from a caring community.⁴⁴

Clothes are a source of identity to people; consequently, the distinctive prisoner uniform used at the USDB emphasizes the "we - they conflict." The USDB inmates wear drab brown uniforms until they progress to trustee status or minimum custody where a uniform similar to civilian work clothes is worn. In Chapter 2 we learned that practice of prisoners wearing striped uniforms ended because it stigmatized and dehumanized. However, because the uniform serves the function of identifying the custody status of each inmate, some kind of uniform is worn in every institution. The distinctive prisoner uniform reinforces the "we - they conflict," reduces the inmate's self-esteem, and frustrates the rehabilitation mission of the USDB.⁴⁵ In contrast Teen Challenge Program participants wear no uniforms. The students are provided clothes either donated by the community or bought with money supplied by the community. This practice follows Keys to Rehabilitation number one, caring for the individual during the program. The student perceives that the community is involved and cares about him.⁴⁶

SECURITY

Once physiological needs are gratified the safety or security needs become predominant. Security is the need to be free from physical danger or deprivation of the basic physiological needs. In other words, it is a need for self-preservation.⁴⁷

It would seem that with individual cells, prison walls, and

security guards, the prison environment would provide a high degree of personal security for the inmate. Yet, this is not true. Convicts of all crimes are thrown together. The murders, addicts, sex-offenders, and felons are all incarcerated together. It takes a long time before an inmate finds someone he can trust, meanwhile he concentrates on testing out the other inmates. Therefore, for a lengthy interval the inmate views guards and inmates alike with suspicion. The environment teaches him to be hard. In the prison culture esteem is based on the crime and how one is evaluated by the other inmates. Therefore, an inmate can never afford to turn down a challenge from another inmate. There is much more at stake than wounds from a fight. There is a prison phenomena that a fight between two inmates is more probable when there are guards present. The reason for this is that it is safer for the inmate who picks the fight. There is security in the fact that the guard will probably break up the fight before someone is killed or severely hurt.⁴⁸

SOCIAL NEEDS

Once physiological and security needs are satisfied, social or affiliation needs become dominant. Since man is a social being, he has a need to be accepted by various groups.⁴⁹ Satisfaction of man's social needs in prison is almost impossible.⁵⁰ The new USDB inmate is separated from the main population during induction and then is usually domiciled in a one man cell. Gradually, he progresses to an open style barracks in medium and minimum custody.⁵¹ The inmate's social needs are primarily met during group work, athletics, or participation in peer groups. With the exception of visits by family or friends, there are few social

encounters with women.

In the Teen Challenge social needs are much more easily satisfied mainly because the student is not removed from society but immersed into a caring fellowship. The Teen Challenge Program establishes "LIGHT Groups" to break down interpersonal barriers. LIGHT stands for Living In Group Harmony through Truth. The students are divided into groups of eight or ten. Each group with a staff member works, eats, studies, worships, and solves their problems together.⁵² When a student becomes eligible for transfer to the training center, the members of the Light Group indicate by secret ballot if the candidate is truly ready. The staff has the final say, but the "Peer Evaluation" is extremely effective in determining whether the individual is sincere or just going along with the program. Peers cannot be readily fooled and recognize the authentic person.⁵³

A class at the training center consists of from twelve to twenty students. Total enrollment at the center is about 130.⁵⁴ A new class begins every month shortly after the senior class graduates. Around the 3-4 month period, a class identity develops. Class members encourage and help one another so that they all progress and graduate together. As a result, fewer than 20% have to be put back or given additional time before they can graduate.⁵⁵ Social needs are met through a wide variety of group activities which include all segments of the training program.

ESTEEM

After an individual begins to satisfy his need to belong, he generally wants to be more than just a member of his group. He then feels the need for esteem -- both self-esteem and recognition from others.

Satisfaction of these esteem needs produces feelings of self-confidence, prestige, power and control. One begins to feel that he is useful and has some effect on his environment. When persons are unable to satisfy this need through constructive behavior, they may resort to disruptive or immature behavior. Frustration of the need for esteem has been the cause of their original rebellion.⁵⁶ In the prison culture there is a status assigned to each inmate by the nature of his crime.⁵⁷ Esteem is satisfied by fellow inmates or through participation in peer groups. Unfortunately, many inmate groups are hostile to the institution and participation in such group activities is counter productive to the individual rehabilitation. As the student learns that, when he helps others, his own self-image is raised.⁵⁸

SELF ACTUALIZATION

Self-actualization, according to Maslow, is one's need to maximize potential and become all that one is capable of becoming. Herzberg's Motivation - Hygiene Theory is compatible with Maslow's Hierarchy; however, it maintains that only esteem and self-actualization are motivators. The physiological, security, and social needs are hygienes or factors that prevent dissatisfaction.⁵⁹

In the USDB various programs are made available for both cadre and inmates. However, there is no institutional emphasis on developing the total man. The emphasis is on training and work, i.e., teaching the inmate a trade and a work ethic so he can support himself on the outside. The external requirements of the inmate are treated and carefully observed without treatment of the spiritual dimension. Since the basic value system is not explored, challenged, or developed, the inmate may

never really come to grips with the true nature of his internal rebellion.⁶⁰

In contrast the emphasis of the Teen Challenge program is placed on developing the total person, i.e., body, mind, and spirit.⁶¹ Primary emphasis is placed on developing the spiritual dimension, where people reconcile their lives. The NIDA study showed that the Teen Challenge program was especially successful with those individuals who found the power in God to change.⁶² The religious element is emphasized, but not exclusive. It is important to note that those individuals who do not agree with the religious emphasis are not rejected. They remain in the program as long as they choose to stay.⁶³ The important implication is that those individuals have joined Teen Challenge because they are committed to changing their life which is key number 2 to rehabilitation. Teen Challenge provides the environment conducive to change.⁶⁴ In contrast, the USDB inmate is in that program without choice and because of the institutional environment, which may reinforce his resentment, he may never choose to change his life and thus receive no benefit from the USDB program.⁶⁵

SUMMARY

In this chapter the USDB and Teen Challenge rehabilitation programs are analyzed to determine strengths, weaknesses, and implications. The chapter is divided into two parts. Part I shows that the missions, structures, education and training programs are similar in function. Part II contains an analysis of the personal needs using Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs. The prison environment precludes the satisfaction of many human needs and, although it seems to be a secure environment, it actually is very threatening. Trust takes a long time to develop

with inmates in the prison culture. According to Herzberg, the real human motivators are esteem and self-actualization.

Self-actualization involves maximizing the capabilities of the total man, i.e., body, mind, and spirit. The USDB, as an institution, emphasizes only the body and mind. The Chaplain's program at the USDB is available to satisfy the spiritual needs of the inmate, but the inmate must take the initiative and peer pressure often discourages religious participation.

When the Keys to Rehabilitation are reviewed, it is evident that they are most visible in the Teen Challenge program. Key number one, Care, is emphasized throughout the whole program, but especially during the induction phase. Key number two, commitment to one's rehabilitation program, is evident during Teen Challenge induction and public service. At the induction center the individual makes the decision to change his life. In the USDB an inmate may hold on to his resentment and never reap any benefits from the rehabilitation program. Hope, key number 3, is provided by a realistic opportunity to learn a vocation and get a job on the outside. At the USDB a short timer may never get the opportunity to develop his skills in the vocational training program. Key number 4, acceptance of the community after the training program, is integral to Teen Challenge. At the USDB there is no follow up program. It is easy to emphasize the strengths of one program at the expense of another. The important thing is to explore ways to apply these positive aspects of the Teen Challenge program to the USDB.

CHAPTER 5 - ENDNOTES

- ¹ U.S. Army OPMG General Order No. 9 (Washington: February 23, 1973)
- ² Annual History Summary, United States Disciplinary Barracks, (Ft. Leavenworth: July 1, 1975 to September 30, 1976), p. 2.
- ³ Ibid.
- ⁴ Ibid.
- ⁵ Annual History Summary, op. cit., Plate No. 1.
- ⁶ Department of the Army Regulation 190-47. Military Police, The United States Army Correctional System, December 15, 1975, p. 2-2.
- ⁷ Ibid.
- ⁸ Ibid.
- ⁹ Ibid.
- ¹⁰ Ibid.
- ¹¹ Department of the Army Regulation 190-47, op. cit., p. 6-9.
- ¹² Annual History Summary, op. cit., p. 8.
- ¹³ Bill Sands, The Seventh Step (New York: The American Library 1967), p. 84.
Statement by Chaplain Post, Chaplain Kansas State Prison, in a personal interview, Lansing, October 28, 1977.
- ¹⁴ Department of the Army Field Manual 19-60, Confinement and Correctional Treatment of Military Prisoners, October 1970, p. 7-1.
Statement by Capt. L. Perry, USDB Classification Officer, in a personal interview, Ft. Leavenworth, October 1977.
- ¹⁵ Department of the Army Regulation 190-47, op. cit., p. 6-2.
- ¹⁶ Ibid.
- ¹⁷ Department of the Army Regulation 190-47, op. cit., p. 6-6.

¹⁸Statement by Wayne King, Chaplain USDB, in a personal interview, Ft. Leavenworth, October 29, 1977.

¹⁹Statement by USDB inmate, in a personal interview, Ft. Leavenworth, November 1977.

²⁰Department of the Army Regulation 190-47, op. cit., p. 6-8.

²¹Department of the Army Regulation 190-47, op. cit., p. 6-9.

²²See Endnote 14, Chapter 5, Capt. Perry interview.
Statement by USDB inmate, in a personal interview, Ft. Leavenworth, October 1977.

²³David Manuel, The Jesus Factor (Plainfield: Logos International, 1977) p. 14.

²⁴Ibid.

²⁵Ibid.

²⁶Ibid.

²⁷Services Research Report, "An Evaluation of the Teen Challenge Treatment Program," (DHEW Publication No. 77-425) 1977, p. 12.

²⁸Manuel, op. cit., p. 77.

²⁹Manuel, op. cit., p. 38.

³⁰Ibid.

³¹Ibid.

³²Manuel, op. cit., p. 51.

³³Manuel, op. cit., p. 101.

³⁴Manuel, op. cit., p. 49. see also Endnote 19, Chapter 5.

³⁵See Endnote 2, Chapter 5.

³⁶Manuel, op. cit., p. 115.

- ³⁷ Manuel, op. cit., p. 93.
- ³⁸ Paul Hersey and Kenneth H. Blanchard, Management of Organizational Behavior (Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1972), p. 136.
- ³⁹ Hersey and Blanchard, op. cit., p. 26.
- ⁴⁰ Hersey and Blanchard, op. cit., p. 23.
- ⁴¹ Bill Sands, The Seventh Step (New York: The American Library 1967), p. 115.
Statement by USDB inmate, Ft. Leavenworth, December 12, 1977.
- ⁴² Statement by James Collier, Director of Teen Challenge, in a personal interview, Kansas City, Missouri, December 9, 1977.
- ⁴³ Robert M. Carter, Richard A. McGee, and E. Kim Nelson, Corrections in America (New York: J.B. Lippincott, 1975) p. 14.
ATTICA: The Official Report of the New York State Special Commission on Attica (New York: Bantam Books Inc., 1972), p. 90.
- ⁴⁴ Manuel, op. cit., p. 33.
- ⁴⁵ Bill Sands, My Shadow Ran Fast (Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1965) p. 145.
ATTICA: loc. cit.
Statement by USDB inmate, Ft. Leavenworth, October 27, 1977.
- ⁴⁶ See Endnote 42, Chapter 5.
- ⁴⁷ Hersey and Blanchard, op. cit., p. 23.
- ⁴⁸ See Endnote 45, Chapter 5.
- ⁴⁹ Hersey and Blanchard, op. cit., p. 24.
- ⁵⁰ Bill Sands, The Seventh Step (New York: The American Library 1967), p. 114.
Jerry Golden, Too Tough for God (Waco: Word Book Publisher, 1977) p. 150.
- ⁵¹ See Endnote 18, Chapter 5. also see Endnote 14, Chapter 5, Capt. Perry interview.
- ⁵² Manuel, op. cit., p. 33.

- ⁵³Manuel, op. cit., p. 110.
- ⁵⁴Manuel, op. cit., p. 14.
- ⁵⁵Manuel, op. cit., p. 46.
- ⁵⁶Hersey and Blanchard, op. cit., p. 14.
- ⁵⁷Bill Sands, My Shadow Ran Fast (Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1965) p. 150.
Statement by USDB inmate, Ft. Leavenworth, October 27, 1977.
- ⁵⁸Hersey and Blanchard, op. cit., p. 25.
- ⁵⁹Hersey and Blanchard, op. cit., p. 56.
- ⁶⁰Video Tape of a lecture by Morris E. Massey, Phd. Associate Dean of Undergraduate Studies, University of Colorado, "What You Are Is Where You Were When...." 1975.
Statement by Wayne King, Chaplain USDB, in a personal interview, Ft. Leavenworth, November 1977.
- ⁶¹Statement by James Collier, Director of Teen Challenge, in a personal interview, Kansas City, Missouri, December 9, 1977; also Manuel, op. cit., p. 25; also Paul Tournier, The Healing of Persons (New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, 1965) p. 15.
- ⁶²Services Research Report, "An Evaluation of the Teen Challenge Treatment Program," (DHEW Publication No. 77-425) 1977, p. 13.
- ⁶³See Endnote 61, Chapter 5, Collier interview.
- ⁶⁴Ibid.
- ⁶⁵See Endnote 14, Chapter 5, Capt. Perry interview.
See Endnote 18, Chapter 5, Wayne King interview.
See Endnote 22, Chapter 5, USDB inmate interview.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

INTRODUCTION

During the course of this study, it was learned that U.S. Army penologists have been wrestling with how to provide efficient and effective rehabilitation programs in the USDB. The study set out to investigate an alternative corrections program which might effectively rehabilitate USDB inmates at greatly reduced costs. In particular, Chapter 1 indicated that the Teen Challenge Program would be researched for possible implementation at the USDB. Chapter 2 described the evolution of the penitentiary in America and the present shift toward community-based corrections. Chapter 3 presented a demographic comparison of the USDB and the Teen Challenge Program to determine significant similarities and differences that would affect adaptation of the Teen Challenge Program to the USDB. Chapter 4 examined the values and perceptions of the youthful offender and introduced the keys to rehabilitation. Chapter 5 compared and contrasted the rehabilitative programs of the USDB and Teen Challenge to determine strengths, weaknesses, and implications. After careful synthesis of all collected data, appropriate conclusions and recommendations were drawn.

CONCLUSIONS

Chapter 1 revealed that the debate continues as to whether the USDB can rehabilitate military offenders with efficiency. Chapter 2

traced the current shift in corrections toward community-based programs. Penologists believe that community-based rehabilitative programs are more cost-effective because the institutions are smaller, consequently, less expensive to maintain; but more importantly, they utilize the medical, educational, and spiritual programs already in existence within the community. Chapter 3 introduced the Teen Challenge Program and indicated that it is cost-effective because it is supported by the community and its services are provided at no cost to the penal institution. It also indicated that the populations of the USDB and Teen Challenge are similar which means that the Teen Challenge program could relate well to typical military prisoners. After an examination of the negative perceptions, resentments, and values of the youthful offender, Chapter 4 revealed four keys to rehabilitation which were essential to alter an individual's social behavior. These keys were:

1. Genuine caring during the rehabilitation program
2. Individual commitment to personal rehabilitation
3. Hope for the future
4. Community support after release from the rehabilitation program.

It was discovered that the keys to rehabilitation motivated the individual to learn positive, acceptable responses to various situations. Chapter 5 determined that the prison is intrinsically a threatening environment and that satisfaction of the inmates needs, relative to Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory and Herzberg's Motivation Hygiene Theory, were almost impossible. Teen Challenge promoted a healthy environment for individual growth and personal change in values. Several observations were made. Active participation in small group

community-based activities provided the deviant a viable basis to accept personal responsibility for self rehabilitation. Peer groups become the catalyst for motivation and realistic change. Such groups also provided opportunities for the individual to influence his own destiny, reinforce institutional programs, and help others.

RECOMMENDATIONS

It is recommended that the Teen Challenge Program be introduced into the USDB under the staff supervision of the chaplain.

It is also recommended that the Teen Challenge with cooperation of the USDB Commandant be allowed to develop inmate-regulated small peer groups similar in function to the Teen Challenge LIGHT groups which would facilitate rehabilitation on a broad basis throughout the USDB institution.

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