

FEMALE CRIMINALITY: ALTERATIONS OF  
MERTON'S STRAIN THEORY AS APPLIED  
TO THE EVALUATION OF THE FEMALE  
OFFENDER REGIMENTED  
TRAINING PROGRAM

By

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## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

In 1990 the Federal Bureau of Investigation's Uniform Crime Report (UCR) announced an 11% increase in arrests over 1989 (UCR,1990:50). "The incarceration rate in the United States has tripled since the early 1970's and more than doubled since the early 1980's." (Flanagan and Maguire:1992:635).

In 1990, America had 683,400 inmates in prisons (Statistical Abstract of the US, 1992:199). With so many people incarcerated in America, corrections programs are faced with a variety of pressures forcing new measures and procedures. Based on the value of the dollar in 1990, annual correctional expenditures have tripled over the last 20 years (Lindgren,1992:4-5). In 1971 the costs per U.S. citizen was \$30, in 1990 that costs has risen to over \$90 per U.S. citizen.

A general question at this point is "What can be done to remedy the situation? Daniel Glaser (1964) found that vocational rehabilitation programs had virtually no effect on post-release behavior. In 1966, Walter C. Bailey's evaluation of 100 correctional treatment programs ended with the conclusion that, "Evidence supporting the efficacy of correctional treatment is slight, inconsistent and of questionable reliability." In 1967, Roger Hood also reached this conclusion. After evaluating drug treatment programs in Pennsylvania, Freda Adler (et. al, 1974) concluded that virtually none were significantly successful. Finally, in 1975 Douglas Lipton , Robert Martinson, and Judith Wilks arrived at the same conclusion and with a simple "Nothing Works" response, establishing the need for a better approach. Similarly, a report by the U.S. General Accounting Office (GAO,1993:10) adds:

In response to the increasing inmate populations, the state and federal prison systems have increased the construction of new facilities. More prison space is seen as only a partial solution, however, and corrections systems have continued to explore other avenues, such as alternatives to traditional forms of incarceration.

One particular problem is that the number of females in prison are growing at a faster rate than that of males (U.S. Dept. of Justice, 1992). According to Durham (1994:105) "the number of women in state and federal prisons at the beginning of 1992 approached 50,000 inmates, a historic high water mark." The U.S. Dept. of Justice report on Women (1991) adds that, "More than two-thirds of the women were recidivists."

Although most states have some claim to criminological fame, Oklahoma maintains several with respect to crime, criminal justice, and corrections: Oklahoma began one of the first Shock Incarceration Programs in the nation, initiated an integrated research organization termed 'The Oklahoma Criminal Justice Research Consortium' (OCJRC) which has achieved research cooperation among academic researchers, the Department of Corrections, and was one of the first two states to be fully accredited by the American Correctional Association's Accreditation Commission. In addition, as of September, 1993, Oklahoma possessed the highest rate of female incarcerates in the nation, 13.4% (Ochie, 1993; Al-Mosleh, 1993; and Camp, 1993).

As the nations leader in women incarcerates (by rate) one program in particular has drawn attention because of its similarity to these intense discipline models, and its deviation away from their traditional limitations. This program, the Female Offender Regimented Training program (FORT or Regimented Training) was initialized in 1991 and in 1994 was targeted for evaluation by OCJRC who enlisted the services of researchers, Harjit S. Sandhu and David A. Camp, both of Oklahoma State University.

### Purpose Of This Study

The purpose of this study is to evaluate the effectiveness and success of the Female Offender Regimented Training (FORT or Regimented Training) program. In addition, this study will seek to apply the following theoretical hypothesis: The typical female deviant, is not sufficiently or accurately understood in terms of existing criminological theory. Rather than applying theoretical models designed around the greater amount of male oriented deviant studies, a theoretical model specifically applied to females is called for. The

theoretical model presented is an altered form of Merton's Strain Theory which includes 'local' and 'global' definitions of goals and means as defined from a sociologically female perspective.

### Research Objectives

The three primary research objectives of this study were to:

- 1). Evaluate (both practical and theoretical) the overall effectiveness of the Female Offender Regimented Training (FORT) program;
- 2). Use these data in concert with the evaluation results to support the theoretical position that the female criminal possesses different motives than male criminals (see chapter 2);
- 3). Based on the results of primary objectives one and two to offer theoretically sound suggestions for program alteration or creation which will improve the problems associated with increasing representation of female incarcerates within the criminal justice and the corrections systems.

### Primary Objective One

In order to fulfill the objective of determining the Regimented Training program effectiveness, the achievement of three specific goals was determined as necessary:

#### Goal One

The first goal was to evaluate FORT in terms of recidivism. This goal included the statistical enumeration of recidivists as compared to a control sample of individuals. Detailed in chapter 3, the methods utilized in this goal consisted of analyzing the available data on the past Regimented Training participants. This analysis required a reduction in size of the population due to missing data in many files. The remaining files (n=254) were matched with a control group drawn from many thousands of files so that as complete and exact of a match as possible was achieved.

The culmination of this goal was to define recidivism as appropriate for this study. Once completed it would be necessary to apply this definition of recidivism to the two identified populations being compared, the Regimented Training sample and the Control sample. The final result will be compared for a determination of the recidivism effectiveness.

### Goal Two

Goal two involved the evaluation of the Regimented Training program in terms of the participants themselves. A questionnaire was designed by the researchers and approved by the Institutional Review Board of Oklahoma State University. The questionnaire was designed to elicit responses needed to provide the following information:

1. What initiated the respondents participation in the Regimented Training program.
2. Demographic information of the respondents in the Regimented Training program.
3. The evaluation and effectiveness of the Regimented Training program as perceived by the participants.
4. The problems associated with returning to society after participation in the Regimented Training program.

### Goal Three

Goal three included gaining the perceptions and perspectives of those individuals who were responsible for the implementation, supervision, and support of the Regimented Training program. The method of this goal is arrived at through literature review and personal interviews.

### Primary Objective Two

The goals of the second primary objective are to elicit information from the data collected under the goals of the first primary objective to test the hypothesis of this project: Merton's Anomie Theory as altered by Albert Cohen specifically adding the considerations of local and global definitions of success and the implications of their influence on recidivism.

### Primary Objective Three

If the theoretical underpinning described can be associated with the program, then the evaluation of the program itself can offer a test of the theory and inversely, the theory may provide support for the program and/or offer suggestions for an improved model of the program. In such an interactive relationship, it is considered that both the corrections system and the theoretical perspective may be refined to maximize effectiveness.

### Expected Contribution Of This Research

This research seeks to establish an alternate perspective which may exist with theoretical reference to the female offender. With this perspective, existing programs may be altered or new programs designed to increase the chances that the at risk female (as identified through the theoretical application) may be offered suitable alternatives thus equipping her to resist sociological influences that tend to lead to criminally deviant behavior.

## DEFINITIONS AND CONCEPTS

### Correctional Terms

#### Recidivism

The typical definition of recidivism is a returning to the prison after release from prior incarceration. However, Adler defines it in terms that are relevant and applied within this study. Specifically, recidivism is the “repeated or habitual relapses into criminal behavior.” (Adler et.al., 1994:566). This definition incorporates the elements utilized in this study. Recidivism in this study was determined by the movement codes in which an individual following a set period of incarceration was identified as having committed (or believed to have committed) some act of inappropriate behavior so as to cause movement within the department of corrections system with an associated code indicating an arrest, a disciplinary action, an escape, or due to an action causing a movement to a higher security level within the prison system.

#### Shock Incarceration Programs (SIP)

Shock Incarceration Programs, also referred to as Boot Camp programs, refer to a class of programs developed as an alternative to imprisonment. Usually, these programs confine the offenders for relatively short periods of time (usually less than 6 months) and are comprised of intensive supervision, strict discipline, military drill, physical fitness routines, and often other educational and counseling components (National Institute of

Justice, 1994). The basic concept is that the initial “shock” of the drill and discipline along with the introduction to the prison system will be sufficient to cause some individuals to alter their future behaviors so as to remain law-abiding and free.

### The Female Offender Regimented Training Program (FORT)

The Female Offender Regimented Training Program is a Shock Incarceration type program created and specifically designed for female inmates. Like other programs, FORT focuses on physical drill and discipline. However, unlike many ‘Shock’ programs FORT incorporates intensive substance abuse programs, educational improvement, self-esteem development, and varied life skills training programs.

### Theoretical Terms

Various new terms and definitions are associated alterations of Merton’s Anomie (Strain) theory as applied to this research. Most specifically are the terms and phrases of socio-environmental, niche, local, and global. In addition are terms more typically associated with sociology and criminology which should be mentioned. Specifically, the terms of anomie, goals, and means.

#### Local

The term ‘Local’ refers to a set of social interactions and emergent social meanings which comprise a social structure at the level of a subcultural or of a distinct reference group. Local level goals and means formed under this type of social structure are reinforced through the power and relationship interactions within the identified community power structure. Examples of these ‘local’ social structures are found within the context of a neighborhood gang or similar isolated community (such a community may be with propinquity or without propinquity).

### Global

In contrast to local, the term Global refers to a generalized set of social ideals, goals, and means which are often referred to as a cultural perspective and likely emerge from an overall influencing aggregate of ideal goals and means.

### Socio-environmental (Niche)

Specifically, a socio-environmental niche refers to a social structure in which the situational social ambiance can be discerned from a vantage point that considers the localized environment as a complex, interactive, and interconnected system. Most often this is used in reference to a 'local' designation.

### Anomie

Anomie is the term produced by Durkheim to describe a state conducive to suicide in which the individuals within a group feel that the normal standards by which they guide their actions and beliefs, no longer exist. In fact anomie is the lack of norms. Merton applied the concept of anomie to the situation he perceived and proposed in his Goals/Means Gap theory to describe the state some people find themselves in when the goals of the society are perceived as unreachable.

### Goals

Merton determined that the normative expectations of a culture define the goals (ideal expected achievements) of the people within that culture.

### Means

Although the goals of the culture are considered as normative expectations, the actual or perceived ability to achieve these goals is referred to as the means (of achieving the goal). As described in chapter two, Merton elaborates, describing the various ways people react to this situation.

## CHAPTER II

### LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL BASIS

#### Corrections

Corrections refers to the implementation and execution of sentences imposed by the courts and the system that administers those sentences (Adler et al. 1991:441). Reactions to criminal behavior have varied in accordance to political, religious, and philosophical eras. Throughout history, the individual identified as 'the criminal' has been punished, reformed, rehabilitated, corrected, integrated, treated, and educated. All of these are considered forms of corrections. Modern day corrections must not only contend with confinement problems, but a host of social, political, and religious pressures forcing new procedures and rethinking old ones.

One of our most fundamental problems is the ineffectiveness of correctional approaches thrust upon the criminal. In 1967, the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice (1967: 32) summed up their perspective with the statement that the existing corrections programs are: "inequitable, indignant, and ineffective. The offender emerged punished but unchanged". However, decades of research and data show that the criminal has been influenced by the experience of our corrections system.

Weider (1974) documented the existence and practices of reference groups in the corrections system which actively combine their 'new educational abilities' with a specialized code of ethics producing a more solidly confirmed criminal who is well trained in a new set of skills appropriate to criminal actions. Thus, prison confinement not only offers expensive and poor reform, it is also a training school in the art and science of becoming a socially established criminal with a functionally supportive social network and an array of new skills.



## Ideologies Of Corrections

Neal Shover and Werner J. Einstadter (1988:27-35) categorize and describe the three basic ideologies of corrections programs which have been imposed on the offender. These are the Liberal, Conservative, and Radical ideologies.

The Liberal view as described by Durham (1994:18) contends that "Human behavior is influenced by social circumstances such as one's upbringing, material affluence, education . . . mishaps and successes, and many other variables." In other words, the criminal is dysfunctional and treatment provides the best hopes for positive results.

The Conservative view argues that, "human beings possess free will and are capable of making rational choices . . . people succeed or fail as a result of their own initiative." (Durham, 1994:17-18). Proponents of this ideology suggest that procedures which result in deterrence, punishment, and incapacitation will best control criminal actions.

Finally, the Radical ideology based on conflict theory (Dahrendorf, 1959; Vold, 1958; and Chambliss and Seidman, 1971) suggests that crime is a natural consequence of a bifurcated social structure. The crimes of the disadvantaged are responses to their living conditions which are forced upon them. White collar crimes are the result of the excesses of the privileged upper classes. Therefore, the only way to improve the situation is to initiate elementary reforms in social structure.

## Correctional Approaches

Regardless of the ideological view taken the problem must be confronted immediately. With the U.S. now supervising over 1 million individuals under the general name of corrections, theories often take a back seat to applications available or advocated by the dominant political machine.

### Deterrence

Although the underlying philosophies of each approach is different, the theme of deterrence can be found woven within each. Deterrence is the most widely used stance of crime intervention. Deterrence refers to the "theory that people will refrain from engaging

in criminal activity because of the consequences associated with its detection.” (Adler et al, 1994:348). According to Durham (1994) there are two types of goals of deterrence: General and Specific. General deterrence instills the fear of punishment upon the general population to discourage ‘anyone’ from considering a criminal action. Specific Deterrence refers to punishment designed to encourage the offender of the given situation to not repeat his actions.

Based on the work supplied by Beccaria (1963) and Bentham (1789), deterrence is the fundamental aspect of the Classical School (also known as the Utilitarian approach). Beccaria suggested that there are two areas of direct influence on the decision to commit or to not commit a crime. These are: promptness of punishment and the certainty of punishment. This approach identified that swift, severe, and sure punishment that is adjusted to the crime and not the criminal, produces a capture and punishment perception that provides a deterring effect. Hence, the actions of an individual can be swayed away from illegal acts by emphasizing (justifying and enforcing) the negative consequences associated with that act. This approach (as does some others) can be observed in several aspects of crime control efforts.

### Correctional Applications and Philosophies

Adler (1991:450-452) indicates that there have been at least 14 stages of correctional approaches since 5000 BC. Those most influencing modern theory and application include Revenge, Retribution, Restitution, Incapacitation, and Rehabilitation.

#### Revenge

Durham (1994) suggests that the most fundamental approach to criminal punishment is that of revenge. Durkheim believed that punishment is a passionate reaction to a perceived crime and that punishment is simply for the sake of punishing (1964:85-86).

#### Retribution

Retribution, also known as the approach of fair revenge, Lex Talionis (Sandhu, 1981:3), or the biblical ‘eye for an eye’ approach is the act of adding fairness to the punishment so that it, “attempts to match the severity of the crime” (Durham, 1994:23) and provides the victim satisfaction by annulling the crime.

### Restitution

Restitution also incorporates the eye for an eye concept, but adds compensation for additional loss. The additional loss is based on the problems caused by the act, and loss due to the act itself. Especially useful in thievery, this extended to the use of corporal punishment by paying for a crime through physical torture or induced pain. The addition of punishment beyond equivocal balance incorporates the ideology of deterrence.

### Incapacitation

Incapacitation refers to the limits imposed by the community which will inhibit the ability of the criminal to commit the crime. The most common form of this is incarceration (incarceration).

### Rehabilitation

Rehabilitation is based on the idea of altering the offender so that the inclination to commit a criminal act is replaced with socially acceptable behaviors (Durham, 1994).

### New Approaches to Criminal Corrections

Whether corrections have become diversified through ideological stances, political conquests, applied limitations or a mixture of all three, correctional practices today are varied in many ways. Regardless of the stance, most sectors of thought are relying on the ability of the courts and the police to reduce crime initially and in the correctional system to significantly alter the behaviors of criminals so that they will not return to their criminal ways upon release. As a result many new programs are being piloted across the U.S. These modern approaches consist of various efforts to correct past failures and weaknesses. They include speculations of crime as a social reality (criminalization, decriminalization, and social stigma), instilling and supporting anti-criminal behaviors (deterrence), diverting the criminal away from the legal system through either probation or intervening programs (diversion), early release of criminals for good behavior (parole), measured reintegration in society (community corrections), rehabilitation and education, and reconsidering of restitution and just deserts.

### Diversion

Diversion is a means in which the criminal element is diverted away from the criminal justice system without interfering with the functioning of the system. Diversion programming began in 1967 when a presidential commission on law enforcement recommended alternatives to the existing system. Bartollas and Miller (1978:173-174) suggest that the reasoning for encouraging diversion away from the traditional penal system stems from the theoretical concepts of self fulfilling prophecy, labeling, and Lemert's feedback transition from primary to secondary deviant process .

Diversion away from the system can be accomplished in several ways. Today, we see a movement toward prevention, education, and rehabilitation as opposed to mere penal confinement (Adler, et al.,1991). According to Bartollas and Miller (1992) police discretion accounts for 90% of all diversionary practices. By definition, however, official diversion is a court initiated process where the court diverts or refers the defendant (before a verdict is legally determined) to an outside agency for treatment, education, or service in which the desired result is to deter further actions similar to the behavior that resulted with the individual in the criminal justice system to begin with.

### Community based corrections

As with diversion, community based corrections also strive toward non-institutional corrections. According to the National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals, it is any correctional activity that takes place in the community. Some of the types of community based corrections are the group homes, foster care (for juveniles), Day treatment programs and outward bound. "The National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals characterizes community based corrections as (1) humanitarian, (2) restorative, and (3) inexpensive." (Sandhu, 1981:29). Because the community is already available to some degree, it is less expensive to transform and utilize in the corrections application. It is more integrative toward a move back to the community (the desire of all treatment oriented corrections programs) and it is sufficiently deterrent in its influence as a lifestyle for potential criminals.

### Probation

Probation is used as a front end measure of the criminal justice procedure and refers to the release of a prison bound convict into the community under the supervision of a trustworthy person and the probationary convict is bound by certain conditions of behavior. Alternatives to standard parole involve intensive supervision programs and house arrests (home confinement). These include electronic accounting of location and intensive amounts of hard work (often in the form of community service).

The effectiveness of probation has been difficult to accurately evaluate. However, Scarpitti and Stephenson found promising results of probation when applied to juveniles. Additionally Martinson and Wilks (Bartollas and Miller, 1978) found that probationers have lower rates of recidivism than parolees.

### Parole and Early Release

Parole is similar to probation except that it is used as a tail end measure. In general parole refers to the early conditional release of prisoners who show promise of good behavior during their time in prison. Once released, these individuals (as the probationary group) are monitored in terms of living success by a court officer. However, this program, though widely used appears to be less than greatly effective.

Parole success rates have never been great . . . the effects of parole diminishes as the length of time served in prison increases . . . in 1987 only 59 percent of parolees had completed their terms successfully (Adler, 1991:466).

Additionally, a study of the early program in Oklahoma (Camp and Green, 1995) found that their early release program had a failure rate of almost 40% over an 18 month period. Although early release and parole programs appear to be cost effective in the short term, the long term results as is suggested by the failure rates indicate that they are not effective at all, in cost or effect.

### Shock Incarceration

A new set of correctional programs known as Shock Incarceration Programs (SIP), Boot Camps, and Regimented Inmate Training (RID) programs have been sweeping the U.S. correctional system since their initiation in 1983. The prison boot camp

format has grown from two pilot programs in 1983 (one in Oklahoma and one in Georgia), to 41 programs in 1992 (MacKenzie and Uchida, 1994:217).

Claiming effectiveness in reducing prison costs, prison crowding, and inmate recidivism, the SIP programs have become a popular alternative of prison systems for at risk youth and lesser offenders as well as gaining support from the public and political interests (GAO, 1993:10).

The program is specifically designed for the 'at risk' young adult and those individuals with lesser offenses such as drug charges and larceny. Those selected to participate in these programs usually fit the following profile, "poorly educated, comes from a low-income background, has not had proper role models or discipline, has little or no work skills, and is subjected to an environment where drug use and trafficking are common." (GAO, 1993:11).

The goals of the typical boot camp is an emphasis on providing the participants with skills and assistance that will help them adapt to the outside world upon release" (GAO, 1993:18), while also reducing prison overcrowding and recidivism, as well as providing retribution, deterring crime, and reducing prison costs (Dickey, 1994; MacKenzie and Parent, 1991, 1992; MacKenzie and Piquero, 1994; Sechrest, 1989). An added supporting feature of shock is that it avoids the negative effects of lengthy imprisonment yet still giving the offender a "taste" of institutional life, and still maintains post-release control through probation supervision." (Fox and Stinchcomb, 1994:180-181).

The Shock Incarceration Program in Oklahoma was the direct result of the "Nonviolent Intermediate Offender (NIO) Act" which became effective in January 1984. This SIP was the first Regimented Inmate Discipline (RID) program in the nation (Adler et al., 1991) and was designed for youthful male offenders 18-22 years old, convicted of non-violent crimes. RID, as with other Shock Incarceration Programs, was designed as a militaristic style program of strict discipline and physical training for the purpose of "shocking" the offender in a relatively short period of time and with a higher cost efficiency basis for the state.

In summary, Shock Incarceration is an intermediate punishment considered as an alternative option for judges allowing a better match of severity of the offense to severity of the program (Morris and Tonry:1990) and offering a deterrent effect through the exposure to prison life without risking the differential association and labeling problems often cited as negative consequences of the prison experience.

#### SIP Evaluations

Shock Incarceration programs have been repeatedly evaluated and the reviews tend to be generally negative. The NIJ has supported several evaluations of shock incarceration in recent years and has concluded that, at best, they provide “only marginal improvements over traditional forms of incarceration.” (GAO,1993:3). MacKenzie added that, “when age and past criminal history were controlled in the analyses, no differences were found between offenders in shock incarceration and any of the other groups.” In fact, shock participants had higher rates of technical arrests and revocations as well as new criminal convictions (MacKenzie and Shaw, 1993).

MacKenzie and Parent (1992) and Dickey (1994) also state that shock incarceration programs are no more effective than traditional programs in reducing recidivism. Dickey points out that the programs are not addressing offenders problems, rarely offer any aftercare support, and return the offender to the same socio-environmental life that they inhabited prior to their incarceration.

Research by Palumbo and Peterson (1994) also indicate that the shock incarceration program is ineffective, inappropriate, and in some situations potentially harmful to the inmates involved and the society in general. “The program does not divert many offenders from prison [and] there is no change in their self esteem.” (1994:26)

The latest update published by the National Institute of Justice in October 1994 states:

In five states (Oklahoma, Texas, Georgia, Florida, and South Carolina), the boot camp experience did not reduce recidivism. In the other three states (New York, Illinois, and Louisiana) boot camp graduates had lower rates on one measure of recidivism . . . the difference itself suggest that the boot camp experience in itself . . . does not successfully reduce recidivism. Programs in the States that experienced lower recidivism had some similarities. The in-prison phase was followed by a 6 month intensive supervision phase in the community. (NIJ, 1994).

Of specific note is the observation by Robinson (1992:254) that “for women offenders, the abuse that they experience in shock incarceration just repeats the emotional and psychological abuses they were subjected to as youths, which may be the main reason why they offended in the first place. An estimated 41% of the women in prison reported that they had been previously sexually or physically abused.” (U.S. Dept. Of Justice, Women in Prison 1991). Fox and Stinchcomb comment:

It is one thing to achieve behavioral change among those under such close supervision. It is quite another to assure that any improvements continue upon release. . . chances are much greater that they will fall into old patterns of behavior and return to corrections as recidivists (1994:67).

However, we must acknowledge the comment made by MacKenzie and Uchida “It is important to remember the wide variation among shock programs.” (1994:224).

Thus, although the overall evaluation of shock programs are negative, it is possible that specific variations within specific programs may be able to enhance theoretical and methodological characteristics that will result in an emerging effective system.

An important note in regard to SIPs in general and the evaluations specifically is that some studies might best be described as being manipulated for political support systems for these programs. One such evaluation “Boot Camp for Criminals”(Koch, 1988), supporting their own move toward boot camp programs, quoted a Georgia Department of Corrections study (Flowers, 986) as stating that a 90 day SIP with the accompanying 275 probation costs a total of \$2,585. However, the same report only three pages earlier quoted the costs of incarcerations as being \$38.29 per day which, with simple multiplication, actually comes to \$3446, not \$2,585 as is stated (for just to 90 day shock costs).

### FORT

One such program with potentially effective variations is the Female Offender Regimented Training (FORT) program. The FORT program, located at the Eddie Warrior Correctional Center (EWCC), is maintained in a 60 bed unit with usually 35 to 45 participants in residence. As with other SIP type programs FORT is a highly structured



program incorporating strict discipline, a high degree of structure, a positive self image and a work ethic (Russell, et. al., 1993:3-4).

Obviously, the long-term aim of the program is to reduce substance abuse and recidivism. The FORT program in particular aims to accomplish this by affecting patterns of behavior linked to substance abuse, by increasing self-esteem and ego-strength, and by providing educational opportunities and fostering educational achievement.

The participants can be directed to the FORT program through the Lexington Assessment Reception Center (LARC) or through court decree. It is also accessible in occasional situations upon request of the inmate.

Once assigned to the program, inmates participate in an average of three months of programs and activities. These include physical activity, structured work, regimentation and drill, intensive substance abuse treatment, structured educational programming, and classes in life skills, parenting, decision-making, ethics, and moral development. (Russell, et. al., 1993:3)

How does FORT differ from other SIP's?

The FORT program is specifically for women offenders. Where-as other SIP's in Oklahoma, such as the RID program, tend to be designed for a 60 day schedule, FORT is structured for a 90 to 120 day program agenda. As Russell mentioned (above) FORT also incorporates substance abuse treatment, structured educational programming, classes in life skills, parenting, decision-making, ethics, and moral development. SIP's tend to focus only on physical drill and discipline.

The advantage of this is that the program has more time with which to manipulate the offenders. As noted by MacKenzie and Souryal (1994:53), "Clearly, the optimally effective length of drug treatment- longer than 90 days- appears to conflict with the goal of reducing prison crowding." However, a program such as FORT seems to overcome this dilemma.

#### Previous Evaluations Of Fort

According to a previous FORT evaluation (Russell,et.al.,1993), FORT inmates showed an increased willingness to admit to substance abuse problems. This was taken as a positive result since long-term behavioral changes for a substance abuser requires an acknowledgment that a substance abuse problem exists. This is especially important

because in comparing the FORT to SIP groups, Russell found that, "Overall, the social consequences of substance abuse, such as job or relationship problems, were more common for FORT inmates than SIP inmates." (et. al., 1993:8).

One potential problem with this study is that the researchers interviewed presently active FORT and SIP participants, thus Russell acknowledges that it is unclear whether the perceived attitude changes of FORT participants will persist when they are returned to their previous environments because many are returning to situations where significant others are involved in alcohol and drug abuse or criminal activity." (Russell, et.al., 1993:13). In addition to these potentially negative results, Russell (1993:13-14), offers an alternative perspective which may show a procedural weakness in this study design. It is possible "that as FORT participants moved through the program, they were simply learning to say what others (staff members and researchers alike) expected them to say and wanted to hear. As a result, the previous evaluations of the SIP's and the FORT programs lacked the theoretical and methodological advantages of a theoretical underpinning. A review of relevant theory is necessary to fully support the theoretical proposition as presented in this chapter.

### Criminological (Sociological) Theory

To develop a theoretical hypothesis, an overview of the reigning theoretical perspectives specifically associated with the underpinnings of this study is essential. In order to evaluate and offer suggestions for the programs involved in the reduction of female criminality and recidivism, indicating where theoretical weaknesses exist and why a new perspective for female women criminality is necessary is also an important component of this research.

The approaches to crime control revolve around various theoretical sociological concepts as applied to criminology. Consequently, the best format for understanding the approaches actually utilized will stem from a grounding in the basics of the major theoretical concepts. Regardless of how comprehensive these approaches seem to be, Eileen Leonard (1982:1), insists that the "present theories of criminology are incapable of adequately explaining female patterns of crime." Leonard's supporting rationale can be

briefly summarized by noting that the dominant focus of criminological theory is based on male oriented analysis which is considered inappropriate in describing the reasoning and motivations of female behavior.

In support of this male dominated focus of criminological research, a review of 28 psychological, sociological, penology, and correctional studies on intermediate sanctions and shock incarceration programs ranging from 1970 to 1993, not one focused on female criminals in the system or even made specific mention of such programs.

### The Theories

In the past the criminal was thought to be a person deficient in physical, moral, and/or intellectual capabilities, hence the criminal was objectively and empirically identifiable. Over time, sociological studies of deviance have become investigations of the relationships between the individual and the other members of society as well as with society itself. In other words, modern researchers and theorists perceive that the cause(s) of deviance is rooted in the individual's social interactions and not necessarily in the individual's physical attributes or his or her moralistic convictions. Adolphe Quetelet and Andre Michel Guerry (Adler, et al., 1991) in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries were among the first to suggest that society has more to do with criminal behavior than personal deficiencies. In more recent times, theoretical postulates have multiplied into a wide array of approaches. In general, the approaches (relative to this study) are grouped as follows: Anomic Theories, Cultural Theories, Subcultural Theories, and Social Exchange Theories.

### Anomic theories

Anomic theories stem from and incorporate Emile Durkheim's concept of anomie (1951) which suggest that the absence of social "normative" situations lead to deviant non-normative actions. Robert Merton advanced this concept in his Goal-Means Gap theory (1938) stating that the disparity between the typical American's socialized goal for success is often perceived as unreachable and is even criminally rejected and substituted.

According to Albert Cohen (1965), Merton's theory disregards interactions with others, over-emphasizes the individual actor, and does not recognize the impact of others in determining an individual's response to a situation. In line with this, Taylor (1971) argues that goals develop within the demands of one's reference groups. In summary, "Anomie theory [as is] simply does not lend itself to the careful consideration of subcultures or patterns of interaction existing between the deviant and [their] associated reference group." (Leonard, 1982:60).

### Cultural and Subcultural theories

Relevant Cultural and Subcultural theories include Social Disorganization, Differential Association, Culture Conflict, Differential Opportunity, and Lower class delinquency theories. Social Disorganization theory stems from the Chicago school studies of the 1920's (W.I. Thomas and Florian Znaniecki; Robert Park, and Ernest Burgess; Clifford Shaw and Henry McKay) suggesting that disruption of the social structure so common in the central cities high migration zones are the source of conflict which leads to deviance. Edwin Sutherland later proposed (1939) the theory of Differential Association suggesting that exposure to criminal behaviors combined with sufficient support for those behaviors are responsible for the transmission and continuance of those behaviors. Culture Conflict theory, primarily attributed to Thorsten Sellin (1938), suggests that conduct norms conflict from one group to another and that if a group's conduct norms are in conflict with the group that is in power, then that conduct is labeled as deviant or criminal.

Subcultural theories state that subcultures are the primary source of deviance and criminality. Cloward and Ohlin's (1960) Differential Opportunity Theory suggests that Merton's perceived strain to succeed must be combined with the alternative methods to get ahead and must encompass the means available. Wolfgang and Ferracuti (1967) observed that subcultures sometimes use violence as an often expected response in behavior, hence a subcultural norm. Similarly, Miller's "Lower Class Culture as a Generating Milieu of Gang Delinquency" (1958), suggests that juvenile delinquency found in lower class cultures is not a deviant response to society, but is a norm within that

subculture. As such not only does “adhering to lower-class cultural patterns violate certain legal norms . . . illegal behavior is, in fact, the expected response to certain common situations in lower-class life [and] even when alternatives are available, law breaking often produces more immediate results, with less effort (Leonard, 1982:122). Although sub-cultural theory possesses a great deal of support, Leonard criticizes this approach merely by announcing the obvious. The empirical and theoretical approaches to sub cultural research are almost totally male oriented (1982:138).

### Social Exchange

The actions and behaviors of men and women are the fundamental building blocks of society. Concerning deviance, actions and behaviors of individuals are closely observed in an effort to determine the causal connections that lead average individuals into deviant behaviors. The common question here is "Why do people break the law when they know better?" Social exchange theory suggests that individuals will behave in a manner consistent with perceived rewards and punishments. The propositions of Social Exchange can be summed up as: The more often a person's activity is rewarded, the more likely he/she is to perform that activity (as long as the reward is perceived as desirable). Social exchange generally focuses on a psychological or social psychological aspect of behavior modification in relation to human action. Many theorists argue that human action often goes against classical perspectives of conditioning as is usually thought of in relation to behavior modification (Edgley, 1991). However, again certain elements of this perspective will resurface in the theoretical hypothesis section of this thesis.

### Criminological Theory and Women

The emphasis and focus of this research is the woman offender. The apparent role of women in criminal activities and corrections has increased over time as is indicated by their increased presence in the corrections system,(Adler,1994; Al-Mosleh,1993; Camp, 1993; Ochie,1993; and Sandhu,1993). Fox and Stinchcomb (1994:471) remark that even though, “the female arrest rate is increasing at a faster pace than that of their male counterparts . . . [the number of females arrested] are still a distinct minority.”

Although the numbers of incarcerated women have increased, studies indicate that their crimes have tended to remain categorically the same. Between 1950 and 1970 the percentage of arrests for females in violent crime varied by only 1.6 percent, similarly, six - Type I crimes (not including rape) showed marked differences in only one specific category: Larceny/Theft (Leonard, 1982:27-29). Although these crimes, referred to by Sandhu as cheating crimes, have increased, they have long been noted especially in relation to female offenders.

Durham (1994:110-111) comments that "it is possible that women have become more heavily involved in the kinds of crimes that lead to imprisonment [and] determinate sentencing may also play a role."

Determinate sentencing, according to Durham, strips judges of their discretion in sentencing, which results in a greater impact on those individuals who might have otherwise received community based sanctions as opposed to incarceration. Such determinate sentencing has been found to be especially related to drug related crimes and as many studies have revealed, women in recent years have been implicated in a greater use of drugs than previously thought (Sechrest, et.al., 1979:40-41). "Almost 64 percent of females in 1991 were serving time on drug-related offenses." (Ochie, 1993:126). In explanation of this phenomenon, Hafner (1992:30) offers, that it is "not uncommon in female addicts [to find]the presence of both co-dependency and addictive personality traits." No one perspective will answer all questions of human actions and behaviors. However, there are some theoretical perspectives which combined with statistical and historical records must be evaluated and combined into a re-combinant theoretical perspective. "The study of criminal subcultures [is] rooted to a large extent in anomie theory [which suggests ] stressing the relationship between the structure of society and human behavior."(Leonard, 1982:117). Although "Merton made no attempt to apply his typology to women." (Leonard, 1982:57), He and other Anomie theorists offer a number of suggestive clues which will be considered when presenting a theoretical model of female criminality for this thesis.

It is only when the system of cultural values extols, virtually above all else, certain common symbols of success for the population at large while its social structure rigorously restricts or completely eliminates access to approved modes of

acquiring these symbols for a considerable part of the same population, that anti-social behavior ensues on a considerable scale. (Merton, 1938:680).

In Merton's later works, he made many adjustments to his earlier strict perspectives of culture and success. Specifically, Merton (1957) concedes that wealth is not the only symbol of success in American society and that social groups do not necessarily accept the success goal in precisely the same way. "In a complex society, social norms are not uniformly accepted." (Leonard, 1982:52). However, "Merton asserts that deviant behavior is not necessarily dysfunctional for the values of the group." (1982:53). Not only did Merton recognize that subgroups suffer varying amounts of strain, he admitted that those at the bottom are most severely pressed." (Leonard, 1982:52).

Indeed, American culture must confront a great number of confusing issues. While culturally we possess the official values (defined by the Lynds, 1937) of hard work, honesty, kindness, friendliness, and considerateness. However, we must also be aware of the "unofficial" values informally and unsystematically presented to our young during the process of socialization. These include values supportive of a competitive business-oriented culture which involves "forcefulness, enterprise, shrewdness, and power."

Additional support of the American misalignment of value instilling can be found in the simple statement of an American hero, Vince Lombardi; "Winning isn't everything, it is the only thing." (Barron, 1981:141). Additionally, Barron adds that "Whatever one prefers to call it-independence, individuality, nonconformity, or freedom-there is in American culture a value that pivots around resistance to authority. . . Americans tend to resist rules and regulations."(Barron, 1981:144). As a result of these perspectives, it can be surmised that value conflicts are in evidence to even those Americans who are not deeply rooted in the lower socio-economic subcultures. Inversely, those who are deeply rooted in such a subcultural socio-environmental niche must have even greater value confusion. Thus, deviance at this level is not only a likely product of value disorientation and subcultural interment but also one of functional survival as perceived at the local level. In sum Barron (1981:148) offers that, "American society is a mosaic of ethnic, economic, regional, and other substructures whose conceptions of conformity and norm-violating behavior are frequently in conflict with the legal definitions as well as with each other."

Hence, a system of actions and behaviors would be functional in that, "To the extent that the cultural structure attaches prestige to these alternatives and the social structure permits access to them, the system is somewhat stabilized." (Merton 1957:157).

Additionally, those at the bottom, being less likely to have experienced the sex-role changes were presumably committing criminal acts while maintaining the existing and previously held sex-role expectations.

### Establishing the Theoretical Position of this Research

In order to establish a perspective with which to successfully investigate this particular set of criminal situations, a set of assumptions must be made from which to begin. According to Leonard (1982:191-192):

A structural analysis is obviously required to provide the framework for understanding the connections between women and their patterns of crime . . . a complete understanding of crime (especially in American society) necessitates an analysis of how sex, race, and class interact to produce criminal patterns . . . and by reemphasizing that the roots of crime are found in the impact of structural conditions on social behavior and human potential."

A very important aspect of this research - and indeed any discourse concerning half of the world's population both criminal and non-criminal (specifically the female), is defining their social role.

In sociological terms is it possible for the female of the population to be considered a separate culture or subculture? According to Macionis (1993:28) "a culture is defined as the beliefs, values, behavior, and material objects shared by a particular peoples."

Similarly, "a subculture consists of cultural patterns that distinguish some segment of a societies population." Barbara Wootton (Adler and Simon, 1979: vi) notes:

It is surely, to say the least, very odd that half the population should apparently be immune to the criminogenic factors which lead to the down fall of so significant a proportion of the other half. Equally odd it is, too, that although the criminological experience of different countries varies considerably, nevertheless the sex differentiation remains.



However, because males and females live together within the social structure of culture in general terms, the idea of women belonging to a subculture for the purposes of this thesis is acceptable.

From a strictly criminological perspective, females can be adequately defined within either culture or subculture. The specific differences, with respect to this thesis can be ascertained through several presenting concepts. Women, when defined as a subculture can generally be perceived as possessing different success goals than men. Women, in general, have their goals set in the framework of relational interactions.

Ruth Morris (1964:82) contends that “the goals of women and girls are relational goals (successful relationships with others) rather than the financial goals sought by men . . . . Women are socialized to be particularly sensitive to the opinions of others.” Cohen admits . . . girls are typically fulfilled through relationships with the opposite sex (1955:142). “ I agree with Cohen that, first, males and females have different problems [and] second, they experience different expectations (marital success versus occupational achievement).” (Leonard, 1982:133).

In addition Leonard (1982:39,43) offers that such theoretical positions must include considerations for other factors such as the understanding that “women, often play a secondary role in serious crime” and that typical female offender behavior is “a type of behavior more closely associated with traditional female roles.” Although the means to such roles are not strained, the availability of such roles are somewhat contingent upon on differential stratified access. Thus, those women with access to relationships at the lower social status levels are more confined to achieving success in terms of their social stratification interactions at their most available levels. Merton also noted that the actors involved (regardless of the definition of success) will use any means to gain what they and their society values.

Regardless of the actions of their male counterparts, criminal or not, a lower class female’s means of success may be determined in the supporting of the relationship even if maintaining such a relationship as the goal is by overall cultural standards criminal. “Robin Williams (1970:442) defines social values as “those conceptions of desirable states of affairs that are utilized in selective conduct as criteria for preference or choice or as

justifications for proposed or actual behavior.” Hence, “Failure is viewed as the responsibility of the individual, not as rooted in social sources” (Leonard, 1982:52). Thus, the individual must accept responsibility for their actions for the social pressures which compel their behaviors. Additionally, Lemert (1972) argues that value pluralism is more accurate than patterned value, the patterns that emerge as culturally (or subculturally) patterned values will be based on the majority of those values which possess sufficient thrust so as to create the aggregate behaviors. Although Lemert may be accurate in an equality based system, the values that direct cultural and subcultural actions are patterned due to unequal influence of various social classes and sub-groupings. Thus, to be consistent with the facts, both Merton’s single source of criminal initiation is incorrect as well as Lemert’s extreme value pluralism (based on equal representation of value holding groups). As determined previously, the normal and acceptable actions of a sub-culture may be considered criminal in terms of the culture.

“Increasing female crime is often mistakenly regarded as a necessary result of women attempting to surmount traditional roles and expectations.”(Leonard, 1982:129). Although the population and the general volume of crime is growing overall, the relative amount of female oriented criminal activity is constant. “ In many respects, women have experienced tremendous social change since World War II, particularly regarding employment outside the home and increased education. This, combined with more recent exposure to feminist ideas, has begun to alter traditional sex-role expectations.” (Leonard, 1982:17).

Although the sex-role and their relation oriented success expectations are changing, these changes are perceived as being the greatest among the middle and upper classes. However, the greatest amount of criminal activity, according to official statistics, is perceived to emerge from the lower classes (Leonard,1982:61). The arrest figures at 5 year intervals 1955-1979 for Type I offenses among women shows that out of six categories, only one had a significant, continued increase: that of larceny-theft. (Leonard, 1982:28).

Why have women increased their representativeness in the criminal justice system? Simon (1975) suggested that as women become more liberated they have more

opportunity, and as a result are more likely to become active in crimes. However, according to specific research on this issue Al-Mosleh (1993:117) announced that,

There was no evidence that these female offenders were responding to the feminist movement. They were poor whom the emancipation movement has not yet touched. Similarly, these women were not trying to copy male offenders, they were still committing the same offenses (property offenses, and drug offenses) as they did before. So there is no masculinization of female criminality as alleged.

Bloom and Steinhart (1993:14) suggest that, “ The explanation for this stems from ‘increased rates of incarceration for property and drug offenses and by parole violations.’” Joycelyn Pollock-Byrne (1990:38-38) suggests that tougher sanctions regardless of gender, especially with reference to drug crimes explain the increases. In summary, the female of the lower classes have the goals and means to be locally successful, even if their supportive and relational activities are globally criminal. Thus, if women are considered a subculture based on gender then the cultural/ subcultural theories must be modified.

#### Modification of Anomie Theory for Application in this Sphere of Corrections

Bynum (1989) defines sociology as the scientific study of social systems. Webster’s dictionary defines a system as a regularly interacting and interdependent group of items forming a unified whole. Similarly, social is defined as the interaction of the individual and the group. Thus a social system may be defined as a regularly interacting and interdependent group of people. Some sociological paradigms study social actions from a macro level orientation while others use a micro level orientation. These differing views are merely different vantage points from which the sociologists observe the general in the particular. In summary, sociologists study emerging general patterns of social behavior from both small and large scales of social interactions. These generalized patterns (social properties and social conventions) result from the social interactions of individuals interacting with one another in an effort to communicate meaning and may involve a very few individuals, a very large number of individuals, or varying amounts of individuals representing a compilation of ever larger numbers of other individuals representing large scale socio-institutional structures. In other words, the study of sociology investigates the

attributes of emerging large scale or global (previously defined as a generalized social set of goals and means such as might be referred to as the greatest overall influencing aggregate of local designated goals and means) and small scale or local (previously defined as a localized subcultural perspective as might be encountered within the context of an individual interaction perspective or a small group perspective such as a neighborhood, gang, or other territorial designation) properties that result from interacting individuals in their efforts to communicate meaningfully between one another.

According to Merton (1938:672-682), one such generally (globally) defined property is that of the culturally and socially defined aspirational goals of success. Merton's Anomie Theory (a.k.a. Goal-Means Gap and Strain theory) suggests that the effort to achieve success is modified by the individual based on that individual's perception of (and definition of) and access to the goal (success) and the means available to them in achieving that goal. The modifications which Merton referred to as adaptations, are either 1) Conforming, 2) Ritualistic, 3) Innovative, 4) Retreatist, and 5) Rebellion. Conforming and Ritualistic adaptations are both behaviorally aligned with the means of the society and are therefore not deviant in action; however, the adaptations of Innovation, Retreatism, and Rebellion are non-conforming to the means of the society and result in actions usually deemed as deviant and sometimes criminal. Merton offered these adaptations based on global or generalized cultural definitions of success. However, Albert Cohen (1994) suggests that Merton's Anomie theory provides the framework for a fully integrated theory of criminal behavior. According to Cohen many of the accepted theories of criminal behavior are "couched" within Merton's original framework and can be "fleshed out" (extracted) by applying minor adjustments of definitions, labels, and perspectives (Cohen, 1994).

Specifically, the global definition of success may be applied to local (or micro) levels with no other changes in the theoretical matrix. Thus, a subcultural definition of success may be one of acceptance/obedience/or anti-dissonant goals that are defined locally and have 'means adaptations' that in alignment with the their socio-environmental niche (the term socio-environmental niche is specifically used here because it refers to a localized interactive system , not merely one or two parts of a system as would be male or

female explanations). Therefore, an individual in a subcultural setting (a value segregated group) will possess a definition of success as can be encompassed within the perspectives of their socio-environmental niche. Although the local perspectives may consider one's actions as locally conforming adaptations (conforming or ritualistic), the cultural perspective may be that these actions are deviant.

In sum, an individual may act in accordance with the local expectations of the immediate (and perceptually more important) environment in a manner that is globally deviant and often illegal, yet they are locally conforming based on the local definitions of goals and means. Based on this, the goals and means may be either: 1). Conforming, which is the acceptance of the local goals and the locally determined means. If globally defined as illegally deviant, then this adaptation will lead to incarceration and its associated problems. 2). Ritualistic, which is the rejection of the local goals, but acceptance of the locally defined means - again, if globally defined as illegally deviant, will lead to incarceration and its associated problems. However, it is possible that a program of people changing technologies can alter the individual's choice of adaptations locally and will result in globally conforming behaviors. Nevertheless, if the individual is returned to the same environment, they will be locally perceived as non-conforming and deviant resulting in local social sanctions.

Successful alterations, then, must require a change in the individual's desire and ability to locally alter their actions in relation to goals and means. This necessitates a program which can intervene and influence the individual's desire and ability to 1. Deny, 2. Alter, or 3. Defy - the influences of the local environment. The changes desired would most likely be increased self esteem, self discipline, and self reliance. Self esteem to improve one's self assurance, self discipline to support one resistance against the local value conflicts, and self reliance to allow one to align themselves with a less visible (global) system of ideals. If these changes are made, then the available reactions (based on this model) would be to:

1. Deny the local success definitions (retreatist adaptation) by the rejection of the localized goals and the associated means.

2. Alter the local success definitions (innovation adaptation) by rejection of local success definitions in favor of altering or changing the environment and the associated local success definitions.
3. Defy the local success definitions (rebellion adaptation) by rejection and substitution of local success definitions (rebellion).

Hence, by conforming to a local deviant environment, the individual may be globally deviant. Ritualistic acceptance of the local deviant environment would result in a mind set neutral to the situation, but consisting of actions that are complying locally, but are again likely to be globally deviant. Retreating from the local deviant environmental goals and means would potentially result in conforming global goals and means by default. Innovation would accept the local deviant environmental goals, but the means utilized would possibly be conforming to global means. Finally, Rebellion would also reject the local deviant environmental goals and means, but the substitution of goals and means may be globally non-deviant. Because the alterations of local retreatism, innovation, and rebellion are only potentially in alignment with global aspirational goals of success, specific programs designed to elicit the ideal (globally defined) goals and means must be implemented along with the necessary tools by which the individual can successfully accomplish the specific attitudinal and behavioral alterations. This is the ideal goal of corrections and specifically the kind of focus programs such as the Shock Incarceration Program known as the Female Offender Regimented Training (FORT) program hope to achieve. Although the FORT program has not been designed with this specific theoretical foundation, it maybe a possible tool with which Merton's Anomie theory, as altered by Cohen's Integrated theory, may be supported and potentially tested.

## CHAPTER III

### METHODOLOGY

#### Overview

The achievement of the research objectives will be fulfilled through the following five tasks which were selected and utilized in harmony with the research objectives.

1. A compilation and statistical review of information on FORT participants made available by the Oklahoma Department of Corrections.
2. A Compilation and comparison of the FORT statistics with that of a control group of whom have not participated in the FORT program.
3. The development, administration, and analysis of a research instrument in the form of a questionnaire (see appendix A) designed to elicit the responses of past FORT participants in reference to their views of FORT.
4. Conduct and evaluate interviews with past FORT participants in reference to their FORT experience.
5. Conduct and evaluate interviews with those individuals responsible for the implementation, supervision, and support of the FORT program.

#### PROCEDURES

Recidivism Evaluation and Basic Demographics Matching.

#### TASK 1: FORT

The population studied consisted of all women who had participated in the program (FORT participants). These data were collected by the Oklahoma Department of Corrections from its inmate database. These records were received as four separate files.

File 1 - All Fort Movements (AFTMVS) - consisted of 4,200 records listing all movement codes to and from various facilities, count units, and security levels.

Movements were recorded for the 420 identified FORT participants and averaged 10

movements per individual FORT participant. However, the number of movements per individual ranged from three movements per person to over 40 movements per person.

File 2 (AFTRCP) consisted of 491 records listing all Department Of Corrections (DOC) receptions for those individuals identified as FORT participants. This file contained reception information including start date, sentence length, specific statute violation, adjudicating county, sentence type, crime categories, and violent behavior indicator flags.

File 3 Fort Receptions (FTRCP) consisted of one file per FORT participant (N=420) and contained the demographic information consisting of race, date of birth, age in FORT, grade level achieved, marital status, last reception date, and the beginning and ending dates of FORT participation.

File 4 (FORTSENT) consisted of 932 records listing all DOC sentencing information for those individuals identified as FORT participants. This file contained information already found within the other three files including adjudicating county, statute violation, crime category, sentence length, start date, and violence flag indicator.

The four files were merged and the resulting database consisted of 15,407 records for the 420 FORT participants. Redundant records were removed through computerized matching to reduce the records so that there existed 1 record per individual without loss of pertinent information. This database consisted of the following information for use in this study:

1. A DOC identifying number. This number identifies an individual and each individual under DOC supervision receives only one ID number (regardless of times in and out of DOC supervision)
2. A racial designation indicating the race the individual identifies with. However, this variable could be misleading for two reasons. The individual is self identifying and the category of Hispanic is classified as a race, not an ethnic group.
3. The Date of Birth as given by the individual or her documentation.
4. The NCCD88 Code which is a series of 29 distinct criminal categorizations (see appendix C).



5. A violence flag which indicates whether the individual has been perceived as being violent while in incarceration.
6. Marital Status which indicates status as single or married.
7. Highest educational grade completed, in numerical order. 1 through 12 being the respective grade level, with 12 reflecting a high school diploma or General Equivalency Diploma (GED), 14 indicating either two years of college or an associate degree, 16 indicating a bachelors degree, 18 being a masters degree and above being a doctoral degree. However, because this category is self identifying, some determinants may be misleading. For instance what number does a non-high school graduate with vocational training use?
8. The county of adjudication or where the arrest and prosecution took place. This is most likely the county of the person's residence, but not necessarily so.
9. The date of FORT participation (begin and end dates). This indicates when the individual began and ended the FORT program, this indicating the length of time in the program .
10. Age of the participant in FORT. Although Date of Birth (DOB) and reception dates would allow for a identification of the age while in FORT, this variable provides a validity check of that data.

Flawed files with incorrect information and those with significant data missing were removed from the 420 participants. Such files included those with grade levels = 99, no listed race, no age, FORT start and end dates in the year 1999, and so on. Additionally, all race/ethnic groups other than African American and Caucasian American were removed because these 'other group' categories accounted for an N of 16 which was deemed as too small to provide reliable information for those categories. Also five of these 16 were listed as Hispanic or Mexican of which neither is considered a race.

Further reductions were made to allow time for ex-participants to indicate their success or failure outside of the program. Based on previous studies of success and failure of this type of program and the expert opinion of Criminologist Dr. Harjit Sandhu on

sufficient time out of incarceration to indicate an initial fail or success, all files with a beginning FORT date after January 1, 1994 were removed. With a starting date of November 1991, this gave the period of FORT evaluation a 26 month range.

The final database consisted of an N=254 individuals, each possessing sufficient and qualified information to allow for the selection of a rigorously selected control group.

#### TASK 2: CONTROL

The files of all women who had not participated in the FORT program (non-FORT participants) were collected by the Oklahoma Department of Corrections. These records were also presented in four separate files.

File 1 Female Inmate Movements (FMMVS) consisted of 128,029 records listing all movements recorded for all women who had not been associated with the FORT program from 1979 through June 1994 (n=22,576). This averaged out 5.7 movements per individual FORT participant. However, the number of movements per individual varied widely ranging from three movements per person to over 100 movements per person. File 2 - Non- FORT Female Receptions (FEMRCP) consisted of 24,043 records listing all DOC receptions for those individuals identified as non-FORT participants. File 3 Female Profile (FEMPRO) consisted of one file per non-FORT participant (N=22,576) and contained various demographic information. File 4 - Female Sentences (FEMSENT) consisted of 27,213 records listing all DOC sentencing information for those individuals identified as non-FORT participants.

The four files were merged and the resulting database consisted of 212,575 records for the 22,576 non-FORT participants. Redundant records were removed through computerized matching so that there existed 1 record per individual without loss of pertinent information.

This database consisted of the following information for use in this study: DOC identifying number, race, date of birth, NCCD88 code, violent flag, marital status, highest educational grade received, county of adjudication, dates of incarceration (begin and end dates), and age.

The Population was drawn from a total of 212,575 records concerning the data of 22,576 individuals. The 512 records (who were matched) were reduced to 254 by a constructed random selection procedure utilizing a DOC identification number selected based on a random number table.

### Matching

This database was matched with the FORT group on eight variables. These nine matching variables consisted of race, age, level of education achieved, incarcerating crime categories, date of confinement, number of prior incarcerations, criteria determined necessary for success/failure determination, sentence length, and matching population comparison size. The matching of each variable was done through the use of a random number table so that an appropriate number from the control group was selected for each of the following variables.

### Race

The matched group resulted in 103 African Americans and 251 Caucasian Americans in each group. Racial matching was based on self identification. The racial and ethnic groups (as mentioned above) were reduced to two categories - African American and Caucasian. This procedure simplified several potential problems. Spurious correlations due to the small number of racial and ethnic groups, inconsistent categorization due to differing definitions of specific groups (i.e. Hispanics as a race versus Hispanics as an ethnic group).

### Age

The groups were matched by age grouping. This was achieved by obtaining matching numbers for the following age groups: Less than 23, 23 through 28, 29 through 32, and over 32 (Appendix B for details).

### Education Achieved

The education level achieved was divided into those individuals with less than a High School/GED, those with that level of education (grade 12 completed/ or earned GED), those individuals with some college, and those individuals with a college degree.

### Crime Categories

The crime categories were extracted from the NCCD88 Crime categorization (see appendix B for a complete list). The extraction of the crime categories was based on a reduction of the 29 categories into 3 categories of Drug offenses, Property Offenses, and Violent Offenses.

### Date of Confinement and Prior Incarcerations

Date of Confinement was based primarily on the FORT program to include the date of its inception, and the date the project was initiated. All individuals from the control group that were imprisoned prior to the FORT inception date were removed from the control group database. Thus, levels of prior incarcerations were eliminated from the control group prior to the inception date of the FORT program. Because FORT is specifically for first time offenders, this allowed for a matching group based on previous recidivism as well.

### Success/Evaluation Determination

Although success and failure in correctional programs is usually defined in terms of recidivism, this was determined as insufficient for a true reflection of success for this program evaluation. Usually recidivism (and hence, success and failure) is determined based on re-conviction as revealed within the records of the department of corrections database. However, the purpose of the FORT program was not merely to alter the re-conviction rates of the participants, but to enhance the positive behavioral attributes of the participant. The goal is that these behavioral alterations will result in many quality of life changes for the participant inclusive of recidivism reduction. Therefore, a determination was made that recidivism in this project consisted of behavioral failures after the period of FORT participation (among the FORT participants) and similar behavioral failures among the non-FORT participants after an equal period of time in the prison setting.

Therefore, the determination of Failure and Success was decided by the review of individual Count Unit movement codes for all 508 individuals based on whether the individual was released from FORT and then later re-incarcerated; If and when disciplinary

action followed release from incarceration; and if an individual became listed as an escapee. Considerations were taken in all questionable situations (individually) which included crime, length of sentence, start date, security code changes and movement types.

#### Sentence Length

The Control Group individuals were also matched on sentence length with the FORT group. Specifically, all FORT members received 10 years or less sentences, and the control group was filtered removing all individuals with sentences longer than 10 years.

### TASK 3: Survey

#### Step 1: Design and Implementation

A survey was designed with the goal of gaining 100 respondents who were prior FORT participants. Prior participants were selected for several reasons. Previous participants have had time for artificial enthusiasm to wear off so that they may be more objective in their evaluations of the program and their role within the program. Additionally, as indicated by Palumbo and Peterson (1994) there is the possibility of increasing honesty in the respondents answers. Palumbo and Peterson (1994) noted that their respondents (present Shock Incarceration Participants) were scoring various attributes of the program evaluation suspiciously high. Their analysis of these high scores were that they are 1. Reflecting the positive attitude imposed upon them in their minute by minute supervised life within the program, 2. They were reflecting the attributes of the Hawthorn effect, 3. They were concerned about potential retaliation of prison staff if they were associated with negative or low scoring responses.

The developed survey was designed with several attributes of research, efficiency, social responsibility, and flexibility in mind. The research attributes included covering the expected demographic characteristics: age, race, marital status, education, and children. Additionally, specific corrections related information was requested: Felony convictions and incarcerations. Other desired information included: 1) Length of participation in the program, 2) participation in the various programs offered (GED, Drug education, and

parenting skills training), 3) Evaluation of the various parts of the FORT program in reference to how helpful these programs were in reference to avoiding criminal activity and drug use, 4) Problems participants faced upon re-entry to the outside world, 5) Information concerning aftercare following release, and 6) suggestions to improve the FORT program for future participants.

The questionnaire was designed for efficiency in reference to considerations for mailing purposes (one sided versus two sided) and overall complexity of wording, length and visual appearance of density.

The questionnaire reflected social responsibility by requesting only pertinent information as could be thought of prior to actual field work, by including complete instructions, and by the accompaniment of consent forms which have no potential for cross-connecting with the surveys. In addition, when the surveys were given out, the verbal instructions included the comment that this information is completely anonymous and that the researchers who were handling the information were not employees of the Oklahoma Department of Corrections. Of no less importance is the approval by Oklahoma State University's Institutional Review Board (See Appendix B).

Finally, the flexibility aspect of the survey was in the design of the questions which allowed for both closed and open ended questions allowing the respondent to answer in as brief (but still usable form) or as complex a manner as they desire. Thus, although the respondents provide numerical responses, the open ended responses allow for a greater depth of response.

#### Analysis of the survey Data

The survey data had to be adjusted for various differing perspectives. Some analysis outcomes would point to situations that also suggested a potential for analysis of significance if some variable were collapsed or expanded. As a result many programs were written to analyze this data.

### Success/Failure

One particular example of this was the assumption of what would constitute a success or failure based on two questions within the survey instrument. Does the arrest of a parolee constitute failure or does conviction? A combination of labeling (the likelihood that a person labeled as ex-con will be more closely supervised) and radical theory (the likelihood that those most likely be arrested if observed in compromising situations) would be those perceived to be most at risk. Hence, the police may, in fact make arrests of parolees when a non-labeled individual may not be arrested. However, a conviction of a parolee would indicate guilt and thus a failure of the corrections system and the person being arrested.

A second aspect of the success/failure is that those inmates who have never been released were deleted from all analysis programs which were utilizing the success/failure formula.

### Quality and Usefulness of Generated Data

In any research design utilizing generated quantitative data, reliability, validity, and generalizability are of utmost importance if the research is to be considered useful. The concept and definition of each will be discussed under individual headings.

#### Reliability

Carmines and Zeller (1979:12) define reliability as whether the test applied repeatedly would yield similar results. The questionnaire was evaluated by the researchers of this project and the Institutional Review Board of Oklahoma State University. The ability to pretest was unavailable due to the particular access of availability of the respondents. However, the reliability of each item was verified in as described below through the questionnaire verification process.

#### Validity

The concept of validity (Carmines and Zeller, 1979:12) is suggested to be the actuality that the data collection procedures truly measures as supposed. The data collection procedures of this study included the datasets supplied by the Oklahoma

Department of Corrections (ODOC), two sets of interviews, and a questionnaire. Again, the validity of each item was verified as described below through the questionnaire verification process.

#### Verification Process Of Questionnaires

To control for this, all respondents at Eddie Warrior, Mabel Bassett, and Kate Bernard Correctional Centers were individually supervised during and questioned after the process of completing the questionnaire. These follow-ups served two functions in reference to reliability. 1) did the respondents include answers of the nature expected, 2) did the respondents understand the questions as asked. This process allowed for enhanced interaction and personal communication with the respondent. Although the respondents were supervised during the actual completion phase of the questionnaire, both researchers have been trained and experienced in psychological counseling and interviewing techniques so as to allow for communication with as little influence as possible.

#### Summary Of Validity And Reliability

The validity and reliability of the DOC data can only be inferred as valid in that the data supplied was what the DOC accepted as official and legal, the validity is thus based on the assumption that this government entity is capable of extracting as valid and reliable information as is possible. The fact that the researchers were present to conduct interviews with 39 of the 100 respondents provided a measure of security in reference to evaluating the validity and reliability of the instrument.

#### STEP 2: Analysis Of The Survey

The surveys were given to several Department of Corrections Probation Officers. These individuals passed the surveys on to their clientele who had been in the FORT program. All individuals who were responsible for the surveys were provided instructions applying to the administration of the questionnaires. The surveys were returned either in person or by mail. Additional surveys were completed by the researchers at three Correctional Institutions: Mabel Bassett, Eddie Warrior, and Kate Bernard Correctional



Centers -- all of whom held past FORT participants. A total of 95 surveys were completed.

The surveys were coded and input into a computer database for analysis. A total of 38 variables were used to analyze the data presented. Thirty questions were of a closed ended format, and eight questions were open ended. The coding of the questionnaires varied depending on the type of question (open or closed). Closed ended responses required coding in a simple interval format while the open ended questions required a content analysis and collapsing into generalized categories of the materials presented.

Three additional factors were added to the questionnaires after our reception. One was a simple survey numbering system for accounting purposes, a second was added to designate those inmates who had and who had not been released from incarceration since their FORT experience. This was especially important in evaluating those questions which requested information about probation officers, outside problems, and other data not available to those individuals who have not yet been released from incarceration. The third variable added was a variable which indicated comments which were indicated within various statements of open-ended questions that reflected thoughts or actions relative to the theoretical position of social integration as applied to this study.

#### TASK 4: Interviews with FORT Participants and Personnel.

Interviews were conducted with approximately 40 ex-FORT participants. The interviews were unstructured with respect that the interviewers did not utilize a prepared script and response scenario. Rather, each set of interviews were discussed between the researchers and prior to each meeting each researcher prepared a set of pertinent questions based on data available at that time.

#### TASK 5: Interviews with FORT Related Personnel.

Interviews were conducted on site at Department of Corrections facilities (Eddie Warrior Correctional Center, and a variety of probation and parole offices. The individuals interviewed included those individuals directly involved with the program operations, those involved with aftercare and probation, and past FORT participants several

Department of Corrections personnel that were tied in some manner to the program.

Those individuals interviewed included administrators, direct FORT supervisors and instructors, probation and parole officers and counselors. Each interview was an open ended discussion in which the respondents provided the researchers with information they believed was pertinent. In addition, several specific probing questions were asked by the researchers. Some of these probing questions were previously devised others were follow-up questions in response to information gained during the interview.

#### Statistical Procedures

Several Statistical Analysis Systems (SAS) programs were designed to generate the statistical tables. All demographic and criminological data were cross referenced for analysis. The data was varied containing both nominal data (such as county of adjudication) and interval (such as age, grade etc.).

Within the three numerical data sets (DOC Database of FORT Participants, DOC data sets of non-FORT participants, and the data generated through the questionnaires) all data was rigorously controlled for errors. The frequencies tables generated by SAS were individually evaluated and compared to the data for consistency checks which included both visual error checks as well as numerical or alphanumeric benchmarks to reveal any data that is incorrect in content or location within the data set.

The design of the databases constructed from the data sets provided for a variety of error control measures when combined with the SAS analysis programs. These included structural layouts which provided for errors based on simple appearance. Each dataset (and all variables) were processed in the merging stages of the database development a minimum of four times to eliminate error, double check various 'suspicious' indications including such as the number of children, entry dates, ages, educational levels, racial and ethnic categories, etc. Occasional possible errors that could not be clarified through this process were cross verified with the department of corrections databases and personnel.

Two errors were located in the FORT database provided by the DOC. One consisted of alpha-numeric indicators of marital status and one date file which consisted of

an impossible entry date. The marital status of the data set was initially determined to be comprised of all single females. Only upon further evaluations based on the questionnaire data, was the error found. The researchers determined that the single status is a default setting within the Department of Corrections dataset and when no marital status is specifically registered, the system defaults to single as the marital status.

A second error concerning the entry date was discovered when the entire database showed that all FORT entrees began in 1999. This is an impossible situation as many individuals have already entered and left the FORT program. The Department of Corrections determined that this was a cross-referencing error in the data transfer to the researchers and quickly remedied the situation by supplying the correct data. Unfortunately, the marital data for the computer database was not so easily corrected and the evaluation of the data continued with all FORT participants listed as single.

#### Summary And Additional Methodological Information

In summary, the DOC data was as comprehensive as could be realistically hoped for given that the primary goal of the DOC is keeping track of the inmates, not in maintaining a sociological database. Although some potentially desirable information was not available, the pertinent information for the evaluation of the program was acceptable, reasonable, and accurate. The questionnaires would also have been improved if a pre-test could have been available. However, the fact that the number of FORT participants is rather limited as well as access to them also being limited, made the pre-test an unrealistic goal. Moreover, the follow-up interviews by the researchers allowed for verification of the data on an item by item basis, thus removing doubt of the type of information the questionnaire sought. Additionally, the presence of the researchers and the follow-up interview allowed for an in-depth level of interaction and data gathering that was not even considered at the initiation of the project. As a result the methodological aspect of this research exceeds the goals and desires of the researchers in that the available information is perceived to be of greater than sufficient quantity, quality, and depth than expected.

Although the sample of questionnaires is only 100, and the entire universe of the FORT participants at the time was 432 (Check this number), the ability to generalize this information seems reasonable for two reasons. One: the sample consisted of nearly a full 25% of the universe; Two: the sample responses on demographic and other statistical data did not significantly differ from the sample of FORT demographic statistics as provided by the DOC (254 or over 50% of the universe).

## CHAPTER IV

### The Findings

The results of the research presented in this chapter will be described in content, however interpretations will follow in Chapter 5. Three datasets are presented.

The three datasets are: 1. The data provided from the Oklahoma Department of Corrections on past Female Offender Regimented Training participants (FORT); 2. The data provided from the Oklahoma Department of Corrections on female non-FORT participants; and 3. The data generated in the questionnaire phase of the research.

The two interview datasets will be presented without comparisons of significance. Because the interviews were of an unstructured format, each is unique in substance and quality, therefore although the information gained from the interviews provide greater understanding of the human element with relation to the FORT program, this format does not lend itself to tests of significance or comparisons across interview sets or across methodological styles. Hence, each set of interviews allows for an internal substantive comparison, not statistical comparisons between datasets.

#### Overview Of The Three Datasets

As discussed in Chapter 3, the FORT population was selectively drawn from a universe of 420 past FORT participants. The selected sample, consisting of only Caucasian Americans (referred to interchangeably as Caucasian, Caucasian American, and White) and African Americans (referred to interchangeably as African American and as Black), were those who participated in the FORT program within the specified time frame and upon whom the Department of Corrections (DOC) maintained sufficient information for the analysis portion of this study.

The control group was drawn from a population of 22,576 Oklahoma Department of Corrections identification numbers (each number is presumed unique to an individual). These represent 22,576 female inmates who have been within the Oklahoma Department of

Corrections jurisdiction between 1979 and 1994 and who have not been participants of the FORT program. From this number a matching process was initiated (see chapter 3 for matching details) and both the final resulting sample and the FORT group were comprised of 151 Caucasians (59.45%) and 103 African Americans (40.55%).

The population of the survey group was selected by availability and access. Hence this group possessed almost no selection control. However, the survey population resulted in an N of 100; 43 white females (43.4%), 38 black females (38.4%), and 18 other females (18.2%) -- all of whom had been participants in the FORT program.

### Sample Population Characteristics

#### Race

As indicated in Table 1, both the Fort Participants and the Control group have similar demographic characteristics. Each have an N of 254; consisting of 103 black females (40.55%); and 151 white females (59.45%).

To gain a perspective of the Caucasian and African-American proportions, the category ratio B/W provides a comparison value of the fractional number of African-Americans in the sample for every Caucasian. Caucasian is used as the base indicator due to the fact that the Caucasian group possessed the greatest number of individuals across all three populations researched. As a result of this introduced value, a ratio is revealed indicating a somewhat varied, but generally similar racial makeup. Specifically, the FORT and Control groups maintain a 0.68 ratio of blacks to whites (0.68 blacks for every white) while the survey group maintains a 0.881 ratio (0.882 blacks for each white) indicating that among those surveyed, a greater proportion of blacks were represented than in the DOC statistical samplings by 0.199 more African Americans per individual Caucasian.

#### Age

The mean age of the various groups range from 25.32 years for the survey population to 28.13 for the Control group, with the FORT group falling in-between with a

mean age of 27.96. The single largest age cluster of the both sample populations FORT and Control consisted of individuals in the 'less than 23' age group. Although the survey group amassed the greatest cluster in the 'greater than 32' age group, this was found to be insignificant as statistical tests provided no indication that age was a significant factor. In addition, the fact that the FORT and Control groups cluster most in the younger age categories is consistent with the proposition that SIP programs should focus on the younger population with the goal of diverting would-be career criminals.

#### Achieved Education

Table 1 indicates that the numerical mean of 12.15 ( which is indicative of a high school diploma or an achieved GED) for the survey group is a higher mean achieved educational grade level than the FORT or the Control groups (10.80 and 10.81 respectively, reflecting an educational achievement of just below an 11th grade education). More specifically, 49.06% of the survey population earned at least a H.S. degree or GED while only 32.68% of the Control population and 35.04% of the FORT group had achieved this level. However, the greatest proportion of any one achieved level for all groups is predominately among the 'less than H.S. or GED level' which is consistent with most criminal studies to date.

#### Success/Fail

The most important differences among the groups lie in the '% Fail' category. The FORT group shows a 33.86% failure over the entire 26 month test period. The Control group nearly matches this with a 36.61% failure rate. However, the survey group contains a mere 6.00% failure rate. It should be noted, however, that the survey group cannot, and was not, used for a comparison of success/fail simply because it was not a matched sample (demographic or otherwise) and also because many of the respondents are still incarcerated, never having been released since their completion of the FORT program.

The significance of the differences between the FORT and Control groups will be more carefully evaluated in another section of this chapter.

TABLE 1  
CHARACTERISTICS OF THE  
THREE SAMPLE GROUPS

		FORT N=254	Control N=254	Survey N=100
<b>Race</b>		%	%	%
	Black	40.55	40.55	38.40
	White	59.45	59.45	43.40
	Other	0.00	0.00	18.20
	Total	100.00	100	100.00
	Ratio B/W	0.682	0.682	0.881
<b>Age</b>	Mean Age	27.96	28.13	25.32
		%	%	%
	<23	29.92	28.35	20.02
	23-28	20.87	25.59	13.10
	29-32	22.44	18.50	27.30
	>32	26.77	27.56	36.40
<b>Education</b>	Mean Grade	10.80	10.81	12.15
		%	%	%
	<GED	64.96	67.32	41.80
	HS Degree	27.95	26.38	24.50
	Some Col.	6.30	5.51	20.45
	Coll. Deg	0.79	0.79	4.11
<b>Success/Fail</b>	% Fail	33.86	36.61	6.00



### Significance of Differences

The percentages of failures and (by default) successes for FORT, Control, and the survey group are revealed in table 2. The chi square comparisons of the FORT and the Control groups in reference to the failure rate indicates no statistical significance (Chi-square significant at 0.423 level, much above the usually accepted minimum of a .05 confidence level). In other words, the two groups achieve the same level of success/failure regardless of the program utilized. This would seem to suggest that the two programs -- normal incarceration programs and FORT programming offer no significant improvement over one another. However, this does not signify as to whether the failures of the two programs are the same type of person, hence one program may be more beneficial to one type of individual while the other program may be more of a benefit to a different type of person.

TABLE 2

#### SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCES

	FORT Group		Control Group		Chi Sq.*
	N	%	N	%	
Failed	86	34	93	37	
Not Failed	168	66	161	63	
Total	254	100	254	100	0.435

\*not significant

### Significance of Differences by Race

When the failure/success of the two groups (FORT and Control) are compared above there is no statistical difference. However, tables 3 and 4 reveal a greater discrimination, which suggests that Caucasians may have a greater reaction to the FORT program than African Americans. Specifically, while the African American group (table 3) indicates identical success/fail relationships (failed = 28.64% of the total for both control and FORT groups), the Caucasian faction of the FORT group (table 4) suggests an

increased influence from FORT participation (33.77 % failures for the FORT participants versus 36.09% failures for the control group). Unfortunately, statistical analysis (using the Chi Square procedure) again shows no significant difference at .05 or better confidence level. Therefore, the variance between groups is not significant and is statistically irrelevant. Thus, although initial appraisals suggest that the FORT program may be more successful with Caucasians, statistics indicate that the positive effects of the FORT program on recidivism are non-existent for FORT participants in general as well as by racial grouping.

TABLE 3  
SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCES  
(AFRICAN AMERICAN)

	FORT Group		Control Group		Chi Sq.*
	N	%	N	%	
Failed	28	29	28	29	
Not Failed	75	71	75	71	
Total	103	100	103	100	0.00

\* Chi-square not significant.

TABLE 4  
SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCES  
(CAUCASIAN)

	FORT Group		Control Group		Chi Sq.*
	N	%	N	%	
Failed	51	33.77	54	35.76	
Not Failed	100	66.33	97	64.24	
Total	151	100.00	151	100.00	0.233

\* Chi-square not significant.

#### FORT DATA

As indicated in Table 5, FORT participants involvement (based on convictions) in drug related crimes (52.76%) is the greatest single area of criminal participation; more so

than all the other categories combined. This is the number one crime orientation for both races reviewed. The crime category of property offenses accounts for the second most prolific area of criminal activity (35.43%), and the violent crime category is the least recorded offense with 10.63%. The statistics recorded here reflect the general criteria of the FORT program. Specifically, the efforts to influence individuals who were convicted of drug related crimes are the primary focus of the FORT program. Second in importance are those criminal convictions of property offenses, which are often associated with substance abuse and hold a good potential of showing marked improvement with respect to recidivism as substance abuse related programs are implemented. Finally, although violent offenses are also drug and alcohol related, they are perceived as those crimes most expected to receive punishments, and are not considered in the FORT related literature as a focus of SIP type programs. However, although these violent offenders do manage to gain admittance to these programs, they are (as previously noted) by far the minority of offense types.

In addition to this general viewpoint, a race specific glance at the percentages is of interest. Whereas whites show a greater level of participation in drug related crimes (3.81% more), blacks, on the other hand, indicate an increased activity in participation among violent crimes (3.35% more). This deviation may account for the impression given in table 3 that blacks are less responsive to the FORT program.

TABLE 5

FORT PARTICIPANTS VS RACE  
AND TYPE OF CRIME

Race Crime	African American		White		All	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Property	35	35	55	36.42	90	35.43
Drugs	52	52	82	54.3	134	52.76
Violent	13	13	14	9.272	27	10.63
Total	100	100	151	100	251	98.82

### Control Data

Similar to the FORT group, the control group (table 6) also shows the greatest level of involvement (based on convictions) in drug related crimes (53.54%). Property crimes again account for the second most prolific area of criminal activity (35.43%), and violent crimes come in last with a mere 7.087%. This is of special interest since the SIP programs (such as FORT) are designed especially for drug related offenders.

Whereas whites, in the FORT group (table 5) were involved in a greater level of participation in drug related crimes than blacks, table 6 offers no such distinctive difference. None-the-less, blacks show an increased level of representation among the violent crime category (2.78% more than whites).

A re-examination of the proportions of the three crime categories provides some potential insights. If the missing 11 individual offenses are violent, which would balance the violent category in both sample populations, then the drug related offenses would show an equal balance which would indicate an improper admission screening based on the premise of the FORT program. On the other hand, if the missing 11 individual offenses are not violent but are drug and/or property offenders, then again the FORT program is over-representing violent offenders. Hence, regardless of the approach taken concerning the missing offender categories, it appears that the FORT program is over-represented in the violent offender category. Since this is more typically indicative of the black population, the indications that the FORT program is potentially more influential among whites than blacks is misleading due to the possibility that the offense category (rather than the race category) is an inhibitor of the programs potential positive influence.

TABLE 6  
CONTROL GROUP VS RACE AND TYPE OF CRIME

Race Crime	African American		White		All	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Property	35	33.981	51	33.77	86	33.86
Drugs	56	54.369	80	52.98	136	53.54
Violent	9	8.7379	9	5.96	18	7.087
Total	100	97.087	140	92.72	240	94.49

### SURVEY DATA

The responses to the questionnaire provided the following information:

1. What initiated the respondents participation in the FORT program? Of the respondents, 78.9% were ordered by the court to participate in the FORT program, 20.0% were sent to FORT following review at LARC (the Lexington Assessment and Reception Center), the remaining 1.1% requested to participate.
2. The demographic information of the respondents in the FORT program showed that the survey participants were comprised of the following:

#### Age

Age was divided into five categories with 99% responding. 20.02% were under 23 years of age, 13.1% were 23-28 years old, 27.3% were 29 to 32 years old and 36.4% were over 32 years of age.

#### Race

The racial makeup of the survey group consisted responses based on self identification. The specifics were 43.4% Caucasian, 38.4% African American, and 18.2% other.

### Education

The educational level of the survey group consisted of 41.8% with less than a high school degree or completion of GED certificate. 24.5% held a high school degree as their highest achieved educational level, 21.5% possessed some college, and 13.9% had received at least a four year college degree.

### Marital Status

32.0% of the respondents claimed that they were never married. 21.6 claimed that they were common-law married, 12.4% claimed that they were married, and 33.0% claimed that they were divorced or separated.

### Times Married

39.8% were never married, 40.8% were married once, 12.2% twice, 6.1% three times, and 1% four times.

### Number of Children

The respondents offered that 18.4% had no children, 22.4% had one child, 19.4% had two children, and 40.8% had 3 or more children.

### 3. Participant Evaluation Of The Effectiveness of the Fort Program.

The FORT participants were asked to rate FORT in terms of effectiveness in helping them stay away from crime (scale 1) and drugs (scale 2) upon release. In considering the FORT program in general, an overwhelming proportion (94% on one scale and 83% on the other) agreed that the FORT program was helpful. The various facets of the FORT project were also evaluated by the participants in relation to staying free drugs and criminal activity. These facets consisted of GED programs, substance abuse programs, Parenting skills training, and the basic drill and discipline complement of the FORT program. Although the FORT evaluation overall was positive, these facets received mixed reviews.

In scale 1, the GED program was selected as helpful by 66% of the group, not helpful by 23%, with the remaining 15% not responding at all. In scale 2 the response was similar 60% helpful, 27% not helpful, and 13% no response.

The Substance abuse program (MRT/Healthnetwork) received a positive response on scale 1 with 87%, negative response 8%, and 5% no response. On scale 2, this facet received a positive vote in 86% of the responses, negative in 7% as well as no response.

However, the great positive response to the previous programs falters when the Parenting Skills program is evaluated. This program a positive response on scale 1 with only 53%, a negative response 39%, and 3% no response. Reviews on scale 2 indicate no better review. On this scale, a positive response was recorded in only 51% of the responses, while the negative response again received a 39% response and the no response category was a full 10%.

The Drill and Discipline program was well received with 88% recording a positive response on scale 1, 11% negative response, and 1% no response. On scale 2, Drill and Discipline received 83% positive responses, 13% negative responses, and 4% with no response.

#### 4. The Problems Associated With Returning To Society After FORT.

The problems encountered were grouped into 9 categories before collapsing after theoretical considerations. The categories were initially based on the first response recorded as many responses were usually given. A few individuals gave no response and a few individuals have yet to be released from incarceration, hence items 1 and 8. These 9 areas were 0. No response, 1. Job related, 2. Drugs and alcohol related, 3. Family problems, 4. Reintegration into society, 5. Peer relationships, 6. Coping in general, 7. Self related, and 8. Not applicable.

Although the complete set of problems were evaluated when looking into the theoretical considerations, the usual instructions for interviewing suggests that the first response reflects the most immediately concerning problem. At this point then, the problems recorded were as follows: 18.2% gave no response, 28.3% stated job related problems first,

14.1% responded with drugs and/or alcohol related problems, 7.1% said that family problems were first to come to mind, 17.2% gave responses that were best classified as social reintegration problems, problems with peer relationships accounted 1.0%, 4.0% had difficulty coping in general, 8.1% gave responses that were best described as self related, and 2.0% were not applicable.

#### Post Fort Arrests Vs Cited Problems

Among those 20 FORT participants who were arrested (table 7) 47.92% cited that finding a job was the problem listed first when citing problems they faced upon release from incarceration. The problem item 'social re-integration' proved to represent 27.08% of the various problems listed.

Table 7 indicates that among those 10 FORT participants who were again convicted after release from FORT, 14.29 % cited job related problems as the most significant of problems they encountered upon trying to re-enter life on the outside. However, the problem item 'social re-integration commanded a 57.14% of the various problems listed among those individuals who were listed as a failure.

It must be noted that the citing of job related problems was the # 1 problem prior to collapsing of several sub-categories into one referred to as social re-integration. However the categories of drugs and alcohol, reintegration into society, and peer relationship were combined into the single category of social integration as a problem based upon the qualitative remarks made in the interviews and on the surveys.

As a result, these categories were viewed as socio-environmental in nature and the phrase 'social reintegration' was deemed as the most appropriate sociological term which would fit the overall conceptualization necessary to contain the scope of this variable. Such statements included comments such as "When I go home, I will be around the same old crowd", "When I get out of here I go back and my friends just won't take no for an answer (in reference to drug use)", "My husband will still be using, and its very hard to be around him and his friends without using."



The conceptualization of these comments and survey reports could also be termed as material and non-material in nature, however, for the purposes of this report and as will be indicated in chapter 5 the use of the phrases 'socio-environmental' and 'social integration' are more appropriate.

Although these statements comprise only a sampling of the comments recorded in the surveys, statements very similar in content and meaning were made in virtually every interview conducted. However, the interviews were not recorded and therefore such comments were only briefly noted, thus exact quotes of all interviews are not available.

In summary, the problems faced by these individuals reflected in table 7 are consistently job or socio-environmentally related.

TABLE 7  
POST FORT ARRESTS AND CONVICTIONS  
VS CITED PROBLEMS

Problems Cited	Arrested N=20	Convicted N=14
Job	5	2
Family	2	1
Reintegration	10	8
Housing	1	1
Self	2	2

#### Social Integration and Incarceration History

As a result of Table 7's indication that an important relationship between convictions and social-reintegration may exist, table 8 takes a more focused approach in evaluating this relationship. Is there a connection between social reintegration and the number of incarcerations a person has? Table 8 shows that 53.66 % of those with no listed social reintegration problems had only 1 incarceration. Thus, the higher the number of incarcerations, the lesser one's ability to socially re-integrate in to normal society. Inversely,

the greater one's ability to socially integrate in normal society, the less likely one is to be re-committed.

TABLE 8  
NUMBER OF PRIOR INCARCERATIONS VS CITED  
PROBLEMS OF SOCIAL INTEGRATION

Re-Integration Problems?	Yes	No	Chi Value
No Prior Incarcerations	19	44	
1 or more Prior Incarcerations	11	8	4.84

\* Chi Square significant at .028 level.

Post FORT Arrests and Convictions in relation to Substance Use

Table 9 indicates that 87.50 % of those respondents who were arrested following release from incarceration and 81.25% of those respondents who were convicted following release from incarceration were using drugs and/or alcohol. Inversely, 80.00 % of those respondents who were not arrested following release from incarceration and 71.21% of those respondents who were not convicted following release from incarceration were not using drugs and/or alcohol. The chi square relationship on this set of variables (32.747 for arrests and 14.895 for convictions) is strongly suggestive of significance with respect to the use of drugs and alcohol, arrests and convictions.

TABLE 9  
POST FORT ARRESTS AND CONVICTIONS  
VS ALCOHOL/DRUG USE

Used Drugs and/or Alcohol	Arrested		Not Arrested		Chi Value	Convicted		Not Convicted		Chi Value
	N	%	N	%		N	%	N	%	
Yes	21	87.5	12	20		13	81.25	19	25	
No	3	12.5	48	80	32.75	3	18.75	57	75	14.90

\* chi-square significant at .001 level

### Extent of Alcohol/Drug Use and Post FORT Arrests

The extent of drug or alcohol use was determined by questionnaire responses to the question "What was the involvement or the extent of involvement (with drugs or alcohol)?" This led to a determination of extent as being - none, lesser in severity of type or usage, or greater in severity of type or usage. Table 10 illustrates that the extent or severity of use was heavier among a considerable proportion of those arrested (70.83%) than among those not arrested (18.33%). The chi square value (at the .001 level of confidence) of the arrested (22.275) offers support for this result. Thus, these findings provide supportive evidence to the results from table 9 (above) which is suggestive that severe or significant use of or involvement in drugs and or alcohol is a factor in the success or failure of those respondents.

TABLE 10

#### POST FORT ARRESTS VS EXTENT OF ALCOHOL OR DRUG USE

Extent of Use	Arrested		Not Arrested		Chi Value
	N	%	N	%	
Not Applicable	5	20.83	44	73.33	
Light	2	8.33	5	8.33	
Heavy	17	70.83	11	18.33	22.275

\* chi-square significant at .001 level.

### Non-Failures and Continued Drug Program After Release

In light of the statistics given in the table 9 and 10, the information in table 11 is concerned with whether the individual that continues with the substance abuse program (usually Health Network or Moral Reconciliation Therapy) stays free from substance abuse. If such programs do appear to have a significant influence then this could be a very important intervening variable concerning an individual's likelihood of being successful

following a program such as FORT. The results, as indicated in table 11, inform us that 68.89 percent of individuals who claim to be free of substance abuse also continue with these programs while only 31.11 percent claim to continue with the program, but also again use drugs and/or alcohol.

Thus, it appears that the POST incarceration participation in substance abuse programs are not only seemingly affirmative, but, based on the chi square value of 4.834 (at a confidence level of .028) is statistically significant and therefore certainly indicative of a useful and important part of such programs as FORT.

TABLE 11  
NON-FAILURES VS CONTINUED DRUG  
PROGRAM AFTER RELEASE

Continued	Free From Alcohol and Drugs		Not Free From Alcohol and Drugs		Chi Value
	N	%	N	%	
Yes	31	68.89	7	38.89	4.834
No	14	31.11	11	61.11	

\* chi-square significant at .028 level.

#### Post FORT Arrests and Convictions in relation to Length of Aftercare

In table 12 the attribute of aftercare with respect to being arrested is analyzed. Similar to the continuation of drug programs (as discussed above and in table 12), the continuance of care following release from supervision would seem to be important. The findings as indicated in table 12 demonstrate this. Specifically, those individuals not arrested and presently in aftercare or were in aftercare for more than six months show the greatest resistance to being arrested (Chi square = 7.281 at .026 level of confidence).

In table 12 a pattern is revealed when looking at the column of 'not arrested' statistics. Of those not arrested, those in aftercare for less than 3 months represented the

smallest percentage of this group (11.11%). The percentage of those not arrested in aftercare for three to six months show an increased representation of 27.78%. And those not arrested, who were in aftercare for more than six months or who were still in aftercare at the time of the survey show the greatest representation (61.11%). This suggests that the extent of involvement in aftercare reflects an extent of resistance to re-offending or in other words the more involved one is with the aftercare component, the greater the likelihood they will remain free from arrests.

TABLE 12  
POST FORT ARRESTS VS AFTERCARE

Length of Aftercare	Arrested		Not Arrested		Chi Sq
	N	%	N	%	
<3 Months	5	35.72	4	11.11	7.281*
3-6 Months	6	42.86	10	27.78	
6+ Months or presently in	3	21.43	22	61.11	

\* Chi-square significant at .026 level.

#### GED as Helpful Staying Free From Drugs and Alcohol Vs Post FORT Arrests

Similar to the influence found in the substance abuse programs offered in FORT, a structured educational programs focused on achieving a GED was perceived by the FORT participants to be of assistance in staying free from drugs and alcohol. Specifically, among those individuals who were not arrested, 60.71 percent indicated that they felt the GED training was helpful in staying free from drugs and alcohol. However, 88.24 percent of those arrested suggested that the GED program was of a help in staying away from substance abuse. Statistically, as indicated in table 13, all of the above findings were significant. The not arrested group resulted in a chi value of 4.476 at .034 level of confidence. Based on this it appears that the inmates perceptions do not reflect reality.

TABLE 13  
POST FORT ARRESTS VS DGED

DGED Helpful?	Arrested		Not Arrested		Chi Sq.
	N	%	N	%	
YES	15	88.24	34	60.71	
NO	2	11.76	22	39.29	4.476*

\* chi-square significant at .034 level.

#### Pre-FORT Felony Convictions and Post FORT Arrests and Convictions

The impact of previous incarcerations upon behavior is well known. However, many individuals who are criminal in action are convicted, but do not receive a sentence that demands incarceration. Therefore, in such situations the conviction fixes the guilt, but studies (such as this) that rely on statistical analysis based on incarcerations may offer misleading conclusions. Thus, a statistical review of convictions is potentially useful in qualifying the source of failures or successes.

As indicated in table 14, the findings of this study found that, of those individuals arrested following release from fort, 62.5% had a previous conviction (other than the conviction leading to participating in the FORT program). Of those not arrested, 68.97% had not had such a prior conviction.

The statistics of those convicted following release from FORT demonstrated comparable results. Specifically, of those convicted following release from fort, 75.00% had more than one incarceration. Of those not convicted 68.75% had not had a prior conviction.

TABLE 14  
POST FORT ARRESTS AND CONVICTIONS  
VS PRIOR FELONY CONVICTIONS

Pre-FORT Convictions	Arrested		Not Arrested		Chi Sq	Convicted		Not Convicted		Chi Sq.
	N	%	N	%		N	%	N	%	
None	9	37.5	40	68.97		4	25	44	68.75	
1 or more	15	62.5	18	31.03	6.989*	12	75	22	34.38	10.21**

\* chi-square significant at .008 level.

\*\* chi-square significant at .001 level.

#### Pre-FORT Incarcerations and Post FORT Arrests and Convictions

The analysis of the survey information concerning arrests and convictions following FORT in relation to prior incarcerations, showed no significance. However, when the designation of the variable was changed from an interval of the number of incarcerations to a nominal designation of 'no priors' and 'priors' without regard to how many priors then significance was found. As indicated in table 15, 87.93% of those with no pre-FORT incarcerations were not arrested. Although the arrested population only consists of an n of 24 the significance at .001 suggests that this finding is sufficiently significant to deem further study. Similarly, of those convicted, 56.25% had been incarcerated prior to involvement with the FORT program. Of those with priors, 56.25% were convicted since release from FORT, while only 14.06% of those without priors were convicted since release. Of those not convicted following FORT 85.94% were individuals without prior incarcerations.

Based on these statistics, it is clear that experiences related to incarceration prior to the FORT program participation are influential on future successes or failures of the individual. Whether these experiences are pre-incarceration environmental circumstances or the influences of the incarceration(s) themselves is not clearly revealed however.

TABLE 15  
POST FORT ARRESTS AND CONVICTIONS  
VS PRE-FORT INCARCERATIONS (PRIORS)

Priors	Arrested		Not Arrested		Chi Sq	Convicted		Not Convicted		Chi Sq
	N	%	N	%		N	%	N	%	
None	15	62.5	51	87.93		7	43.75	55	85.94	
1 or more	9	27.5	7	12.07	6.99*	9	56.25	9	14.06	13.65**

\* chi-square significant at .008 level.

\*\* chi-square significant at .001 level.

### Interview Findings

The Interviews with the participants produced additional information concerning the FORT program. Most noticeable was the enthusiastic support for the program by the vast majority of the past participants. Although some suggested they received benefit due to the drug program, others commented on the GED program, another group remarked on the increased self esteem and pride they felt, and yet others stated that the FORT program in general taught them that they did not want to return to prison (specific deterrence), the overall consensus was that it was a worthwhile program.

The interviews conducted with FORT related personnel were conducted individually with each interview being exploratory and open. In summary, all individual's interviewed remarked on the importance of this study and seemed eager to accommodate any questions posed. Initial interviews were a compilation of FORT selection process and alternatives, comparisons of FORT to SIP, and various other official information.

Once the interviews became more personal, the respondents, without exception, indicated a favoritism for the FORT program and shared their individual perspectives as to why they emotionally supported FORT over SIP. The responses generally consisted of remarks as to the isolation of the FORT program separately from the general population. This was perceived by all to be an important facet of the program. As one respondent commented, "Boot is clouded by mixing within the institution."



One common comment included descriptions of how the boot program is weak in results, yet these weaknesses are being overshadowed by political and public emphasis. Another common comment was how much more the FORT program offered in the way of living and coping skills, educational opportunities, and drug treatment programs.

The individuals who worked most closely with the FORT participants provided insights available only to those with this level of contact. These comments stressed several aspects of the FORT program not as readily apparent to those not as involved. Receiving the most emphasis were the comments that the FORT is a team development tool. That teamwork is highly important to the program. This stress on teamwork was not only focused on the FORT participants, but the immediate staff as well. The respondents repeatedly commented on two points. One - FORT works! Two - Fort works because of involvement and commitment from both the women and the staff.

Although only one respondent commented on issues influencing FORT members during their stint in EWCC, the comment was made that the major influencing issue within FORT was homosexuality. This comment was then qualified by the respondent stating that having experienced interaction as an employee in both male and female institutions, where both possess homosexuality, within the FORT program (and EWCC in general) the fact that females are involved alters the situation "female homosexuality stems deeper into the emotional aspects of women and thus homosexual relationships are of greater intensity and are therefore more difficult to deal with among women." Other comments of significance include the following, "Females are more concerned about relationships - family, friends, kids, spouses, etc. - Women have a greater need or have fewer available support systems. Most married inmates (female) have criminal spouses and they are also typically in incarceration." All of these will be of significance from a theoretical point of view in chapter 5.

Other comments include the relation of the women to drugs and others that are drug users or criminal in some fashion, that failures tend to be the result of - unresolved issues - not dealing appropriately with relationships that are negative - How a continuum

of treatment is perceived as very important, especially after release. How the pressures of the jobs already in place must be given priority, as a result newer programs such as follow-up support groups must take a back seat, even though they are perceived as good programs.

## CHAPTER V

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### PURPOSE OF STUDY

This study originated as an evaluation analysis of on the Oklahoma Department of Correction's shock incarceration program for women which is known as the Female Offender Regimented Training (FORT) program. This program was implemented at the Eddie Warrior Correctional facility under the supervision and jurisdictional authority of the Oklahoma Department of Corrections. The evaluation of this project has been enhanced by the addition of a theoretical perspective which is suggested to more aptly explain the majority of increased female criminality and, by default, increased female presence in the Oklahoma correctional system. With this basis, the ability to modify existing programs and/or developing of new programs that will be more effective in reducing recidivism rate will be enhanced.

#### RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The procedures carried out in the process of this research were in accordance with the goals established as research objectives for this project as well as the determination of success as an evaluation goal desired by the Oklahoma Department of Corrections and the Oklahoma Criminal Justice Research Consortium. With specific relevance to this thesis, this study was carried out in order to fulfill three research objectives and their underlying goals as introduced in chapter one. The three primary research objectives are to:

- 1). Obtain data necessary to evaluate the effectiveness of the FORT program;
- 2). Use these data in concert with the evaluation results to support the theoretical position described in chapter 2;
- 3). Have sufficient support from the results of primary objectives one and two to offer theoretically sound suggestions for program alteration or creation which will improve the

problems associated with increasing representation of female incarcerates within the criminal justice and the corrections systems.

#### PRIMARY OBJECTIVE ONE

The primary purpose of objective one was to obtain and evaluate (both practical and theoretical) the overall effectiveness of the Female Offender Regimented Training (FORT) program. To complete that objective it was necessary to view the effectiveness of evaluation as three separate goals :

##### Primary Objective One, Goal One:

The first goal was to evaluate FORT in terms of recidivism. This goal included the statistical enumeration of recidivists as compared to a control sample of individuals. Detailed in chapter 3, the methods utilized in this goal consisted of analyzing the available data on the past FORT participants. This analysis required a reduction in size of the population due to missing data in many files. The remaining files (n=254) were matched with a control group drawn from many thousands of files so that as complete and exact of a match as possible was achieved.

Although one aspect of this goal was to define recidivism in correctional terms, it was determined that such a definition was not clearly established and when a correctional definition as functionally used in the corrections system was roughly achieved, it was considered as insufficient for the purpose of this program evaluation. More specifically, the definition most often used, was a determination of success or failure based on re-conviction as revealed within the records of the department of corrections database. However, the purpose of the program was not merely to alter the re-conviction rates of the participants, but to enhance the positive behavioral attributes of the participant so that among other goals re-conviction would be reduced. Therefore, a determination was made that recidivism (or program failure) in this project consisted of behavioral misconduct after the period of FORT participation (among the FORT participants) and similar behavioral failures among the non-FORT participants after an equal period of time in the prison setting.

Specifically the behavioral misconduct following an equally apportioned time frame consisted of movements recorded in the correctional data files which reflected behaviorally unacceptable actions. Such actions included movements to higher security, re-incarcerations, re-asserts, escapes, and other recorded actions indicating unacceptable and inappropriate behavior.

The resulting actions of the two populations studied revealed no significant differences in the recidivism rate as defined above. Although the failure rate (another term used interchangeably with recidivism) was lower for the FORT group (33.86%) than for the control group (36.61%), analysis indicated no statistical significance between the two recidivism values.

Although the failure rate of the program seems high (averaging 34.93%), this rate is taken from a selected sample encompassing a 26 month period (late October, 1991 through December, 1993) and as previously mentioned, failure in this study encompasses disciplinary and other actions as well as re-conviction in failure determination. However, by taking the three year spread into consideration, a yearly failure rate of roughly 11.64% is derived, a much more acceptable figure based on other state and national statistics.

Thus, in summary, the FORT program does not indicate a statistical improvement in recidivism (as defined in this study) over the matched individuals from the general population of inmates. Similarly, the altered definition of recidivism used does not appear to result significantly from statistical results more typically used in recidivism calculations. Although the differences between the sample populations in success and failure are not significant, other factors may be involved in influencing the success and failure which have not been addressed sufficiently within the scope of the FORT program as it has been applied. This will be more carefully considered under review of Primary Objective Three: The application of the theoretical perspective as applied to this study.

#### Primary Objective One, Goal Two:

The second goal involved the evaluation of the FORT program in terms of the participants themselves. A questionnaire was designed by the researcher and approved by the

Institutional Review Board of Oklahoma State University which was presented to 100 past FORT participants. This questionnaire requested demographic information, criminal record information, FORT related information from the perspective of past program members, and information about returning to society after being released from incarceration.

The findings revealed that the majority of the participants were court ordered to attend FORT (79.9%), they were spread evenly across most age groups (though fewer were above 32 years of age), and they were racially representative of the prison population as a whole (43.4% white, 38.4% black, 18.2 other). The majority held a high school degree or less (66.3%). Although many considered themselves as having been officially or common-law married at some time (60.2%), a significant number of others responded that they had never been married (39.8%). The majority of the respondents had one or more children (81.6%) and a total of 40.8% had three or more children.

The FORT program was favorably evaluated by a large majority (88%) of the past participants. The programs within FORT were also viewed favorably although the GED program and the parenting skills program received much less support overall than the substance abuse programs and the drill and discipline facets of the training.

Upon returning to freedom following incarceration, the participants reflected on problems they faced. Although nine response areas were recorded, three accounted for more than half (59.6%). These were job related problems (28.3%), social integration problems (17.2%), and substance abuse problems (14.1%). When those individuals that were arrested or convicted following FORT were reviewed with reference to cited problems following release, they reported social integration (50.00% and 57.14% respectively) as the primary problem.

Although, the reviews varied in strength, the overall past participant evaluation of the program was viewed as a difficult and demanding experience, that was positive in its effects, but failed to follow through in aftercare (post incarceration support) leaving the participants at the mercy of their previous, detrimentally influencing environment.

### Primary Objective One, Goal Three

Goal three included gaining the perceptions and perspectives of those individuals who were responsible for the implementation, supervision, and support of the FORT program. The method for this goal was arrived at through literature review and personal interviews.

Although the literature repeatedly evaluated shock incarceration programs negatively, the general expectations and desires of the SIP programs seem to generate from a “common sense” approach, combined with a propensity to gain political support from a program deemed as strenuous and difficult. This approach reflects some of the public’s attitude that criminals should be put through a difficult experience which will incur a deterrent effect as opposed to achieving rehabilitation. The political support of such programs is enhanced by the overall fiscal improvement noted by such programs. This can be understood in light that although such programs (SIP, RID, and FORT) are intensive and therefore more approximately 12% per day more expensive (\$40.39 per day for FORT as opposed to \$36.13 per day for general population), they are of a much shorter duration and thus are much less expensive in the long term.

As Table 72 in Appendix C indicates, the use of the FORT program specifically saves the state of Oklahoma over 1 million dollars annually. Although this program provides no statistical indication that it is otherwise more effective, this savings alone is a considerable benefit. In other words although the success rate is no different, the cost efficiency per unit (person) is improved. As a result these programs appear to succeed by increasing the publicly perceived level of punishment as well as reducing the cost of imprisonment.

However, the literature reflects that such programs may increase problems due to the fact that some such programs are abusive in nature. This abusive character may actually impact some individuals in an effectively negative manner (e.g. those individuals who may be incarcerated partly due to abusive circumstances they endured prior to their incarceration-demeaning references, yelling at close range, name calling, and so on) (Peterson and Palumbo, 1994).

An opposing view is found among those individuals who are directly involved with the FORT program as staff of the correctional system. The correctional staff interviews reflected what appeared to be a genuine belief and concern that the program (FORT in particular) had potential as being a source of rehabilitation (as opposed to punishment), that self esteem would be increased, and the participants would emerge changed for the better. Those most directly involved were adamant that they were promoting a good program that would have positive results for society and the inmates involved. Thus, the staff overall seemed convinced that this program is qualitatively different and superior from other SIP programs.

#### SUMMARY OF PRIMARY OBJECTIVE ONE:

In line with the negative evaluations of similar programs, the FORT program does not indicate a statistical advantage when measured in terms of recidivism. However, when individual's that were directly involved with the program (including participant inmates, interacting staff, and supervisory staff) were asked their opinions, their responses were virtually universal in favor of the program. These conflicting evaluations can be understood when the interview comments are considered. Specifically, both the inmates and their probation and parole officers made comments suggesting that in their opinions the causes of recidivism has more to do with the fact that these women return to their previous environment than the possibility that the FORT program is unsuccessful.

Most importantly, the comments strongly and repeatedly referred to the fact that the previous (and now present) socio-environmental niche of friends and significant others was a culture of almost total criminogenic immersion in drugs and alcohol, drug dealers and users, and strong social encourages of substance use and abuse. In general, the living style is criminogenic and the associated social influences of such impact that recidivism not only frequently occurs, but does so within first three months after release from incarceration.



## PRIMARY OBJECTIVE TWO

The goals of the second primary objective are to elicit information from the data collected under the goals of the first primary objective to test the hypothesis of this project: Merton's Anomie Theory as altered by Albert Cohen's suggestion of differing contextual success definitions. This combined with adding the considerations of local versus global definitions of success and the implications of these on recidivism.

Specifically, the proposed hypothesis of this theoretical application suggests that much of female criminality can be adequately described utilizing the following four propositions.

- 1). Women are a separate and identifiable group from men.
- 2). Women hold a definition of success in terms of achieving and maintaining interpersonal and social relationships as opposed to the culturally defined male definition of success of achieving, maintaining, and increasing power, monetary, and material attainments support.
- 3.) The adaptations to Merton's Goal/Means Gap theory can adequately be applied while allowing for the change in the definition as described in proposition #2.
- 4). The FORT program provides data supportive of this theoretical application both in terms of objective recorded data and subjective pronouncements made by the participants in the various open-ended questions they responded to.

The propositions in detail:

### Item 1

Women are a separate and identifiable group from men. Chapter two details the presented literature supporting the concept that women hold different cultural goals than men. The literature also indicates that these goals are obtained through normal procedures of interaction and are semi-universal among, if not a majority of females, then among at least a significant number of females.

### Item 2

The definitions of success are repeatedly re-enforced in the literature and this literature both directly and indirectly supports the concept that women hold a success

definition based on relationships. That support of relationships often supersede the global definitions of deviant favoring local levels of acceptable interactions.

### Item 3

The adaptations consist of: 1. Conforming- accepting the goal and the means to that goal as is culturally and generally offered.; 2. Ritualistic - Rejecting the goals, but accepting the means to that goal; 3 Innovation - Accepting the goals, but rejecting the means; 4. Retreatism - rejecting both the goals and the means; and 5. Rebellion rejecting both the goals and the means and replacing them with newly defined goals and means.

These are accomplished within the parameters of this altered or female definition of success within the context of the subcultural group by :

Adaptation 1 - striving to achieve relationships through the procedures normally associated with achieving the goal.

Adaptation 2 - rejecting the goal of achieving the usual relationships but continuing to practice the procedures normally associated with achieving the goal.

Adaptation 3 - striving to achieve relationships, but doing so through the procedures not normally associated with achieving the goal.

Adaptation 4 - rejecting the goal of achieving relationships as well as rejecting the procedures normally associated with achieving that goal.

Adaptation 5 - setting new goals and by default striving to accomplish them through new procedures.

In line with the elements listed above, a member of a subcultural community which supports deviant behaviors as normative actions (such as in gangs and some lower socio-economic groupings) are likely to behave in accordance to these localized norms as indicated by the cultural and subcultural theorists. Thus, this item suggests that a female will behave in accordance to her goals regardless of the character and nature of her localized environment.

As a result an inverse relationship must be considered in relation to the adaptations. Hence, a conforming adaptation would result in deviant actions to achieve her non-deviant goal; a ritualistic adaptation would involve the rejection of the goal but still conform to the globally deviant actions; an innovative adaptation would result striving for a relationship but doing so in ways other than the typical 'normal' actions; a retreatist adaptation would reject the effort to achieve a relationship, and in doing so reject the patterns of behavior acceptable and normal around her; and an adaptation of rebellion would be a substitution of the goal and the normal behaviors.

#### Item 4

The literature review of chapter 2 (summarized in item 3 above) and the findings from chapter 4 (as summarized under the findings of primary objective one) support the described theoretical position described in the altered strain theory.

Although female criminality has increased in volume, a change of role due to the modernization of women in education, business, and other male dominated frontiers is not supported in the statistics or the data revealed in this study as being a major factor in the increase of female criminality.

In fact the description that best fits the data is based on an alteration of legal system changes - "determinate sentencing, especially related to drug related crimes, may also play a role in the increase . . . Almost 64 percent of females in 1991 were serving time on drug-related offenses." (Ochie, 1993:126). Since 52.76% of the FORT population were convicted on such crimes, this perspective is supported but in no way contradicts the presented theoretical suggestion of this thesis. Rather, support based on this fact can be easily presented. If the relationships of the socio-environmental niche incurs local level demands of co-dependent support (which is considered as globally deviant), then the milieu directing these local actions defines such behavior as supportive, normal, and expected.

Thus, not only is the female in this type of situation showing support for locally defined relationships by this behavior, but also demonstrating Hafner's finding of high

levels of “both co-dependency and addictive personality traits.” (Hafner, 1992:30). As a result, such females are likely to find that upon returning to their local environment they call home, the relationships of the milieu are again upon them. The only potential ways of altering this are to completely remove the individual to a new socio-environmental niche or to teach and assist them in altering their actions in relation to their existing socio-environmental niche. The first option is an unlikely choice for many reasons, however, the second option will help them alter their social expectations and adaptations to their environment as it is.

### SUMMARY OF PRIMARY OBJECTIVE TWO

The four individual items can be summed up in the following statement. In general, women form a separate class of goal driven individuals. As such they have established a definition of individualized success in terms of their relations with others. As a result they support and contribute to the actions of those involved in these relationships. When these relationships are globally and/or criminally deviant, the influences of the local level environment overshadow the influences of the global level - regardless of the lessons learned while incarcerated. As a result, and especially noted among drug crimes (due in part to determinate sentencing), the representation of females in the corrections system is increasing.

### PRIMARY OBJECTIVE THREE

Using the evaluations of the FORT program to support the proposed theory can by inverse reasoning indicate suggestions for an improved model of the program. In such an interactive relationship, it is considered that both the corrections system and the theoretical perspective may be refined to maximize effectiveness.

### CONCLUSIONS RECOMMENDATIONS BASED ON THIS MODEL

Although the FORT program itself is a failure in terms of reducing recidivism, the program is viewed as a success among those involved (the participants, staff, and other

DOC employees). This suggests that the program possesses benefits which are not discerned in a study of recidivism. Therefore, these merits should be further evaluated for the benefits they may demonstrate if properly investigated. Additionally, in reference to recidivism, the 1994 NIJ summary on boot camp evaluations (chapter 3) noted that because there is a consistency among the programs, the inconsistency found in the evaluation of recidivism indicates that some other intervening variable is involved. The NIJ report pointed out that those evaluated as more successful also had extended (6 month) intensive supervision.

These observations and conclusions suggest that boot camp programs in general do not serve to reduce recidivism. However, based on the evaluations of the FORT program, the indications are that FORT holds potential benefits in other significant categories. As earlier research indicated FORT does show indication of movement in the direction of positive drug rehabilitation. Other areas of benefit such as increased self-esteem, positive recognition, the physical improvements noted through the drill and discipline facets, the benefits of the drug education classes, and the GED preparations. Others may yet be determined. Meanwhile, all of these are available while still providing a politically acceptable "punishment" as well as a cost effective program. Therefore, the positive attributes suggest that this program not be eliminated. Indeed, this program supports Sandhu's (1977) finding that program implementation within the first ninety days of incarceration greatly improves the effectiveness of the program.

The theoretical underpinning based on the suggested (and supported) theoretical position in objective two, applied through an intensive aftercare program (as noted successful by the NIJ, 1994 report), could potentially serve all the above positive functions. Additionally, the approach to developing such a program could potentially be supported through some of the monetary savings realized by the FORT program itself.

As was demonstrated, the FORT program realizes a 1 million dollar savings over the existing option of normal incarceration for 300 females on a yearly basis. Given this, each person in FORT is saving the state of Oklahoma \$3,879.90. An intensive supervision

program, modeled after a similar program proposed at the Payne County Misdemeanant Program, would consist of two group sessions per week and one individual session per week for the first nine weeks. This would be followed by nine weeks of two sessions per week (either one counseling and one group or two group sessions) and the third nine week period would be reduced to a single session of either counseling or group (or possibly both interchangeably). This program would roughly cost \$20 per hour. The total per person for the entire intensive aftercare program is approximately \$1080.00. This would leave a savings for the state of \$2799.90 per/person per year.

Based on these observations, a program such as FORT, which is implemented immediately upon incarceration, carried out as the FORT program has been, and then is followed with a theoretically based aftercare program, the overall result would improved participants, significant monetary savings, and reduced recidivism over the long term. If this program could be supplemented so as to reduce recidivism as well, then the FORT program would be the landmark program of its kind.

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## APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE INSTRUMENT AND VARIABLE CODESHEET

## A QUESTIONNAIRE FOR THE PARTICIPANTS IN F.O.R.T. PROGRAM

This questionnaire does not ask your name, but merely intends to find out what you think you got from the F.O.R.T. program, in general, and its different programs, in particular. Your answers will tell the researchers about the effectiveness of the program, but the readers will have no way of connecting this information with specific individuals. You are, therefore, requested to be honest in your answers.

1. You were ordered to participate in the F.O.R.T. Program by:

1. The Court  
 2. Lexington Assessment and Reception Center (LARC)

2. How long did you participate in the F.O.R.T. Program?

1. More than 90 days (about \_\_\_\_\_ days)  
 2. 90 days approximately  
 3. Less than 90 days (about \_\_\_\_\_ days)

3. Where were you sent on termination of your F.O.R.T. Program?

1. Back to general population.  
 2. Probation/Parole supervision.  
 3. Early release program (PPCS, PVVP, SSP, EMP).

Please specify: \_\_\_\_\_

4. Released without probation/parole supervision.  
 A. How many months?

4. Was your probation/parole officer familiar with the F.O.R.T. Program?

1. Yes  
 2. No

5. During this time back in the community, have you been:

- |               |                             |                              |  |
|---------------|-----------------------------|------------------------------|--|
| 1. Arrested.  | <input type="checkbox"/> No | <input type="checkbox"/> Yes |  |
| 2. Convicted. | <input type="checkbox"/> No | <input type="checkbox"/> Yes |  |

If you answered yes, what was the lawbreaking? \_\_\_\_\_

6. During this time back in the community, have you been free from alcohol and/or drugs?

1. Yes  
 2. No

If yes, what was the involvement or the extent of involvement? \_\_\_\_\_

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7. Did you participate in the GED program?

- \_\_\_\_ 1. Yes  
 \_\_\_\_ 2. No

If Yes, did you complete your GED?

- \_\_\_\_ 1. Yes  
 \_\_\_\_ 2. No

8. While in the FORT program, did you participate in any substance abuse treatment, to include Healthnetwork or M.R.T.?

- \_\_\_\_ 1. Yes  
 \_\_\_\_ 2. No

If Yes, which one? \_\_\_\_\_

If Yes, did you complete the program?

- \_\_\_\_ 1. Yes  
 \_\_\_\_ 2. No

If Yes, did you continue MRT or Healthnetwork aftercare upon release?

- \_\_\_\_ 1. Yes  
 \_\_\_\_ 2. No

How long were you involved in aftercare? (MRT or Healthnet)? \_\_\_\_\_

9. How helpful are these programs in staying away from crime?

	Very Helpful	Somewhat Helpful	Not Helpful	Not Available
a) Drill and Discipline	( )	( )	( )	( )
b) GED	( )	( )	( )	( )
c) MRT/Health Net.	( )	( )	( )	( )
d) F.O.R.T. (as a whole)	( )	( )	( )	( )
e) Parenting skills	( )	( )	( )	( )

10. How helpful are these programs in staying away from drugs?

	Very Helpful	Somewhat Helpful	Not Helpful	Not Available
a) Drill and Discipline	( )	( )	( )	( )
b) GED	( )	( )	( )	( )
c) MRT/Health Net.	( )	( )	( )	( )
d) F.O.R.T. (as a whole)	( )	( )	( )	( )
e) Parenting skills	( )	( )	( )	( )



11. What kind of problems did you have to face on release from the F.O.R.T. Program?

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12. What kind of help did you get from the F.O.R.T. programs in resolving these problems?

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13. Are you continuing to get some help for your drug problems? Please list specific agencies or programs in the community you have utilized.

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14. Do you have any suggestions to make this program more effective?

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15. Age: check one

1. 18 to 22 yrs  
 2. 23 to 26 yrs  
 3. 27 to 31 yrs  
 4. 32 to 36 yrs

16. Race: check one

1. White  
 2. African American  
 3. Hispanic  
 4. American Indian  
 5. Other

17. Education: check one

1. Some high school: grade completed  
 2. High School Diploma  
 3. Some college  
 4. College Degree

18. Marital Status: check one

1. Single, never married  
 2. Common-law married  
 3. Married  
 4. Separated or divorced

19. Number of times married \_\_\_\_\_

20. Number of children \_\_\_\_\_

21. Number of felony convictions \_\_\_\_\_

22. Number of incarcerations \_\_\_\_\_

TABLE 16  
QUESTIONNAIRE VARIABLE CODESHEET

Question	Digits	Var Name	Place	Response
Survey #	3	Survey	1-3	001, 002, 003, ...
1	1	Order	4	1 or 2
2	1	Duration	5	1,2,or 3
3	1	Termin	6	1,2,3,4
4	1	Famlr	7	0=Not Applicable, 1=yes, 2=no
5 part1	1	Arrested	8	0=no, 1 = yes,
5 part2	1	Convict	9	0= no 1 = yes,
5 part 3	1	Offense	10	1 = parole viol, 2= driving, 3= prop, 4 = drugs, 5= viol, 0 = none, 6 = NA
6 part 1	1	AldrFree	11	0 = NA, 1 = yes, 2 = no
6 part2	1	Extent	12	0 = NA, 1 = light, 2 = heavy
7 part 1	1	GedPar	13	1 or 2
7 part 2	1	GedCom	14	0=NA, 1= Yes, 2 = No
8 part 1	1	SubsPart	15	1= Yes, 2 = No
8 part 2	1	SubsProg	16	Healthnet = 1 MRT = 2 - Have Not Used = 3 Other=4
8 part 3	1	Complete	17	1= Yes, 2 = No
8 part 4	1	Continue	18	1= Yes, 2 = No
8 part 5	1	Aftercare	19	0=na, 1=<3mo, 2=3-6mo, 3 >6mo, 4=Presently In
9	5	C...	20-24	1,2,3, or 4 for each line a, b, c, d, or e
10	5	D...	25-29	1,2,3, or 4 for each line a, b, c, d, or e
11	1	Problems on Release	30	0 = no response, 1= job related, 2= drugs and alcohol, 3= family related, 4 = reintegration to society, 5=peer relationships, 6=housing, 7=self related, 8 = Not Applicable
12	1	Help Fort	31	0 = none, 1= self discipline, 2 = role model, 3 = self esteem, 4= deterrence, 5 = family problems, 6 = coping in general, 7= Not Applicable
13	1	ContHelp	32	1= drug and alcohol - self help groups, 2= no help, 3= not applicable
14	1	Suggest	33	1= help in finding job, 2 = strengthening of program, 3 = self change, 4=no response, 5 = Not Applicable
15	1	Age	34	1=18-22, 2=23-26, 3=27-31, 4=32-36 5>36, 0=N/R
16	1	Race	35	1=White, 2= Black, 3= Hisp, 4=Indian, 5=Other
17	1	Educn	36	1= Some HS, 2=HS, 3=Some Col, 4= Coll Deg, 5=Votech
18	1	Marital	37	1=single, 2=CommonLaw, 3= Married, 4=Sep/Divorced
19	1	X Married	38	# = Amount
20	1	Children	39	# = Amount
21	1	Felony	40	# = Amount
22	1	Incarce	41	# = Amount
Released	1	Released	42	0 = Never Released 1= released
IntgRel	1	SI	43	0 - none listed 1= social integ comment made

**APPENDIX B**

**Demographics and Correctional Data of the Studied Groups**

## FORT GROUP STATISTICS

TABLE 17

COMPARISONS OF AFRICAN AMERICAN AND  
CAUCASIAN FAILURE/NON FAILURE RATES

<b>Race</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>Fail N</b>	<b>Fail %</b>	
Black	103	40.55	44	42.72	(% of Blacks)
White	151	59.45	42	27.81	(% of Whites)
Total	254	100.00	86	33.86	

TABLE 18

AGE, ACHIEVED GRADE, AND  
SENTENCE LENGTH VS RACE

	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Mean Black</b>	<b>Mean White</b>	<b>Min</b>	<b>Max</b>
Age	27.96	28.36	27.70	16	55
Sent. length	2.41	2.46	2.38	0	8
Grade	10.80	11.26	10.48	6	18

TABLE 19

## AGE GROUPINGS VS RACIAL CATEGORIES

<b>Age (years)</b>	<b>Black</b>		<b>White</b>		<b>Total</b>	
	<b>N</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>%</b>
<23	25	24.27	51	33.77	76	29.92
23-28	32	31.07	21	13.91	53	20.87
29-32	18	17.48	39	25.83	57	22.44
>32	28	27.18	40	26.49	68	26.77
Total	103	100.00	151	100.00	254	100.00

TABLE 20  
 COLLAPSED CRIME CATEGORIES  
 VS RACIAL GROUP

Crime Category	Black		White		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Property	35	33.98	55	36.42	90	35.43
Drugs	52	50.49	82	54.30	134	52.76
Violent	13	12.62	14	9.27	27	10.63
Total	100	97.09	151	100.00	251	98.82

TABLE 21  
 ACHIEVED GRADE LEVEL  
 VS RACIAL GROUP

Race	Black		White		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
<GED	61	59.22	104	68.87	165	64.96
HS Degree	34	33.01	37	24.50	71	27.95
Some Col	7	6.80	9	5.96	16	6.30
Col Deg	1	0.97	1	0.66	2	0.79

## CONTROL GROUP STATISTICS

TABLE 22

COMPARISONS OF AFRICAN AMERICAN AND  
CAUCASIAN FAILURE/NON FAILURE RATES

<b>Race</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>Fail N</b>	<b>Fail %</b>	
Black	103	40.551	44	42.72	(% of Blacks)
White	151	59.449	49	32.45	(% of Whites)
Total	254	100	93	36.61	

TABLE 23

AGE, ACHIEVED GRADE, AND  
SENTENCE LENGTH VS RACE

	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Mean Black</b>	<b>Mean White</b>	<b>Min</b>	<b>Max</b>
Age	28.12	28.13	28.11	17	60
Sent. Length	3.71	3.80	3.66	1	12
Grade	10.81	11.23	10.52	6	16

TABLE 24

## AGE GROUPINGS VS RACIAL CATEGORIES

<b>Age (years)</b>	<b>Black</b>		<b>White</b>		<b>Total</b>	
	<b>N</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>%</b>
<23	25	24.27	47	31.13	72	28.35
23-28	31	30.10	34	22.52	65	25.59
29-32	18	17.48	29	19.21	47	18.50
>32	29	28.16	41	27.15	70	27.56
Total	103	100.00	151	100.00	254	100.00

TABLE 25

## CRIME CATEGORIES VS RACIAL GROUP

Crime Category	Black		White		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Property	35	33.98	51	33.77	86	33.86
Drugs	56	54.37	80	52.98	136	53.54
Violent	9	8.74	9	5.96	18	7.09
Total	100	97.09	140	92.72	240	94.49

TABLE 26

ACHIEVED GRADE LEVEL  
VS RACIAL GROUP

Race	Black		White		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
<H.S. Degree	62	60.19	109	72.19	171	67.32
HS Degree	33	32.04	34	22.52	67	26.38
Some Col.	7	6.80	7	4.64	14	5.51
Col. Deg	1	0.97	1	0.66	2	0.79



## SURVEY GROUP STATISTICS

TABLE 27

## COMPARISONS OF FAILURE VS RACE

	% Failed
Black	38.95
White	44.21
Other	15.79

TABLE 28

## MEAN AGE AND ACHIEVED GRADE LEVEL

	Approximate Mean
Age	32.48
Grade	11.74

TABLE 29

## AGE GROUPINGS

Age	Total	% all
<23	20	20.02
23-28	13	13.10
29-32	27	27.30
>32	36	36.40
Frequency Missing = 4		

TABLE 30

## ACHIEVED GRADE LEVEL

Grade	Total	% all
<GED	41	41.80
HS Degree	24	24.50
Some Col	20	20.45
Coll Deg	4	4.11
Total	89	98.6

**QUESTIONNAIRE RESPONSE FREQUENCIES  
(Reference Appendix A for Variable Specifications)**

Notes: Unless otherwise stated all table reflect an N of 100. Unless other designated, Not Applicable refers to individuals not released to the street and thus have no access to the variable addressed in the table. FORT Regimented Training, and Participants all refer to the Female Offender Regimented Training Program.

TABLE 31

**WHO ORDERED REGIMENTED TRAINING?**

	Frequency
Court	78
LARC*	21
Other	1

\*Lexington Assessment and Reception Center

TABLE 32

**LENGTH OF REGIMENTED TRAINING PARTICIPATION**

Days in FORT	Frequency	Percent
> 90 Days	52	52.0
Apprx 90 Days	39	39.0
< 90 Days	9	9.0

TABLE 33

**WHERE SENT AFTER REGIMENTED TRAINING**

	Frequency
Not Applicable	1
General Prison Pop.	14
Probation/Parole	56
Early Release Program	25
Unconditional Release	4

TABLE 34

WAS YOUR PROBATION OFFICER FAMILIAR  
WITH THE FORT PROGRAM?

	Frequency
Not Applicable	9
Yes	81
No	10

TABLE 35

HAVE YOU BEEN ARRESTED SINCE RELEASE  
FROM REGIMENTED TRAINING?

	Frequency
No	62
Yes	24
Not Applicable	14

TABLE 36

IF ARRESTED, CONVICTED SINCE RELEASE  
FROM REGIMENTED TRAINING?

CONVICT	Frequency
No	68
Yes	16
Not Applicable	16

TABLE 37

TYPE OF OFFENSE (OF ARREST/CONVICTION  
FOLLOWING FORT TRAINING)

OFFENSE	Frequency
None	55
Parole Violation	4
Driving Offense	6
Property Offense	8
Drugs	9
Violence	2
Not Applicable	16

TABLE 38

FREE FROM ALCOHOL/DRUG USE  
(SINCE RELEASE FROM FORT)

ALDRFREE	Frequency
Not Applicable	11
Yes	56
No	33

TABLE 39

EXTENT OF DRUG/ALCOHOL USE  
(SINCE RELEASE FROM FORT)

EXTENT	Frequency
Not Applicable	57
Light	7
Heavy	36

TABLE 40

PARTICIPATED IN REGIMENTED  
TRAINING GED PROGRAM?

	Frequency
Yes	46
No	54

TABLE 41

COMPLETED REGIMENTED TRAINING  
GED PROGRAM?

GEDCOM	Frequency
Not Applicable	35
Yes	19
No	46

TABLE 42

PARTICIPATED IN REGIMENTED TRAINING  
SUBSTANCE ABUSE PROGRAM?

SUBSPART	Frequency
Yes	95
No	5

TABLE 43

WHICH SUBSTANCE ABUSE PROGRAM?

Program Title	Frequency
No Response	1
Health Network	64
Moral Recognition Therapy	35

TABLE 44

DID RESPONDENT COMPLETE THE  
SUBSTANCE ABUSE PROGRAM?

	Frequency
No Response	1
YES	64
NO	35

TABLE 45

DID RESPONDENT CONTINUE SUBSTANCE  
ABUSE PROGRAM FOLLOWING RELEASE?

CONTINUE	Frequency
No Response	5
YES	54
NO	41

TABLE 46

LENGTH OF RESPONDENT'S PARTICIPATION  
IN AFTERCARE PROGRAM?

	Frequency
Not Applicable	45
Less Than 3 Months	10
3-6 Months	17
More Than 6 Months	9
Presently In	19

NOTE: Table 47 is a collapsing of questions 8 and 9 of the survey questionnaire given to the 100 past participants of the Female Offender Regimented Training Program. The results consist of the evaluation of FORT as helpful in remaining free from drugs and crime in general.

TABLE 47

PARTICIPANT'S OVERALL ASSESSMENT OF THE  
FEMALE OFFENDER REGIMENTED  
TRAINING PROGRAM  
(N=100)

Program	Very Helpful	Somewhat Helpful	Not Helpful	Not Available	No Response
FORT Overall	68	26	2	1	3
Drill Program	68	20	10	1	1
Substance Abuse	66	21	5	3	5
General Education	43	19	2	21	15
Parenting Training	37	16	9	30	8

TABLE 48

PROBLEMS ENCOUNTERED FOLLOWING RELEASE  
FROM REGIMENTED TRAINING

Problem Category	Frequency
No Response	18
Job	28
Drugs/Alcohol	14
Family	7
Reintegration	17
Peers	1
Housing	4
Self Related	8
Not Applicable	2
Frequency Missing	1

TABLE 49

TYPE OF HELP REGIMENTED TRAINING PROGRAM  
PROVIDED CONCERNING RELEASE PROBLEMS

Area Helped	Frequency
None	33
Self Discipline	26
Role Modeling	4
Self Esteem	6
Deterrence	6
Family	1
Coping	16
Not Applicable	7
Frequency Missing	1

TABLE 50

RECEIVED CONTINUED HELP FOR  
DRUG/ALCOHOL PROBLEMS?

Type of Continued Help	Frequency
Drug/Alcohol (Self Help Groups)	59
None	18
Not Applicable	17
No Response	1
Frequency Missing	5

TABLE 51

SUGGESTION FOR IMPROVING  
FORT PROGRAM

SUGGEST	Frequency
	1
Help Finding Jobs	3
Strengthening of Program	26
Self Change	8
No Response	54
Not Applicable	5
Frequency Missing	3



TABLE 52

## AGE CATEGORIES OF RESPONDENTS

AGE	Frequency
No Response	3
18-22	20
23-26	13
27-31	27
32-36	26
>36	10
Frequency Missing	1

TABLE 53

## RESPONDENT RACIAL IDENTIFICATION

RACE	Frequency
White	43
Black	38
Hispanic	7
Indian	8
Other	3
Frequency Missing	1

TABLE 54

## RESPONDENTS EDUCATIONAL LEVEL

Educational Level	Frequency
Some High School	41
High School Degree/GED	24
Some College	20
College Degree	4
Vo-Tech	8
Frequency Missing	3

TABLE 55

## MARITAL STATUS OF RESPONDENTS

MARITAL	Frequency
Never Married	31
Common-Law	21
Married	12
Separated/Divorced	33
Frequency Missing	3

TABLE 56

## TIMES RESPONDENT HAS BEEN MARRIED

Times Married	Frequency
0	39
1	40
2	12
3	6
4	1
Frequency Missing	2

TABLE 57

## NUMBER OF CHILDREN OF RESPONDENT

# of Children	Frequency
0	18
1	22
2	19
3	22
4	8
5	5
6	1
7	3
Frequency Missing	2

TABLE 58

## ADMITTED NUMBER OF PRIOR FELONY CONVICTIONS

Felony Convictions	Frequency
0	59
1	20
2	14
3	2
4+	3
Frequency Missing	2

TABLE 59

## NUMBER OF INCARCERATIONS (OTHER THAN REGIMENTED TRAINING)

Number	Frequency
0	77
1	15
2	3
3	2
4+	1
Frequency Missing	2

TABLE 60

## RESPONDENT RELEASED FROM INCARCERATION FOLLOWING REGIMENTED TRAINING?

RELEASED	Frequency
No	13
YES	87

TABLE 61  
SOCIAL INTEGRATION ISSUES AMONG  
CITED PROBLEMS

Frequency	
No	66
Yes	34

TABLE 62  
FORT VS CONTROL  
ACTUAL INCARCERATION LENGTH  
VS NCCD CRIME CATEGORY

NCCD	Crime Type	FORT		CONTROL		
		N	Mean Days	N	Mean Sent./Yrs	Mean Days
1	Burg II	13.00	133.70	7.00	3.14	286.53
2	Larceny	38.00	138.83	42.00	3.10	282.88
3	Bogus Check/Card	9.00	127.17	10.00	3.10	282.88
4	Forgery	21.00	134.78	16.00	3.44	313.90
5	Fraud	5.00	132.50	8.00	2.63	239.99
6	Embezzlement	4.00	115.80	3.00	3.67	334.89
7	UUMV	1.00	128.20	3.00	2.33	212.61
8	DUI	4.00	118.00	8.00	2.63	239.99
9	Drugs (Poss/obtain)	55.00	134.00	47.00	3.45	314.81
10	Dist. Drugs	73.00	129.54	77.00	4.21	384.16
11	Escape	2.00	132.00	2.00	3.50	319.38
12	Burglary I	1.00	170.00	1.00	2.00	182.50
13	Murder I	0.00	0.00	2.00	6.50	593.13
14	Murder II	0.00	197.00	3.00	8.33	760.11
15	Manslaughter	0.00	161.00	6.00	6.67	608.64
18	Robbery	3.00	128.88	2.00	4.50	410.63
19	Assault	14.00	137.71	6.00	2.50	228.13
20	Arson	1.00	72.00	1.00	3.00	273.75
22	Weapons	5.00	179.80	2.00	2.00	182.50
25	Misc. Violent	3.00	160.00	4.00	4.50	410.63
27	Misc. Non-Violent	1.00	118.50	3.00	4.33	395.11
29	Drug Trafficking	1.00	135.00	1.00	10.00	912.50

APPENDIX C

FORT PROGRAM COST EFFECTIVENESS

TABLE 63

FORT PROGRAM COSTS VS NON FORT  
FEMALE INCARCERATION COSTS

<u>FORT COSTS</u> (per day)	\$40.39
Average FORT stay (mean days)	133.83
Average Cost per participant	5405.39
 <u>Non-FORT Costs</u>	 \$36.13
Average Non-FORT stay (days)	281.71 days
Average cost per matched non-participant in General Population (GP)	\$10178.18
 Savings per person using FORT	 \$4772.79
 FORT Receptions	 300/year
SUB TOTAL - Savings per year using FORT	\$1,431,837.00
 FORT participants sent to GP (13% of 300)**	 39.00
FORT costs 133.83 days @ \$40.39	\$5405.39
Remaining stay in GP 147.88 days @ \$36.13	\$5342.90
Overall costs for each of these individuals	\$10748.29
Total costs for all of these individuals	\$419,183.31
 <b>TOTAL</b> (Savings Per Year Using Fort)	 <b>\$1,012,653.69</b>

\*\* 13% of the interview sample collected were returned to the general population. This figure is assumed to be a normal rate. All figures are based on data supplied by ODOC and Eddie Warrior Correctional Center.

2  
VITA

David Andrew Camp

Candidate for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Thesis: FEMALE CRIMINALITY: ALTERATIONS OF MERTON'S STRAIN THEORY AS APPLIED TO THE EVALUATION OF THE FEMALE OFFENDER REGIMENTED TRAINING PROGRAM

Major Field: Sociology

Biographical:

Personal Data: Born in Enid, Oklahoma, January 25, 1956, the son of Bobby W. and Betty Camp.

Education: Graduated from Moore High School, Moore Oklahoma in May 1974; received Associate in Science degree in Pre-Law from Murray State Junior College in 1976; received Bachelor of Arts degree in Sociology from Northeastern Oklahoma State University in 1979; received a Master of Science degree from Oklahoma State University December 1991. Completed the requirements for the Doctor of Philosophy degree with a major in Sociology at Oklahoma State University in May 1995.

Experience: Professional Experience: Zookeeper and Elephant Trainer, Jacksonville Zoo, Jacksonville, Florida, 1980-1982; Elephant Trainer, Miami Metrozoo, Miami, Florida, 1982-1984. House-parent for Abused Children Home, Childrens' Village, Tyler, Texas, 1985-1988; Day Hospital Counselor/Case Manager, CREOKS Mental Health Agency, Okmulgee, Oklahoma, 1988-1989; Graduate Assistant, Oklahoma State University, Department of Sociology 1990-1995, Funded Researcher for the Oklahoma Criminal Justice Research Consortium 1993-1995.

Professional Memberships: American Society of Criminologists, Oklahoma Criminal Justice Research Consortium.

OKLAHOMA STATE UNIVERSITY  
INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD  
HUMAN SUBJECTS REVIEW

Date: 06-22-94

IRB#: AS-94-047

**Proposal Title:** EVALUATION OF FEMALE OFFENDER REGIMENTED TREATMENT PROGRAM (FORT)

**Principal Investigator(s):** Harjit Sandhu, David Camp

**Reviewed and Processed as:** Exempt

**Approval Status Recommended by Reviewer(s):** Approved

APPROVAL STATUS SUBJECT TO REVIEW BY FULL INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD AT NEXT MEETING.

APPROVAL STATUS PERIOD VALID FOR ONE CALENDAR YEAR AFTER WHICH A CONTINUATION OR RENEWAL REQUEST IS REQUIRED TO BE SUBMITTED FOR BOARD APPROVAL.  
ANY MODIFICATIONS TO APPROVED PROJECT MUST ALSO BE SUBMITTED FOR APPROVAL.

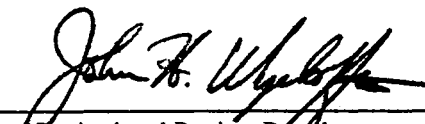
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Comments, Modifications/Conditions for Approval or Reasons for Deferral or Disapproval are as follows:

Because the subjects will no longer be part of a vulnerable group (prisoners) at the time of the study, the application has been processed as exempt.

Signature:

  
\_\_\_\_\_  
Chair of Institutional Review Board

Date: July 12, 1994