

PRISON-BASED ANIMAL PROGRAMS:  
AN INVESTIGATION AND THEORETICAL IMPLICATIONS  
INCARCERATED PEOPLE AND ANIMALS RELEASED FROM THEIR CAGES

by

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A dissertation submitted to the Graduate Faculty in Criminal Justice in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, The City University of New York

2006

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## Abstract

PRISON-BASED ANIMAL PROGRAMS:  
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by

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The present study was designed to examine prison-based animal programs (PAPs). A national survey of state departments of corrections was conducted and two specific PAPs were studied. The national survey indicates a proliferation of PAPs in the past several years. The examination of the two specific PAPs found a reduction in the frequency of misconduct among program participants, but was unable to identify facility-level effects on levels of misconduct associated with the programs. Data collected according to a checklist based on the best-practices literature indicates the two PAPs studied target several of the risk factors associated with effective programs and support previous research regarding the most commonly found strengths and weaknesses in correctional programs. Both programs were also found to have strengths not common in correctional programs. Interviews with the two programs' stakeholders indicate evidence of positive psychological, social, and physical effects associated with participation. Theoretical implications of the programs and how they fit with current conceptions of justice and punishment are considered.

## Acknowledgements

A project of this size could never have been accomplished without the assistance and support of a number of people. I must first thank Dr. Doug Gerardi, New Jersey Department of Correction, Director of Policy and Planning for believing in this project and being accessible and steadfast in guiding me through the application process. This project could not have been undertaken without his help or the assistance of Ms. Anne Kardasz from his office. At John Jay, Dr. Larry Sullivan was an early and consistent supporter of this research and I will be forever grateful for that. Where another saw a 'fringe' topic, he saw a great opportunity to do valuable work. Dr. Barry Spunt never doubted my ability to complete this project even when I was pretty sure I never would. His support and guidance have been invaluable to me throughout my time in this program. Dr. Michael Jacobson was the first person to read my musings on the topic in a final paper I wrote for his Philosophy of Punishment class in the spring of 2001. Rather than poo-poo the topic he also had support, and questions about the programs' budgets.

My fellow 'Old Heads,' Kim Collica and Nickie Phillips, survived my day-to-day rantings about this project and deserve medals of honor for it. Kim had detailed daily updates on my procrastination and progress (in that order). Nickie heard my doubts and worries and provided much-needed statistical support. Jo Daum pulled me through data analysis kicking and screaming and I owe her dearly for it.

And during what I have come to think of as my 'lost year' while I waited for NJ DOC to create an IRB, Melinda Schlager was there to introduce me to the works of the researchers that continue to influence my exploration of these programs.

I received invaluable feedback about this project from the members of the Inside-Out Think Tank at State Correctional Institution – Graterford. First, I have to thank Lori Pompa, the group's director, for the opportunity to be trained in the Pompian way of changing the world and then inviting me to participate in this weekly life changing group. Then, of course, there are my friends from the inside who I expected to be brutally honest in their feedback and they did not let me down. One outside member in particular, M. Kay Harris of Temple University, urged me to explore where these programs might fit theoretically within our contemporary ideas about punishment and justice. Our conversations gave me the courage I needed to write and exposed me to ideas that inspire me to continue working on this unique topic. I appreciate all the ties I have forged with Temple in the past year.

And of course my own providers of animal therapy – my boys who sat by my side as I wrote and who played a large role in my procrastination.

I wrote this document while living in Philadelphia, in a crappy apartment in a cool little city. Even though I grudgingly relocated, I have come to appreciate the livability of this city during these years abroad (the Delaware River). But whenever I do leave here, it will be never having tasted a cheese steak or rooted for the Eagles.

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Prison-Based Animal Programs:  
An Investigation and Theoretical Implications

Incarcerated People and Animals Released From Their Cages

*“The degree of civilization in a society can be judged by entering its prisons.”*

- Fyodor Dostoyevsky

*“The greatness of a nation and its moral progress can be judged by the way its animals are treated.”*

- Mahatma Gandhi

*“He who is cruel to animals becomes hard also in his dealings with men. We can judge the heart of a man by his treatment of animals.”*

- Immanuel Kant

*“Man is the cruelest animal.”*

- Friedrich Nietzsche

## **CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION**

The present study seeks to identify the therapeutic components and range of potential treatment effects of prison-based animal programs. The programs have spread across the country, but with seemingly little guidance by what is known regarding effective offender rehabilitation programs. While the programs make sense intuitively, and are successful according to substantial amounts of anecdotal evidence, the field lacks empirical research that examines why these programs effectively modify behavior. First, in order to capture the extent to which these types of programs are being administered in United States prisons, a national survey of state correctional systems was conducted. The survey, in addition to collecting information pertaining to the size and nature of prison animal programs in operation, requested information regarding the economic expenditures on the programs. Then, the official levels of misconduct of the participants of two specific prison based animal programs were examined for individual and facility-level effects of the

programs. Third, whether the programs are informed by the literature, as demonstrated by the extent to which they incorporate principles of effective programming, will be determined. Finally, the range of treatment effects of the programs was identified through interviews with participants. Corrections staff and administrators and program administrators were also interviewed. The two program case studies, the result of the triangulation of research methods, provide a more complete understanding of prison-based animal programs.

In the mid 1970's, Martinson and his colleagues infamously reported that efforts at offender rehabilitation had failed and declared that "nothing works" (Martinson, 1974; Lipton, Martinson, and Wilks, 1975). While criminal justice policy turned more punitive in the ensuing years, researchers of correctional treatment have devoted significant energy toward discovering if something can indeed work at reducing recidivism (see, for example, Harland, 1996; Lipsey, 1992, 1995; McGuire, 1995, 2002; Ross, Antonowicz, & Dhaliwal, 1995). Today, there is agreement that "the view that 'nothing works' is simply wrong: rehabilitation programs can have a positive effect in reducing recidivism. The effect is not always large, although sometimes it is; nor is it always present, although on average it is. However, it is there and that cannot be ignored" (McMurrin & Hollin, 1995, p. ix). It has been argued that, confident that programs can be effective, the field is currently focused "upon more complex questions of what works when, where, and with whom; and why the various combinations of such elements form the patterns that they do" (McGuire, 2002, p. 3). One type of prison rehabilitation that appears to work is based on the principles of animal-assisted therapy (AAT); however, the 'more complex questions'

referred to above have yet to be addressed by research. In fact, the more basic question of ‘does the approach work’ has not been answered. If such a program does change behavior, it becomes necessary to ask why. The present research will attempt to determine whether the prison-based animal programs under study are effective tools for institutional behavior modification, are driven by research findings, and meet recognized standards of program quality.

The logic of PAPs is rooted in a developed literature regarding human-animal interactions as therapeutic. Physicians and psychologists have recommended companion animals for a variety of illnesses including blindness, deafness, recuperation from surgery, high blood pressure, chemical addiction and a range of disorders associated with aging (Arkow, 1998; Beck & Katcher, 1996). AAT has been used as an effective intervention with the elderly, those who have been physically or sexually abused, and people with chronic mental illness (*ibid*). The relaxing effect of animals has long been recognized by dentists and doctors who have fish tanks in their offices. Companion animals offer a unique bonding experience for humans. In fact, more people in the United States have pets than children (Arkow, 1998).

The prison programs the present research seeks to examine differ in several aspects from AAT with other populations. Most importantly, the animal is not present specifically for the benefit of the inmate. The animals are not used in conjunction with clinical methods, such as psychoanalysis, in order to more effectively communicate with the patient. In prison, the programs do not have a clinical or psychological counseling component. Participants undergo screening

procedures that consider personal characteristics such as the nature of the individual's crime and prison behavior record, but there is no regular program contact with a clinician. The programs implemented in prisons utilize AAT techniques differently; participants not only interact with animals, but they work with or train them as well. Due to the unique nature of these prison-based programs in which offenders work with or train animals, these programs will be referred to as prison-based animal programs (PAPs).

While PAPs incorporate animals in an official program capacity, animals are not new to prisons. Johnson and Chernoff's (2002) analysis of poetry written by inmates suggests that "perhaps the scarcity of opportunities to develop relationships with non-inmates and the difficulties inherent in connecting with fellow prisoners are responsible for the striking number of poems about the importance of animals" (p. 161). As Ted Conover found during his year as a Correction Officer (CO) at Sing Sing, "even more than people on the outside, inmates appreciate pets" (2000, p. 270). Early in his ethnography of life inside prison, Pennsylvania inmate James Paluch (2004) makes reference to the birds that wait for him, greeting him (p. 23). He defends breaking the facility rule against taking food from the dining hall because "I take it for my babies...my bird friends" (p. 27). He mentions these birds again in a section of the text devoted to family; he describes how "normally, they just swipe up the bread and fly away, but today they stay on the ground and look up at me as if to say 'Thanks'" (p. 200). Johnson and Chernoff (2002) appear to accurately observe that "animals as diverse as pigeons and lizards may respond to the prisoners' ministrations and seem to reward their care" (p. 161).

PAPs differ from one prison to another in a number of aspects. Most basically, the type of animal used differs; dogs – whether puppies or rescued strays – are most commonly utilized. The nature of the animal-inmate interaction differs; in some programs participants take their animal with them everywhere, while in others, the time spent with the animal is more limited and training-oriented. The animal training being undertaken differs; in some programs participants socialize dogs for a domestic life as a pet, while in others the animals are challenged to learn the obedience necessary to go on to training for elite service work as a guide or working dog. The treatment effects on the participants differ as well; some inmates may give and receive unconditional positive regard for the first time, others learn patience, while still others may acquire vocational licensure to groom animals or assist veterinarians. Regardless of the details of the program, however, there is ample anecdotal evidence that indicates these programs are popular with inmates, staff and administrators alike, effectively modify prison behavior, and retain their participants. According to practitioners, “opportunities, such as engaging private-sector businesses and building strategic partnerships with local and state agencies, currently exist for improving and enhancing correctional programming” (Lawrence, Mears, Dubin, & Travis, 2002). PAPs may represent one such opportunity.

The two PAPs included in the present study were chosen for a variety of reasons. The programs differ on a number of criteria which will allow for comparison. One program is in a male facility while the other is in a female facility. They both utilize dogs but have different designs: the male program socializes rescued adult greyhounds; while the female program socializes puppies to go on to

specialized service training. The programs are administered by different non-profit organizations and have different staff. While the prisons are different security levels, the male prison is medium-security and the female facility is maximum-security, their location in the same state means they abide by the same overall security guidelines and are governed by the same commissioner. Applying to one state department of correction (DOC) for access to its PAPs was also a practical consideration.

## CHAPTER TWO: EFFECTIVE CORRECTIONAL TREATMENT PROGRAMS (OR 'WHAT WORKS?')

Once the 'failure of treatment' and 'nothing works' had been declared, criminal justice policy in the United States became characterized by the need to 'get tough' on crime and criminals (Mauer, 2001; McGuire, 2002). Determinate sentencing replaced indeterminate sentencing and rehabilitation as a goal (Mauer, 2001). The 1980s saw the 'war on drugs' and the 1990s 'truth in sentencing' and 'three strikes' policies that emphasized punishment and retribution (ibid). After nearly three decades of 'get tough' policies, the result has been an incarceration rate that is highest in the world. Elsewhere, researchers - primarily in Canada and the United Kingdom - continued to examine rehabilitation options. A series of conferences held in Manchester, England in 1991, 1992, and 1994, entitled *What Works*, served as a forum for the work (McGuire, 1995, p. xiii).

In 2000, approximately 585,000 people, almost 1,600 each day, were released from state and federal prisons (Travis & Pertersilia, 2001). As a result, the issues surrounding inmates returning to the community have received significant attention in recent years (ibid). Given not only that prisoner re-entry is an increasingly pressing issue for communities, but also the constant need for effective inmate control in prison, an environment seemingly prime for programming has been created. However, "programming has not kept pace with the number of offenders entering prison. In fact, the proportion of inmates receiving programming has steadily declined in the past decade" (Mears, Lawrence, Solomon, & Waul, 2002, p. 66). According to a report from the Urban Justice Institute, between 1991 and 1997,

participation in vocational programs declined from 31 to 27 percent while participation in educational programs declined from 42 to 35 percent (Lawrence et al., 2002). The need for programming is also driven by the nature of the people incarcerated. The majority of inmates suffer from multiple problems, including lower rates of educational achievement and employment, increased rates of substance abuse, and physical and mental health disorders (Andrews & Bonta, 2003; Lawrence et al., 2002; Mears et al., 2002). When these characteristics are co-occurring, “the risks of recidivism, relapse into drug use, unemployment, etc., are compounded” (Mears et al., 2002, p. 67).

Participating in prison programming is believed to have the potential to achieve a number of positive outcomes. At a most basic level, programs can improve the safety and control of the prison environment. A number of researchers (e.g., Lawrence et al., 2003; Mears et al., 2002; Travis & Petersilia, 2001) recommend utilizing a broader definition of benefits that includes not only reduced recidivism, but more long-term goals including improved health and family relationships that can also lead to public safety. When programs are “held to the sole criterion of reduced recidivism, many programs, in fact, may not be effective. Other measures...may be more appropriate for assessing their effectiveness” (Mears et al., 2002, p. 68). Reliance on decreased levels of criminality may “substantially understate the range of outcomes and goals that prison [programs] may yield and that are frequently included to justify them.....Indeed, the ability of many programs to exert a strong and direct effect on recidivism may be relatively nominal, especially given the range of factors

that can contribute to criminal behavior” (ibid). It is the nature and scope of the changes in program participants that needs to be documented (Lawrence et al., 2002).

## EMPIRICAL FINDINGS

While the criminal justice climate in the US has not been supportive of efforts to develop prison rehabilitative programs, “a large quantity of evidence has now accumulated showing that interventions can reduce offender recidivism” (McGuire, 2002, p. 10). Before reviewing that evidence, it is necessary to consider its origins. The research that has followed Martinson’s (1974) work largely relies on the use of meta-analysis to determine program effectiveness. Meanwhile, over the course of the last decade, researchers in Canada have sought to identify the general principles that regulate program effectiveness. The major findings from both bodies of literature will be presented.

Researchers have been able to identify trends within the research findings regarding program effectiveness, or treatment effects, over the past twenty years largely through the use of meta-analysis (Lipsey, 1995; Losel, 1995a; McGuire, 2002). Meta-analysis can capture “broad patterns of findings in a body of research with much more clarity and consistency than traditional research review techniques,” (Lipsey, 1995, p. 66). Because “meta-analyses rely on quantitative techniques that examine specific characteristics of studies and programs” they are regarded as offering more reliable results than qualitative methods of literature review, such as was used by Lipton and colleagues (1975) (Lawrence et al., 2002, p. 4). There are a number of advantages of using meta-analysis to study rehabilitative program treatment effects. Many studies with small samples are combined, “thus permitting a

more reliable estimation of effects based on a large number of cases” (Losel, 1995a, p. 80). “By summing effect sizes across a sample of studies regardless of their statistical significance,” meta-analysis is able to identify effects qualitative methods may not capture (Cullen & Gendreau, 2000, p. 135). In addition, it is possible to conduct moderator analyses which demonstrate “which types of treatment show which effects in which contexts and on which persons” (Losel, 1995a, p. 80). Finally, meta-analysis allows for “presenting information in a precise, parsimonious way, [which] facilitates the process of constructing knowledge about a topic” (Cullen & Gendreau, 2000, p. 135)

While meta-analysis has enabled researchers to systematically review the corrections programming literature, it is not without limitations. Overall, the “validity of the conclusions suggested by a meta-analysis will be affected by ‘what goes into it’” (Cullen & Gendreau, 2000, p. 135). In general, the studies included in analyses have been conducted in the United States, Canada, or the United Kingdom, while European studies were included only when published in English (Lipsey, 1992; Losel, 1995a; McGuire, 2002). Another limitation stems from the lack of studies on adult offenders; most meta-analyses and the primary studies they examine study treatments administered to juvenile delinquents (Losel, 1995a; McGuire 2002). In addition, meta-analysis cannot be used when there are not yet enough studies on a specific type of program for the technique to be applied (Lawrence et al., 2002).

Despite providing a quantitative framework with which to examine the effectiveness of prison programs, meta-analysis has also been criticized for lacking objectivity. First, the decision regarding which primary studies to include is

dependent on the judgment of the researcher (Cullen & Gendreau, 2000). For example, the meta-analyses Losel (1995) examined defined treatment broadly and as a result, included a wide range of studies. Lipsey (1992) not only included programs involving juveniles formally processed through the criminal justice system, but also studies of children deemed antisocial or at risk. Then, the primary studies that are included in the meta-analysis are categorized by the individual researchers (Cullen & Gendreau, 2000). As indicated by “inconsistencies between various meta-analyses of the same issue” there seems to be a lack of agreement among researchers (Losel, 1995a, p. 81). However, as Cullen and Gendreau (2000) point out, “any given meta-analysis is open to replication by other scholars....In this way, coding decisions or the sample of studies chosen for review can be assessed independently” (p. 136).

The limitations of these primary studies are significant given that the results of the various meta-analyses are “not independent of each other because of overlapping samples in the primary studies” (Losel, 1995a, p. 81). While Losel (1995) points out that the 13 meta-analyses included in his review are linked, the primary studies they analyzed totaled over 500. McGuire’s (2001) review of 18 meta-analyses also included overlapping samples, but examined a total of over 2000 outcome studies. A larger sample size increases the researcher’s ability to calculate a range of moderator analyses on the various types of treatment programs, but it may also limit the ability to generalize the results. Given that the meta-analyses are based on what is usually a small number of similar programs, and therefore weakened, Losel (1995) effectively questions the practice of including highly differentiated primary studies.

Despite the limitations discussed above, the field continues to rely on meta-analysis to advance knowledge about rehabilitation programs. In a comprehensive examination of 30 meta-analytic studies published between 1985 and 2001, McGuire's (2002) findings were in agreement with previous researchers' reviews of the research (see Andrews, Zinger, Hoge, Bonta, Gendreau, & Cullen 1990; Lipsey, 1992, 1995; Losel, 1995a; McGuire, 2001). He found that treatment effects were, "on average, positive" (2002, p. 13). McGuire (2002), as Losel (1995) and Andrews and colleagues (1990) before him, found that across meta-analyses, the mean effect size is estimated to be about 0.10. In other words, on average, a sample that receives a program intervention is likely to have a recidivism rate that is 10% less than that of a control group that did not receive the treatment.

Research based on meta-analyses has consistently found a number of components associated with successful treatment programs (Cullen & Gendreau, 2000; Lipsey, 1992, 1995; Losel, 1995a; McGuire, 2001, 2002; Ross et al., 1995). Programs with a cognitive-behavioral orientation have been found to produce the greatest benefit (Andrews et al, 1990; Lipsey, 1992, 1995; Losel, 1995a; Ross et al., 1995). Programs such as these include training designed to change the way participants both think and act. Cognitive-behavioral programs are based on so-called constructional theories of learning. Strategies for changing behavior can be divided into two types: eliminative and constructional (McGuire, 2002). While both are grounded in behavioral theories of learning, eliminative approaches focus on the negative consequences of undesired behavior while constructional approaches focus on replacing undesired behaviors with pro-social ones. Eliminative strategies are the

basis for the deterrence policies favored by the US, including the death penalty, mandatory minimum sentences, and other ‘get tough’ sanctions. Cognitive-behavioral programs that positively reward behavior are considered ‘responsive’ in that they meet the needs of the participants (Andrews 1995; Cullen & Gendreau, 2000), unlike less structured approaches that rely on techniques such as self-reflection and insight on the part of the participant.

Multifaceted or multi-modal programs that incorporate a number of therapeutic components were also found to be more effective than programs that deliver only one type of intervention (Antonwicz & Ross, 1994; Cullen & Gendreau, 2000; Lipsey, 1992, 1995; Losel, 1995a; Ross et al., 1995). Programs that include a social skills training component have been found to be effective (Antonwicz & Ross, 1994; Losel, 1995a; Ross et al., 1995). Social skills training that included role-playing and modeling has been linked to increased program efficacy (ibid).

The effectiveness of programs has also been studied according to the level of risk posed by the program participants. Some researchers (e.g., Andrews et al., 1990; Losel, 1995; McGuire, 2002) have found that the effect size of treatments is not affected by including inmates most at risk for re-offending. Other researchers suggest that programs should primarily target higher risk offenders, since those with a lower risk for recidivism are less likely to need interventions (e.g., Cullen & Gendreau, 2000). Regardless of who is chosen for program participation, it is important to remember that “research clearly shows that serious offenders are not beyond the reach of correctional treatment” (Cullen & Gendreau, 2000, p. 140).

Most researchers agree that programs are more successful when implemented in a community setting rather than inside an institution (Andrews & Bonta, 2003; Cullen & Gendreau, 2000; Lipsey, 1992, 1995; Losel, 1995a; McGuire, 2002). Ross and colleagues (1995) found that institutional programs that “somehow escape from or diminish the usual prison ambience, and create an ‘alternative community’ within the institution” can be effective as well (p. 11). The researchers report that “successful prison programs are usually delivered in separate buildings away from the general population or are conducted within an educational or therapeutic community which isolated the offenders from the antisocial prison subculture” (Ross et al., 1995, p. 12).

A variety of other factors have also received support in the literature. Programs that are considered “intensive, lasting 3 to 9 months and occupying 40 to 70 percent of the offenders’ time” are associated with increased effectiveness (Cullen & Gendreau, 2000, p. 146). The literature supports the suggestion that programs should be at least several months in length (Lawrence et al., 2002). Providing after-care, or services in the community after the participant has been released from prison has been found to reduce recidivism (Andrews, 1995; Cullen & Gendreau, 2000). And finally, involving researchers in the program implementation and evaluation processes has been found to increase the likelihood of program success (Cullen & Gendreau, 2000; Lawrence et al., 2002).

Over the past 15 years, researchers have come to refer to the findings of the above studies as providing ‘several principles of effective intervention’ (see Andrews et al., 1990; Andrews & Bonta, 2003; Antonowicz & Ross, 1994; Gendreau, 1996a;

Latessa, 1999; Latessa et al., 2002; Lawrence et al., 2002; Losel, 1995b; Matthews et al., 2001; McGuire, 2001; McGuire, 2002). As a result, “there is now a consensus that the probability of achieving positive outcomes can be maximized by combining a number of elements” in correctional treatment programs (McGuire, 2001, p. 33). The following list of principles is a synthesis from the most recent research findings:

- A program should have clearly defined goals and a code of ethics.
- A program should provide intensive services, over a period of at least several months, in the community or segregated from the general prison population.
- Rules should be enforced fairly and firmly, with rewards more numerous than punishments.
- A program should be behavioral (cognitive or psychosocial) in nature, and intensive, and focused on higher risk offenders.
- Program participants should be assessed for their needs with validated psychometric instruments; services should then be matched to need.
- Program staff should be professionally trained, have previous experience working in correctional treatment programs, and support the rehabilitative goals of the program which they enforce in a fair but firm manner.
- Program staff should be responsive to the needs, strengths, and weaknesses of the participants and engage in pro-social modeling, positive reinforcement, problem-solving training, relationship practicing, and cognitive self-change.
- Program participants should be re-assessed for changes in criminogenic behaviors and needs.
- Program staff should provide referrals in the community for after-care and serve as advocates for their program participants.
- The program should engage in self-evaluation (Latessa, 1999; Latessa et al., 2002, p. 50; McGuire, 2002, p. 24).

## CRIMINOGENIC RISKS

One of the principles of effective interventions calls for programs to target criminogenic risks or behaviors. When programs focus on factors that have been identified as putting individuals at risk for criminality, increased effectiveness has been demonstrated (Andrews, 1995; Antonowicz & Ross, 1994; Cullen & Gendreau, 2000; McGuire, 2002; Ross et al., 1995). Criminogenic needs or risk factors are an individual’s “circumstances that, when changed, actually link with variation in

criminal conduct” (Andrews, 1995, p. 42). Examples of criminogenic needs or behaviors are antisocial personality factors such as impulsiveness and risk-taking; antisocial/pro-criminal attitudes; criminal associates and a lack of pro-social associates; substance abuse; poor problem solving skills; and high levels of anger or hostility (Andrews, 1995). Non-criminogenic needs, which have not been found to be associated with criminality, include self-esteem, feeling alienated, and improving the neighborhood in which a person resides (ibid). There are two types of criminogenic needs that put people at increased risk of offending: dynamic risk factors which can be changed and static risk factors that cannot be changed. Static risk factors include a person’s previous criminal history and experience with substance abuse; dynamic risk factors include antisocial attitudes, problem-solving skills, and levels of hostility.

The concept of criminogenic needs has been developed over the course of approximately a decade, and what was once referred to as the “Big Four” (Andrews & Bonta, 1994) has evolved into the “Big Eight” which are “the best-validated risk factors in the research literature” (Andrews & Bonta, 2003, p. 86):

- antisocial attitudes
- antisocial associates
- history of antisocial behavior
- antisocial personality pattern
- problematic circumstances at home (family/marital)
- problematic circumstances at school or work
- problematic leisure circumstances
- substance abuse

The increased presence of the above risks has been associated with increased likelihood of criminality (ibid). Therefore, programs that focus on meeting these needs should be associated with increased rehabilitative effectiveness. Programs that

target criminogenic needs or behaviors have been found to more effectively reduce criminality, as compared to programs that do not target criminogenic needs. In fact, the authors found that “the targeting of noncriminogenic needs was associated with null effects of treatment or even increased reoffending” (p. 87).

## EVALUATING TREATMENT PROGRAMS

The above principles of successful programs have been incorporated in two checklist instruments: the Correctional Program Assessment Instrument (CPAI) by Gendreau and Andrews (2001) and the Correctional Practice Treatment Survey (CPTS) by the International Community Corrections Association (2003). The CPAI is an instrument designed to “ascertain how closely the programs meet known principles of effective correctional treatment” (Matthews et al., 2001, p. 458).

The CPAI measures program effectiveness based on 6 criteria:

- Program implementation. Qualifications and involvement of the program director, the extent to which research was consulted for the program’s design. Whether the program is supported by the community, meets a need and is perceived to be cost-effective.
- Client pre-service assessment. Selection of program participants, the methods of assessment of risk, need, and personal characteristics of participants.
- Characteristics of the program. Criminogenic risks targeted, the type of treatment approach, use of rewards and punishments, and extent of preparation for service termination.
- Characteristics and practices of the staff. The qualifications, experience, training, and involvement of the program staff.
- Evaluation. The types of feedback, assessment and evaluations used to monitor the functioning of the program.
- Miscellaneous. Ethical guidelines, levels of funding, and community support. (Matthews et al., 2001, p. 459)

Each section of the CPAI has between 6 and 22 items for a total of 66 items.

Each item is scored as 1, the program meets the specified criteria, or 0, the program does not meet the criteria. Each section is scored based on the percentage earned:

*very satisfactory* 70% to 100%, *satisfactory* 60% to 69%, *satisfactory but needs improvement* 50% to 59%, or *unsatisfactory* less than 50%. The total of each of the six areas is used for an overall assessment score based on the same scale. However, the overall score has been criticized as “misleading because some domains within the assessment are more important than others” (P. Kinzinger, personal communication, July 23, 2004). Data is collected through structured interviews with program staff members in private, examination of program documents (assessment tools, curriculum), review of case files, and observation of program activities (Latessa, 1999; Matthews et al., 2001).

The CPAI has been used to assess a variety of correctional treatment programs. In a report of the findings from 105 CPAI evaluations, the scores from three areas – treatment, assessment, and evaluation – were below 50%. Overall, the programs had an average score of approximately 54% on the CPAI, indicating they were satisfactory, but needed improvement (Latessa, 1999). Only 8.5% of the programs were rated as ‘very satisfactory’ while more than 66% scored either ‘satisfactory but needs improvement’ or ‘unsatisfactory’ (ibid, p. 420). Another review of 86 CPAI evaluations found programs scored highest in the categories of ‘miscellaneous’ with an average score of 83.9%, and ‘program implementation’ with an average score of 72.9% (Matthews et al., 2001). The programs scored lowest on ‘client pre-service assessment’ with an average score of 47.9%, ‘program characteristics’ with an average score of 43.9%, and ‘evaluation’ with an average score of 38.4% (ibid). The researchers found the programs scored an overall mean of

54.9% on the CPAI, indicating that “on average, the programs that were assessed suffered from a general lack of program integrity” (ibid, p. 462).

The Correctional Practice Treatment Survey (CPTS) by the International Community Corrections Association (ICCA) is designed to “assess the current state of correctional programs, and is intended to ascertain how well a program currently meets the ‘best practices’ of correctional treatment” (ICCA, 2003, p. 2). It examines treatment programs according to 12 criteria:

- Program implementation and leadership. The program director’s training, qualifications and involvement with the program.
- Classification and assessment. Program participant selection criteria and types of instruments used to assess risk.
- Characteristics of the program. Criminogenic risks targeted, length of treatment, types of activities, punishment and reward system.
- Placement. Do participants receive treatment based on level of risk.
- Staff experience. Adequacy of training in various aspects of the treatment program, including the system of rewards and punishments and assessment instruments.
- Staff evaluation. Adequacy of performance evaluation and clinical supervision.
- Program evaluation. Adequacy of internal and external quality assessment.
- Post-programming options. Adequacy and length of aftercare.
- Organizational responsiveness. Knowledge of local criminal justice system, level of political constraints. Adequacy of support from local criminal justice and social agencies.
- Satisfaction and support. Stakeholder satisfaction with and level of support for the program.
- Other. Adequacy of funding level, community support and program stability.
- Restorative justice and integrated systems. Extent to which the program includes aspects of restorative justice such as community or group sentencing or community service/restitution plans (ICCA, 2003, p. 5-6).

The CPTS is comprised of two questionnaires. The first questionnaire collects baseline information about the program to create a snapshot of current practices. The program receives a quantitative score based on the percentage of criteria met. The second questionnaire asks more detailed questions regarding the above criteria and is

reported in the form of a narrative that is produced for the program (ibid). The CPTS appears to be a longer, more detailed version of the CPAI. But because the CPTS is a newer survey instrument, it has not been widely used and reports of results from the assessment are not available (P. Kinzinger, personal communication, July 23, 2004 ). Both instruments are designed to measure program quality in similar ways; they both incorporate the ‘principles of effective intervention’ discussed above.

The obvious similarities between the CPAI and the CPTS may be a result of the researchers who developed them. Paul Gendreau and D.A. Andrews, the authors of the CPAI and Edward Letessa, an author of the CPTS have all written extensively on correctional treatment programs and have published together on the topic (e.g., Latessa et al., 2002).

#### WHAT DOES NOT WORK

Research has given little or no support to several types of rehabilitation programs (Losel, 1995a). Vocational training without a tie to an actual job prospect, wilderness or ‘Outward Bound’-type programs, and ‘scared straight’ programs have been shown to have no positive effect on recidivism and may even increase recidivism (Gendreau, 1996b; Lipsey, 1992, 1995; McGuire, 2002). Programs focused on punishment, such as boot camps or shock incarceration, drug testing, and electronic monitoring have not been found to be effective interventions (Gendreau, 1996a). Programs that focus on non-criminogenic characteristics such as self-esteem or physical fitness have been shown to increase recidivism as well (Andrews & Bonta, 2003). Even substance abuse treatment programs in prisons have not been shown to reduce recidivism (McGuire, 2002).

### CHAPTER THREE: ALTERNATIVE CONTEMPORARY THEORETICAL ORIENTATIONS

The 2004 American Society of Criminology (ASC) presidential address delivered by Francis Cullen was entitled, “The Twelve people who saved rehabilitation: How the Science of Criminology made a difference.” In it he underscored the importance of evidence-based correctional programming and the need to engage in research that answers the question of what works. A year later, the members of the editorial board of the *San Francisco Gate* point to Governor Schwarzenegger’s release of approximately one-third of those recommended for parole, nearly 100 people, as “a significant step with broad national implications” (April 2005: C4). They go on to put the Governor’s efforts within the context of “an emerging national movement to make rehabilitation rather than punishment a central focus of the criminal justice system” (ibid). So are we indeed witnessing the rebirth of correctional rehabilitation? And, if so, is it a good thing?

There is not agreement regarding the answer to this question. Harris (2005), specifically reacting to research on community-based correction programs, reminds us that it is necessary “to explore the implications of the orientation being used to assess and draw policy implications from research” being conducted in criminology and criminal justice (p. 313). While the above analysis of PAPs has been through an “effective correctional intervention” lens (p. 313), it is important consider other possible explanatory orientations and to examine the assumptions of each orientation.

## CRITIQUE OF 'WHAT WORKS?'

Correctional treatment programs, in general, have been criticized as a flawed criminal justice system response to crime. Some denounce rehabilitation for “appear[ing] to be unrelated to the offense, related solely to the needs of lawbreakers, and to require nothing of offenders beyond participation in counseling or remedial services” (Bazemore, 1998, p. 769). Treatment traditionally does not “provide anything other than benefits to the offenders” nor “communicate to an offender that he or she has harmed someone and should take action to repair damages wreaked on the victim(s)” (ibid). Others regard rehabilitation as putting “the onus on the individual offender, discounting all the sociological, political, economic, and cultural forces that went into his attraction” to crime (L.I.F.E.R.S., 2004, p. 61S). In addition, rehabilitative interventions “are often attempted in environments wherein the positive changes sought are not reinforced” (ibid). The authors go on to point out that if change is attempted “while residing in a hostile environment wherein they are disrespected, belittled, and perhaps forced to endure daily degradation rituals, then the reinforced positive instructions may be canceled out entirely by the more powerful negative influences to which they are exposed on a regular basis” (ibid). Treatment programs “often provide new knowledge but produce little actual learning...brought about as a result of reinforced practice.” (p. 62S). Another obstacle to change resulting from treatment is faced “when such efforts are made by those outside the individual’s trusted peers, elders, and cultural groups” (ibid). The authors succinctly capture our current response to crime when they conclude that “it has proven to be very difficult to rehabilitate someone and punish him at the same time” (ibid).

Harris (2005) adds that correctional treatment programs “involve things being ‘done to’ or ‘prescribed for’ passive recipients who are characterized as deficient, ineffectual, misguided, untrustworthy, possibly dangerous, and almost certain to get into trouble again” (p. 318). Distinctions between passive and active participation are outlined by McCold and Wachtel’s concept of the ‘Social Discipline Window’ which “defines four approaches to the regulation of behavior: *punitive*, *permissive*, *neglectful* and *restorative*” (2003, p. 2). The two-by-two grid is “created by combining two continuums: ‘control,’ exercising restraint or directing influence over others, and ‘support,’ nurturing, encouraging or assisting others” (p. 1). The punitive approach, characterized by high control and low support, “tends to stigmatize people, indelibly marking them with a negative label” (p. 2). The shorthand the authors associate with the approach is “TO,” as in reacting to an offense with punishment. These authors are critical of what they call a permissive approach which, “with low control and high support, is also called ‘rehabilitative’ and tends to protect people from experiencing the consequences of their wrongdoing” (ibid). The authors associate it with “FOR,” as in doing for offenders with low expectations of return. The low control, low support approach is neglectful or indifferent toward behavior, as in “NOT” reacting to offences at all. Finally, the restorative approach, offered as an alternative to rehabilitation, “with high control and high support, confronts and disapproves of wrongdoing while affirming the intrinsic worth of the offender” (ibid). While for these authors this is engaging “WITH” the offender, restorative justice, as discussed below, has been criticized as being similar to rehabilitation in that it also acts on the offender.

In addition to the passive nature of treatment programs, they have also been criticized as characterizing offenders as “people with multiple deficits” (Maruna & LeBel, 2003, p. 95). While criminogenic needs, as described above, that are most related to offending have been identified, Maruna and Lebel (2003) argue that, “in fact, needs have become synonymous with risk factors, and ‘meeting needs’ can often equate to expanding the net of social control” (ibid). While the traditional approach of combining treatment with punishment may coerce compliance with a program’s criteria, it is unlikely to lead to changed or prosocial behavior beyond perfunctory obedience (Maruna & LeBel, 2003). Maruna and LeBel (2003) note that critics of this approach argue it “confounds blind conformity with responsible behavior” (p. 96). They urge a strengths-based or restorative approach to replace current needs-driven practices.

Regarding ‘what works’ specifically, Harris (2005) points out that research that identifies evidence-based principles of effectiveness “tells us nothing about the design or specific effects [of any one program]....Nor does this research design provide a basis for determining the specific types of programs that work best for various categories of offenders” (p. 316). Following one or more of the principles of effectiveness does not ensure program success for every participant. These principles “alone [are] an insufficient basis for ascertaining which correctional programs are most effective with specific groups of offenders. It is necessary to have results from program-level evaluations that take into account the goals, designs, and other elements of a program, as well as the other important differences among offenders” (ibid). So while recognizing that findings regarding program effectiveness “support

the principle that policies and programs must be theoretically grounded and empirically informed,” the studies “are not nearly specific enough to determine what works best for whom” (ibid). As an example, she describes the CPAI as “a beginning step” but argues that “a great deal of evaluation remains to be done” (p. 325).

Of any assessment tool, whether a risk assessment survey administered to an individual, or an evaluative checklist like the CPAI and CPTS, “we ask...how well it works, not whether it is just” (Harris, 2005, p. 319). The exclusion of justice from the discussion of rehabilitative needs is central to criticism of the approach. In addition, these types of instruments “feel cold and disconnected from the choices and efforts that the person has made” (ibid). The correctional rehabilitation model can also “be criticized for emphasizing characteristics or qualities of those under supervision that suggest flawed thinking, irrationality, and poor decision making” (p. 321). As Harris (2005) reminds us, to the extent that prisons and jails perpetuate race and class inequalities and gender stereotypes, it is difficult for any programs or interventions to do more than simply engage in ameliorative efforts” (p. 325).

It is important to note that Harris is not without hope and she does acknowledge the success and possible value of reestablishing rehabilitation as a correctional goal (2005). Effective programming researchers have “been active in collaborating with public officials, correctional administrators, and line staff to help improve the outcomes of correctional programs, striving to translate research findings into practical programs and policy guidelines” (p. 313). The findings have also effectively “challenged the mindless ‘get tough’ stance behind many repressive public policies in terms that public officials can understand” (p. 325). In addition, she notes

the contribution of the effective treatment literature first identified by Cullen and Gendreau (2001) as “knowledge construction,” a welcome alternative to the “knowledge destruction” of the ‘nothing works’ camp that Cullen and Gendreau (2001) describe as dominating corrections for the past three decades. However, Harris (2005, p. 312) points out that Cullen and Gendreau (2001) acknowledge that treatment is largely focused on the “individual change of the offender, not structural change of prison dynamics” (p. 329). The focus on the micro-level is a limitation that will be raised again when discussing transformative justice.

#### RESTORATIVE JUSTICE

Restorative justice or restorative practices has been offered as a third paradigm, added to the retribution versus treatment dichotomy that has dominated criminal justice (Bazemore, 1998). The orientation, however, lacks an agreed upon definition, but has been traditionally conceived of as a process where the victim, the community, and the offender come together to collectively decide on a resolution (Shapland, 2003). Shapland (2003) argues for broadening this definition to include a variety of approaches with either a restorative process, a coming together, or a restorative outcome, one with a future-looking quality. And while Bazemore (1998) maintains that a restorative approach “necessarily involves victim and community,” it may be “symbolically if not always actively” (p. 770). The restorative nature of any one specific practice or response to crime is a matter of degree according to McCold and Wachtel (2003). Thus, the omission of specific victims from PAPs does not necessarily preclude them from congruence with a restorative justice paradigm.

PAPs incorporate the compassionate response called for by restorative justice practitioners (Harris, Walgrave, and Braithwaite, 2004) in a number of ways. The administering agency entrusts these animals to the participants, and the animals, in turn, provide unconditional love (arguably, 'better' than compassion) to the participants. Intentionally avoiding a concrete definition, Van Ness (2003), has proposed 23 basic principles that "address particular programmatic expressions of restorative justice" (p. 166). More generally, Maruna and LeBel (2003) define the strengths-based or restorative paradigm as calling for "opportunities for ex-convicts to make amends, demonstrate their value and potential, and make positive contributions to their communities" (p. 97). According to them, this approach "would ask not what needs to be done to a person in response to an offence, but rather what the person can accomplish to make amends for his or her actions" (p. 98). A significant component of their approach is based on the idea of "the therapeutic power of helping" (p. 99). The 'helper principle' "simply says that it may be better (that is more reintegrative) to give help than to receive it" (ibid). Hans Toch (2000) refers to this idea as 'altruistic activity' (see below).

The "sharp differences in opinion on how restorative justice should be delivered" (Shapland, 2003, p. 195) allow for PAPs to be conceived as compatible with restorative practices. The second of Van Ness' (2003) 23 principles of restorative justice is a 'restorative outcome' which includes "restitution, community service and any other program or response designed to accomplish reparation of the victim and community, and reintegration of the victim and/or the offender" (p. 166). At the same time, Shapland (2003) notes that rehabilitation is being infused into

“more examples of penal outcomes and initiatives which also use the rhetoric of restorative justice but tend to ignore the ideas of ‘coming together’ and ‘collective resolution’” (p. 198). Community service or work is an approach included in England and Wales’ “new reparation order under the Crime and Disorder Act of 1998” where neither the victim nor the community is involved in a cooperative decision regarding the tasks assigned (ibid). Maruna and LeBel (2003) contend a restorative approach should include “community service work [that] is voluntarily agreed upon and involves challenging tasks that could utilize the talents of the offender in useful, visible roles” (p. 98). They go on to recommend “projects in which offenders visibly and directly produce things the larger community wants” as a way to both “build stronger communities, and carve channels into the labor market for the offenders engaged in them” (ibid). For researchers who view restorative practices as more than the traditional ‘coming together’ of community, offenders, and victims, reparations in the form of community service or work not necessarily related to the offense or the victim can be considered part of restorative practices.

‘Creative restitution,’ developed by psychologist Albert Eglash, is an idea that dates back to the 1950s (Mirsky, 2003). He sought an alternative to what he considered the criminal justice system’s lack of “humanity and effectiveness” (p. 1). According to this expanded interpretation of restitution, “an offender, under appropriate supervision, is helped to find some way to make amends to those he has hurt by his offense, and to ‘walk a second mile’ by helping other offenders” (p. ibid). In an early paper, Eglash outlined five characteristics of creative restitution:

1. It is an active effortful role on the part of an offender...Restitution is something an inmate does, not something done for him, or to him.

2. This activity has socially constructive consequences...Being constructive, restitution may contribute to an offender's self-esteem.
3. These constructive consequences are related to the offense.
4. The relationship between offense and restitution may be reparative, restorative.
5. The reparation may leave the situation better than before the offense was committed. (pp. 1-2)

Therefore, other than his third criteria, PAPs are congruent with Eglash's definition of creative restitution. In addition, PAPs display each of his characteristics of creative restitution that distinguish it from traditional compensation:

1. It is any constructive act.
2. It is creative and unlimited.
3. It is guided, self-determined behavior.
4. It can have a group basis. (p. 2)

Eglash's theorized the creative restitution process would "provide a gateway to comfortable relations with others" (p. 2). In transforming how the offender relates to others, the concept includes an assumption of some change or rehabilitation that has taken place within the individual.

Another type of restorative practice that may be infused with rehabilitation is Bazemore's (1998) concept of 'earned redemption' which "requires a sanctioning approach that allows offenders to make amends to those they have harmed to earn their way back into the trust of the community" (p. 770). It also "does imply some tradition of societal mercy and some basic level of community capacity to forgive, if not forget, the actions of offenders once they have made reparation" (p. 785). Central to this "relational rehabilitation" (Bazemore, 1998, p. 787), as well as to restorative justice practices, in general, are the emotional dynamics involved in the process (Harris et al., 2004). Because a community's response to crime impacts how

offenders see themselves, a restorative response creates an opportunity where “respect for the offender can be expressed because he or she has had the courage to confront his or her responsibility and this might have been difficult” (Harris et al., p. 203). Therefore, irrespective of the offense, others still treat the offender with dignity. What is hypothesized to follow is that, “while defects in the self, in the ethical identity of the person, are revealed by the offense and its condemnation, these defects in a mostly good self can be repaired. Through their compassion supporters are saying ‘you are not irredeemably bad and that is why we are standing beside you’” (ibid). Compassion, as a reaction to crime, “assists the worse of us to put our best self forward” (p. 204).

When a community responds to crime with respect for the offender, there can be shame acknowledgement, which Braithwaite (2005) argues, is necessary to prevent future crime. There can then be a paradigm “shift from a blame culture to a learning culture” (p. 289). Mercy and learning encourage what he refers to as active responsibility, as opposed to the passive responsibility associated with traditional criminal justice responses to crime. According to Braithwaite, “passive responsibility means holding someone responsible for something they have done in the past. Active responsibility means taking responsibility for putting things right into the future” (p. 291). The redemption that he reasons will follow may aid in the desistance from crime, or enable what Shadd Maruna (2001) refers to as “making good.”

#### Critique of Restorative Justice

The restorative practices orientation has been criticized for limitations similar to the treatment orientation that acts on offenders, removing their agency from the

process. To use the typology of McCold and Wachtel (2003) discussed above, restorative justice, with vague notions of when redemption is earned, can be perceived as being done “TO” offenders. While the offender is included in restorative practices (e.g., in a sentencing circle), “often the decisions about what the offender ‘needs’ are made in the absence of knowledge about or reference to the research or professional knowledge of ‘what works’” (M. Kay Harris, personal communication, 7/31/05). In addition, the process by which offenders are held responsible or accountable “can result in offenders being treated as objects in the quest for public safety rather than as moral subjects with their individual worth” (Harris, 2005, p. 321). Such analysis is rooted in “the criminal-justice-as-oppression perspective” (ibid). The concern for improving social capital appears again when considering that “[a]n emphasis on individual deficiencies disregards the multilayered social, economic, racial, class, and gender-related forces that affect people and their behaviors” (ibid).

#### TRANSFORMATIVE JUSTICE

Another alternative to the effective rehabilitation orientation may be referred to as transformative justice or “the self-change, empowerment, and desistance camp” that Harris acknowledges is “perhaps not as well organized or recognized” as others (2005, p. 317). Transformation is different from rehabilitation in a number of ways. “Rehabilitation seeks to change the way a person behaves; transformation changes how a person thinks. Rehabilitation looks to the past; transformation is future oriented. Rehabilitation often occurs externally; transformation originates from within” (L.I.F.F.E.R.S., p. 63S). It is also significant that “the aim of rehabilitation is

to restore the individual to some former state that may or may not have worked for the individual in the first place. Transformation, on the other hand, works to completely transform the person's way of thinking" (p. 64S). The research in this area builds on the idea that an opportunity for offenders to experience emotional change should be a necessary component of a criminal justice response to crime. Researchers in this area focus on the active efforts and decisions made by those who have ceased engaging in criminal activity, rather than on the effect of an intervention on them. Harris argues that for them, desistance is "not thought of as being either a distinctive event or an experience that happens to people, but as process involving a series of individual choices and actions as well as changes in self-image" (ibid). Before discussing contemporary transformative justice, it is necessary to review life course theory, the limits of which form the basis for desistance theory (Maruna, 2001).

Over a decade ago Sampson and Laub (1993) identified changes in criminality associated with progress and turning points through the life span. They argue that informal social controls result from interactions and bonding with others; it is the social investment in these "institutional relationships (e.g., family, work, community)" that generates what they call social capital (Laub & Sampson, 1993, p. 310). The bonds or ties can "create interdependent systems of obligation and restraint that impose significant costs for translating criminal propensities into action" (Laub & Sampson, 1993, p. 311). They argue that adults "will be inhibited from committing crime to the extent that they have social capital invested in their work and family lives" (Sampson & Laub, 1993, p. 141). The social capital invested in these

relationships may also be the basis of salient life events that trigger transitions in a pathway or trajectory (ibid). According to the researchers, “social institutions and triggering life events that may modify trajectories include school, work, the military, marriage, and parenthood” (p. 66). Evidence that “prosocial coworkers disrupt previously established delinquent peer networks and are associated with reductions in adult criminal behavior” may indicate that similar positive effects may be associated with prosocial program participants (Wright & Cullen, 2004, p. 183). Therefore, building social capital through a commitment to participating in what have been identified as effective correctional programs could lead to what Robert Johnson (2002) calls “mature coping” (p. 82) inside prison.

Rather than the result of a specific event or turning point as conceived of by Sampson and Laub (1993), Robert Johnson’s (2002) concept of mature coping introduces an increased sense of the agency of each individual offender in the process of transformation. He argues that mature coping is “at the core of what we mean by correction or rehabilitation” and that without it, “the prison experience will simply add to [inmates’] catalog of failure and defeat” rather than contribute to a new prosocial identity of themselves (p.83). Johnson defines mature coping as

dealing with life’s problems like a responsive and responsible human being, one who seeks autonomy without violating the rights of others, security without resort to deception or violence, and relatedness to others as the finest and fullest expression of human identity. (p. 83)

When provided with a sense of control or autonomy over their lives, prisoners

adjust better to prison and life on the outside. Such persons are more goal-directed in their adjustment, more involved in prison programs, experience less conflict with authorities and other inmates, and violate fewer prison rules; they experience less emotional distress and fewer symptoms of physical illness in their daily prison lives. (p. 84)

Resolving conflict or addressing problems without dishonesty or violence, which are basic to prison culture, indicates the presence of trust and is the second component of Johnson's mature coping. In prison, where there is a "lack of norms dictating that one must help others in need," many experience a loss of feelings of empathy (p. 92). But it is through caring for one self and others that allows for self-actualization, according to Johnson. He argues that "trust allows people to feel secure enough to relate to others openly and honestly and to cooperate with them in the resolution of difficulties. Ultimately, such cooperative relations hold out the prospect of self-actualization" (p. 94).

Johnson goes on to note that rather than an idealistic community of selfless individuals, he is calling for "altruistic egoism" where help is provided to others with an expectation of help in return (p. 94). Bonds to others can therefore be strengthened and made reliable. Mature coping contradicts the norms in prison where inmates are "enjoined not to cultivate generosity, connectedness, and cooperation but to suppress these attributes by being cold, unfeeling, and hedonistically self-centered" (p. 96). Johnson draws parallels between the adjustment of life-sentenced inmates and mature coping. Lifers "strive to make the most of the resources available in prison. As a result, they obey the rules and generally stay out of trouble, secure good jobs, participate in programs, involve themselves in organized clubs and recreation, and generally fill their days with structured activities" (p. 105). Long-termers' improved coping leads to a variety of benefits including "an increase in prosocial attitudes and a decrease in disciplinary problems over time" as well as fewer physical and psychological manifestations of stress (p. 107). With time comes an "attempt to

carve out a private prison world composed of niches or sanctuaries, offering sheltered settings and benign activities that insulate them from the mainline prison” (p. 109). The niches can then be used “as arenas for constructive social learning, that is, as places where one feels secure enough to respond maturely” (p. 110). Johnson concludes that “it is reasonable to suppose that prisoners who adapt in this fashion...may be more likely to handle general life stresses in mature ways when they leave prison” (ibid). Since “there is and always has been a general similarity between the adjustment problems posed in prison and those in the outside world,” the experiences and lessons learned while incarcerated are really practice for life beyond the prison walls (ibid). It follows, then, that the changes associated with mature coping while incarcerated could form the roots of desistance from criminal activity upon release. The members of L.I.F.E.R.S. Public Safety Steering Committee of the State Correctional Institution at Graterford, Pennsylvania argue just this when they say that “ending the culture of street crime that exists within the prison is a logical first step in challenging this culture” and putting the transformation process into action. This process is explored more deeply by Shadd Maruna (2001) who sought an answer to why some ex-offenders manage to engage in prosocial (or mature) behavior while others persist at crime.

According to Maruna (2001) in order to “desist from crime, ex-offenders need to develop a coherent, prosocial identity for themselves” (p. 7). He argues that all adults create an “internalized life story – or personal myth – to provide their lives with unity, purpose, and meaning. The construction and reconstruction of this narrative, integrating one’s perceived past, present, and anticipated future, is itself the

process of identity development in adulthood” (p. 7). He found commonalities in the subjective aspects of human life (emotions, thoughts, motivations, and goals)” of desisters (p. 8). Most significant, according to Maruna (2001), is the changed or repaired ideas of self he found in those who cease engaging in crime, even among career or persistent offenders. Desisters must be able to explain their reform in terms of their own experiences or biography not only to others, but “perhaps more importantly, ex-offenders need to have a believable story of why they are going straight to convince *themselves* that this is a real change” (p. 86, italics in original). The “recovery story” or “redemption script” created by ex-offenders often establishes them as good or conventional and blames past problems on attempting “to achieve some sort of power over otherwise bleak circumstances” (p. 87). It is through the “help of some outside force, someone who ‘believed in’ the ex-offender, [that] the narrator is able to accomplish what he or she was ‘always meant to do.’ Newly empowered, he or she now also seeks to ‘give something back’ to society as a display of gratitude” (ibid). He also found desisters “were significantly more care-oriented, other-centered and focused on promoting the next generation” (Maruna & LeBel, 2003, p. 100).

Despite the fact that the study of desistance originated as a critique of treatment, Farrall and Maruna (2004) agree that “there are very good reasons, of course, for combining insights from” the two literatures (p. 362). Chiefly “is the fact that they are concerned with essentially similar topics: why people cease to break the law and efforts aimed at encouraging such reform,” even while the methods and language of the literatures differ (p. 362). Combined efforts may also provide a more

nuanced analysis of a program or strategy by opening the ‘black box’ of the process (Farrall & Maruna, 2004). As the authors warn, “policies designed without reference to the needs of the recipients are unlikely to do much to help them desist” (p. 362). And finally, “as desistance research grows and matures into a fully-fledged program of research, new areas of exploration which emerge from the research world can be fed into the policy arena (and vice versa)” (ibid). Clearly there is similarity between the two camps.

Most recently, researchers of the transformative orientation, “tend to view the ‘what works’ orientation and the research and programs it spawns as only one piece of a bigger picture” (Harris, 2005, p. 317). Maruna, Immarigeon and LeBel (2004) recently noted that “desistance (self-change) and rehabilitation (change through intervention) might best be understood as the same thing, or at least part of the same process” (p. 12). Change accomplished through treatment is still the result of self-change, they argue; “behavioral change follows a multi-level, rather than a single track....Both tracks – self-determination and professional intervention – are part of a larger process of change” (p. 13). The third component of this model of change is the social support and control from informal sources of help including family, friends, and neighbors. As a result of these new ideas regarding the process of desistance, Maruna and associates argue that “it may be time to broaden our focus from the always important question of ‘what works’ to ‘how it works’” (p. 16). They say the goal of desistance research should be to get the field to accept “this ‘natural’ process of reform and design interventions that can enhance or complement these spontaneous efforts” (p. 16). The authors point to their own volume of work (Maruna

and Immarigeon, 2004) as one that “demonstrates the potential of using criminological theory and research in the development of reintegration practice” (p. 22). They urge the collaboration of academics and practitioners in the field to produce more work in a similar vein.

#### Critique of Transformative Justice

Harris (2005) notes that the empowerment, self-change, and desistance orientation fails “to address the wide social contexts in which offenders are situated” (p. 318). Therefore a critique common to both the treatment and the transformative approaches is their concentration on micro-, or individual-level, characteristics. Research has found evidence of damage sustained by communities where large percentages of young men are imprisoned (e.g., Rose & Clear, 1998). The call to consider the structural barriers to change has been made, Harris points out as “criminologists and practitioners recommend increasingly that strengthening social capital should become one of the goals of criminal justice policy” (ibid). Yet the latest ideas in the field, including effective correctional treatment, restorative justice, and transformative justice, ignore these conditions.

Also similar to criticism of the ‘what works’ literature, studies regarding transformative practices “may suggest a basic incompatibility between helping activities and criminal lifestyles; they tell us little about how to ‘create more helpers’” (Maruna & LeBel, 2003, p. 100). Maruna and LeBel (2003) regard the lack of research on transformative practices “rather startling considering how much research is funded each year to examine the impact of greater controls and, less frequently,

treatment programming” (p. 100). Clearly, this is an area where researchers, scholars and practitioners need to target their resources.

#### ALTRUISITC ACTIVITY

While not a specific orientation or theory, PAPs are clearly an example of what Toch (2000) refers to as “altruistic activity as correctional treatment” and may also serve as part of the foundation necessary for transformation and desistance. Toch defines the concept as “activity designed not for profit or gain but to assist some underprivileged people who stand in manifest need of assistance. The point of such activity is to enable its beneficiaries to survive or to enhance the compromised quality of their lives” (p. 270). He identifies four “psychological gains from altruistic activity...that have rehabilitative potential” (ibid). First, participants gain a sense of agency or accomplishment as a result of “helping another human being whose needs (and the response to whose needs) are in the foreground of the transaction” (p. 271). The correctional system, while playing a role, “is not the hero of the piece” (ibid). Instead, the participants “are publicly presented (and able to define themselves) as capable of contributing to the world instead of vegetating or serving heavy-handed time waiting for their sentences to expire” (ibid). Secondly, Toch points to participants’ improved self-esteem. Since “low self-esteem can lead to compensatory behavior – including posturing of toughness and the exercise of violence – and to despondency and self-destructive acts” enhancing the self-esteem of those incarcerated can lead to self-change that improves the safety of the prison environment (ibid). Toch argues that the improvements “must derive from tangible and worthy accomplishments. The offender must take pride in achievements that he

regards as worthwhile and that society views as conforming and prosocial” (p. 273). Furthermore, the “pride derives from the social and human consequences of one’s actions. Enhancements to self-esteem are not merely based on physical accomplishments...but the achievement lies in the impact of what one has done on the lives of others” (ibid). Here Toch may be referring to building social capital, identified by Sampson and Laub (1993) and described above. He also incorporates Maruna’s (2001) ideas about changed definitions of self when he concludes that “where the offender thus comes to value his capacity to assist those in need, it almost follows that he becomes less likely to prize his ability to exploit weak and vulnerable citizens” (ibid).

Toch’s third effect from participating in altruistic activity is a sense of purpose and meaning. While prison work has generally been considered rehabilitative as “a vehicle to rehearse transferable work habits” and for the “acquisition of marketable skills,...involvement in altruistic activity is not career development” (p. 274).

Instead, participants learn

premises such as (a) it is not at all unmanly to engage in caring or nurturing activities, (b) there is satisfaction in experiencing gratitude from persons whom one assists, (c) to respond to needs of others is at least as rewarding as satisfying one’s own, (d) one’s personal problems diminish in salience when one considers the problems faced by those who are more disadvantaged, (e) one contributes to improving the world through individual acts of kindness, and (f) one can feel, effective, competent, and powerful when one assists people who are relatively dispossessed of resources. (p. 275)

A key to the above lessons is that “they emerge, however, from experience rather than academic exercises” (ibid). Toch concludes that a changed perspective “affects the way the offender reacts to the views of his fellow offenders and reduces the attractiveness of delinquent subcultural norms. More substantial cognitive restructuring produces increments in social maturity” (ibid). Again, Maruna (2001)

might say that the changed perspective leads to an altered, prosocial definition of self that produces desistance.

Toch's final possible benefit from participation in altruistic activity has restorative implications. He argues that the repair and amends "can also be effected in relation to surrogates or stand-ins for persons he has victimized. The basic restorative calculus involves doing good to balance the harm that one has done" (p. 275). The restorative potential of altruistic activity, according to Toch, is most effective when offenders feel guilty and ashamed of their misdeeds. They are "apt to welcome the chance to alleviate their remorse by contributing to the public good or helping the community" (ibid). Irrespective of feelings of guilt or shame, the prosocial activity has the potential allows the offender to view his past and present behavior differently, thus increasing the likelihood that a new sense of identity can be formed.

Toch concludes by noting "prisons have a great deal to gain – and little to lose – in multiplying the opportunities for inmates to engage in altruistic activities that add a human face (or a humane face) to corrections" (p. 276). The public is therefore "less likely to envision the prisons as places from which robbers and rapists escape to terrorize the countryside" (ibid). But altruistic behavior is more than good public relations for correctional agencies, altruistic behavior that can result in rehabilitation benefits individual participants as well as the field. "As our prisoners gain maturity and expand their personal horizons, the corrections system becomes a more purposive and open institution" (ibid).

## A 'REALITY-BASED RATIONALE'

Irrespective of the potential theoretical implications of PAPs described above, there is an additional justification for effective programming. Simply, “regardless of the reasons, many offenders do make positive changes while in custody and they must be provided the opportunity for positive institutional programming” (Carlson, 2001, p. 25). Carlson argues that given the relatively persistent nature of criminality, “we are compelled to abandon the idea that inmates will *change* their innermost selves through institutional programming” (p. 26). But, he says, participants will exhibit “compliant behavior” to avoid losing the social capital they accumulate through participating in worthwhile programs, even if they have not actually changed. Regardless, the ultimate goal for correctional management (i.e., compliance) is achieved.

The above argument, from a veteran correctional security staff member and administrator, while dismissive of desistance and transformation, should not be ignored as support for programming. While the goal of researchers may be to develop theory- and results-driven programs, it is necessary to consider that the goal of a facility’s major stakeholders, both inmates and security staff, is safety and security. Regardless of the theoretical approach or orientation adopted by a program, the priorities of the security staff must be considered and addressed. It seems unlikely that any stakeholder could argue against worthwhile correctional programming that meets their specific needs; well-designed programs, then, offer the possibility of beneficial effects for a variety of a facility’s stakeholders.

## CHAPTER FOUR: ANIMAL-ASSISTED THERAPY LITERATURE

Perhaps the most famous case of animal-assisted therapy inside prison is that of Robert Stroud, the “Birdman of Alcatraz.” He cared for and learned about the birds that flew onto the prison island. The ordered removal of feral cats from San Quentin was national news in 1976 (Arkow, 1998). The number of cats had grown unmanageable, while some inmates were decidedly not ‘cat people.’ Inmate fights, lack of animal medical care, and improper food and sanitation were among the problems that led up to the round-up of animals. In 1975, elderly inmates at what was then the minimum-security California Institution for Men at Chino were charged with caring for that facility’s stray cat population (ibid). While the precise number of states with animal programs has (until presently) not been compiled, a preliminary examination of individual state’s departments of corrections indicates that a significant number of states currently have animal programs.

The vast majority of the existing research regarding AAT has been conducted with populations other than prison inmates (Lai, 1998; Moneymaker & Strimple, 1991). Perhaps most developed is the literature on the benefits of animals in working with the elderly (e.g., Baun & McCabe, 2000; Perelle & Granville, 1993; Siegel, 1990); the treatment has also been applied to a variety of chronic and terminal illnesses (e.g., Batson, McCabe, Baun, & Wilson, 1998; Becker, 2002), and AIDS patients (e.g., Gorcyca, Fine, & Spain, 2000). In addition to using animals to encourage recovery from physical illness, pets have successfully been introduced to psychiatric populations for whom “there is so much loneliness and rejection in an

institution that pets can have a real impact” (Lee, 1987, p. 232). It should be no surprise then that PAPs have become widely implemented in prisons.

The first documented use of AAT is recognized as occurring at the York Retreat in England, established in 1792 by a Quaker group (Beck & Katcher, 1996; Graham, 2000; Lai, 1998). Farm animals were used to teach the patients self-control through positive reinforcement with the weaker and needy animals. The approach was vastly different from the general manner in which people with mental illness were treated at the time. In 1867 epileptics institutionalized at Bethel, in Germany were treated with animal therapy. The center still utilizes pet therapy treatments for the patients with physical and psychological disorders housed there today (Beck & Katcher, 1996). The first recorded use of animals in therapy in the United States was in the early 1940s at the Army Air Corps Convalescent Hospital in Pawling, New York (Arkow, 1998; Beck & Katcher, 1996). Men recovering from service-related injuries worked with farm animals as part of a regimen of non-stressful activities.

#### PHYSIOLOGICAL UNDERPINNINGS

Despite being utilized in programs, little formal research that specifically examined how people and animals interact was conducted before the 1960s. Clinical research that scientifically studied the effects of animals on people began, by accident, during a series of studies from 1977 to 1979 of patients with severe coronary heart disease (Beck & Katcher, 1996). At the University of Maryland, Alan Beck and Aaron Katcher found that divorced, single, and widowed men and women died from heart disease at higher rates than those who were married. The scientists designed an exhaustive study to examine what other social factors could have

produced such results. They examined variables such as type of neighborhood, number of social encounters, birth place of parents, life changes and measures of mood. After the first year, 14 of 92 patients died. As predicted, some of the social variables examined differed between the living and the dead, but it was pet ownership that best predicted who lived or died (see Table 1).

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Table 1  
Mortality of Pet Owners versus Non-Pet Owners with Severe Coronary Heart Disease.

Mortality	Pet Ownership		Total
	Pet	No Pet	
Living	50	28	78
Dead	3	11	14
Total	53	39	92

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Incredulous of their data, the researchers rechecked their work and found they had not erred. They verified that better health did not make owning a pet more likely, but was, in fact, a cause, and not an effect.

After documenting the effects on heart disease Beck and Katcher conducted an experiment designed to compare pet owners talking to a stranger with those talking to (and touching) animals, which is how most people interact with their pets. They found that participants' blood pressure was highest when talking to the researcher and lower when at rest, but lowest when the participants were talking to and petting their animals. And "since that first conclusion, that unlike talking to people, talking to animals reduces stress and blood pressure, the validity of the observation has been confirmed by many others investigators" (1996 , p. 81).

The calming effect of animals is also mediated by how people talk to their companion animals. By recording the interactions, the researchers were able to watch people's facial expressions while talking with their animals. Pet owners generally talk to their animals "with softer, higher-pitched voices than normal, their conversation punctuated with simple questions...and with their attention fully on the animal to the exclusion of all else" (1996, p. 82). They found the effect present for not only dog and cat owners, but bird owners as well.

While in most social interactions, American men are viewed as engaging in touch less often than women, the same cannot be said in how the genders relate to their pets. The researchers found "men and women touched their dogs as frequently and for just as long....There were no significant differences between the sexes" (1996, p. 89). The intimacy that is established between people and their companion animals stems from the lack of language exchanged between them. "They ask no questions; they say no words that hurt; they offer no advice" (1996, p. 93). Companion animals never reject their masters.

Even the mere sight of an animal can reduce tension. In a series of experiments, Katcher and a research partner had children come into a room with either a lone researcher or the researcher accompanied by a friendly dog. The children's blood pressure was lowest when the dog was present. Some children saw the dog when they first entered the room, while for others, the dog entered later. The children who saw the dog upon first coming into the room had the lowest blood pressure, "suggesting that the initial sighting of the dog labeled the whole situation as safe" (1996, p. 105). Various permutations of this experiment demonstrated that the

presence of one's own dog lowered blood pressure more than when paired with a strange dog. Fish were also found to have similar calming effects. The researchers explain their results with a seemingly simple fact: "We relax whenever any neutral visual event draws our attention outward and interrupts our ongoing train of thought" (1996, p. 110).

The fact that animals have relaxing and reassuring effects on people is reflected in the ways in which animals are increasingly being used in everyday work. As airports have become increasingly tension-filled places, the presence of explosives-detecting dogs can actually produce a calming effect, in addition to being more accurate than machines. At Los Angeles International Airport, the dogs have been described as cheering people up and providing passengers with a sense of security (Sterngold, 2002). According to one security officer, "Strolling through a terminal here with Jackson was like being with Julia Roberts on a crowded street. Nearly everyone who noticed her responded with a smile or an outstretched hand, followed by kissing sounds" (p. A24). The officers partnered with the dogs also report feeling more relaxed when on the job.

While the relationship between pet-ownership and health has been documented, the understanding is not considered comprehensive. Perhaps a web model comes closest as it "considers the many complicated and convoluted relationships among the pet, its owner, and the multiple social systems in which they exist" (Brasic, 1998, p. 1012). The components of the relationship do not neatly add up to what ultimately results. There appears to be synergy, or, according to the

principles of Gestalt psychology, the effects of animals are greater than the sum of their parts.

## PSYCHOSOCIAL EFFECTS

While Beck and Katcher were conducting their first experiments, other researchers were investigating the effects of companion animals in psychiatric treatment (Beck & Katcher, 1996). The AAT program at Lima State Hospital for the Criminally Insane (today Oakwood Forensic Center) in Ohio, established in 1975, remains one of the most oft-cited animal-assisted programs, and was the first formal program to use a maximum-security population (Graham, 2000; Lai, 1998; Lee, 1987; Moneymaker & Strimple, 1991). The program was started after the unit director was struck by how the usually solitary and unresponsive patients coordinated their efforts to hide and feed an injured wild bird they had come across (Lee, 1987). A 90-day trial was implemented with three parakeets and an aquarium serving as unit mascots, and the idea quickly evolved and spread throughout the institution. Soon, convicted murderers, rapists and other violent offenders voluntarily participated in a behavior modification program where they were able to eventually care for their own small companion animal.

The program at Oakwood had a number of psychosocial goals (Lee, 1987). The psychological goals were to: improve self-esteem; provide non-threatening, non-judgmental affection; and induce a responsible attitude within the participants. Socially, the staff at Oakwood hoped the animals would: stimulate communication; improve the unit's atmosphere; provide the participants with a pro-social focus of attention; offer a diversion; and finally, serve as companionship. After a number of

years, the program was evaluated by comparing patients on a unit with animals to those on a unit without animals. Both wards had comparable patients and were of equal levels of security. The patients with pets required “half as much medication, had drastically reduced incidents of violence and had no suicide attempts during the year-long comparison. The ward without pets had eight documented suicide attempts during the same year” (ibid, p. 232).

The research regarding the psychosocial benefits of AAT can be categorized into four types: loneliness and depression; attention and calming; socializing effect; and motivating effect (Hart, 2000). A review of the literature regarding the effects of animals on human health found that “the benefits derived from companion animal contact are consistent with the research reported during the past two decades in the literature on human social support” (Garrity & Stallones, 1998, p. 3). Of 25 empirical studies examined, 16 reported some advantage to having contact with animals, while 11 studies reported no advantage to animal contact (ibid). The researchers report that “pet association probably benefits a person both directly and as a protective or buffering factor when the person is threatened by life circumstances” (p. 19). Due to the great variability in the types of studies included in the researcher’s review, they conclude that positive effects are not present for all people in all circumstances; they call for additional research to determine the factors that mediate therapeutic treatment effects.

More recently it appears that there is general acknowledgement that pets can be beneficial in a variety of ways. In a survey of parents with an epileptic child who also owned a dog, 20 percent said their dog was able to predict when seizures were

coming (O'Neil, 2004, p. F6). While the phenomenon is not understood, it does appear to be learned as it develops only after the dog has witnessed at least one seizure and appeared in dogs untrained for the purpose. According to the study's lead author, even if a family dog cannot identify seizures, owning a dog is still probably beneficial. "Families in the survey who had dogs reported higher quality-of-life scores over all. 'At some point, they should consider a dog for the same reasons we all do,' Dr. Kirton said" (ibid). Doctors have seemingly come to prescribe pets as good medicine.

#### BEHAVIORAL EFFECTS

Changes in psychology often accompany changes in behavior. In studies of children with attention deficit/hyperactive disorder, "calming the children was an initial first step. With their attention mobilized and directed outward, agitation and aggression diminish, creating a better teaching environment" (Hart, 2000, p. 70). Improvements in both conduct and attendance were noticed after a dog made regular visits to a school for severely behaviorally handicapped children (Woods, 1991). Arkow (1998) discusses several behavioral studies that further demonstrate the range of potential treatment effects in psychiatric populations. In one experiment, mentally ill offenders were videotaped answering questions both with and without a dog present. Patients spoke more words and answered more quickly when a dog was in the room (Corson, Corson, & Gwynne, 1975). In another study, physically-ill depressed outpatients laughed more readily and maintained a sense of humor after becoming pet owners (McCulloch, 1983).

Pro-social experiences with animals can also lead to pro-social relations with other people. Margaret Mead is credited with uncovering the relationship between how people treat animals and how they treat other people (Moneymaker & Strimple, 1991). Research has since demonstrated a relationship between a triad of maladaptive behaviors that occur during adolescence – enuresis, fire-starting and animal cruelty – with antisocial tendencies in adulthood (ibid). Thus prison inmates, who are overwhelmingly diagnosed with antisocial personality disorder, can greatly benefit from the opportunity to interact with animals in order to learn how to better interact with people.

Having a companion animal can instill responsibility and “inspire and motivate people to engage in constructive activities that they would not have otherwise” (Hart, 2000, p. 69). The responsibilities and care-giving activities associated with a pet are ties to a reality that can otherwise be absent for an institutionalized person (Lee, 1987). Companion animals also provide the person with an outlet to demonstrate his ability to commit, not only to the tasks required in animal care, but also to the living creature that relies on him. The needy animal “stimulates innate nurturing responses, and offers a sense of mastery” (Arkow, 1998, p. 8). Being responsible for another living creature not only teaches respect and appreciation for other forms of life, but also provides an educational opportunity. Animal-assisted therapy programs often include lessons in how to care for specific types of animals. For any institutionalized population, the ability to learn new skills can be especially rewarding; for prison inmates, the skills can lead to viable job opportunities when released.

The unconditional positive regard received from an animal can be of particular significance to prison inmates who have been identified as a population vulnerable to “social isolation that leaves people without the social or family support they need during a...crisis” (Hart, 2000, p. 60). The companionship that develops is also a source of security in an adversarial environment (Arkow, 1998; Lee, 1987). With animals prison inmates are given the opportunity to interact with a living being with no interest in their past actions or mistakes. Animals can provide a feeling of acceptance, while also fulfilling a basic human drive to nurture (Walsh & Mertin, 1994). Especially for males, who, it has been noted, “have few socially-acceptable outlets for touching and caressing,” the mutual affection that a relationship with an animal provides can be therapeutic (Arkow, 1998, p. 2). For inmates who live lives absent of touch and acceptance, animals are able to “stimulate a kind of love and caring that is not poisoned or inhibited by the prisoners’ experiences with people” (Beck & Katcher, 1996, p. 153). Clearly, then there are multiple therapeutic psychosocial and behavioral implications for pairing prison inmates with animals.

## **CHAPTER FIVE: PRISON-BASED ANIMAL PROGRAMS (PAPS)**

### **LITERATURE**

Given the beneficial physiological, psychological, and social effects discussed above, it should be no surprise that animals have been incorporated into prison life. Despite their increased development, however, few attempts have been made to comprehensively examine PAPS; there are “abundant anecdotal and qualitative assessments but few controlled, empirically based studies” of the programs (Lai, 1998, p. 4). In a review of the (mostly American) literature published by Correctional Services of Canada, PAPS were found in the United States, Canada, England, Scotland, Australia, and South Africa (Lai, 1998). In addition to using a wide variety of animals, these programs also encompass a range of program designs as well (ibid). While dogs are most common, this recent review reports animals used in PAPS include wild animals, farm animals, and other domestic animals such as cats. For example, inmates at Colorado’s prison in Canon City work training wild horses, while inmates at Saughton Prison in Edinburgh, Scotland raise fish for Third World countries (ibid).

A typology of PAPS based on that proposed by Hines (n.d.) appears in Table 2.

Table 2  
*PAP Designs*

PROGRAM TYPE	DESCRIPTION
Visitation Programs	Companion animals brought to facility by humane society or nonprofit organization at specified times
Wildlife Rehabilitation Programs	Participants care for injured wildlife which are then released
Livestock Care Programs	Farm animal care including milking and calf raising; fish breeding
Pet Adoption Programs	Animals are adopted and cared for by individual inmates
Service Animal Socialization Programs	Assistance/work puppies or dogs are raised and taught basic commands; dog goes on to specialized training
Vocational Programs	Participants are trained/certified in animal grooming/handling/care
Community Service Programs	Participants train and care for animals (including dogs and wild horses) which are then adopted out to the community
Multi-Modal Programs	Usually vocational program component and community service program component

There are a number of reasons prisons are increasingly implementing PAPs. Primarily, the programs may be established to benefit a facility's inmates by providing treatment and/or a vocational program (Lai, 1998). They can also serve as a source of revenue for the prison. An additional benefit of PAPs comes from the positive community relations fostered by these types of programs (Harkrader, Burke, and Owen, 2004). Inmates are viewed as engaging in positive work, or "altruistic activity" as described by Toch (2000), and as serving the community. Beyond the correctional benefits for both individual offenders and the overall facility, PAPs also make a contribution to a larger social issue when, for example, the program rescues unwanted pets that would otherwise be destroyed (Lai, 1998). The great demand for work and service dogs has created a market where the large blocks of time had by

prison inmates makes them ideal candidates to conduct the intensive and time-consuming training required for animals to go on to specialized service work.

Noticeably absent from the discussion of PAPs in the literature is any consideration of the programs' theoretical implications in terms of punishment and justice. The somewhat narrow research that has been conducted on PAPs has thus far been limited to what the authors consider evaluations of the programs. The existing literature is primarily descriptive in that it informs as to 'what' is occurring within the programs. The answers to the questions of 'how' and 'why' have been based largely on informal and anecdotal measures. In addition, the effective correctional programming literature has yet to be applied to PAPs. In fact, the programs have not been examined through any specific orientation to prison programming.

#### TREATMENT EFFECTS

One of the forerunners of PAPs was that of the Purdy Treatment Center for Women, a maximum-security prison in Washington. It was here that a now common program design was originated – teaching inmates to train dogs for adoption in the community – with the help of a former inmate (Arkow, 1998; Graham, 2000; Moneymaker and Strimple, 1991). In what would be classified as a vocational program, prison administrators were also attracted to the program by the potential therapeutic benefits for the participants. In 1981, under the auspices of the People Pet Partnership (PPP) program, inmates signed up for 11-week classes through Tacoma Community College. They received classroom and hands-on lessons with local shelter dogs, in training, grooming and job-seeking skills (Hines, 1983). As a result of the inmates' training, many homeless dogs were made more adoptable while others

were sent to schools for more advanced training to work with people with disabilities. Administrators noted that some inmates were more cooperative while others said the women learned self-control. Rather than any incidences of animal abuse being reported, as was initially feared, the inmates quickly became concerned for the animals' welfare (ibid).

At the same time, in Virginia, a veterinarian helped establish a program built around a prison chapter of the national People-Animals-Love (PAL) group (Arkow, 1998; Beck & Katcher, 1996; Graham, 2000; Hines, 1983). Shelter animals were paired with inmates at Lorton Prison who were allowed to keep the animal if transferred or released, in what would be considered a pet adoption program. According to the program's director, the inmates, "through sharing, are learning to trust one another. Animals bring humanity – they bring out the very best in all of us" (Arkow, 1998, p. 13).

In an evaluation conducted several years after its inception, Moneymaker and Strimple (1991) sought to quantify the treatment effects of the program at Lorton by examining disciplinary records. First, they found that 12% of participants were discharged from the program due to rule violations. They also found that approximately 11% of the participants (after an unspecified length of time) recidivated, while the remaining members of the sample did not return to prison (p. 146). Finally, they found that inmates who participated in the program showed "considerable change in their outlook toward others and their sense of self-worth, as well as their sense of achieving a better goal in life. This seems particularly true by the fewer altercations and problem behavior" from program participants (p. 148).

They reported that while inmates with pets had slightly fewer disciplinary offenses, the severity of the infractions was not affected. However, overall, they argue, “it seems clear from some of these preliminary findings that the program has worked to instill in its members a sense of responsibility and goal oriented achievement toward a rewarding vocation” (p. 150). A final treatment effect was the help provided by the participants in society’s efforts at controlling the overpopulation of unwanted animals (ibid).

The authors describe the program as providing “a unique opportunity for individuals who have committed heinous crimes to perhaps redeem themselves or at least to show a different side of themselves” in the abstract of their paper (p. 133). Yet they never consider the redemptive or restorative potential of the program they evaluate. The authors do not consider the role of the program within the criminal justice system except to argue that the program should be replicated. And while they note that the program contributes to society’s burden of unwanted animals, they do not consider the impact of the reparative practices on the participants. As the program provides the opportunity to have a pet while incarcerated there are clear personal benefits to participation. It is unknown whether participants are aware of or acknowledge the potential for their work to serve as a form of restitution in the process of healing the damage their offenses inflicted on society.

The literature’s most rigorous research has been conducted on the Wild Mustang Program (WMP) which operated from 1988 to 1992 at a New Mexico prison in partnership with the state Bureau of Land Management. The program not only sought to save and tame wild mustangs, but it also served as a vocational program in

the prison, and generated a profit for the facility when the horses were sold to members of the community (Cushing & Williams, 1995). Several themes emerged from the interviews conducted by the researchers. Program participants took on “a very different kind of role than is usually available to inmates” (p. 101). They were caregivers who expressed affection in the name of taming and rehabilitating the mustangs, the goal of their job. The tasks entrusted to them allowed the participants to serve as “their ‘own boss’ [which] added to the inmate’s sense of challenge, accomplishment, and pride in a job well-done. Autonomy is a characteristic that was valuable to the inmates” (p. 101). Program participants reported seeing changes in their fellow participants “who appeared to have developed an increased ability to handle stressful situations. The local administration said that the inmates who were in the program developed an increase in self-esteem and self-confidence as a result of working with the large animals” (p. 103).

The researchers examined a number of psychosocial and behavioral treatment effects. Staff members were asked to indicate whether they felt the program influenced participants’: self-esteem, self-confidence, stress, violent behavior, and disruptive behavior. Most reported that the program improved participants’ self-esteem (76 %) and increased self-confidence (74%). The researchers point out “a notable minority (40%) of staff cited ‘no change’ in violent behavior being observed” (p. 104). The authors conclude the program appears to be “wildly successful. However, a somewhat more cautious view is warranted upon realization that most of the basis for the subjective assessment is in the realm of psychological outcomes and these determinations are hardly being made by dispassionate neutral scientists” (ibid).

The program participants' official disciplinary records offer a different perspective of the PAP's treatment effects. Based on this quantitative measure, the researchers concluded that "participation in the WMP is clearly associated with a reduction in the overall number of disciplinary reports and the severity of reports swung away from major to minor" (p. 106). The total number of infractions for participants incarcerated for violent offenses decreased, while the number increased overall among property offenders. However, the increase was for minor offenses; the number of major disciplinary offenses for property offenders decreased. The authors suggest there was a 'problem officer' responsible for the increase among a few property offenders (1995). The researchers also note the possibility of an interaction effect with participants who were also attending a substance abuse counseling program. They found that "the total number of disciplinary reports for the inmates who were not in substance abuse counseling is much larger per person" (p. 108).

The researchers acknowledge that their "efforts reveal strong subjective assessments of positive benefits of the program. Given these glowing, if anecdotal, evaluations and...against a backdrop of a good public image," they argue the program should be continued (p. 110). But they omit any discussion of the implications of a prison having 'a good public image' or that it would earn one by implementing an innovative and cost-effective program that has a range of beneficial aspects. While they examine recidivism rates they do not consider the theoretical support, or lack of, that these programs reduce recidivism. Do PAPs contribute to Maruna's(2001) notion of the 'redemption script' or to the social capital Sampson and Laub (1993) argue is necessary for desistance? As with the rest of the literature in this area, these

researchers do not include any discussion of the role of this program within the larger criminal justice system. The program's implications in terms of punishment and justice are not investigated.

In a review of another New Mexico PAP, incarcerated older teenagers were paired with unwanted dogs from a nearby shelter and trained in obedience for three weeks (Harbolt & Ward, 1991). Participants cleaned their dog's kennel, exercised, socialized, and groomed their dog, and learned about dog health and medicine. The researchers analyzed letters written by the participants to their dog's future owner, and found the youth demonstrated compassion, were dedicated to their tasks, and gained experience giving and receiving positive regard. For some, it was the first time they had ever known a dog as a pet; their previous experience was with dog fighting or dogs serving as protection.

A recent compilation of evaluations of PAPs continued to find support for a variety of treatment effects. Inmates at Colorado's Canon City prison reported reduced illegal drug use, increased self confidence, patience and respect for both people and animals, and said that time seemed to pass faster when working with the horses in the PAP (Lai, 1998). Juvenile offenders who participate in Project Pooch at the Maclaren School of the Oregon Youth Authority, adopt a dog from a local animal shelter and train the dog for adoption by a community member. Administrators report that "all the students who have participated have decreased their number of office referrals, and show improved self-esteem, patience, responsibility, and vocational skills" (ibid, p. 27).

The limited international research available reports findings equivalent to those from the United States. In several English and Welsh prisons cockatiels are bred and cared for by inmates and aquariums are installed in common areas (Graham, 2000). A review of programs in Scottish prisons found “an increase in the level of communications between prisoners and again between inmates and staff. Visitors seemed more relaxed and stayed longer. They also found that the presence of animals resulted in a reduction of staff stress levels” (Graham, 2000, p. 250). An evaluation of a pilot program in a women’s prison in Australia contains one of the only true experiments in the literature (Walsh & Mertin, 1994). Researchers found significant improvements in participants’ self-esteem and levels of depression, based on standardized self-report measures, after participation in the program for 6 months (ibid).

A comprehensive review conducted by the executive director of the Delta Society, Linda Hines (n.d.) summarized the literature as having reported the following treatment effects:

- improve socialization
- overcome depression
- decrease suicide
- reduce anger, violence, and drug use
- increase cooperative behavior
- learn team skills
- provide constructive use of time
- reduce stress levels/tension
- learn caring and nurturing behavior
- exercise emotional control
- learn patience
- learn to complete tasks
- experience confidence, self-esteem
- learn responsibility
- experience work ethic
- increase respect for animals and others

In addition, the effects at the facility-level were identified as: the prison offers a successful and popular vocational program; there is improved inmate behavior and

cooperation; the prison has a more positive public image from the media and visitors; and the participants are able to make a positive contribution to the community (ibid).

#### VOCATIONAL FEATURES

While there are benefits to both the larger community and psychological well-being of the individuals involved, PAPs have also been shown to influence the overall employability of participants (Harkrader et al., 2004). Lai (1998) reports that “one universal aspect of the program is that inmates tend to set and achieve their goals” (p. 14). It appears that PAPs teach participants the basic skills necessary for obtaining and keeping a job, including responsibility, dedication, and respect.

An additional vocational aspect of this program stems from the training participants receive in a variety of animal-related tasks. Participants receive lessons in how to care for and handle the animals, how to train and groom the animals, as well as education about animal health and diet. Some programs offer certification in one or more areas of animal care that can lead to job opportunities (Lai, 1998). From the contacts made while participating in the program, with the shelter or non-profit agency that provides the animals, or the veterinarians who work with the program, participants may be hired upon release or be referred to job openings by those contacts. Because most DOCs prohibit employees from post-release contact with inmates, the literature lacks specific information regarding the number of ex-offenders employed in the field after participating in a PAP.

#### CONCLUSION

How to explain that even more recent works in this area continue to avoid a discussion of the programs’ theoretical implications or the broader issues surrounding

our ideology of punishment? The United States' growing number of PAPs may be indicative of a trend away from the retributive and vengeful policies generally relied upon in this country. But counter-indicative of any trend is our continued punitiveness with policies that include life sentences for minors, mandatory minimums, and the increasingly vengeful policies that govern sex offenders. The place of PAPs, then, within our current model of criminal justice remains unexplored.

## CHAPTER SIX: METHODOLOGY

### RESEARCH QUESTIONS & HYPOTHESES

The purpose of this study is to investigate the nature and extent to which PAPs are being administered in the United States, and to examine more closely two specific programs. The study had several objectives: 1) to capture the current use of PAPs in state correctional facilities and to identify the characteristics of these programs, 2) to examine the effects of the programs on official levels of misconduct, 3) to determine whether the programs are informed by what research has determined to be effective correctional programming, and 4) to identify the self-reported treatment effects from participants in two specific programs. These objectives were addressed through the following research questions and hypotheses.

- a. What is the nature and scope of PAP use at the national level?  
H1: A preliminary survey of state department of correction web pages and a variety of media sources indicated many states have implemented PAPs. It was hypothesized that a majority of states will have at least one PAP.
- b. Do the two PAPs under study effectively modify inmate behavior at an individual- and/or facility-level, according to official records?  
H1: The anecdotal evidence from prison administrators and inmates suggests that these programs effectively modify inmate behavior. It is hypothesized that these two PAPs will be associated with reduced incidence of misconduct for individual program participants as well as with a reduced rate of facility-level misconduct.
- c. Are the two PAPs informed by the findings of the effective correctional treatment literature?  
H1: A checklist based on the CPAI and the CPTS will guide the data collected from interviews with the PAPs' stakeholders. It is hypothesized that the PAPs will be found to incorporate some of the best practices or principles of effectiveness examined by the checklist, but not all.

d. What are the self-reported treatment effects associated with the two PAPs under study?

H1: Interviews with program participants and correction staff and administrators were conducted to determine what treatment effects they associate with the program. It is hypothesized that the PAPs will be associated with positive psychological, social, and physical treatment effects.

## DATA SOURCES

The present study utilized triangulation of research methods to decrease the influence of any one method's weakness (Maxfield & Babbie, 2001). The national overview of PAPs is complemented by the closer examination of two specific programs. The data were collected from two main sources: the state DOC employees who completed the national survey, and the stakeholders of the two PAPs in one northeastern state. The first program, in a maximum-security facility for females in the northeast, pairs offenders with puppies that are socialized in preparation for advanced training in explosives detection. The second program, in a medium-security facility for males aged 17-25 in the same northeastern state, pairs offenders with greyhounds rescued from destruction after the end of a racing career (usually 2-3 years) who are socialized for placement as pets in homes in the community.

To collect data for the first research question, regarding the current nature of PAPs being administered in the United States, each of the 50 states' department of corrections central office was mailed a survey (see Appendix A) with a cover letter explaining the purpose of the research (see Appendix B). After 4 weeks, a follow-up letter was mailed to the departments (see Appendix C). Program characteristics such as the year of establishment, number of participants, eligibility criteria used, types of animals utilized, amount of resource expenditure, and the nature and extent of the

participant-animal interactions were collected. In addition, the survey requested the program's retention rate and inquired whether the program offers participants links to possible jobs in the community upon release.

The data for the second research question, regarding official measures of institutional behavior in the two programs under study, was obtained from two sources. Information regarding the effects of PAPs on the frequency of individual-level misconduct was collected from the program directors. Due to the limited size of the programs, DOC administrators and the executive directors of the administering non-profits were able to verify the incidences of participants' individual misconduct reported by the directors. Facility-level data regarding rates of misconduct were provided by the central office of the northeastern state where the two PAPs are located. The facilities with PAPs were compared to prisons in the state without the programs. The two prisons included in the present study were also examined for pre- and post-PAP implementation changes in official levels of inmate misconduct.

Data for research questions three and four were collected from interviews with the PAPs' stakeholders who include participants, directors, DOC administrators and staff, and the executive directors of the non-profit organizations that administer the programs. Research question three, regarding whether the programs target the risk factors identified by the effective program literature, was informed by the data collected for a checklist based on the CPAI (Gendreau and Andrews, 2001) and the CPTS (ICCA, 2003) (see Appendix D). As discussed above, both assessment tools have been used to evaluate various types of correctional treatment programs, but PAPs had not yet been assessed according to the principles set forth in these

instruments. The information collected according to the checklist was obtained through interviews with the stakeholders.

Research question four, regarding the effects associated with the programs, was informed primarily by interviews with program participants (see Appendix E). The programs' directors, responsible for the daily operations of the programs (see Appendix F), and the facilities' superintendents and their deputies, as well as the correction officers posted in the units where the PAPs are housed were interviewed as well (see Appendix G). Fifteen individual participant interviews were conducted at the female facility and seven individual interviews and a focus group with 14 participants were conducted at the male facility.

Interviews took place in the prison facilities where the programs are located. Interviews with each of the program's 15 participants at the female facility were conducted over the course of two days in a private room in the administration building. Interviews of the program's seven primary handlers at the male facility were also conducted over the course of two days. The first three interviews were conducted in a private room with the program director, a senior CO posted inside. On the same day a focus group with all 14 program participants was conducted in a private room in the basement of the dorm that houses the program participants; the program director was also present for the focus group. The final four interviews were conducted in a private room in the administration building. At each site, the program's director was interviewed before beginning interviews with program participants on the first day as a way to obtain an overview of the program. At each facility, the superintendent and deputy were interviewed in the superintendent's

office; this interview took place on the second day of data collection at the female facility and on the first day of data collection at the male facility. Two correction officers were interviewed in front of the program director at the female facility. At the male facility the program director, also a senior member of the custody staff, was the only correction officer interviewed. The executive directors of the two non-profit organizations that administer the PAPs were interviewed over the phone. In addition, program curricula and documents were examined.

Interviews were transcribed by the researcher/interviewer. Tape recording the interviews was not possible, per prison regulation. Participants were assigned a code name used in the field notes. All field notes are kept in a locked file in the researcher's secure private office at The College of New Jersey where she is employed.

## BENEFITS OF QUALITATIVE METHODS

There are a number of benefits to using the above described research methods. Patenaude points out that “qualitative methods, especially field work, are highly suited to the task of gaining a subjective understanding of such experiences (2004, p. 70S). He defines field work as “the systematic process of collecting information through observation and interaction” (p. 71S). The goal, then is to “describe what ‘is’ without always making explicit what ‘ought to be,’ letting the data ‘speak for itself.’ The suspension of value judgment through the research (and most of the report writing) process” is what the qualitative researcher attempts to achieve (Liebling, 2001, p. 474 cited in Patenaude, 2004). Two tools, individual and focus group interviews, have been found to often be effective in the prison environment

(Patenaude, 2004). Focus groups are both exploratory and explanatory: they “provide the opportunity to inquire into the range of issues that...are important to the participants....[and] the opportunity to plumb the depths of the experiences as opposed to the prevalence of the conduct exposed by quantitative research” (p. 72S). An additional benefit is “the flexibility that they provide. Should a new topic or issue emerge that has relevance to the research at hand, the focus group leader can shift the research efforts in that direction for however long is required” (p. 72S). Qualitative research provides “the opportunity to gather data that may otherwise be hidden from correctional managers and policy makers” (p. 88S). Specifically, “individual and group interviews, structured and semi-structured, provide in-depth alternatives to traditional, positivist oriented, statistical research as do case studies” (ibid).

#### SAMPLE

For the first research question, the universe of all 50 state DOCS was contacted for participation. The sample of state DOC directors of programming was determined by the respondents who voluntarily returned a survey. For research questions two, three and four the second sample of 2 PAPs in a northeastern state was chosen from the universe of all PAPs based on location and a contact the researcher had with that state’s DOC. The convenience sample of program participants who were interviewed for the third and fourth research questions was the result of voluntary participation. Only participants 18 years of age or older were interviewed after engaging in an Informed Consent discussion. Participants were informed that the purpose of the study is gain a better understanding of the effects of PAPs. Participants were told that their participation was completely voluntary, that they did

not have to answer any questions they did not want, that they could stop at any time, and that there was no penalty or loss of privileges if they decided they did not want to participate in an interview. They were informed that their responses would remain confidential and anonymous; no names or identifying information would be reported. Participants signed a letter of informed consent (see Appendix H). All other stakeholders interviewed, program staff and administrators and the non-profit agencies' executive directors, were also voluntary participants.

## CHAPTER SEVEN: RESULTS

### HYPOTHESIS ONE: NATIONAL SURVEY

Surveys were sent to the top administrator of each state's Department of Correction<sup>1</sup>. Forty-six states returned surveys (92%); 4 states did not respond: Illinois, Iowa, Louisiana, and Texas. Of the 46 states that participated in the survey, 10 states reported having no PAPs: Arizona, Arkansas, Delaware, Hawaii, Maine, Minnesota, Mississippi, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, and Utah. Thirty-six states reported on 71 designs, or models, of PAPs at 159 sites throughout the country (see Table 3). Because this survey was designed to collect information regarding the overall characteristics or nature of these programs over a large (national) scale, the analysis is limited to descriptive statistics. The results provide an initial qualitative and quantitative description of PAPs on the national level.

#### Typology

The PAPs were analyzed according to the typology based on Hines' (n.d.) presented above (see Table 2). The most common program design is the community service model (N=24; 33.8%) which is being implemented at 59 sites (see Table 4). In this model, animals (usually dogs, N=19, 79.2% of community service models) are rehabilitated and then adopted out to the community. The model is also used with horses in Kansas, Kentucky, Nevada, and Oklahoma (N=4, 16.7%). One program model in Kansas uses cats. The design is being administered at 59 sites.

Service animal socialization programs are the second most frequent type of PAP model being administered (N=15; 21.1%). In each of the models, participants

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<sup>1</sup> The Federal Bureau of Prisons responded to a request to participate by indicating that the office "does not have the resources to respond to the numerous requests for data" received.

Table 3.

**Number of PAP Designs and Sites by State**

State	# of PAP Designs	# of PAP Sites
Alabama	1	5
Alaska	1	1
Arizona	0	--
Arkansas	0	--
California	2	2
Colorado	3	6
Connecticut	1	1
Delaware	0	--
Florida	1	1
Georgia	1	1
Hawaii	0	--
Idaho	1	1
Illinois	Missing	Missing
Indiana	2	3
Iowa	Missing	Missing
Kansas	4	4
Kentucky	5	6
Louisiana	Missing	Missing
Maine	0	--
Maryland	1	1
Massachusetts	1	3
Michigan	2	2
Minnesota	0	--
Mississippi	0	--
Missouri	1	1
Montana	2	2
Nebraska	2	2
Nevada	2	5
New Hampshire	0	--
New Jersey	3	3
New Mexico	1	1
New York	3	18
North Carolina	2	3
North Dakota	1	1
Ohio	10	61
Oklahoma	3	3
Oregon	1	1
Pennsylvania	1	3
Rhode Island	0	--
South Carolina	3	3
South Dakota	1	1
Tennessee	1	1
Texas	Missing	Missing
Utah	0	--

Vermont	1	1
Virginia	2	5
Washington	1	1
West Virginia	1	1
Wisconsin	2	4
Wyoming	1	1
TOTAL	71	159

Table 4.

### Frequency of PAP Designs

Design	Frequency	Cumulative Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Community Service	24	24	33.8	33.8
Service Animal Socialization	15	39	21.1	54.9
Multi-modal	14	53	19.7	74.6
Livestock Care	10	63	14.1	88.7
Visitation	3	66	4.2	92.9
Wildlife Rehabilitation	2	68	2.8	95.7
Other	2	70	2.8	98.5
Vocational	1	71	1.4	99.9
Totals	<u>N = 71</u>		<u>99.9%</u>	

Note: Percent total does not add to 100 because of rounding.

socialize and begin training of puppies which are then sent on to more advanced service animal training (e.g., Seeing Eye dog school, explosives-or drug-detection school). The design is being administered at 34 sites.

Multi-modal programs are the third most common type of PAP model (N=14; 19.7%). The multi-modal program models are most commonly a combination of

vocational and service animal socialization components (N=4; 28.6% of multi-modal designs). There are also vocational and community service combinations (N=3; 21.4%) and community service and service animal socialization models (N=3; 21.4%). Two programs combine community service, service animal socialization, and vocational components (14.3%). One program combine livestock care and community service components (7.1%), and one model combines a visitation design with a service animal socialization component (7.1%). The two types of animals used in the multi-modal designs are dogs (N=11; 78.6%) and horses (N=3; 21.4%). Multi-modal programs are being administered at 19 sites.

Livestock care programs are the fourth most common type of PAP model (N=10; 14.1%); they are considered prison farms, or institutional agricultural programs. Each of the farms raise cattle/cows (N=10); 4 of the programs also raise pigs/hogs and one program reported also raising sheep. Livestock care programs are being administered at 39 sites.

There are three visitation program models being administered (4.2%). Two of these programs, one at one site in Kentucky and the other at a site in Montana, use dogs and cats; a visitation model at one site in Ohio includes llamas and domesticated deer.

There are two wildlife rehabilitation program models (2.8%). The wildlife rehabilitation models, at one site in Kansas and one site in Ohio, involve local wildlife that has been found injured or abandoned. Animals that have been rehabilitated include rabbits, raccoons, and birds.

Two programs were identified as “other” (2.8%) and both involve raising pheasants for release into the wild. One program is located at one site in Michigan where the animals are released onto state property, and the other is at one site in North Dakota where the animals are released onto the prison grounds for handicapped hunters who are brought in and driven around on tractors.

There is one vocational program (1.4%) at one site in Oklahoma. The program model involves the use of privately-owned domestic horses that are groomed and trained. Participants receive a state technician certificate in equine management.

#### Types of Animals

The primary animal used in PAPs is dogs (N =47; 66.2%). The community service design (N=19; 40.4%) is the most common model of PAP that incorporates dogs. The second most common design that incorporates dogs as the primary animal is the service animal socialization design (N=15; 31.9%). Eleven dog programs were identified as being of a multi-modal design (23.4%). Two dog programs are visitation program models (4.3%). The 47 PAP models that use dogs as the primary animal are being administered at 107 sites.

The next most common animals used in PAPs are cattle/cows (N =9; 12.7%) and horses (N=9; 12.7%). Cattle/cows are raised for milking and meat in each of these farm or livestock care programs being administered at 33 sites. Of the nine PAP models that incorporate horses, four are community service programs, three are multi-modal, one is a vocational program, and one is a livestock care program model. Four models involve wild horses that are trained and then adopted out to the community, 3 models involve retired thoroughbred race horses that are rehabilitated

and then adopted out, and 2 models involve domesticated horses. The nine PAP models that incorporate horses as the primary animal are being administered at 13 sites.

Two PAPs use pheasants (2.8%), and two programs involve wildlife (2.8%). The two PAPs that incorporate pheasants have models described above as “other”. Llamas (1.4%) and cats (1.4%) are the primary animals used in one program model each. Llamas are the primary animal used at a visitation model being administered at one site, while cats are the primary animal in a community service model being administered at one site.

While most programs (N = 64; 90.1%) use only one type of animal, four programs (5.6%) include two types of animals and three programs (4.2%) include three or more types of animals. Of the four programs that use two types of animals, three are farm or livestock care models and one is a visitation program. Of the three programs that use three or more types of animals, two are farm or livestock care programs and one is a visitation model.

The vast majority of animals become involved in PAPs through a shelter, humane society, or rescue organization. Service animal socialization programs get their dogs from a non-profit guide dog agency or a breeder, either purchased or donated. Farm or livestock care programs breed their own animals or purchase them. The four models included in this survey that incorporate wild horses, receive them from the federal Bureau of Land Management (BLM).

## Program Characteristics

The earliest program included in this survey was identified as being established in 1885: a livestock care or farm model in Wisconsin. The next four oldest programs (1900, 1920, 1930, and 1981) are livestock care or farm models also. Six programs were established in the 1980s, 14 in the 1990s, and 34 since 2000. The date of establishment was not reported for 12 program models included in the survey.

The size of PAPs varies. The smallest program reported having only two inmates participating (a pheasant raising program), while the largest program reported having approximately 300 participants (a livestock care/farm program). When the five smallest and five largest programs are removed from the analysis, the size ranges from five participants to 70 participants. According to this restricted mean, the average size program has 21.2 participants.

According to the surveys of the 67 program models in which the gender of participants was specified, males (N=38; 56.7%) are more likely than females (N=15; 22.4%) to be participants in PAPs. Both males and females participate in 14 (20.9%) of program models.

The number of animals currently participating in each program also varies. While the livestock care programs/farms have the largest numbers of animals, the participating inmates generally do not work one-on-one with the animals which eventually go on to be slaughtered. Of the non-livestock care programs/farms, community service models followed by multi-modal programs report having the greatest number of animals currently participating.

The smallest programs are a visitation program with two animals (a dog and a cat which live on the prison's hospice unit), three models (one service animal socialization, one community service, and one multi-modal) each have three dogs currently participating, and six models (three service animal socialization and three community service programs) each have four dogs currently participating.

Since the largest programs (the livestock care/farms) are also among the oldest programs, these are the programs that report having the greatest number of inmates and animals participating since their start. Of the non-livestock care programs/farms, community service models report having the greatest number of inmates and animals having participated since the program began.

Of the 47 surveys that responded to the question that asked for the number of participants discharged or removed from the program due to rule violation, since the program's start, 13 report having to remove zero participants (seven community service models, three multi-modal programs, two 'other' programs, and one service animal socialization program); five report having to remove one participant (two multi-modal programs, one community service program, and one service animal socialization program), six report having to remove two participants (three community service programs, two service animal socialization programs, and one multi-modal program); and four report having to remove 3 participants (two service animal socialization programs, one community service program, and one multi-modal program). The livestock care/farm program models were again the most likely to report having removed the most participants.

Most PAP models (N = 43; 60.6%) report working with a non-profit organization that administers the program and provides animals, supplies and training. The organizations are animal shelters, rescue groups (e.g., Greyhound Pets of America), county humane societies, and service animal agencies (e.g., Guiding Eyes for the Blind). As discussed above the four programs that involve wild horses work with the BLM. The livestock care/farm models are the least likely to work with an outside agency. They breed their own animals or purchase them from private companies.

Participants most commonly (N=30; 42.3%) are paired with animals 24 hours a day. Nearly half of the community service models (N=11 of 23; 47.8%); and service animal socialization models (N=12 of 15; 80.0%) pair participants all day. The number of hours each day that participants work with animals in the multi-modal programs included in the survey ranged from seven (N=3 of 14; 21.4%) to 24 hours (N=7 of 14; 50.0%). Each of the livestock care programs/farms, wildlife rehabilitation and vocational models (N=12; 100%) report that participants work with the animals for a six- to eight-hour work day. In the two models described as “other” (pheasant raising), inmates work with the birds for two to three hours each day. The time participants spend with animals in the two visitation programs varies. The number of hours participants and animals work together each day was omitted on the surveys of three models.

Most of the livestock care/farms, visitation, and “other” models report they do not pair participants with specific animals. In the 45 programs (63.4%) that reported pairing participants with specific animals, the average time they work together is 7.6

months. The length of time a participant works with a specific animal ranges from one to 24 months.

The average time participants remain in the PAPs included in the present survey is 10.8 months. The length of participation ranges from three months to 36 months. The average length of participation reported by the 10 community service models that responded to the question is 9.9 months; the surveys of 14 community service models did not contain a response to the question. The average length of participation reported by the eight service animal socialization models that responded to the question is 11.8 months; seven surveys did not contain a response to the question. The average length of participation reported by the ten multi-model designs that responded to the question is 15.2 months; four surveys did not contain a response to the question. The average length of participation reported by the five livestock care/farm programs that responded is 7.4 months; five programs' surveys did not contain a response to the question. The one wildlife rehabilitation program that responded reported an average length of participation of 30 months. The average length of participation in the vocational program is six months. The average length of participation in the two "other" programs is 15 months. The two of three visitation programs that responded to the question reported no average length of participation as inmates remain in the programs indefinitely (a prison hospice unit and a unit for developmentally disabled inmates).

Most programs (N=53; 74.6%) do not limit the length of time an inmate may participate in the program. Of the six (8.5%) program models that report having a maximum length of time a person may participate, four of them are community

service programs, one is a service animal socialization program and one is a multi-modal program. Overall, the average maximum length of time an inmate may participate in these programs is 15.3 months; the maximum length of participation in these programs ranges from two months to 24 months. The average maximum length of participation for community service models is 12.5 months. The one service animal socialization program that reported having a maximum length of participation limits inmates to 18 months in the program. The one multi-modal program that reported having a maximum length of participation limits inmates to 24 months in the program.

#### Pre-Participation

Twenty-six (36.6%) programs report having no waiting list, while 33 (46.5%) programs report having a waiting list and 12 (17.1%) did not respond to this question. Overall, the average length of time an inmate remains on a waiting list is 4.2 months according to the 21 program surveys that specified the average time. Neither visitation program nor the one vocational program reports a waiting list. Ten service animal socialization, 10 community service, eight multi-modal, three livestock care/farm, one “other” and one wildlife rehabilitation models report having a waiting list. The program models with the longest waiting lists are multi-modal programs (mean = 5.2 months) and service animal socialization (mean = 4.9 months).

The vast majority of PAPs screen potential participants prior to their acceptance into the program (N=51; 71.8%); eight PAPs do not interview participants prior to their acceptance into the program (11.3%) and 12 surveys (16.9%) did not have a response to the question. Three of the livestock care/farm programs, three

multi-modal programs, one community service, and one visitation program report they do not interview participants before acceptance. Most frequently, program staff (N=36) is involved in the interview process, followed by other prison staff or administrators (N=28) and representatives of the affiliated non-profit agencies (N=18). Five program models reported including security staff such as correction officers in interviewing potential participants. (Surveys generally listed more than one person as being involved with the interview process.)

Two programs (a multi-modal program and a community service model) reported administering a psychological survey instrument to potential participants. One reported using a specific instrument: *Institutional Basis Psychological Examination*. Three other programs (two community service models and one service animal socialization program) report reviewing psychological evaluations conducted upon inmates' arrival in the system.

Sixteen programs (22.5%) report that there are no crimes that make inmates ineligible to participate; 42 program models (59.2%) make inmates ineligible based on the nature of their convictions and 13 (18.3%) did not respond to the question. Neither visitation program, neither "other" program, nor the one vocational program included in the survey make inmates ineligible based on their crime. The most common types of crime are crimes against animals (N=25, 59.5%), sexual offenses (N=19, 45.2%), crimes against children (N=11; 26.2%). (Some programs listed more than one type of crime.)

Twenty-one (29.6%) programs report no minimum length of time potential participants must have remaining on their sentences in order to participate, while 37

(52.1%) program models have minimum sentences, and 13 (18.3%) cases were missing. The minimum sentence ranges from one month to 60 months, while the average requirement for a minimum sentence remaining is 17.3 months and the mode requirement is 12 months (frequency = 13).

Fifty-three (74.7%) programs report having additional eligibility requirements. The most common criteria is behavioral (i.e., remaining free from disciplinary infractions) in nature, N=29; 54.7%. Eighteen (34.0%) programs consider a potential participant's work or program history. Fourteen (26.4%) programs have requirements pertaining to custody level. Twelve (22.6%) programs report having educational requirements (i.e., participants have demonstrated a specified level of education). Nine (17.0%) programs specified that the level of interest or enthusiasm of a potential participant is considered. (Some programs listed more than one additional eligibility criteria.)

Most PAPs do not engage in pre-participation training (N = 22; 31.0%). The type of pre-participation training provided varies. Of those programs offering an orientation, it most commonly includes videos and/or manuals (N=19, 38.8%). The information included in these pre-program orientations includes basic animal care and safety and program expectations and rules. Other programs (N=9; 18.4%) provide participants with extended instruction (ranging from eight hours to five-weeks) in animal training prior to program participation. A few programs have program trainees shadow current participants or observe the on-going lessons of current participants (N=3; 6.1%).

## Training/Education

Most PAPs include on-going lessons or classes related to the animals (N = 44; 62.0%); 15 programs (21.1%) do not include on-going training and 12 programs' (16.9%) surveys did not respond to the question. Training ranges from less than one hour (a community service program with bimonthly trainings lasting from two to three hours) to 15 – 20 hours (a service animal socialization program) per week. On-going lessons are most frequently associated with community service programs (N=17 of 19 models responding to the question; 89.5%) and service animal socialization programs (N=10 of 12 models responding to the question; 83.3%). Each of the 13 multi-modal programs (100%) that responded to the question included on-going lessons. Two of nine (22.2%) responding livestock care/farm programs provide on-going lessons related to the animals. One wildlife rehabilitation and one vocational program responded to the question and each included on-going lessons. Both of the two visitation and two “other” programs that responded to the question do not provide any on-going training.

The vast majority of programs (N=49, 70.0%) do not include a certificate-yielding component. Of the 10 programs (14.3%) that do offer state-recognized credit, the most common type is a state vocational certificate (N=3), followed by a pet care technician certificate (N=2), and veterinarian assistant (N=2). Two programs (a multi-modal program with dogs and a community service program with wild horses) provide community college credit for participation. One program offers a certificate in dog behavior modification and one offers a certificate in dog handling. A livestock care/farm program offers several certificates including groomer and barn boss.

Twenty-four survey respondents (33.8%) reported knowing of former inmates working with animals in the community since being released<sup>2</sup>. The type of program most commonly associated with former inmates working with animals is multi-modal models; 10 of the 14 respondents (71.4%) from multi-modal programs reported knowing of former inmates working with animals in the community. Six of nine respondents (66.7%) from livestock care/farm programs reported knowing former inmates working with animals. Five of the 15 respondents (33.3%) from community service programs reported knowing of former inmates working with animals in the community since being released and three of 12 (25.0%) service animal socialization programs responded affirmatively. The responding visitation, wildlife rehabilitation, vocational program, and “other” programs reported not knowing of former inmates working with animals in the community since being released. Respondents reported knowing of former inmates working in a variety of capacities, including horse trainers on farms and for private individuals, dairy and farm workers, farm managers, and in various capacities at veterinarian’s offices, including kennel and vet assistants. One respondent reported knowing of a former inmate working as a manager at a Petco pet supply store.

Seventeen survey respondents (23.9%) indicated that the program includes a job referral or a link to a possible job in the community upon release. Five of 12 service animal socialization (41.7%), five of 13 multi-modal (38.5%), three of 17 community service (17.7%), and two of eight responding livestock care/farm programs indicated that the program includes a job referral or a link to a possible job in the

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<sup>2</sup> It is worth noting that many departments of correction have policies in place that forbid employees from contact with former inmates in the community.

community upon release. The one wildlife rehabilitation program and one vocational program that responded to the question report providing a job referral. Thirty-nine surveys (54.9%) indicated that the program does not include a link or job referral. The question was omitted in 15 (21.1%) cases.

### Funding

Thirty –seven PAPs (52.1%) report receiving donations while 23 programs (32.4%) do not receive donations and 11 programs (15.5%) did not respond to the question. Programs reported receiving donations from staff and inmate and fundraisers, the general public, private veterinarians, and privately owned supply stores including Walmart and PetCo, and PetSmart, and from corporations such as Iams and Purina. Donations of animals, food, supplies, and medical services are also received through the humane society, shelter or non-profit organization that administers the program.

In addition, PAPs may collect fees related to the animals; 20 programs (28.2%) report collecting fees, 38 programs (53.5%) report not receiving fees, and 13 programs (18.3%) omitted an answer to the question. Money is usually from adoption fees, training/service fees, or sale of livestock. Five of nine responding livestock care/farm (55.6%), six of 13 multi-modal (46.2%), and seven of 19 community service (36.8%) programs report collecting money related to the animals. One of 10 (10%) reporting service animal socialization programs collects fees, as does the one vocational program that responded to the question. Each of the two visitation programs and “other” programs reported they do not collect fees. The one wildlife rehabilitation program included also reported not collecting fees. While the

PAP may not generate money for the facility, the animal trained in the program may earn the administering humane society, shelter or non-profit organization funds.

PAPs also indicated receiving funding from additional sources, including grants from public and private agencies, as well as money from the state. Several (N=7) livestock care/farm programs report selling agricultural products such as crops, animal products such as eggs and milk, and surplus stock.

#### Benefits and Limitations

When asked if the respondent would recommend this type of program to other prison administrators, one of 61 would not. Sixty out of 61 respondents (98.4%) reported they would recommend the program; 10 cases were missing an answer to this question. Follow-up with the facility warden who responded in the negative revealed that he does, in fact, “like the program, but it provides no revenue, so it depends on what you’re looking for the program to accomplish” (Personal communication, 4/8/05).

An open-ended question asked respondents about how the program benefits the inmates who participate in it. Overwhelmingly, the most commonly cited benefit is the sense of responsibility instilled from caring for a dependent animal ( $f = 10$ ). The job skills and vocational instruction ( $f = 17$ ) and the ability to engage in meaningful work that is a community service ( $f = 16$ ) were the next most commonly cited benefits for PAP participants. Respondents report that participants learn patience and anger management skills ( $f = 14$ ), and that the program enhances participants self-esteem ( $f = 14$ ). Participation also fosters empathy ( $f = 12$ ), teaches parenting skills ( $f = 12$ ), and improves communication skills ( $f = 12$ ) according to

respondents. In addition, participants gain a sense of pride or accomplishment ( $f=11$ ). Benefits also cited include: instilling a work ethic ( $f=10$ ), humanizing or calming the facility environment ( $f=8$ ), increased self-control or improved institutional behavior ( $f=7$ ), teaches participants relationship skills and trust ( $f=7$ ), and reduces participant stress ( $f=6$ ).

An open-ended question asked respondents to identify negative aspects associated with the program – for the inmates, staff, or facility. Most ( $N=42$ , 60.0%) reported no negative aspects associated with the PAP. The most common response provided was staff resistance to the PAP ( $f=8$ ). Challenges related to the animals ( $f=7$ ), such as people's fear of them and the mess and noise they can create, and a lack of resources ( $f=7$ ), including space and staff, were the next most frequently cited negative aspects of the programs. Constraints or struggles that result from administering a program inside a secure institution ( $f=5$ ) were indicated by respondents. Resentment from non-participating inmates ( $f=3$ ) and separation of participants from their animal ( $f=3$ ) were also indicated by respondents. Finally, jealousy between various program participants ( $f=2$ ) and negative press ( $f=2$ ) were negative aspects of the programs according to respondents.

## HYPOTHESIS TWO: OFFICIAL LEVELS OF MISCONDUCT

### Individual Level

Access to program participants' official disciplinary records was not possible. At the female facility the administrators and the executive director of the non-profit that administers the program reported that in the five years the program has been in place, one participant was removed due to disciplinary misconduct. Participants will

be automatically removed for receiving a minor or major-level infraction. At the male facility, the administrators and program director reported that in the approximately four years the program has been in place, one participant was removed for disciplinary misconduct. Participants will be automatically removed for receiving a major-level infraction. During the focus group, the program director asked who had received a minor infraction since being in the program and two participants reported they had. One participant reported receiving a serious infraction which caused him to be removed from the program. After negotiation with the administrators, he was able to return to the program, he said. Therefore, among those in both programs there is virtually no misconduct since they began participating, thus supporting the proposed hypothesis.

#### Between Facility Analysis

Monthly totals of misconduct reports, by facility, were provided by the state's DOC. Table 5 includes the average yearly total of misconducts for each of the state's facilities from 2000 through April 2005.<sup>3</sup> The PAP at the female facility began in March 2001 and the PAP at the male facility began in May 2002. It was hypothesized that there would be significantly less misconduct in the two facilities with PAPs as compared to facilities without the programs. However, due to the nature of the facilities and the available statistics, it is not possible to determine if there are significant differences between the facilities. The female facility that administers the program examined here is the only adult female facility in the state and therefore cannot be accurately matched for a comparison. The youth facility for

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<sup>3</sup> Three facilities were omitted from the analysis: the state's civil commitment sex offender facility, the classification facility, and a facility that houses federal detainees.

males that administers the other program examined here is a medium-security facility with a minimum security campus. The state's other two youth facilities also house inmates of various security levels. The available data do not specify where in the facility (i.e., at what security level) the misconduct occurred. Since most of the adult facilities (including the one female facility) house inmates of various security

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Table 5.

**Average Yearly Misconducts by Facility**

Age	Facility	Size*	2000	2001**	2002	2003	2004	2005***
	A <sup>1</sup>	1,250	176.75	149.00	100.25	101.25	103.42	82.50
Youth	B	1,331	287.75	290.27	218.25	202.58	225.50	192.00
	C	1,674	147.50	140.45	124.83	201.67	159.83	173.00
	-----	-----			-----	-----	-----	-----
	D	2,304	132.08	95.36	134.58	110.33	119.67	85.25
	E	1,928	137.17	110.18	128.50	113.83	107.75	109.00
	F	1,955	131.33	141.73	124.92	139.75	135.84	149.25
Adult	G	2,648	127.00	129.45	104.67	118.50	245.42	218.75
	H	1,009	88.17	55.73	51.08	45.83	45.08	47.25
	I	1,946	62.67	85.64	45.83	72.67	69.58	67.50
	J	3,360	189.83	197.45	199.17	166.92	144.58	159.50
	K <sup>2</sup>	1,112	128.17	108.09	98.17	112.08	151.08	121.00

\* Population as of February 1, 2005; available at [www.doc.state.nj.us](http://www.doc.state.nj.us)

\*\* The average is based on February through December 2001.

\*\*\* The average is based on January through April 2005.

<sup>1</sup> This is the youth facility studied in the present research; PAP established May 2002.

<sup>2</sup> This is the female facility studied in the present research; PAP established March 2001.

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levels, facility-level comparisons would not be worthwhile. Therefore there is no support for the hypothesis that the two facilities with PAPs would have significantly less misconduct than facilities without the programs.

#### Within Facility Analysis

It was also hypothesized that a significant decrease in the frequency of misconduct would be seen within the two facilities under study in the months and

years after PAP implementation. The average rate of misconduct was calculated for each facility for the years 2000 through (April) 2005 (see Table 6). Graph 1 illustrates the fluctuation in the rates of misconduct for each of the state's facilities for the same time period. In 2001 at the female facility, the year the program was implemented, the rate of misconducts (.097) was .018 lower than the year before, 2000 with a rate of .115. The rate of misconducts continued to decrease, by .009 in 2002, the year after the program was implemented. In the second and third years (2003, and 2004) after the program was implemented, the rate of misconduct increased, to .101 in 2003 and to .136 in 2004. And like most facilities, the rate for 2005 is less, .027, than the previous year.

A similar pattern characterizes the youth facility where the rate of misconduct was .039 lower in 2002, the year the program was implemented, than it was in 2001, the year before the program was implemented. The rate of misconducts was even higher in 2000, .141, than it was in 2001, .119. However, from the low-point of 2002, .080, the rate of misconduct rose slightly, .001, in each of the two years (2003 and 2004) after the PAP was implemented. Again, similar to most facilities in the state, the misconduct rate at the youth facility for the partial year of 2005 is less than the previous year. Therefore, there was no support for the hypotheses regarding a post-implementation reduction in misconduct at the facility level.

Table 6.

**Rate of Yearly Misconducts by Facility.**

Age	Facility	Size*	2000	2001**	2002	2003	2004	2005***
	A <sup>1</sup>	1,250	.141	.119	.080	.081	.082	.066
Youth	B	1,331	.216	.218	.164	.152	.169	.144
	C	1,674	.088	.084	.075	.121	.096	.103
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	D	2,304	.057	.003	.058	.048	.052	.037
	E	1,928	.071	.057	.067	.059	.056	.057
	F	1,955	.067	.073	.064	.072	.056	.076
Adult	G	2,648	.048	.049	.040	.045	.093	.083
	H	1,009	.087	.055	.051	.045	.045	.047
	I	1,946	.032	.044	.024	.037	.036	.035
	J	3,360	.056	.059	.059	.050	.043	.047
	K <sup>2</sup>	1,112	.115	.097	.088	.101	.136	.109

\* Population as of February 1, 2005; available at [www.doc.state.nj.us](http://www.doc.state.nj.us)

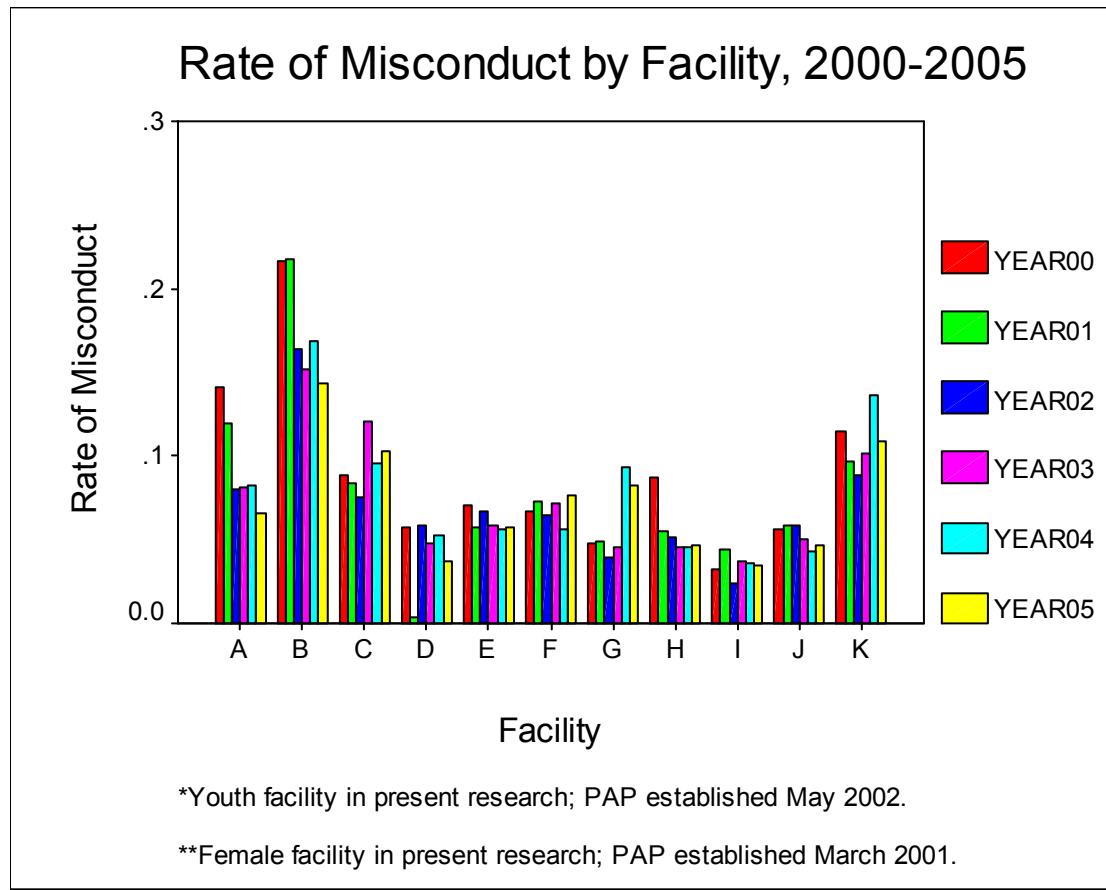
\*\* The average is based on February through December 2001.

\*\*\* The average is based on January through April 2005.

<sup>1</sup> This is the youth facility studied in the present research; PAP established May 2002.

<sup>2</sup> This is the female facility studied in the present research; PAP established March 2001.

Graph 1



### HYPOTHESIS THREE: EFFECTIVE TREATMENT PROGRAMS CHECKLIST

#### Female Facility

The following narrative describing the program is driven by the information collected using a checklist derived from the CPAI (Gendreau and Andrews, 2001) and the CPTS (ICCA, 2003).

The Puppies Behind Bars (PBB) program at the female correctional facility in the northeast that is examined in the present research has been in operation since March 2001. The program is administered by PBB, a non-profit organization with

the purpose of training prison inmates to raise puppies for work as guide dogs and explosive-detection canines. PBB was established in July 1997 by Gloria Gilbert-Stoga, the agency's president. The program was initiated at Bedford Hills Correctional Facility, New York State's only maximum-security prison for women. Today PBB is in operation at six sites in three states (New York, New Jersey, and Connecticut).

The partnership between the agency and the facility began with five dogs and 10 inmates. Currently, there are 13 dogs and 22 inmates, 15 as primary handlers and seven as back-up handlers, participating in the program. The present female facility is the state's only maximum-security institution for females. Among the 15 participants interviewed, all of the primary handlers, the average age is 38.2 years old, and ranges from 24 to 50 years-old. Seven participants identified themselves as white, five participants identified themselves as black, and one each as Hispanic, Native American, and biracial. The average length of program participation is 22.4 months and ranges from six to 60 months.

#### Program Implementation

*Activities.* Participants rise each day at 5:30 am; the dogs are fed and the exercised in the enclosed yard attached to the side of the dorm for approximately one hour. The dogs then accompany their handlers to work or school for approximately two hours. While the prison conducts its count, the participants and their dogs are in the dorm, and then there is another one hour recreation period. The dogs return to school or work with their handlers for two hours in the afternoon and after their evening meal they receive one more hour of recreation. Participants attend a weekly

eight-hour class that focuses on various aspects of training and health, taught by PBB's two dog trainers.

*Staff.* The program is overseen the facility's administrators with additional primary duties; the facility's Administrator and the Assistant Administrator were responsible for bringing the program to the facility and assume the role of the program's administrators. The director of the program since April 2005 is the Administrator's Executive Assistant who is responsible for the day-to day operations of the program.

*Pre-Participation Assessment.* Participants are referred to the program when they write to the administration and express interest. In order to be selected for the program, an applicant must have at least two years left on her sentence and be eligible for minimum custody status, as well as be participating in other types of programs (educational, vocational, employment). In addition, participants can not have been convicted of a sex offense or a crime against a child. Applicants must also be infraction- or charge-free for one year prior to applying. Inmates need not be incarcerated for a specified length of time before they can participate. In over four years, one participant has been removed from the program due to rule violation. All participants begin as trainees, who are not assigned to a specific dog and instead are responsible for general clean-up and similar least pleasant duties. Trainees progress to alternate handlers and then are assigned their own dog as a primary handler. Progress is determined in part by vacancy so the time spent as a specific status varies. The three DOC employees meet with the executive director of PBB communicate with each other on frequently, but not according to any set time frame.

*Program Characteristics.* The two instruments examine whether the program provides treatment that targets criminogenic risks or needs. The following risks are targeted by this program but not with explicit curricula, which indicates program quality according to both the CPAI and the CPTS.

- anger management
- cognitive skills
- criminal associates
- criminal thinking
- domestic violence
- family relations
- parenting skills
- relationship skills

The final risk factor identified by both instruments, substance abuse treatment is not targeted by this program. In addition, the program does not utilize a specific treatment model identified in the literature. However, the program incorporates tenants of self-help, cognitive behavioral, and social learning programs, and uses modeling as it builds the above identified skills. There are program materials, such as a handbook and videos library, for inmates when they begin their participation.

Program participants are with their dogs 24 hours a day and often ‘swap’ dogs so they get accustomed to a variety of people and settings. Program completion for the inmate participants is when they leave the facility. Dogs spend approximately 16-18 months in the program when they are tested for their suitability for explosive-detection work. Program success for the inmate participants is having their dogs go on to specialty training and then on to work in law enforcement in the U.S. and overseas. There are several rewards or incentives in place to encourage program participation and completion. Having the dogs is a reward itself for the inmate participants. These inmates also have their own cells. The informal rewards, such as the psychological and social benefits identified in the interviews with participants,

should also be noted. While the program clearly utilizes more rewards than punishments, termination of participation will result for those found to have engaged in a serious infraction. (Infractions are divided into two types: minor, a 'pink slip' and serious, a 'blue slip'.)

In addition to their activities with the dogs, each participant is required to keep a journal of the dog that will go to the dog's handler. The journal includes pictures, nail and fur trimmings, and information such as a favorite toy or activity. It also tracks the dog's progress in training, socialization and health. The program's two outside trainers are able to discuss vocational opportunities with participants. Records on program participants are kept by PBB, not the facility.

Program participants are somewhat segregated from the general population. They live in their own dorm, on the minimum-security campus of the facility, which also houses a limited number of non-participants. Most participants also work with non-participants during the day in programs or through employment.

Participants' family members cannot play a role in the program. While the dogs are permitted to accompany participants on visits, participants' families cannot serve as weekend sitters who take the dogs out on visits or 'furloughs'.

*Staff Characteristics.* The two checklists distinguish between treatment and non-treatment staff. PAs do not provide treatment to their participants according to the traditional rehabilitative paradigm. It is while training, socializing, and caring for the dogs that participants strengthen the skills and behaviors associated criminogenic risks. The program participants receive lessons in dog training and care from the program's two trainers, who may be considered the treatment staff. These trainers are

volunteers with and trained by PBB. The non-treatment staff involved with this program includes the Administrator and Assistant Administrator. While the checklists ask for specific information regarding treatment and non-treatment staff's training in areas such as the program's model and system of rewards and punishments, that information is not available for this program.

Neither treatment nor non-treatment staff is evaluated on their service delivery skills. All staff members have direct input into the program through their regular daily interactions. Program participants are able to provide feedback regarding staff to the program's trainers, director, or administrators. While the program's staff has remained relatively stable since its start, the Administrator is planning to retire in the next few years. However, as the Assistant Administrator and the rest of the program staff will remain, and PBB continues to be a stable, well-funded organization, there is no indication that the program's future at this site is at risk.

*Post-Program.* The program provides no aftercare services. The state's policy prohibits employees from contact with those released from custody. There is no tracking procedure in place to monitor participants after completing their participation. While the executive director reported that she will provide a reference if asked, "we are not in the job placement business."

*Support/Cooperation.* The program's primary collaboration is between PBB and the state's DOC. PBB has partnerships with Iams and the Animal Medical Center, a nonprofit veterinary hospital in Manhattan. All program materials are provided by PBB. The state provides the space and the labor and is adequately supported by PBB and receives sufficient funding. The program enjoys an excellent

relationship with the prison's administration, according to both sides. The state's central DOC administration is supportive of the program. According to interviews and observations, the vast majority of the facility's staff members are supportive of the program. Those unsupportive of the program have not had a significant impact on its operation. For example, a member of the custody staff assigned to the dorm identified the dog's choker collars as a security risk and had them prohibited from being used in the dorm.

#### Program Evaluation

*Program Operations.* Program success is defined by three factors:

- Program retention (only one participant has been removed).
- The number of dogs going on to advanced training.
- Participants' changes in behavior, attitudes, self-control.

These factors are also used to ensure program integrity or quality assurance, internally. Externally, PBB has a board of directors that includes the Commissioner of New York State Department of Correctional Services, and a board of advisors that includes Libby Pataki, the wife of New York's Governor Pataki, and Henry A. Kissinger and his wife Nancy. The level of involvement of these two boards is unknown.

There was one significant change made in the program operations since it was first implemented. After September 11, 2001 the demand for explosive-detection canines from law enforcement greatly increased. The agency currently works with the New York Police Department (NYPD) Bomb Squad and the Bureau of Alcohol, Tobacco and Firearms (ATF).

The program collects data on participant progress and punishments and violations received by participants. The program does not collect data on participants' placement in outside agencies. The program has not been evaluated by an outside reviewer.

*Stakeholder Satisfaction.* Program participants have a direct mechanism for input into the program through the program director, staff and administrators. Administrator Blackwell is ultimately responsible for changes to the program's implementation. The changes would be carried out by the program director. The program has a strong positive relationship with the community. There has been significant positive press given to the program by both TV and print media.

Finally, there have no events (within the program, from funding sources or community support) during the past three years that have threatened the continuation of the program.

#### Checklist Scoring

*CPAI Score.* The CPAI is divided into six sections: program implementation, client pre-service assessment, program characteristics, staff characteristics, evaluation, and other. The checklist is comprised of a total of 66 items that are scored as either 1 or 0 (i.e., a binary yes/no or present/not present coding scheme). According to the percentage of points received, the numerical score is then assigned a section and overall score of *very satisfactory* (70% to 100%), *satisfactory* (60% to 69%), *needs improvement* (50% to 59%), or *unsatisfactory* (less than 50%).

Given that the checklist used in the present study was altered from the original CPAI, assigning the program a specific score would have questionable validity.

Rather than a score, a description of the program according to the above sections' items is provided.

The program implementation section examines the program director's qualifications and experience and their level of involvement with the program staff and participants. Interviews and observations indicated that the current program director appears to be involved and qualified. The treatment literature regarding the effects of animals was consulted before the program was implemented. The program is supported by the outside community, meets a pressing local need and is regarded as cost-effective and sustainable over the long term (see Matthews, Hubbard, and Latessa, 2001). Thus, the program appears to meet most of the items in this area and would be considered *very satisfactory*.

The client pre-service assessment items consider the selection and assessment processes of participants. While the current program does interview all applicants to the program to consider their appropriateness for participation, the treatment received by all participants is the same, regardless of level of risk or need. Therefore, the program would not be considered to be responsive or tailored to the individual participants. The current program might receive a *needs improvement* or *unsatisfactory* score for this section.

The program characteristics section examines the design of the program. As stated above, the current program appears to target, if indirectly, most of the criminogenic needs or risks identified by the literature. The program is multi-modal, employing no one specific treatment approach. It is important to note that the corrections department does not consider this program's rehabilitative effects for the

participants the primary goal; the program is of a voluntary community service nature. The program utilizes more rewards than punishments; indeed, participation in the program is considered a reward in itself for most participants. Release from the program generally coincides with release from the institution; while the executive director of the administering non-profit will serve as an employment reference, the program does not offer specific re-entry services. Given the mixed results of this section the CPAI score cannot be inferred.

The items related to the characteristics of the staff consider the qualifications, involvement, and number of staff members. The staff of the current program is small. The program's director is also the executive assistant of the facility's administrator with a variety of other responsibilities. The two trainers who teach the weekly lessons are volunteers of the administering non-profit, the executive director of which is highly involved with the program in at-least monthly site visits. All involved with the program at this level appear qualified and bring a diversity of training and experiences to their work. They have also been relatively stable, with the program director having recently been given the position. While the staff of the current program is qualitatively different from the traditional treatment programs the CPAI has thus far been applied to, the staff would seem to score *very satisfactory*.

The evaluation section of the CPAI examines if, how, and what types of feedback are collected and how they are used. While the majority of program participants reported feeling they can talk to and provide feedback to one or more of the staff members, there is no formal feedback process. The program's success is primarily based on the number of dogs that go on to specialty school. The facility

administration also pointed to the retention rate and enthusiasm among participants as evidence of how well the program is functioning. Anecdotally, they believe there is no recidivism among participants, but there was no formal tracking after release. Given that the rehabilitative effects for participants are not a goal, their lack of measurement is not a surprise. The program appears to *need improvement* or be *unsatisfactory* when it comes to evaluation.

Finally, the miscellaneous or other section considers the nature of records kept, ethical guidelines, funding, and community support. The administering non-profit organization maintains records regarding the progress of the dogs, but extensive or comprehensive files are not kept on program participants. This agency stresses the importance of adhering to a code of ethics surrounding the care of the dogs and participation in the program, in general. The program has demonstrated stability and strength in terms of its funding and community support. The program appears to meet most, but not all, of the items in this area and would probably receive a score of *very satisfactory* or *satisfactory*.

It is difficult to assign an overall score to the program. Its strengths and weaknesses, according to the CPAI, will be considered in relation to published reports of how other programs have scored on the instrument in the discussion section below.

*CPTS Score.* The CPTS is divided into 12 sections: program implementation and leadership, classification and assessment, program characteristics, placement, staff experience, staff evaluation, program evaluation, post-programming options, organizational responsibility, satisfaction and support, other, and restorative justice and integrated systems. A numerical score is calculated for each section, but no publicly

published document outlines the specifics of how it is calculated. Due to the recency of the instrument, relative to the CPAI, there are no publicly published results of how programs have scored on it. While the CPTS is significantly longer and more detailed in the items included (e.g., it asks not only if a participant selection process is in place, as in the CPAI, but also to identify the selection and exclusion criteria), it is an expansion of the CPAI and based on the same best practices identified in the literature. Therefore, only the sections of the CPTS that do not have an equivalent in the CPAI will be considered here.

The CPTS includes a section on organizational responsiveness that considers the support of outside agencies, both criminal justice and otherwise, as well as the impact of any political constraints. The current program's administering non-profit organization adequately supports the program and receives support from both private individuals and large corporations (such as Iams). Local courts and probation and parole departments are not involved with the program and therefore provide no support. The level of political constraints for this program appears to be minimal. The administrator of the facility reported being supported by the state's central DOC administration. She reported having to navigate resistance from the prison's security staff, but since the program has been in operation the impact of any political constraints appears minimal. Therefore, the program would appear to score high on this section.

The second section of the CPTS that is unique from the CPAI considers the restorative nature of the program. This brief section asks if the program participates in a restorative justice initiative and to identify the components of it. The current

program can be considered community service or restitution, both restorative practices. The nature of the practices does not differ between program participants (e.g., by type of offense, gender, or mental health status). Thus, the program would appear to score high on this section.

### **Male Facility**

The following narrative describing the program is driven by the information collected using a checklist based on the CPAI (Gendreau and Andrews, 2001) and the CPTS (ICCA, 2003).

“The Greyhound Program,” as it is known at a male facility for young men in the northeast, has been in operation since May 2002. The program is administered by Greyhound Friends of New Jersey (GFNJ), a non-profit organization with the purpose of finding homes for ex-racing greyhounds. GFNJ was incorporated in 1995 by Barbara Wicklund, the agency’s director. The partnership between the agency and the facility began with three dogs and six participants. Currently, there are seven dogs and 18 inmates participating in the program: seven primary handlers, seven back-up handlers, and four trainees. The prison is an institution for males. Among the seven primary handlers, the average age is 25.6 years old, and ranges from 21 to 33 years-old. Six participants identified themselves as Hispanic and one as Black. The average length of program participation is 18.1 months and ranges from nine to 36 months.

### **Program Implementation**

*Activities.* Participants rise each day at 5:45 am and go out with their dogs for a brief walk. The dogs are then fed and walked at 7:30 am for approximately 15

minutes. The dogs are then either in the handler's room or the kennel, dependent on the weather, while the participants are at work or school. After the participants eat lunch the dogs are outside for a walk or a run in the yard. Then they are back in the room or out in the kennel in nice weather. At approximately 4 pm the dogs are fed and walked again and then they are in the room or kennel until 8:45 when they go for their last walk. Participants attend a weekly one-hour class that focuses on various aspects of training and health, often featuring an outside speaker. Presentations are videotaped for future participants to view.

*Staff.* The program is voluntarily staffed by facility employees with additional primary duties; all current staff members have been with the program since its inception. The director of the program is a Senior CO; he is responsible for the day-to-day operations of the program. The program administrator is also the Assistant Superintendent of the facility. In addition, the facility's Administrator is involved with the program. While the director's current vocation is a CO, he also has professional experience working with dogs. He breeds dogs for sale and leads hunts (for birds using dogs), and his wife owns a kennel for dogs whose families are vacationing. While in the military, Mr. Matlock worked with a 'perimeter dog' and has previously worked with a 'bite dog' (used for cell extractions) with the state DOC.

*Pre-Participation Assessment.* Participants are referred to the program when they write to the Assistant Administrator and express interest. In order to be selected for the program, an applicant must have approximately one year left on his sentence, not have been charged with animal or child abuse, and not be gang-affiliated. The

program director also weighs heavily the information he obtains from the applicant's housing unit officers, teacher and/or boss.

In addition, applicants must be infraction- or charge-free for six months to a year, depending on the severity. Inmates need not be incarcerated for a specified length of time before they can participate. In three years, one application has been refused, with the ultimate decision belonging to the program director. During this same time period, one participant has been removed from the program due to rule violation. All participants begin as trainees, who are not assigned to a specific dog and instead are responsible for general clean-up and similar least pleasant duties. Trainees progress to back-up handlers and then are assigned their own dog as a primary handler. Progress is determined in part by vacancy so the time spent as a specific status varies. The three state DOC employees meet with Barbara Wicklund once each month or as needed to discuss the program and participants.

*Program Characteristics.* The two instruments examine whether the program provides treatment that targets criminogenic risks or needs. The following risks are targeted by this program but not with explicit curricula, which indicates program quality according to both the CPAI and the CPTS.

- anger management
- cognitive skills
- criminal associates
- criminal thinking
- domestic violence
- family relations
- parenting skills
- relationship skills

The final risk factor identified by both instruments, substance abuse treatment is not targeted by this program. In addition, the program does not utilize a specific treatment model identified in the literature. However, the program incorporates

tenants of self-help, cognitive behavioral, and social learning programs, and uses modeling as it builds the above identified skills. There are program materials, such as a handbook and a video library, for inmates when they begin their participation.

Program participants spend up to approximately 18 hours each day with their dogs. Program completion for the inmate participants is when they leave the facility. Dogs are eligible for adoption after passing the American Kennel Club Canine Good Citizen Test.

Program success for the inmate participants is preparing their dogs for adoption, through socialization and behavioral training, in approximately eight weeks. There are several rewards or incentives in place to encourage program participation and completion. Having the dogs is a reward itself for the inmate participants. These inmates also have their own cell and are each issued a second locker in which to store their personal items (the dogs are prone to eat what is left out, e.g., hairbrush, slippers, Walkman, etc.). In addition, GFNJ sponsors a party for the program participants where 'outside food' (i.e., pizza and sandwiches) is served twice each year, in the summer and during the winter holiday season. The informal rewards, such as the psychological and social benefits identified in the interviews with participants, should also be noted. While the program clearly utilizes more rewards than punishments, termination of participation will result for those found to have engaged in a serious infraction. (Infractions are divided into two types: minor, a 'pink slip' and serious, a 'blue slip'.)

In addition to their activities with the dogs, each primary handler is required to keep a journal of the dog that will go to the adopting family. The journal includes

information such as what the dog likes to eat and play with and what she may be afraid of. It also tracks the dog's progress in training, socialization and health. The program director and the weekly speakers discuss vocational opportunities with participants. The director of GFNJ is also available to discuss vocational opportunities. The program director has confidential files of the program participants and the inmate coordinator keeps files on the dogs, including their medical histories, and the inmates, including their progress in the program.

Program participants are somewhat segregated from the general population. They live on the first floor, in single cells, of one of the facility's several cottages. Non-participants live in the dorm on the second floor. The cottage shares one day area. Most participants also work with non-participants during the day.

Participants' family members can play a role in the program. The dogs are permitted to accompany participants on visits they receive. In addition, one participant's mother adopted a dog from the program. Several staff members have adopted dogs as well.

*Staff Characteristics.* The two checklists distinguish between treatment and non-treatment staff. PAPs do not provide treatment to their participants according to the traditional rehabilitative paradigm. It is while training, socializing, and caring for the dogs that participants strengthen the skills and behaviors associated criminogenic risks. The program participants receive lessons in dog training and care from the program director and outside speakers, who may be considered the treatment staff. The non-treatment staff involved with this program includes the Administrator and Assistant Administrator. All state DOC employees associated with the program are

volunteers and have been with program since its start in May 2002. While the checklists ask for specific information regarding treatment and non-treatment staff's training in areas such as the program's model and system of rewards and punishments, that information is not available for this program.

Neither treatment nor non-treatment staff is evaluated on their service delivery skills. All staff members have direct input into the program in the monthly team meeting. Program participants are able to provide feedback regarding staff to the inmate coordinator. While the program's staff has remained stable since its start, including the inmate coordinator, there has been staff turnover and there will be additional changes. The Administrator of the prison was changed in summer 2005. The program director will retire in spring 2006. He told the previous Administrator he will not continue working with the program on a part-time basis. Barbara Wicklund, director of GFNJ will be retiring in sometime in 2006. There is certainly need for concern regarding the future of this program given the loss of two major contributors.

*Post-Program.* The program provides no aftercare services. State DOC policy prohibits employees from contact with those released from custody. There is no tracking procedure in place to monitor participants after completing their participation. The non-profit agency's executive director reported setting up job interviews for several former participants released on parole. Employment has been obtained for released participants at a dog daycare center and a kennel affiliated with the program. The placements have been successful.

*Support/Cooperation.* The program's primary collaboration is between GFNJ and the state DOC. GFNJ has partnerships with other rescue groups, pet supply stores, and a variety of community groups; a large part of the agency's work is weekend 'meet and greets' to get the adoptable dogs exposure in the community. All materials are provided by GFNJ. The state DOC provides the space and the labor and is adequately supported by GFNJ and receives sufficient funding. The program enjoys an excellent relationship with the prison's administration, according to both sides. The state's central DOC administration is supportive of the program and is responsible for the addition of the weekly speaker component of the program. However, there are political constraints imposed on the program by COs who do not support the program. Members of this contingent have impacted the program. The dogs are not permitted to enter any facility building except the dorm where participants are housed.

#### Program Evaluation

*Program Operations.* Program success is defined by three factors:

- Lack of injuries.
- The number of dogs adopted defines success (99 in three years).
- Participants' changes in behavior, attitudes, self-control.

These factors are also used to ensure program integrity or quality assurance, internally.

There have been changes made in the program operations since it was first implemented. The state's central DOC administration is responsible for the addition of the weekly speaker component of the program. A senior member of the custody staff had the dogs prohibited from entering any building except the dorm where

participants are housed. Another, smaller incident was relayed to the researcher as an example of the dynamics of the environment in which the program operates. Another senior member of the custody staff prohibited the dogs from wearing booties (worn for a paw injury) with a camouflaged design; the employee told the program director (also a member of the security staff) the booties had to be fluorescent in color.

The program collects data on participant progress and punishments and violations received by participants. The program does not collect data on participants' placement in outside agencies. The program has not been evaluated by an outside reviewer.

*Stakeholder Satisfaction.* Program participants have a direct mechanism for input into the program through the program director and the inmate coordinator. Both treatment and non-treatment staff also have the opportunity to provide input into the program through the monthly team meetings. Administrator Rizzo is ultimately responsible for changes to the program's implementation. The changes would be carried out by the program director.

The program has a strong positive relationship with the community. There has been significant positive press given to the program by both TV and print media. Finally, other than the staff changes described above, there have been no additional events (within the program, from funding sources or community support) during the past three years that have threatened the continuation of the program.

#### Checklist Scoring

*CPAI Score.* Again, given that the checklist used in the present study was altered from the original CPAI, assigning the current program a specific score would

have questionable validity. Again, rather than a score, a description of the program according to the above sections' items is provided.

Interviews and observations indicated that the current program director appears to be highly involved and qualified. The treatment literature regarding the effects of animals was consulted before the program was implemented. The program is supported by the outside community, meets a pressing local need and is regarded as cost-effective and sustainable over the long term (see Matthews, Hubbard, and Latessa, 2001). Thus, the program appears to meet most of the items in the program implementation area and would be considered *very satisfactory*.

While the current program does interview all applicants to the program to consider their appropriateness for participation, the treatment received by all participants is the same, regardless of level of risk or need. Therefore, the program would not be considered to be responsive or tailored to the individual participants. The current program might receive a *needs improvement* or *unsatisfactory* score for this section on client pre-service assessment.

As stated above, the current program appears to target, if indirectly, most of the criminogenic needs or risks identified by the literature. The program is multi-modal, employing no one specific treatment approach. Again, the corrections department does not consider this program's rehabilitative effects for the participants the primary goal; the program is of a voluntary community service nature. The program utilizes more rewards than punishments; again, participation in the program is considered a reward in itself for most participants. Release from the program generally coincides with release from the institution; while the executive director of

the administering non-profit will serve as an employment reference, the program does not offer specific re-entry services. Given the mixed results of this section regarding the characteristics of the program the CPAI score cannot be inferred.

The staff of the current program is small. The program's director, who is also the primary instructor for the program, has an official job title of senior CO; he therefore has a variety of other responsibilities. He is also retiring with the next two years. The executive director of the administering non-profit is involved with the program but will be retiring in the next few years as well. The facility administrator and assistant administrator are also involved with the program. The current staff members appear qualified and bring a diversity of training and experiences to their work. Again, the staff of the current program is qualitatively different from the traditional treatment programs the CPAI has been applied to. The upcoming changes in staffing will undoubtedly affect the score for this section regarding the staff; therefore, no score will be assigned to this section.

While the majority of program participants reported feeling they can talk to and provide feedback to one or more of the staff members or the inmate assistant, there is no formal feedback process. The program's success is primarily based on the number of dogs that are adopted. The facility administration also pointed to the retention rate and enthusiasm among participants as evidence of how well the program is functioning. Anecdotally, they believe there is no recidivism among participants, but there was no formal tracking after release. Given that the rehabilitative effects for participants are not a goal, their lack of measurement is not a

surprise. The program appears to *need improvement* or be *unsatisfactory* when it comes to evaluation.

The program director reported keeping personal records on the progress of both the participants and the dogs, but the facility does not. The administering non-profit agency stresses the importance of adhering to a code of ethics surrounding the care of the dogs and participation in the program, in general. The program has demonstrated stability and strength in terms of its funding and community support. The program appears to meet most, but not all, of the items in the miscellaneous section and would probably receive a score of *very satisfactory* or *satisfactory*.

It is difficult to assign an overall score to the program. Again, its strengths and weaknesses will be considered in relation to published reports of how other programs have scored on the instrument in the discussion section below.

*CPTS Score.* Again, only the sections of the CPTS that do not have an equivalent in the CPAI will be considered here.

The first section considers the organizational responsibility. The current program's administering non-profit organization adequately supports the program and receives most of its support from private individuals. Local courts and probation and parole departments are not involved with the program and therefore provide no support. The level of political constraints for this program appears to be minimal. The administrator of the facility reported being supported by the state's central DOC administration. He reported having to navigate resistance from the prison's security staff before the program was implemented. The program director reported still facing resistance from a few specific individuals on the security staff but indicated that their

impact on the operations of the program is minimal. Therefore, the current program would seem to score high on this section.

The second unique section of the CPTS asks if the program participates in a restorative justice initiative and to identify the components of it. The current program can be considered community service or restitution, both restorative practices. The nature of the practices does not differ between program participants (e.g., by type of offense, gender, or mental health status). Therefore, the program would appear to score high on this section.

#### HYPOTHESIS FOUR: SELF-REPORTED TREATMENT EFFECTS

##### **Female Facility**

###### Interview with Administration

*Origins of the Program.* The researcher met with the Administrator and Assistant Administrator, who are both notably committed to the program and involved. The day-to-day operations of the program were, until April 2005 the responsibility of the Assistant Administrator, when they were shifted to the Executive Assistant to the Administrator. Due to her relatively limited time in the position, it was decided the two Administrators would be interviewed.

The interview was started by asking how the Administrator first heard about PAPs and how she went about trying to bring the program to her facility. She reported that she was approached by a member of the community with a proposal for a community service program where shelter dogs would be socialized and adopted out. Unsure that was the type of program she wanted, the Administrator contacted Gloria-Gilbert Stoga, the president of Puppies Behind Bars, the charitable

organization that administers the program. The Administrator, Assistant Administrator, and security Captain visited the PBB program at Bedford Hills Correctional Institution, a maximum-security facility for women in New York. Research, or 'leg-work' on the part of several facility correction officers uncovered other types of programs, but "the proven track record" of PBB was something "we could take to the unions."

The Administrator acknowledged facing challenges in implementing the program. The CO union had concerns about "the nature and personalities of the dogs." Union officials were also concerned with "health issues" associated with inspections in medical, vocational and food service areas. Officers wanted to know where the dogs would go and where they would be prohibited from going. In addition, could inmates with job assignments in areas like food service still participate in the program? As summarized by the Administrator: "So there were questions that needed to be answered before we could go forward."

When asked, the administrators were unable to identify any participants who turned down a transfer to a half-way house, in order to remain in the program. During interviews with the participants, two women reported forfeiting the opportunity to leave the facility.

*Program Goals.* Administrator Blackwell was asked to identify the goals of the program. First, she said, "we're giving back to the community." The program, she said, matches the Department's "focus on transition and victims". Another goal, she said, is to benefit the participants who "develop trust, love, and confidence" and foster "growth and pride". The Administrator noted that the program is also an

opportunity for “the community to recognize the value of people who are incarcerated.”

The Administrator was asked to describe how the program measures success. First, she identified the program’s retention – in five years, only one person has been removed for a disciplinary charge, second, the number of dogs working in agencies and overseas, and third, the number of women participating in the veterinarian assistant certificate program and working with animals once released. Asked to identify any changes they have seen in the participants, the Administrator first noted that there has been no recidivism among the program participants. She said she has seen the women “rise above their limitations” as well as become less aggressive. Assistant Administrator Hauck was quick to report that he sees “staff who never smile, smile at the dogs.” In a separate conversation, the program director noted that “the facility greatly supports the program; these dogs change the whole place; everyone who works here loves to see the dogs.” Both Administrators agreed that they see the participants put their own needs aside and cooperate for the sake of the dogs, and to remain in the program. They also both agreed that the most positive aspect of the program is the growth of the women who participate.

*Challenges.* The Administrator was asked how other prison administrators react when they find out she has a PAP at her facility. She said the reaction is generally positive, while “some say, ‘good for you, but keep it there.’”

The Administrator provided examples of the sort of negotiation and flexibility that are necessary to maintain this program. When the dogs first arrived, there was a universal impulse to feed them. When PBB representatives told the participants to

stop feeding the dogs ‘people food’ the women were then faced with a situation where they possibly had to tell COs they could not feed the dogs. The Administrator made feeding the dogs against facility policy and now everyone knows not to feed them. In order to avoid a possible conflict of interest, another decision was made to prohibit facility employees from serving as PBB volunteers who take the dogs out weekend furloughs.

The administrators were asked to identify any negatives associated with the program. The Administrator first mentioned the time commitment that can be required by the program, but acknowledged that this is the case “with any progressive program”. She said there is a perception that the inmates in A Cottage are favored by staff and administrators, but that “it is because of our commitment to this program.” She also said there is jealousy between the participants based on whose dogs are most successful or learn the quickest.

*Suggestions for Improvement.* The Administrators mentioned needing a more grassy area for the dogs to be exercised; the current yard at the side of the dorm has sparse grass and is mostly dirt. The Administrator also said she would like the participants to have more job opportunities (currently, participants cannot be employed in food service). She noted that she has “talented women working as porters.”

*Other.* The administrator acknowledged the need for a program such as this for the women locked in maximum-security but said the compound “is not conducive to it. There is too much idle time and there are no single cells.”

When asked if she would be interested in bring a horse program to the facility the Administrator balked. She said the stable would require an additional security post and mentioned the difficulty of disposing of horses when they die.

And lest anyone think only people with boundless love for animals could entertain a program such as this, the Administrator mentioned that she is allergic to dogs. She must wash her hands after touching them. She recalled having to recently put down her two Yorkshire Terriers (a low-allergy breed).

Upon leaving the facility, the Assistant Administrator informed the researcher that the fact that all 15 primary handlers spoke with me “is indicative of the program”. He went on to say that the researcher “would never,” for example, get all the participants of the Therapeutic Community drug treatment program at the facility to participate in an interview.

#### Interviews with Participants

*Introduction to the Program.* The first interview question asked each of the 15 participants to describe when they initially learned about the program and their reaction. Five participants<sup>4</sup> (33%) reported learning about the program while being held in the county jail or during state classification. An equal number of participants also heard about the program through word of mouth within the facility (n = 5; 33%) and when it was announced through memos posted throughout the facility (n = 5, 33%).

Participants were asked why they wanted to take part in the program. Nearly half of the participants (n =7; 47%) identified their love of animals as motivation to

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<sup>4</sup> Each participant’s response was coded for each of the concepts it included; many responses received multiple codes. Therefore percentages may add up to more than 100%.

participate in the program. For five participants (33%), the opportunity to give back to society was motivation. According to one, “Your life is on hold while you’re in here and this helps make the time not for nothing.” Another participant recognized that she will “never have a block of time without responsibility like this again. This gives me more credibility on my journey to being a whole person again.” Three participants (20%) reported being motivated by the companionship of a dog. “To come to a place with no hope or joy and get unconditional understanding is amazing.” Four participants (27%) identified other factors that motivated them to participate, such as the camaraderie with the other women: “I thought it was a unity thing” and self-discipline: “I’m in the program to get away from the negativity in here.”

Participants were asked to describe their experiences with animals before their incarceration. Nearly every respondent (n = 14; 93%) reported having dogs and/or other pets growing up and prior to their incarceration. The final participant bred dogs prior to her incarceration and noted that being a nurse for 23 years prepared her to care for the dogs in the program.

*Benefits of the Program.* The respondents were asked to identify how they benefit from the program, or why they remain in the program. Six of the respondents (40%) identified the companionship and love of the dogs as a benefit of participation. One woman described her relationship with her dog as “better than any I’ll have with a person”. These respondents noted the unconditional love they get from the dogs: “He doesn’t criticize me or talk back or want to pick a fight. No matter what I say, here is here for me.” An equal number of participants (40%) also reported that the program helps alleviate their depression or helps improve their mood. According to

one participant, “I have my ‘jail days’ when I am depressed and angry but I see that little face and the wagging tail and they’re happy to see you and it just can’t be a bad day.” Another said the program has given her “happiness and a purpose to life. You feel stuck in max like you don’t want to get out of bed. This gets you up and going. You have to.”

Another frequently (n = 5; 33%) cited benefit of the program was the sense of responsibility it instills. An equal number (n = 5; 33%) of respondents also pointed to other benefits, such as learning patience, gaining an education, and keeping busy. Three women (20%) said they “do this for the dogs”. According to one, “If I can bring my dog to her full potential, I can reach mine.” Finally, three women (20%) pointed to their opportunity to give back to society as a benefit. “These dogs are being trained for something fabulous – to save lives. This is my way of giving back even though society doesn’t think much of convicts.”

Participants were asked if they have noticed any changes in their emotions since they began participating in the program. More than half of the sample (n = 9; 60%) said they were less angry and more patient as a result of their participation. “I’m more relaxed and not as tense,” said one woman. “I was angry,” said another, “and this is slowing me down and has taught me to be calm. We go at the pace of the puppy.”

Nearly half (n = 7; 47%) of the respondents said they are less depressed as a result of their participation. “These puppies bring me happiness,” according to one woman. Another woman said she no longer gets “upset with my kids for not writing enough; I just talk to my best friend here [referring to the dog]”. Four participants

(27%) said the program has led them to be more aware of their emotions and deal with them in a more active way. One woman reported: “I have seen an enormous change in my emotions. Before, I didn’t show much emotions. I’m not a people person. But the dogs make my emotions more active. I worry about them if they are hurt during play or whatever. It is truly a big break through for me.” Another woman acknowledged: “I was a drug addict out there so my feelings were all bottled up. This is opening up pathways for me to tell my family things I couldn’t before. I tell them what I’m feeling now.” Finally, three participants (20%) noted the sadness they will feel when their dogs leave the facility. “I do experience sadness with the program. It is tough to leave them; it’s like separating from my kids all over again,” according to one woman.

Participants were asked to identify any physical changes they have experienced since they began participating in the program. Two-thirds of all participants (n = 10; 67%) reported having lost weight since starting the program. The most striking account came from a participant who said, “I gained over 100 pounds in country and I’ve lost most of it from the walking and exercise I get from the dogs.” The next largest amounts of reported weight lost were 60, 50, 40, and 34 pounds. Nine women (60%) said they are more active now and have more energy. “I used to lay around a lot in max. Here you’re constantly busy,” said one woman. According to another, “My energy is where it used to be. You’re with them for 24 hours a day, being active. It’s a great feeling.” Six participants (40%) said they sleep better as a result of their participation. One woman extolled: “I sleep great. I’m physically exhausted. I’m healthier. It’s a good clean, tired feeling.” Another

reported: "I have no more sleepless nights." In addition, one woman said she is "off anti-depressants" since beginning the program. Another participant reported that since she was 12 she has struggled with Diabetes, but that, "within three months of being in the program my blood sugar stabled at 180. I haven't used insulin in three months. Medical here and my family can't understand it. My blood pressure is lower too." Another woman cited the physical activity she engages in with the program as "therapy" for a two year-old back injury that left her unable to walk for two months.

*Interpersonal Changes.* Participants were asked to report any changes in their relationships with other inmates since they started participating in the program.

Nearly two-thirds of the sample (n = 9; 60%) reported having increased pro-social interactions. One woman said, "In max people were stand-offish. Here everyone leaves their doors open. The other women make you feel encouraged to go to them." Another woman said the program "has gotten me to open up a little bit more. I know I gotta do it for Katie, not for me." Still another woman said she has become "more outgoing. I am less nervous reading gout loud in group. I've come out of my shell and can be open with people I don't know." One-third of the sample (n = 5; 33%) noted that they have learned to cooperate with others for the sake of the dogs. One woman said, "We have to keep personality issues outside the program. We have to work together for the dogs. We have to have common courtesy for each other." Another declared she "wouldn't jeopardize her [dog's] training for anything. You have to set aside your feelings. You have to put you last and the puppy first." Four respondents (27%) indicated that they have dog-focused interactions with others. "Before I stayed to myself," said one, "now I'm more apt to talk to people about the

dogs. It helps women who miss their own pets.” Another woman said “we talk more about the dogs and they’ll ask how they’re doing. I talk to them about her health and stuff. When Bo was in my cell after she was spaded and I was walking around without her, everyone was asking where she was. They all greet her before me when we’re walking around grounds.” Three participants (20%) identified having more negative interactions with others as a result of the program. One noted that “some women here don’t like dogs or they’re afraid of them and they back away from us.” The other two participants indicated that other inmates can be jealous or angry about the privileges program members are perceived to have.

Participants were asked to report any changes in their relationships with staff members since participating in the program. More than half (n = 8; 53%) reported receiving better treatment from the staff. According to one respondent, “The COs treat us differently because we’re doing something special and worthwhile. We get a little bit of respect.” Another participant indicated that “the dog makes me different from other inmate and I’m in better standing with the officers. I’ve been complimented by officers who had been tough on me before.” Still another participant said COs “treat you more humanely; you’re not just a number. They ask about your dog and then you. Sometimes they’ll say they’re having a tough day and come to visit with them [the dogs].” An equal number of participants (n = 3; 20%) reported no favorable treatment from the staff as reported worse treatment (n = 3; 20%). “Some COs are ignorant of the program or don’t like the program,” said one participant. According to another, “with the staff you have to watch out for attitude.

They think we might have an attitude because of the program so you have to humble yourself.”

Participants were asked to report any changes in their relationships with their family members since participating. One third ( $n = 5$ ; 33%) of the sample said there was no change in their relationships. Of the 10 participants who responded to the question, all had positive comments about the effects. One woman said, “My family loves it. I talk to them about the dogs on the phone. My mom always asks me about them. My family focuses on the dog when they come visit. They’re proud of me and they see the changes in me.” Another reported that her children are “less anxious about me being locked up. They get to see the dog when they visit and they’ll even request a specific dog for me to bring.” One participant indicated that her family members have “come to admire what I do. I work hard whether it is freezing or hot outside. They admire my dedication and see I have gone above and beyond what I need to do in here.”

Participants’ responses to the question of whether they have seen any changes in their fellow program participants were divided. Approximately half ( $n = 7$ ; 47%) of the sample identified witnessing positive changes in their fellow participants. “Some are calmer, more patient,” said one woman. Another recalled that she has “seen girls come in stuck up and now they pick up poop.” Another said she has seen “girls come in with no confidence and when they leave they’ve had success with a dog.” Still another participant reported that “two women I know came in miserable and angry and by the end they’d totally changed.” Approximately one-fourth of the participants reported witnessing negative changes in others. One respondent said

“some can be cut-throat about the dogs and it’s like they’re waiting for you to screw up. It’s true that you can’t put two women in a kitchen.” Another said there can be “fighting and some get catty with each other. Some aren’t participating for the right reasons.” Three participants (20%) reported they have seen both positive and negative changes in others.

*Personal Experience & Growth.* Participants were asked if the program changed their prison experience or their opinion of prison. The sample was nearly evenly split. Eight participants (53%) said the program has not changed their experience, while seven participants (47%) reported having a more positive opinion of their experience inside. The former are summarized by the woman who said “my opinion of prison hasn’t changed because I’m still an inmate. Anything can happen. I can still be written up for no reason and lose it all tomorrow.” The latter are represented by the woman who said, “In max I thought I was going to die in here with no hopes or dreams, but there are some opportunities in here.” Another woman indicated she feels “incredibly fortunate. I’m in the best position a woman could be in, in here. I do get perks but they are self-satisfaction and internal fulfillment.”

Participants were asked what they have learned about themselves as a result of their participation. Overwhelmingly, (n = 10; 53%) participants said they felt empowered by the program. One woman reported knowing, “I can get through anything. As uncomfortable as life can be, it is bearable. I can achieve anything I want to.” Another said she learned “I’m not as stupid as I was always told I was. I have a lot to offer, to the community and to other women in the program, and to the dogs too.” Another participant said she learned “to voice my opinion and not be a

carpet. I say what I want people to know.” One-third of the sample (n = 5; 33%) indicated that they learned they have patience. Slightly fewer (n = 4; 27%) reported learning they can communicate with people effectively.

*Suggestions for Improvement.* Participants were asked to identify any negative aspects of the program or anything they would change about the program. The most common (n = 9; 60%) response given referred to the group dynamics of the program participants. One woman said she would like to “change how we deal with problems within the program. I would deal with them privately, not in public in front of the whole group. Another participant said, “I wish there was more encouragement between us. Some women make it a competition and it’s not. It can be discouraging in the group.” More than one woman reported favoritism among the program staff members. One-third of the sample (n = 5; 33%) indicated they would like to see the program expanded – with more dogs and more participants, specifically in the maximum-security facility. Slightly fewer (n = 4; 27%) indicated they would change the screening process. They felt there are women in the program whose first priority is not the dogs. Two participants (13%) said they would like the dogs to have more opportunity for socialization outside the prison.

Participants were asked if they felt they could give feedback to the people who run the program. The sample was nearly evenly split with seven women (47%) reporting they feel they can provide feedback to the program staff and eight women (53%) reporting they would not feel comfortable giving feedback.

*Post-Program Activities.* Participants were asked if they liked keeping the puppy book that goes with the dog. The journal tracks the dogs’ socialization and

their progress with training. It has their sitters' letters, their first shed, nail clippings, and pictures. All 15 participants reported enjoying the book. It was compared to a baby book by several women. One woman noted that she wished she could have a copy of the book.

Participants were asked if they think they will try to get a job working with animals when they are released. More than a third ( $n = 6$ ; 40%) of all participants indicated that they would like to work with animals on a full-time basis upon release. Three of these women were currently taking the vet assistant course offered through PBB. Four participants (27%) said they would like to work with animals on a part-time or voluntary basis when released. Three participants (20%) reported they will seek employment in other areas, such as secretarial or social work. Two participants did not answer the question.

*Final Thoughts.* Finally, participants were asked if there was anything else they would like to say about the program. All comments were positive. More than half ( $n = 8$ ; 53%) of the sample commented on the program's ability to provide participants with redemption. One woman described the program as "a tremendous life lesson. I'm trusted with something alive. We've lost trust being in here and to get it back we'll do this hard work." Another woman said "raising dogs for law enforcement means a lot. Being an inmate doesn't make us evil." One woman described up the program by saying "it will turn your life around. It will make you happy and proud." Another said, "it's a win-win for us, the people that get the dogs, and the country. They're our little heroes." Two participants (13%) responded to the question by noting the program has provided them with a sense of responsibility.

## Interviews with Dorm COs

Both the day and evening shift COs posted in the dorm were briefly questioned. Both are black females. Both indicated they did not bid on the post specifically because of the program; “this was the post open when I wanted to get out of max,” said one officer. When asked to identify the most positive aspect of the program, one officer said “it’s good to see them care for something besides themselves and it’s nice to see them showing affection in an environment like this. They have to work together even if they don’t like each other which helps me as an officer.” The other officer said “having the dogs is good because it makes them want to stay in their room. It gives them something to do and alleviates their guilt.” Overall, they both agreed it was a good program. One officer reported that she “can see the benefits for the dogs, the inmates, and us COs. The environment is just better here. I’ll keep this post til I retire.”

## Male Facility

### Interview with Administration

*Origins of the Program.* The researcher met with the Administrator, Assistant Administrator, and the Senior Correction Officer who is responsible for the day-to-day operations of the program. The interview was started by asking how the Administrator first heard about PAPs and how he went about trying to bring the program to his facility. He reported that one of the facility’s teachers, who has a rescued greyhound, saw an article about a similar program in a greyhound magazine and brought the article to him. He called “a few” greyhound rescue groups and the executive director of GFNJ, Barbara Wicklund “immediately returned my call to say

she was interested.” When asked if he could identify a person who particularly advocated for the program he indicated that the program director “jumped right in to volunteer.”

The Administrator acknowledged facing challenges in implementing the program. The Commissioner of the state’s DOC had “safety and security concerns” as well as “misinformation about the dogs.” In addition, the unions and some staff members had concerns “about dog bites and messes.” The Administrator recalled that “the security staff hassled me over it, saying, ‘This is a prison, what is he doing?’” The Administrator characterized employees as “probably 60-40 in favor of it” when first presented with the idea. Now, though, “they are 90-10 in favor of it.” He conceded that “there are still a few hold-outs who just don’t think dogs belong in a prison.” Despite that, though, COs have adopted dogs from the program and the Administrator reported that COs want to work on the unit now. The naysayers “have been proven wrong; it is routine now,” he said. When asked, the three were able to identify one participant who turned down “full minimum status”, which would have allowed him to move to a half-way house, in order to remain in the program.

*Program Goals.* The Administrator was asked to identify the goals of the program. First, he said, is to rescue dogs, second to train inmates in responsibility and self-discipline and caring for others, and thirdly, to educate inmates in career options. The Administrator was asked to describe how the program measures success. First, he identified the lack of injuries, second, the number of adoptions (99 since May 2002), and third, the “changes we see in [participants’] behavior, attitude, and self-control.” Asked to identify and changes he has seen in the participants, the

Administrator referred to his previous response and said added that “the program teaches caring and responsibility as well as self-discipline.”

*Challenges.* The Administrator was asked how other prison administrators react when they find out he has a PAP at his facility. He acknowledged that “they’re interested, and inquisitive, and think it is a little crazy too. Philosophically, it is a change in the routine, and safety has to always remain paramount.” He went on to say that this type of program “requires flexibility on the part of the administration and the custody staff,” since, he went on to say, “most programs won’t work without the support of custody.”

The group was asked to identify any negatives associated with the program or if there was anything they would change about the program. The program director said that there is not enough staffing for the program and the varying training levels of the dog-inmate pairs can cause tension. The Administrator acknowledged that “guys have to defend the dogs sometimes from the other inmates who will insult their dogs for being so skinny.” The Administrator went on to report name calling that included ‘crack-smoking dog’, ‘dope-shooting dog’, and ‘AIDS dog’.

*Suggestions for Improvement.* The three agreed that they would like increased opportunity for the dogs’ socialization and movement. The dogs are with the inmate population as much as possible, such as in the day room, but according to the Administrator, “there are ‘institutional constraints’” and “some inmates fear the dogs.” [The researcher later found out that the Administrator was alluding to an incident with a senior member of the security staff who was posted in the administration building and managed to get the dogs banned from the building. Dogs

are now only permitted inside the cottage where the participants are housed. During warm months the dogs are outside in caged runs during the day while their handlers are in programs or working. During the winter the dogs remain in the primary handler's cell on the first floor of the dorm.] The Administrator went on to note that "the dogs are with the inmates more than they would be with an owner in the real world where someone is out of the house for 9 or 10 hours a day." Finally, there was agreement with the Administrator who pointed out that "there is a lot of separation anxiety around the dogs' adoptions. We replace the dog right away; I have seen guys near tears."

#### Interviews with Participants

*Introduction to the Program.* The first interview question asked each of the seven participants to describe when they first learned about the program and their reaction. Three participants<sup>5</sup> (43%) reported learning about the program while in draft, or orientation, while two participants (29%) learned about the program upon their arrival at the facility. One participant (14%) was at the facility when the program was announced through a memo in the dorms and one participant (14%) could not recall when he learned about the program.

Participants were asked to describe their reaction upon hearing of the program. Four respondents (57%) reported being surprised – they were not expecting a program like this in prison. According to one, "I heard of lifers getting to work with dogs, but not guys like me." Four respondents (57%) reported being interested

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<sup>5</sup> Each participant's response was coded for each of the concepts it included; most responses received multiple codes. Therefore percentages may add up to more than 100%.

and excited by the idea. “I jumped at the opportunity here” said one participant. One participant did note that what he heard about the program in orientation was “that guys that got dogs were snitches. I was interested but I’m no snitch.”

Participants were asked to describe their experiences with animals before their incarceration. Five respondents (71%) reported having dogs and/or other pets. One participant (14%) lived on a farm in another country growing up; he reported milking cows and working with other farm animals. The seventh participant reported having no prior experience with animals.

*Benefits of the Program.* The respondents were asked how they benefit from the program, or why they remain in the program. Nearly half of the sample ( $n = 3$ ; 43%) identified the companionship of the dog as a benefit of participation. An equal number ( $n = 3$ ; 43%) pointed out their increased knowledge about dogs as motivating them to participate. One (14%) respondent reported the program interested and excited him. One respondent (14%) also reported gaining a work ethic from his participation.

Participants were asked if they have noticed any changes in their emotions since they began participating in the program. Three respondents (43%) reported increased impulse and/or emotional control. For example, according to one participant, “I think before I react. I’ll think ‘Why is the dog acting that way?’ and then do something.” Another reported that, “I control my anger because I don’t want to get kicked out [of the program] so I need to be calm.” Three respondents (43%) reported talking with their dogs as a source of non-judgmental reaction. For example, “I talk to my dog – she is better than a person.” Two responses (29%) indicated that

the participants are able to employ alternative emotional coping strategies as a result of having the dogs. One participant said, "I let my barrier down with the dogs because they're not gonna judge me." According to the other participant, "I will talk to him after a tough call with my daughter; it definitely helps with stress." Two participants (29%) reported having increased pro-social interactions and communication with others. One respondent reported that, "When I'm depressed I stay to myself but with the dogs I interact with people more." According to the other participant, "Primary and back-up handlers have to negotiate. You have to deal with people and negotiate with them because of the dogs." One response (14%) identified an increased empathy as a result of participating in the program. According to this participant, "...when my dog chews something I won't hit him. I have concern for the dog first."

Participants were asked to identify any physical changes they have experienced since participating in the program. Three respondents (43%) reported no physical changes. Two participants report being a 'morning person' as a result of participating. One reported, "I am a morning person now and I like it. I never used to get up before 11 or noon before." Another participant (14%) noted having more energy while another (14%) reported feeling less stressed.

*Interpersonal Changes.* Participants were asked to report any changes in their relationships with other inmates since they started participating in the program. Three respondents (43%) reported no changes. One participant (14%) said, "I don't really talk to guys outside the program. You can't talk to the younger ones anyway." One participant (14%) reported being more sociable because of the program. And

one participant (14%) indicated increased communication and negotiation with other participants, noting that, “You have to negotiate who has the dog at night with your back-up. I don’t force the dog on him because I don’t want him to mistreat him. So I back-down.”

Participants were asked to report any changes in their relationships with staff members since participating in the program. Three participants (43%) reported no change. Three participants (43%) reported having increased interactions with staff members. For example, “cops [COs] will talk to you because of the dog and ask about them so we talk about that.” One participant (14%) noted that “some COs don’t like the dogs and don’t respect them. You just stay away from them.”

Participants were asked to report any changes in their relationships with their family members since participating. Three participants (43%) reported no change. More than half of the sample ( $n = 4$ ; 57%) said their families are interested in the dogs and they discuss the dogs with their families. According to one, “When my family calls me they check up on the dogs and me.”

Participants were asked if they interact with other inmates in the program differently from inmates not in the program. Three participants (43%) reported interacting with all inmates in the same way. Four respondents (57%) indicated that they are closer with the inmates in the program. One participant said, “It is like a family with these guys.” Another said, “I talk to the guys in the group about everything.”

Participants’ responses to the question of whether they have seen any changes in their fellow program participants ranged widely. Two respondents (29%) reported

seeing others become interested or enthusiastic about the program even though they did not enter the program that way. According to one participant (14%), he has seen “guys get mature; they carry themselves differently. They don’t play games. I see them get concerned for the dogs.” One respondent (14%) reported seeing some gain a work ethic. According to another participant (14%), “I see other guys stay out of trouble because they want to stay in the program.” Two responses (29%) noted negative changes. According to one, “Others can’t handle the responsibility, or they leave things out [in their cell] and it gets eaten.” The other noted that “not everyone, though, comes in with the dog in mind first; they come in for the perks like the single room and the parties.”

*Personal Experience & Growth.* Participants were asked what they have learned about themselves as a result of their participation. Three responses (43%) indicated that the participants had gained a sense of empathy. For example, “I learned that I am really soft on the inside.” And, “I see that all life is important now.” An equal number of respondents (n = 3; 43%) indicated that they were more responsible as a result of participating. According to one, “At first I thought having a kid would be easy, but keeping up with my dog has been hard work and it is a responsibility to have a kid. I’ve matured and am more responsible because of the program.” Two participants (29%) indicated they are more patient now, while a third said, “I learned I have more self-control than I thought I had.” Finally, one participant (14%) said he has learned that “I am crazy about animals and I want more knowledge so that I can have a job working with them.”

*Suggestions for Improvement.* Participants were asked to identify anything they would change about the program. Two participants (29%) reported wanting to work with a greater variety of dogs while another two participants (29%) indicated that they would like the dogs to have their own yard on the prison grounds. One participant (14%) reported wanting to spend more time training the dogs and another participant (14%) said he would change the CO posted in the dorm where the program participants are housed, “because we need a dog guy.” One participant (14%) said there was nothing he would change about the program.

Participants were asked if they felt they could give feedback to the people who run the program. Of the five participants (71%) who reported having the opportunity to provide feedback, three (60%) were interviewed in the presence of the CO who directs the program. Two participants (29%) reported feeling as though they could not give feedback to the program staff.

*Post-Program Activities.* Participants were asked if they would work with other animals. Two participants (29%) said they would work with horses, two participants (29%) said they would work with any animals, while another (14%) said he would not work with horses as they are “too intimidating.” Two participants (29%) reported they would work with feral cats while one (14%) participant said, “I just don’t like cats.”

Participants were asked if they liked writing the journal that would be given to the adoptive family. Four participants (57%) reported liking the journal while three (43%) said they did not. No participant volunteered to show the researcher his journal.

Participants were asked if they think they will try to get a job working with animals when they are released. Two participants (29%) said they think they would like to do dog training as a part-time job. One participant (14%) said he does want a job working with animals when he gets out and one participant (14%) said he will probably return to the farm where he grew up and work. One participant (14%) reported wanting to study dogs (their health and training) further upon his release. One participant (14%) was unsure of what he will do upon release.

*Final Thoughts.* Finally, participants were asked if there was anything else they would like to say about the program. Three participants (43%) described the program as the best or most effective. According to one, “This is the best program here, ask anybody. It is all the other programs in one.” According to another, “I think this program rehabilitates inmates more than any other program. You deal with animals but you learn to apply it to humans.” Two respondents (29%) said the program is good for the facility. Two respondents (29%) pointed out that the program also benefits the animals. One participant noted that “This is the last stop for the dogs and we help get them saved. They can get a home now.” The other indicated that “I think people should know this is a program for the sake of the animals. Many have been beaten by their owners at the track and we are here to help them now.” Lastly, two participants (29%), with an average age of 24.5 years between them noted the program’s potential benefits for juveniles. One said “I think they should give guys dogs in high school when the girls get the fake babies. It would teach them responsibility. They would have a head start while still in the community. Having to come here is like a re-start.” The other participant reported

that “I think juveniles could really benefit from this program. It would give them a chance to find self-control before they come to a place like this.”

#### Focus Group

*Reputation of the Program.* The focus group conducted with all 14 program participants was used to probe for additional detail and to contribute to triangulation. The first question posed to the group asked what they had heard about the program from other people when they first learned of it. All but one current participant arrived after the program had been established. The rumors about the program included, “In draft I heard that guys that got dogs were snitches. I was interested but I’m no snitch. They said you gotta pick up their poop and they’ll eat your stuff. I looked it up in the handbook when I got here.” Another reported that he “heard that the dogs were here to catch escapees.”

*Benefits of the Program.* Members of the focus group overwhelming identified positive effects of their participation, but did note two negative consequences. According to one participant, the program “can be a stigma from others. The program has a reputation as being for scared white guys who need a dog for protection.” Another acknowledged that “the staff treats us like humans and our opinions matter. But some staff harasses us because of the dogs.” A participant referred to the program as “a commodity and a privilege.” One participant said “the program helps you relate to what you had on the streets, like you’re part of society again.” Another said “you get complements from other inmates and family members.” A participant went on to note “you feel mature taking care of something else.” Another member agreed and said “the dog depends on you and you look out

for the dog. You take care of the dog and then yourself.” Continuing with the idea of protecting the dogs, a participant said, “The dogs have been hit before but they’re not gonna do it again.” Another participant agreed when he said that “we share concern over the dogs. We are overprotective with the dogs.”

Participants’ comments identified how the program benefits themselves as well as others. They referred to the program “as a learning experience.” One participant said, “I like learning about the dogs and knowing about them. I can say I know about them now.” While the program may provide them with the opportunity for mastery of a topic, its lessons are also applicable to other aspects of their lives. For example, one participant has applied what he has learned to parenting noting, that “I think I’ll have more patience when I have kids now.” The potential for the skills that are developed to be applied to other areas of the participants’ lives is demonstrated by the participant who noted that “I took Anger Management and Behavior Modification Therapy but they weren’t as helpful as this program. I can show real emotion toward the dog. I have better sessions with the dog than I do with the doctor I see here in therapy. I’m more comfortable with the dog.”

Participants also noted that their participation in the program benefits others beyond themselves. According to one, “We hurt people on the street and now we are helping the dog; it is sort of like penance.” Another participant added that, you’re not helping anyone being in prison – you’re useless.” Continuing with the theme of reparation, a participant said “part of our work goes into helping other people and society.”

Participants indicated that the program contributes to an increase in pro-social interactions. One participant indicated that he enjoyed “getting to talk with different people during training and with speakers.” Other comments indicated that participants are building communication skills. One said, “You have to interact with each other and negotiate the responsibility with your back-up.” At the facility-level, non-participants “will ask about your dog when you wouldn’t usually talk to them.” Among participants, “We share concern over the dogs.” Another characterized the group by noting “We have more trust with each other in the group.” According to one “we get along for the dogs. If you took the dogs away we wouldn’t be a community.” Another participant agreed and said that “Without the dogs we wouldn’t talk to each other as much.”

Finally, the participants indicated the program increased pro-social behavior. One participant said the program “keeps me out of trouble. If I get angry I hold it back, hold it in. I don’t want to lose my dog.” A second continued, “I’ve learned to be more tolerant of others. It’s not on purpose but because of the dogs.” Another said participating “helps me enjoy the day. I work like everyone else [on the outside].” Adding to the notion of linking the participants to society, a participant said, “The dogs are a force of socialization. It makes you feel less institutionalized. It normalizes the place.”

One participant summed up the group’s attitude toward the program by asserting that, “This is the best program here” to which the group sitting in the circle nodded in agreement. The group also agreed on the things they would like to change about the program. They would like to expand the program by having more dogs.

They would like having different breeds to gain experience training a variety of breeds. They would like more space for training the dogs as well as a yard used only for the dogs.

## CHAPTER EIGHT: DISCUSSION

### Hypothesis 1: National Survey

The national survey results support the first hypothesis, that a majority of states have at least one PAP. The major contribution of the results is the description of the wide range of programs currently being administered throughout the United States. With a 92% response rate, nearly the entire population was included in the sample. Among the more noteworthy results: the programs are most commonly of a community service design that uses dogs, are more likely to involve male than female participants, and most were established after 2000. Most of PAPs included in the sample report screening potential participants prior to acceptance into the program and including on-going lessons related to the animals. Most programs work with a non-profit organization such as an animal rescue group or humane society. The programs range in terms of their size, with the smallest program having two participants and the largest approximately 300. Survey respondents overwhelmingly regard these programs as positive. The most commonly identified negative aspect was not an actual characteristic of the program but rather the resistance of some facility staff to program implementation.

The livestock care/farm programs appear to be notably different from other types of PAPs. They are the largest programs, the oldest programs, most likely pair participants with animals for the fewest number of hours each day, and least likely to pair participants with specific animals. Thus, livestock care/farm programs may not foster the same type of empathetic relationships with animals as do more conventional PAPs that use domesticated animals. Prison farms date back to start of

the twentieth century and have been criticized for incorporating the spirit of slavery, similar to Jim Crow laws and the convict lease system (see Oshinsky, 1996). These programs are revenue-generating operations for the state which has implications in terms of the prison industrial complex. It may be that livestock care/farm programs should be studied as a separate phenomenon.

There are several programs in the sample that stand out. The warden of the prison in North Dakota where a pheasant-raising program is located reported that “the inmates know that the birds are not pets and that there is a high death loss when the hunting takes place” (Personal communication, 4/8/05). He went on to report that there are therapeutic effects associated with participation, but noted that the program is limited to two inmates (three during hatching season). The participants “take great pride in their work, keep detailed records, and have developed their own light colored stock” of pheasant. He reported that the participants “feel good” about what they do and make a point of meeting the hunters who come onto the facility grounds. The warden reported that he considers this a public service project, and “definitely not your traditional PAP” (ibid.).

The Ohio Department of Rehabilitation and Correction started the Community Service Initiative in 1991 and as a result, the state has the most PAPs in the country. The programs contribute to the millions of hours of community service logged by inmates who are supporting the Department’s “good neighbor pledge” ([www.drc.state.oh.us/web/commserv.htm](http://www.drc.state.oh.us/web/commserv.htm)). The Department has developed partnerships with non-profit organizations, government agencies, schools and

charitable groups throughout the state in support of its “restorative justice initiative of making a contribution to society” (ibid).

The four program models that involve wild horses that are trained and then adopted out to the community work with the Federal Bureau of Land Management (BLM). The plight of America’s wild horses has received considerable attention (Associated Press, 2005, April 27). Activists including country music singer Willie Nelson and actor Richard Gere have worked for several years to end the slaughter of thousands of wild horses for consumption in other countries. Opponents of the legislation, including cattle farmers, argue that the horses destroy their grazing land. The government already spends millions of dollars to maintain unadoptable wild horses at sanctuaries throughout the Midwest (ibid). PAPs may be able to make a contribution to this growing problem by socializing wild horses and getting them adopted. Thus both supporters and critics of the proposed legislation would be pleased: the population of the horses could be controlled not by slaughter but by training and adoption while managing to avoid creating any additional burden for the government.

As with any survey, the reliability of the national PAP survey results is dependent on the accuracy of the DOC staff members who responded. The high response rate positively influences reliability.

#### Hypothesis 2: Official Levels of Misconduct

Due to the limited size of the two programs examined, a facility-level reduction in misconduct could not be identified. It seems logical that the 15 to 20 PAP participants at each facility would be unable to significantly impact the behavior

of 1,000 or more inmates. Within the institutions with PAPs the numbers and rate of misconducts decreased in the year of implementation and the year after implementation at the female facility (the increase in the year after implementation at the male facility, 2003, was marginal at .001). At both facilities, as more time passed after program implementation misconduct reports increased. In contrast, among individual program participants, there is a uniform lack of charges of misconduct. Further research is needed to determine if these seemingly contradictory results are reliable, and if so, why, given the consistent reporting by staff and administrators that the programs positively effect non-participants. Perhaps the benefits are to the staff and administrators themselves, and not non-participating inmates. Or perhaps the impact on non-participating inmates, who have considerably less exposure to the animals, is not strong enough to effectively modify their behavior.

The nature of the available data impeded the ability to make worthwhile comparisons within the facilities as well. As discussed above, most facilities house inmates at various security levels and the misconduct reports provided do not specify the security level of the accused. In addition, the severity of the misconduct is not indicated. Further, the facility's population at the time of the misconducts is not known. All facility populations included in this study come from the NJ DOC web site and are accurate as of February 1, 2005. Therefore, when calculating the rate of misconducts at Facility A, for example, in 2002, the average number of misconducts for that year was divided not by the average population of 2002, but by the population of February 1, 2005.

### Hypothesis 3: Effective Treatment Programs Checklist

Lai (1998) suggests that many institutions “do not document the effectiveness of their program because its success is visibly noticeable to all involved and anecdotal information often takes the place of empirical data” (p. 20). Therefore, the programs were examined according to the best-practices principles incorporated into the Correctional Program Assessment Instrument (CPAI) by Gendreau and Andrews (2001) and the Correctional Practice Treatment Survey (CPTS) by the International Community Corrections Association (2003). The instruments were used to create a checklist for the present research in order to assess the PAPs in a systematic manner. As discussed above, both assessment tools have been used to evaluate a variety of correctional treatment programs but only the CPAI has published results with which to compare the results from the present study. PAPs have previously not been assessed according to the principles set forth in these instruments. The present results indicate general support for the third hypothesis that the two PAPs studied incorporate many of the best practices identified by the literature.

*Limitations of the Instruments.* It is necessary to consider the nature of the CPAI and CPTS as survey instruments before discussing how the results of the present study compare to other published reports. The creators of CPAI refer to it as a “tool used to ascertain how closely a correctional treatment program meets the principles of effective correctional treatment” (Latessa, Jones, Fulton, Stichman, and Moon, 1999, p. 3). The instruments, then, assess the extent to which correctional programs adhere to criteria found to be associated with success. It may be more accurate to regard these surveys as checklists rather than as evaluation tools. The

criteria used to determine the worth of the programs do not create a theory of programming. Therefore what the survey instruments attempt to measure is merely whether the given criterion is present. A checklist may be a more appropriate label for these instruments.

The CPAI and the CPTS are similar in that they examine most of the same criteria. Indeed, one of the authors of the CPTS has worked extensively with the team of authors of the CPAI. Therefore the two surveys available for use by those wanting to systematically examine correctional programs accept the same principles of effectiveness. Have researchers in the area of correctional programming actually accepted this monopolization in how to think about worthwhile programs? If they have not, where are the alternative approaches to thinking about programs? Perhaps a different group of researchers needs to contribute alternative perspectives to this area.

In addition to making similar assumptions about successful programs, both surveys also incorporate what some would consider similar errors in scoring procedures. Both surveys indicate that some sections are more important than others but then go on to provide one overall score which could be misleading; scoring high on the sections of lesser importance may numerically add up to an overall score of *satisfactory* but the points would be based on factors that are of less importance in determining program success. Another limitation of the CPAI is the labels assigned to the numerical scores of each section and the overall assessment score. The scale violates the point constancy requirement or “the requirement on numerical scoring, for example, of tests, that a point should reflect the same amount of merit, however it is earned” (Scriven, 1991, p. 265). On the CPAI, *very satisfactory* can be assigned

from 70% to 100% but *satisfactory* can be assigned from only (60% to 69%) which implies that the points earned to be considered *satisfactory* are worth more than those needed to be considered *very satisfactory*. Another example is the lowest category, *unsatisfactory*, which is any score under 50% while *satisfactory, but needs improvement*, can only be earned when scoring 50 to 59% implying that the first 50 percent is worth less than the next 10 percent.

It is therefore necessary to consider the limitations of the surveys described above when reviewing the results of the present research. Due to the lack of published reports on the application of the CPTS, only the CPAI will be discussed here. Previous research has found that the two areas in the CPAI that programs score best in are the miscellaneous or other category, and the program implementation category (Latessa, 1999; Latessa et al., 1999; Matthews et al., 2001). The next strongest is the staff characteristics. The weakest three areas have been found to be client pre-service assessment, program characteristics, and evaluation (ibid). Juvenile programs have been found to be generally similar to adult programs (ibid). Overall, the present findings support previous research in terms of common program strengths and weaknesses; the two programs studied were also found to demonstrate strengths often absent from other programs.

*Female Facility.* The program at the female facility in the present study supported previous research on the most commonly found strengths of programs (Latessa et al., 1999; Matthews et al., 2001). The program appeared to meet most of the criteria included in the program implementation area: the program director is experienced and involved with daily activities, the program meets a local need, and is

cost-effective and sustainable over the long-term. The criteria in the category of other or miscellaneous were also generally met by the current program. Ethics are a priority for the administering non-profit and funding and community support have been substantial and consistent.

As with the strengths described above, the program at the female facility was also found to support previous research on the weaknesses common among correctional programs (Latessa et al., 1999; Matthews et al., 2001). While applicants are interviewed by staff members, the current program, like other programs, did “so with a clinical psychosocial assessment that is based on subjective, professional judgment. Empirical evidence suggests that actuarial methods of assessment that are based on objective and standardized factors are more accurate at predicting the risk” or needs associated with an individual (Matthews et al., 2001). Without an objective measure, accurate classification is not possible, the authors argue. In addition, the present program does not offer services at varying levels, or alter the intensity or duration depending on the needs of the participant, thus lacking responsivity (*ibid.*). The current program also appears to “be more interested in having staff members be jack-of-call trades” (*ibid.*, p. 467). The program director has other responsibilities and the instructors provided by the administering non-profit are volunteers trained by the agency. The current program, like most correctional programs studied with the CPAI, does not offer aftercare services. Evaluation is an additional area of weakness. The current program does not evaluate participants for improvement or change; as stated above, the rehabilitative nature of the program activities is a collateral effect of

participation, not an identified goal to achieve. No follow-up or longitudinal data is collected, nor outcome studies or true experiments conducted.

A major limitation of most programs studied with the CPAI is that they “tend to be atheoretical. That is, they were designed and implemented without much consideration to the empirical research on what works with the types of offenders the programs were serving” (Latessa et al., 1999, p. 14). The present program is no different. The program is not serving the incarcerated females participating in it; the program fills a need for service dogs. While there is a general body of literature regarding the beneficial effects of animals (as discussed above), there is little to no empirical research on whether training dogs is rehabilitative for adult female inmates. Not only do many correctional programs, including the current one, lack a theoretical orientation in terms of treatment (e.g., cognitive-behavioral, self help) but, as discussed above, all PAPs also lack a theoretical orientation in terms of punishment or sentencing.

The program at the female facility has a number of strengths in areas found to be generally weak in correctional programs studied in other research (Latessa et al., 1999; Matthews et al., 2001). The present program relies more on rewards than punishment and as was stated above, participation itself is viewed by most participants as a reward. The reliance on rewards, though, may be occurring with a “lack theoretical insight on why they use punishment [or reward] and practical knowledge about how to punish [or reward] effectively” (Matthews et al., 2001, p. 467). Another area where the present program improves on most other programs examined is family involvement. The dogs often accompany participants on visits

and become topics of conversation with family members. An obvious strength in the category of program characteristics is the intensity of the current program, as it occupies most of the participants' time, considered basic to an effective program (see Gendreau, 1996b). The current program could be considered residential, a characteristic found to be associated with increased effectiveness, in the sense that all the participants share one dorm; the dorm is on the minimum-security grounds, separate from the maximum-security facility that houses general population inmates. The participants share the dorm with incarcerated women who are not participating in the program and work with other minimum-security inmates who are not participants. While the program is institutionally- and not community- based, an "alternative community" (Ross et al., 1995, p. 11) is effectively created.

*Male Facility.* The program at the male facility in the present study supported previous research on the most commonly found strengths of programs (Latessa et al., 1999; Matthews et al., 2001). The program appeared to meet most of the criteria included in the program implementation area: the program director is highly involved and experienced, the program meets a local need, and is cost-effective and sustainable over the long-term. The criteria in the category of other or miscellaneous were also generally met by the current program. While the lack of facility records is a shortcoming of the program, the administering non-profit stresses the importance of ethics, and funding and community support have been substantial and consistent.

As with the strengths described above, the program at the male facility was also found to support previous research on the weaknesses common among correctional programs (Latessa et al., 1999; Matthews et al., 2001). Like many other

programs, including the female facility examined in the present research, the current program has staff members interview applicants to determine their appropriateness for participation without an objective measure. Again, like most other programs and the female program included here, the present program does not offer services at varying levels or alter the intensity or duration depending on the needs of the participant, thus lacking responsivity (ibid). The current program also has a program director with other responsibilities (he is Senior Correction Officer). In addition, the current program, like most correctional programs studied with the CPAI, does not offer aftercare services. Evaluation is an additional area of weakness. The current program does not evaluate participants for improvement or change and no follow-up or longitudinal data is collected, nor outcome studies or true experiments conducted. Finally, the present program is atheoretical both in terms of the treatment approach and its role in punishment.

The program at the male facility has a number of strengths in areas found to be generally weak in correctional programs studied in other research (Latessa et al., 1999; Matthews et al., 2001). Like the female program discussed above, the present program relies more on rewards than punishment and participants view the program as a reward in itself, but the reward/punishment scheme is atheoretical. Another area where the present program improves on most other programs examined is family involvement. The dogs often accompany participants on visits and become topics of conversation with family members. Because the dogs remain in a kennel or the participants' rooms during the day, the present program is less intense than the female program discussed above where the dogs are generally with the participants all day,

but it does occupy a significant amount of the participants' time and require dedication to the care of the animals. And like the female program, the participants of this program share one dorm building but the dorm also houses inmates who are not participants and participants work with inmates who are not participants. Despite not being isolated or segregated from other inmates, the cohesion of the program participants contributes to the feeling of an "alternative community" (Ross et al., 1995, p. 11) within the institution.

*Program Comparison.* The two programs examined in the present research had similar strengths and weaknesses and several key differences when compared to each other. The female program is more intense and includes more lessons in animal training and offers the opportunity to become certified in animal care through correspondence school. Another strength of the female program is that it is one of several sites administered by this non-profit organization; the model specific to this agency has been practiced for several years prior to being put into place at the current prison. The male program faces significant staff member changes when the program director and executive director of the administering non-profit retire.

The two programs also include common characteristics unique to PAPs. Participants in the male program keep journals that follow the dogs when they are adopted; written in their own words, it allows participants to share the goals he and the dog reached together and what he has learned about the dog's unique personality, such as any likes or dislikes. The puppy books created by the participants in the female program follow the growth and development of the dogs through pictures and samples of the dogs' first nail clippings and puppy fur from groomings, and also go

with the dogs when they leave. These books serve as an opportunity for the participants to demonstrate their knowledge about a dog they have dedicated a significant amount of time and energy to. It also serves as a tangible, lasting connection between the participants and the dogs, thus reinforcing a new, pro-social relationship.

Finally, the two programs have strengths not often found in correctional programs and are unique to PAPs. PAPs may be among the most cost-effective programs to administer inside a correctional facility. All supplies are generally provided by the administering non-profit agency and the facility is responsible for providing the labor and the space. Few correctional programs are the source of such positive media attention or able to encourage positive relations with the community. Community members and recipients of the animals, whether law enforcement officers or families with children, also “become more aware of the broad range of issues faced” by incarcerated people and can “gain deeper insights into the crime-related challenges faced by offenders, victims, communities, and justice agencies” (Holsinger and Crowther, 2005, p. 329). PAPs also provide a range of benefits, from the recipient of a trained service animal, to the larger society that is kept safe by an explosives-detecting canine, to efforts to control our nation’s overpopulation of unwanted pets. Most correctional programs can hope to, at best, positively impact the individual participants.

#### Hypothesis 4: Self-Reported Treatment Effects

The interviews with program stakeholders regarding program effects revealed further confirmation for many of the findings regarding psycho-social benefits

previously reported. Supporting the work of Arkow (1998), most participants of both programs reported learning to get along with and trust each other as they worked together with shared responsibilities aimed at common goals. Similar to Moneymaker and Strimple (1991), most participants in these two programs reported having a more positive outlook on life since they began the program. These researchers and others, including Cushing and Williams (1995), also found evidence of participants experiencing improved self-worth and increased self-esteem. The vast majority of both the male and female participants in the current study reported feeling more positive about themselves and feeling more worthwhile as a result of their work with the dogs. Increased self-confidence and patience, found in an evaluation of a wild mustang program (Lai, 1998), was also reported by most of the male and female participants in the current study. The results are also consistent with the findings of Cushing and Williams (1995). As in their work, many of the current sample of participants noted that being entrusted with the dogs was significant or meaningful and contributed to their sense of accomplishment and of being able to take pride in their hard work.

The data collected for the current study indicate support for the findings from a review of Scottish PAPs. According to Graham (2000) the programs were found to increase communication among inmates and between inmates and staff members. While a number of participants from both sites of the present study reported increased interactions with their fellow inmates, a nearly even number did not. Many did report more positive interactions with some staff members. The Scottish study found visitors stayed longer and many participants in the current study told of including the

dogs on visits and in discussions during phone calls with family members. Also in concordance with Graham (2000) is the finding that the animals were associated with reduced levels of staff stress. Staff and administrators at both program sites reported the overall support of and enjoyment from the dogs.

The data from the male facility support findings reported by Harbolt and Ward (1991) who examined a community service program with incarcerated older teenagers. Those researchers found that the youth demonstrated compassion, were dedicated to their responsibilities, and had gained experience giving and receiving positive regard. The male participants in the current sample also consistently demonstrated compassion and dedication to their work. They also noted the therapeutic effects of having a dog with them inside prison.

The effect on vocational skills noted by Harkrader et al. (2004) and Lai (1998) was supported by the current research. Participants and stakeholders alike reported that the programs instilled a sense of responsibility in participants. Responsibility was also commonly reported in the national survey included in the present project. At the female facility, participants with at least a GED and 18 months left on their sentence are able to take a correspondent course in Veterinary Assistant paid for by the non-profit that administers the program. Administrators reported that five participants have taken advantage of the offer. Two participants reported currently pursuing the certification.

The two programs examined in the present study reported lower rates of participant discharge from the program than that found by Moneymaker and Strimple (1991). One participant of the 30, or 3.33%, who have participated in the female

facility's program was removed for disciplinary violation. The male facility reported an even lower number of participants discharged, one of 63, or 1.59%. Moneymaker and Strimple (1991) found 12% of participants removed in their examination of a prison pet adoption program.

The sociological and more large-scale effects of PAPs reported in the literature (see Harkrader et al., 2004; Lai, 1998) were found in the present examination. Positive community relations and positive press was reported as a benefit by administrators of both facilities. The sense of engaging in positive work and of serving the community was also raised by administrators from both facilities. Both programs also affected larger social issues, the demand for working dogs at the female facility and the rescue of dogs that would have otherwise been destroyed at the male facility.

The academic literature lacks discussion of challenges to implementing PAPs. Administrators and staff members at both facilities acknowledged facing challenges to implementation. Concerns from union members, those allergic and fearful of dogs, and those who argued that 'dogs just don't belong in prison' had to be addressed at both sites. Administrators and supportive staff members helped spread a positive message about the programs. Interviews from both sites indicated that today most staff members support the programs even while some refuse to be impressed by the lack of problems and relative success of the program. No one interviewed expressed concern that the programs might be in jeopardy because of these non-supporters.

Prior research has not considered the effects of these programs on non-participants nor how non-participants treat or regard those in PAPs. Participants at

the male facility were particularly vocal about being made fun of or harassed by inmate not in the program. During interviews participants told of being taunted by those who see them as weak and needing a dog for protection. They also reported others making fun of the dogs for being skinny; greyhounds are exceedingly different from the pit bulls inmates are familiar with in the cities where they are from. Some male participants indicated that others see them as privileged. Female participants also reported problems with jealousy from non-participants and with a few staff members who assume the participants feel they are special or better than other inmates and go on to remind them they are not.

Previous studies have not considered the role of the facility administrators. Both top administrators interviewed in this study acknowledged the progressive nature of the programs as well as the mixed reactions they face from other administrators who learn of the program. With additional research regarding the numerous benefits of PAPs more acceptance of the programs will hopefully follow. It will become more difficult to justify the notion that ‘animals just don’t belong in prisons’ if PAPs are shown to be positive, cost-effective measures that bring with them benefits for participants, staff members, and the community at large.

It is necessary here to identify a key characteristic of both programs studied. Neither program required changing, nor more importantly, adding to staffing needs. The need to satisfy security demands, in terms of staffing levels is basic to prison operations. Here, neither program required adding a new post or position charged only with overseeing PAP activities. Both programs are housed in dorms already staffed with security. The dogs are not housed in an area requiring additional

staffing. For example, one administrator said a horse program would not be feasible at the facility because the stable and necessary fields would require additional security posts. Dogs, on the other hand, are housed in the dorm's cells and cared for and exercised in a small yard adjacent to the dorm.

The results of the present research also include findings not previously reported. Most notable is the data indicating a large number of female participants who reported positive physiological effects. Two-thirds lost weight (and half of them lost over 20 pounds each) and nearly half reported sleeping better for the first time since being incarcerated. One woman's thirty-year dependency on Insulin to control her Diabetes abated within three months of participation, and by sustaining lower blood pressure she has been able to reduce this dose of medication too. Another woman's debilitating back-injury has improved as a result of her increased activity. And yet another woman stopped taking anti-depressants since starting the program.

Some of the findings from previously reported research were not supported by the present investigation. Since the current study did not ask about illegal drug use prior to program participation, it is not known if participation positively impacted, or reduced, drug use. Hines (n.d.) reported that there was evidence of decreased suicide among PAP participants. The present study did not ask about suicide ideation but respondents overwhelmingly reported the positive effect the dogs have on their mood. While PAPs can serve as a source of revenue at some facilities, the two programs examined here do not generate money.

The self-report nature of the data collected revealed differences between the participants based on gender. The interviews with the females were longer in

duration and were generally more relaxed than the interviews with the males. The female interviewer sensed the male participants were not comfortable during the interviews. Half of the interviews were conducted with the program director in the room, and the other half were conducted in a private office belonging to a superior administrator. There are a number of additional possible influences, including participants did not understand the true nature of the inquiry, they saw the researcher as a DOC employee deserving deference, or they may have been reacting to some characteristic or behavior on the part of the researcher. The females may have appeared more comfortable speaking about their participation because they have been interviewed before by representatives of the press. The females were also significantly older than the males interviewed. The females were generally more verbal and better able to express themselves as compared with the males.

It is necessary to also note the distinctions between the nature of the two programs that may contribute to the variability in the self-reported findings. The program at the female facility is larger and has been operating for more than a year longer than the male program. The program at the female facility is also in operation at four other sites in two other states. It has a Board of Directors that includes the state's governor's wife and the state's commissioner of correctional services. Funding is not a reported concern. The female participants are with their dogs for more time during the day, usually all day, while the male participants are not with their dogs while they work an eight-hour day. Female participants work with the same dog for up to 18 months while male participants work with a specific dog for four to six months. The female program has more regular lessons for the participants

and the training is more challenging and advanced. The female program also offers the opportunity to earn a vocational certificate at no charge. Overall, the female program model has undergone greater testing and review and is more formal and financially stable.

A strength of the data collection process for this research question was that it allowed for direct observations of the program stakeholders and activities. Bouffard and colleagues (2003) point out that “techniques that allow evaluators to observe the operation of the program first-hand, rather than relying on stakeholders’ report or understanding of the operations, will provide” more accurate information (p. 152). A limitation of the data is the size of the sample. The total number of participants interviewed is small ( $n = 22$ ;  $n = 29$  if the focus group is included), but it is currently the largest in the literature (Cushing and Williams (1995) interviewed 8 participants). Given that the relatively small size of these programs limits the population size ( $N = 35$ ), it was possible to include most program participants from each site in the sample. It is also necessary to note, as did Cushing and Williams (1995), that the reporting of effects by participants and other stakeholders is subjective. But if the large number of these programs is an indicator, the self-report and stakeholder satisfaction data that abounds in this area seem able to satisfy the urge for empirical findings, at least thus far.

## CHAPTER NINE: LIMITATIONS

Lawrence and colleagues point to a “range of methodological limitations [that] preclude any assessment of *direct* and *unequivocal* beneficial effects of prison programming” (2002, p. 4). The present study also suffers from these limitations. The most significant limitation of the proposed study is its quasi-experimental nature. Because there is no control or comparison group to which the PAP participants are compared, it is not possible to conclusively attribute any reported treatment effects to the program. Further, linking the positive outcomes to specific program components presents a challenge, particularly in multi-modal programs such as the ones included here (Lawrence et al., 2002).

Selection bias of the program participants threatens the validity of the findings. Because participants must fit a number of eligibility requirements, the nature of those eligible may be systematically different from those ineligible. If participants are not typical of inmates in general, any program effects may actually be due to the inherent characteristics of those chosen to participate. The selection criteria result in what Maxfield and Babbie (2001) refer to as “*creaming* – skimming the best risks off the top. Creaming is a threat to validity because the low-risk persons selected ...may be most likely to succeed, yet they do not represent the jail population as a whole” (p. 166). PAPs may restrict participants based on the type of offense for which they are incarcerated, for example, limiting participants to those inmates who have not been convicted of a crime against a child or a violent crime with a weapon. In general, program participants are also thought to be more motivated than those who do not participate in programs (Lawrence et al, 2002).

Participant motivation is therefore regarded as a “characteristic of programs [that] tends to confound almost all program evaluations because those who participate are different from general population inmates” (Lawrence et al, 2002, p. 8).

Much of the data regarding treatment effects were not collected from objective measures. For example, interviews with program staff asked about their experiences with the program and the changes they have witnessed. Program participants were asked to report their subjective experiences as well. The reports regarding the physical effects of participation, such as measurable weight loss and changed medicinal schedules, are more objective than the reports regarding the psycho-social effects. The most objective measure of change is from participants’ official disciplinary records, previously recognized as compromised.

The size of the sample should also be considered. While most of the universe of the two program participants was included in the sample, the total number of individual interviews, 22, is still relatively small. But given how few total participants exist, the current sample size may be considered adequate.

The sample size, the limited amount of time spent at each facility, the presence of the CO during the first group of individual interviews and the focus group at the male facility, are each limitations that could be considered to stem from the difficulty of “gaining entry to prisons and other hard-to-access criminal justice organizations” (Trulson, Marquart, and Mullings, 2005, p. 451). The lack of control over the study environment or conditions of data collection “should hardly cause surprise...[given] that those who supervise and manage the kept do not initially welcome scholars and other outsiders into their institutions to poke about for largely

self-serving research interests” (ibid, p. 457). As a result of this ever-present “institutional fear of outsiders” (ibid), “research within the field of corrections is rarely easy or uncomplicated” (Patenaude, 2004, p. 69S). Despite the challenges, however, qualitative research conducted inside correctional institutions captures “what quantitative researchers often miss, through no fault of their own, the richness of meaning, depth of understanding, and flexibility that are hallmarks of qualitative research” (p. 70S).

Finally, it is necessary to address what some argue is the “correctional quackery” that characterizes PAPs (Latessa, Cullen, and Gendreau, 2002, p. 43). Quackery is defined as “the use of treatment interventions that are based on neither 1) existing knowledge of the causes of crime nor 2) existing knowledge of what programs have been shown to change offender behavior” (p. 44). The authors go on to point out four sources of correctional quackery. Many programs, they argue, are not designed based on the findings of empirical treatment research regarding what works. When correctional agencies fail to assess and classify inmates based on their treatment needs, interventions are “delivered blindly, with agency personnel equipped with little knowledge about the risks and needs of the offenders under their supervisions” (p. 47). Based on the findings of the assessments, appropriate treatment approaches must then be adopted, to avoid engaging in correctional quackery. Finally, the absence of evaluation, according to the authors, has allowed correctional quackery to flourish. Among the list of 16 “questionable theories of crime” the authors have encountered are:

- “Offenders need to get back to nature” theory.
- “Offenders lack discipline” theory.

- “Offenders have low self-esteem” theory.
- “Offenders need to have a pet in prison” theory.
- “Offenders need a better diet and haircut” theory.
- “Offenders (females) need to learn how to put on makeup and dress better” theory.
- “Offenders (males) need to get in touch with their feminine side” theory.

While the authors arguably simplify PAPs, the present research supports the idea that the programs incorporate several of the principles of effective treatment and demonstrate strengths not commonly found in correctional programs.

## CHAPTER TEN: POLICY IMPLICATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

PAPs are generally considered volunteer work and not part of the rehabilitative services provided by a facility. Yet the programs clearly have rehabilitative potential. There has been no discussion by practitioners or researchers regarding whether the current classification is most appropriate. The role of PAPs within the workings of prisons has not been sufficiently determined. Recommendations about policy are therefore premature given the lack of agreement about where PAPs fit within contemporary notions of justice and punishment and relative to other prison programs.

Work is also needed to explore the theoretical implications of PAPs. While participation may be an example of what Johnson (2002) conceptualizes as “mature coping,” inside prison and are clearly an example what Toch (2000) calls “altruistic activity as correctional treatment,” there has been no consideration of the theory of justice driving these programs. PAPs seem to reflect what Shapland (2003) refers to as the “cafeteria tendency in sentencing (a bit of retribution, a bit of rehabilitation and perhaps a scoop of reparation)” (p. 201).

It may be that PAPs can serve as part of the foundation necessary for the field’s contemporary ideas of desistance and transformation (see Maruna, 2001; Sampson and Laub, 1993). Indeed, participation appears to alter criminal trajectories, at least for the current and former participants of the two programs studied here. The notion of “animal capital” has been conceptualized as having the resources to develop a “meaningful, non-exploitive companionship with animals” (Irvine, 2004, p. 66). The resources Irvine identifies include “knowledge about behavior, nutrition, health,

history, breed characteristics, training, and the variety of things can enrich animals' lives. I also include a rapport with animals based on an active interest in their emotions, communication, and cognition" (ibid). It may be that animal capital, as a type of social capital, can influence desistance over the life time. Or having "a qualitatively different kind of relationship with animals" (p. 67) may contribute to the redemption script described by Maruna (2001) and discussed above.

The fast-paced growth of PAPs demands further empirical investigation of these programs. A true experimental research design may be able to connect pre- and post-program differences to PAP participation. Longitudinal studies are needed to determine the long-term effects PAPs may have on recidivism and future criminogenic behavior. Treatment effects also need to be reliably identified through multiple studies of a variety of program models. PAPs that work with animals other than dogs should be systematically studied for comparison to dog programs.

Industrial farm programs may not have the same types of effects as associated with more traditional PAPs. As mentioned above, livestock care/farm programs should be studied independently from other PAPs. Another question is whether facilities with PAPs differ systematically from facilities that do not. For example, do prisons with the programs offer more treatment or re-entry or vocational programs than others?

Future research should also be concerned with questions about how to best match participants with programs; that is, would a certain model of PAP be more effective with some populations than others? Perhaps working with animals that participants can identify with would result in stronger effects. Might battered women particularly identify with abused dogs and produce additional effects that would not

be seen if participating in, for example, a livestock care/farm program? Feral cats or wild horses which require patience and control when working with, might reach troubled youth better than, for example, retired racehorses. The timing of a PAP intervention, whether as a youth or an adult, should also be examined for varying levels of effectiveness.

Anecdotal evidence has found that even the prospect of participating in PAPs can affect institutional behavior. Future research could examine why applicants are willing to change their behavior and meet various criteria, including remaining misconduct-free or completing other programs, for the opportunity to participate in PAPs. What does the possibility of participation hold for these individuals?

PAPs may also be found to promote change on a philosophical level for participants. Participation can encourage increased awareness of animals as sentient beings much like ourselves. Discussions of free-will and consciousness could spark personal reflection that could be formally incorporated into the program through reflection papers or group sessions.

It is important to note that PAPs are not without their critics. Perhaps ironically, it is the growing demand for dogs to work with criminal justice agencies that has helped drive some of the growth in the dog-training industry<sup>6</sup>. Many participants reported feeling positively about being able to make a contribution to society, but the government's willingness to accept an incarcerated person's help in training an explosive-detecting dog but not allow him or her to have a government job when released may seem contradictory to some. Programs involving inmates and animals may also send a message to the public that being incarcerated is enjoyable or

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<sup>6</sup> I wish to thank Thomas Schilk for the feedback that inspired this paragraph.

easy; there is danger in making prison cages seem golden. Surprisingly, criticism about the programs does not stem only from the inmate empowerment perspective, but from the victims rights perspective as well.

Some oppose PAPs on the grounds that it is too rewarding for the participants; incarcerated people should never experience happiness or pleasure according to this line of thinking. However, this outlook is clearly short-sighted and vengeful. PAPs are administered to people whose punishment is to be deprived of their liberty and segregated from society; PAPs do not violate these conditions. Caring for a dog inside prison does not restore freedom or return the participants to their friends and family. In helping to relieve the stress of the prison environment, including the physical and emotional isolation, participation in PAPs can open unique pathways to change.

## CHAPTER ELEVEN: CONCLUSION

Given the billions of dollars spent in the United States on corrections each year, the search for effective and cost-effective interventions is constant. PAPs appear to be such an intervention, yet they have gone largely unnoticed by researchers. Despite the above identified limitations, the present research adds to the field's limited knowledge regarding PAPs. The study's comprehensive national survey and findings-driven examination of two specific programs improves upon the anecdotal information that abounds and grounds the programs in the effective correctional programming literature.

A recent newspaper article described the prison programs that “give real-life job training” in Arizona state facilities (Villa, 2005, Oct. 10). The “work-based education” programs include horticulture, culinary arts and catering, word working, and computer refurbishment. Participants are being trained in vocations that “better prepare inmates for the inevitable transition back to the community. The goal is to release more inmates with marketable skills to slash recidivism and save taxpayers the cost of housing inmates who keep cycling through the system” (ibid). PAPs also teach skills that can facilitate employment and may represent evidence of a new trend in prison programming: training inmates in fields with real job opportunities for ex-offenders.

The national survey provides evidence of the proliferation of PAPs and serves as a snap-shot of the nature of the programs currently being administered. While facility-level effects were not found, program participants from the two PAPs receive virtually no misconduct reports. The two programs examined suffer from limitations

commonly found among correctional programs including a lack of responsiveness to specific needs and a lack of evaluation. Alternately, the programs were found to have strengths not commonly found in correctional programs including their intensity and ability to incorporate participants' family members. Interviews with the current participants of the two programs revealed self-reported psycho-social improvements, including better mood and more patience, and positive physical effects as well, such as weight loss.

PAPs are alluring on a number of levels. The flexibility of the treatment, its relatively low cost to implement, and the growing evidence of success make PAPs a good bet. Given all that is wrong with prisons, the possibility of finding and implementing reliable and effective treatment programs is alluring. Not only can some of the more than two million incarcerated people benefit, but programs that pair inmates with homeless animals make it possible to help an inordinate number of animals as well. Homeless animals and prison inmates are both 'throw-away populations' – discarded by a society that cares not what happens to them (and prefers they be kept out of sight). Having inmates and animals help each other in a symbiotic relationship is an enlightened approach to correctional programming that benefits society as well. With PAPs it is possible to achieve a win-win-win situation.

## Appendix A

Please describe EACH of your state's prison-based animal programs (PAPs). List one program per survey. Multiple copies of this survey have been included.

1. Name of this Program \_\_\_\_\_
2. Facility where this Program is Located \_\_\_\_\_
3. Year this Program was Established \_\_\_\_\_
4. Type of Animal (s) Used \_\_\_\_\_
5. Source(s) of animals \_\_\_\_\_
6. Number of inmates currently participating \_\_\_\_\_ Male or Female (circle one)
7. Number of animals currently participating \_\_\_\_\_
8. Total number of inmates who have participated since this program's start \_\_\_\_\_
9. Total number of animals who have participated since this program's start \_\_\_\_\_
10. Number of participants discharged/removed from the program due to rule violation, since this program's start \_\_\_\_\_
11. Identify any non-profit organization or other non-DOC agency affiliated with this program \_\_\_\_\_
12. Indicate which of the following designs most accurately describes this program by marking the box to the right.

PROGRAM TYPE	DESCRIPTION	Describes this program (X)
Visitation Program	Animals brought to facility by humane society or nonprofit organization at specified times	
Wildlife Rehabilitation Program	Participants care for injured wildlife which are then released	
Livestock Care Program	Farm animal care such as milking and calf raising; fish breeding	
Pet Adoption Program	Animals are adopted and cared for by individual inmates	
Service Animal Socialization Program	Assistance/work puppies or dogs are raised and taught basic commands; dog goes on to specialized training	
Vocational Program	Participants are trained/certified in animal grooming/handling/care	
Community Service Program	Participants train and care for animals (including dogs and wild horses) which are then adopted out to the community	
Multi-Modal Program	<i>Check off each of the above types that describes a component of this current program</i>	
Other	<i>Please Describe:</i>	

13. Number of hours per day the participant is with animal(s) \_\_\_\_\_
14. How long (in weeks or months) will a participant work with a specific animal? \_\_\_\_\_
15. How long (in weeks or months) does the average participant remain in this program? \_\_\_\_\_
16. Is there a maximum length of time an inmate may remain in this program? Yes [ ] No [ ]
  - a. If yes, how long? \_\_\_\_\_
17. Does this program have a waiting list? Yes [ ] No [ ]
  - a. If yes, what is the average length of time an inmate will remain on the waiting list? \_\_\_\_\_
18. Are potential participants interviewed prior to acceptance into this program?
 

Yes [ ] No [ ]

  - a. If yes, by whom (list all)? \_\_\_\_\_
19. Are potential participants administered a psychological survey instrument prior to acceptance into this program? Yes [ ] No [ ]
  - a. If yes, name the instrument(s) \_\_\_\_\_
20. Are there crimes that make inmates ineligible for this program? Yes [ ] No [ ]
  - a. If yes, which one(s)? \_\_\_\_\_
21. Is there a minimum length of time potential participants must have remaining on their sentence in order to participate? Yes [ ] No [ ]
  - a. If yes, how long? \_\_\_\_\_
22. Identify any other eligibility requirements \_\_\_\_\_
23. Describe the training inmates receive prior to participating in this program \_\_\_\_\_
24. Does this program include on-going lessons/classes related to the animals?
 

Yes [ ] No [ ]

  - a. If yes, describe, including the number of hours per week participants receive lessons \_\_\_\_\_
25. Does this program include a certificate-yielding vocational component? Yes [ ] No [ ]
  - a. If yes, what type of certificate is issued? \_\_\_\_\_
26. Do you know of any former inmates working with animals since being released?
 

Yes [ ] No [ ]

  - a. If yes, how many; and in what capacity do they work? \_\_\_\_\_
27. Does this program include a referral or link to a possible job in the community upon release? Yes [ ] No [ ]
  - a. If yes, how many former inmates work with animals in the community as a result of the referral??
28. Does the program receive any donations? Yes [ ] No [ ]
  - a. If yes, from whom (list all)? \_\_\_\_\_
29. Does the program collect any fees related to the animals? Yes [ ] No [ ]
  - a. If yes, describe (including dollar amounts) \_\_\_\_\_
30. Describe any additional funding sources \_\_\_\_\_
31. Would you recommend this type of program to other prison administrators?
 

Yes [ ] No [ ]

1. How do you think this program benefits the inmates who participate in it? \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_
2. Can you identify any negative aspects associated with this program – for the inmates, staff, or the facility? \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_
3. Please include your contact information.  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

**Thank you very much for your time and effort!**

*Please use the enclosed self addressed stamped envelope to return the survey to:*  
Gennifer Furst, Assistant Professor, Criminology  
The College of New Jersey, Social Sciences Bldg #304, Box 7718 Ewing, NJ 08628  
furst@tcnj.edu Phone: (609) 771-2956/Fax: (609) 637-5141

## Appendix B

September 29, 2004

Commissioner ???  
State Department of Correction  
Building Address  
State, Zip Code

Commissioner:

My name is Gennifer Furst and I am a doctoral candidate in the Criminal Justice Program at John Jay College of Criminal Justice of the City University of New York. **I am conducting research on the prevalence of prison-based animal programs (PAPs), programs in which inmates interact with animals.** I hope you will take this opportunity to have your state's animal programs counted as well.

The information that is collected will be used as part of my doctoral dissertation. My dissertation highlights two specific programs in the northeast however, it is important that I obtain additional information on the extent to which these programs have been adopted around the country.

I have enclosed the survey for your inspection. Since the survey asks for a description of *each* of your state's PAPs, please forward it to the employee within your agency who oversees programs for your whole system. It will take approximately 10 minutes to complete the survey.

I ask that the survey(s) be remitted to me by October 31, 2004. I appreciate your time and your effort to assist with this project. If you have any questions, I can be reached at my place of employment at the contact information listed below.

Again, thank you.

Gennifer Furst  
Assistant Professor, Criminology  
The College of New Jersey  
Box 7718  
Ewing, NJ 08628  
furst@tcnj.edu  
Phone: (609) 771-2956  
Fax: (609) 637-5141

## Appendix C

December 10, 2004

Commissioner ???  
State Department of Correction  
Building Address  
State, Zip Code

Commissioner:

My name is Gennifer Furst and I am a doctoral candidate in the Criminal Justice Program at John Jay College of Criminal Justice of the City University of New York. **I am conducting research on the prevalence of prison-based animal programs (PAPs), programs in which inmates interact with animals.** I am writing again to ask you to include your system's PAPs in the first national survey of state departments of correction. In the two months since I first contacted you, 34 states have responded to the survey. I hope you will take this second opportunity to have your state's animal programs counted as well.

The information that is collected will be used as part of my doctoral dissertation. My dissertation highlights two specific programs in the northeast however, it is important that I obtain additional information on the extent to which these programs have been adopted around the country.

I have enclosed the survey for your inspection. Since the survey asks for a description of *each* of your state's PAPs, please forward it to the employee within your agency who oversees programs for your whole system. It will take approximately 10 minutes to complete the survey.

I ask that the survey(s) be remitted to me by January 21, 2005. I appreciate your time and your effort to assist with this project. If you have any questions, I can be reached at my place of employment at the contact information listed below.

Again, thank you.

Gennifer Furst  
Assistant Professor, Criminology  
The College of New Jersey  
Box 7718  
Ewing, NJ 08628  
furst@tcnj.edu  
Phone: (609) 771-2956  
Fax: (609) 637-5141

## Appendix D

### I. Background Information

1. Location
2. Number of years of program operation
2. Number of program participants
3. Ages of participants (range and breakdown)
4. Gender of participants
5. Race of participants (breakdown)
6. Staffing (number, positions/titles)
7. Theory/Model utilized (self-help, cognitive behavioral, social learning, etc)
8. Length of Sentence (LOS)
  - a. time in before being considered for program
  - b. time left on sentence required to participate
9. Length of Program Participation (average, and minimum/maximum)

### II. Program Survey

1. Program Implementation
  - a. Who is the program director (person responsible for the day-to-day operations of the program)? Who is the program administrator?
  - b. How long has the current director had the position?
  - c. What is the director's professional training?
  - d. What is the director's related previous professional experience?
  - e. What type of research was done prior to adopting the program? Who conducted this research?
  - f. How and by whom was the decision regarding implementation ultimately made?
  - g. Where was there a pilot period for the program? If so, for how long?
2. Pre-Participation Assessment
  - a. How are participants referred to the program?
  - b. What are the selection criteria?
  - c. How well are the selection criteria adhered to?
  - d. What are the exclusionary criteria?
  - e. How well are the exclusionary criteria adhered to?
  - f. How is a potential participant's appropriateness for the program measured? (identify how risk, need, and personal characteristics are measured)
  - g. Do the results from the above assessments determine the level of program participation? (i.e., Do participants receive various levels of treatment [participation] based on the assessed level of need?)
  - h. Do the results from the above assessments determine who participants work with in the program?
  - i. Is there any re-assessment performed during participation in the program? If so, when? How is the information used?

j. Once admitted into the program, what are some of the participants' problem areas?

### 3. Program Characteristics

- a. Are the following targeted with treatment in the program: anger management, cognitive skills, criminal associates, criminal thinking, domestic violence, family relations, parenting skills, relationship skills, substance abuse treatment?
- b. Describe the treatment model utilized by the program.
- c. Is role-playing or modeling utilized?
- d. Are vocational opportunities discussed? How are vocational opportunities pursued?
- e. How many hours each week are program participants engaged in program activities?
- f. On what criteria is program completion based?
- g. How is program success measured for participants?
- h. What types of rewards or incentives are used by the program staff to encourage program participation and completion?
- i. What types of punishments, consequences, or sanctions are used by the program staff?
- j. Are more incentives or punishments used?
- k. Are there program manuals available for participants and staff to refer to?
- l. Are records kept on program participants? If so, what information is collected and who is responsible for these records?
- m. To what extent are program participants segregated from the general population?
- n. What type of opportunities are there for participants' family members to become involved?
- o. Edna Mahon: How is the program different from those administered in male facilities?

### 4. Staff Characteristics

- a. Describe the treatment staff and non-treatment staff involved with the program. Include length of time working with the program.
- b. How were the treatment staff and non-treatment staff chosen?
- c. How were the treatment staff and non-treatment staff trained?
- d. Did staff receive training in:

<i>Program Aspect</i>	<i>Type of Staff</i>	
	<i>Non-treatment Staff</i>	<i>Treatment Staff</i>
Use of Rewards		
Use of Punishments		
Program Model		
Curriculum Used		

Assessment Instruments Used		
On-going training		

- e. Are treatment staff evaluated on their service delivery skills? If so, how?
- f. Do program staff have input into the program? If so, how?
- g. Do program participants provide feedback regarding staff? If so, to whom do they provide the feedback?
- h. Describe levels of staff turnover?

#### 5. Post-Program

- a. What types of aftercare services are provided? For how long are services provided?
- b. Are participants tracked once leaving the program? If so, for how long?
- c. If monitoring participants post-participation, what defines success?
- d. Are referrals made to outside agencies? If so, describe the agencies.

#### 6. Inter- Program Support/Cooperation

- a. Describe any collaboration/cooperation between this program and other agencies.
- b. Rate the adequacy of support your program receives from its parent agency.
- c. Describe the program's relationship with the prison facility's administration.
- d. Describe the program's relationship with the state's DOC administration.
- e. Describe the political constraints imposed on the program.
- f. How have these constraints impacted the program?

#### 7. Program Evaluation

- a. How is program "success" defined? How is success measured?
- b. Internally, how is program integrity (or quality assurance) measured? Is program evaluation conducted internally?
- c. Externally (by advisory board/funders), how is program integrity (or quality assurance) measured?
- d. Describe any changes that have been made in the operations of the program since it started. Who initiated the changes?
- e. Does the program collect data on:
  - participant progress
  - punishments/violations received by participant
  - placement in outside agencies
- f. Has the program been evaluated by an outside reviewer?

8. Stakeholder Satisfaction
  - a. Describe any mechanisms for participants to provide input into the program.
  - b. Describe any mechanisms for non-treatment program staff to provide input into the program.
  - c. Describe any mechanisms for treatment program staff to provide input into the program.
  - d. How are changes to the program implemented? Who ultimately makes decisions regarding changes to program implementation?
  - e. Describe the program's funding sources and the level of support from these sources.
  - f. Describe the program's relationship with the community.
  - g. Describe the advisory board's members.
  - h. Describe the level of involvement of the advisory board.
  
9. Other
  - a. Describe the adequacy of current funding levels.
  - b. Describe any events (within the program, from funding sources or community support) during the past 3 years that have threatened the continuation of the program.
  - c. Are program files kept in a confidential file?

### III. Program Documents to Collect (see ICCA)

1. Description of the program its services.
2. Any assessment instruments (and scoring guides) used by the program.
3. Ethical guidelines.
4. Curriculum and manuals.
5. Forms used to evaluate staff and participants.
6. Data collection instruments used by staff or administration.
7. Reports of evaluations conducted.
8. Organizational chart.
9. Program proposal or needs assessment study.
10. Other program materials as available.

## Appendix E

**Interview Schedule – Participants****I. Demographics**

Gender

Age

Race

Marital Status

Number of children

Length of sentence

Length of time incarcerated

Length of time involved with program

Other programs participated in while incarcerated

**II. Pre-Program Participation**

1. When did you first learn the facility was getting this program?
2. How did you react?
3. Why did you want to take part in this program?
4. Were you ever on a waiting list to get into the program? If yes, for how long?
5. Did you change your behavior to get on the waiting list? If yes, how?
6. How did being on the waiting list affect you? For example, did you change your routine or your friends?
7. Describe your experience with animals before your incarceration. For example, did you have any pets or bring home strays.
  - a. Do you have any experience with dog fighting?
8. Describe how your previous experiences with animals differ from your experiences with animals in this program.

**III. Program Participation**

1. Describe what you do in this program.
2. Since you started participating in this program, have you noticed any changes in your emotions? For example, your mood or anger.
3. Since you started participating in this program, have you notice any changes in yourself physically? For example, your level of energy, the amount you sleep, participation in religious activities, or how many cigarettes you smoke.
4. Since you started participating in this program, have you noticed any changes in your relationships with:
  - a. other inmates
  - b. prison staff
  - c. visitors (friends, family, children)
  - d. other people you interact with
5. Do you interact with other inmates who participate in the program differently than inmates not in the program? How?
6. Have you seen changes in any of your fellow program participants? If yes, describe.

7. How has participation in this program changed your prison experience?
8. What does participating in this program mean to you?
9. What have you learned about yourself as a result of participating in this program?
10. Would you recommend this program to other inmates and prisons?
11. Are there any negative aspects of this program?
12. How would you change the program?

#### **IV. Post-Program Participation**

1. Do you think you will try to get a job in the community using the skills you have learned from this program?
2. Do you think you have learned any skills that would be useful for working in other jobs, either in prison or the community? If yes, what skills?
3. How has being in this program affected your plans for the future?
4. Do you think working with another type of animal, such as farm animals (e.g., horse or cow) or wildlife (e.g., injured birds), would provide you with the same skills or enjoyment as a dog does now? Why?
5. Is there anything else you would like to say about the program?

## Appendix F

**Interview Schedule***Program Director*

1. How did you first hear about PAPs?
2. Did you ever think you would work with one? Why or why not?
3. How did you become associated with the program? For example, an official request, volunteer, etc.
4. Anyone who comes to mind as particularly advocating for the program?
5. What challenges did you face in implementing the program?
6. What are the goals of the program?
7. How does the program measure success?
8. What changes have you seen in:
 

yourself	other staff members
program participants	facility, in general
other inmates	
9. What do you think is the most positive aspect of the program (for the staff, inmates, or facility)? Why?
11. What do you think is the most negative aspect of the program (for the staff, inmates, or facility)? Why? If you could change one aspect of the program, what would it be? Why?
12. Overall, do you think the program is positive or negative? Why?
13. Are you aware of anyone at this facility turning down parole because of their desire to continue participating in the program?

## Appendix G

**Interview Schedule – DOC Administration and Staff***Superintendent*

1. How did you first hear about PAPs?
2. What did you think regarding the feasibility of bringing a PAP to your facility?
3. How did you go about trying to bring the program to the facility?
4. Can you identify anyone who you feel particularly advocated for the program?
5. Did you face any opposition to bringing the program to your facility? If yes, from where?
6. Do you face any opposition now, to remove or change the program? If yes, from where?
7. What are the goals of the program?
8. How does the program measure success?
9. As a result of the program, what changes have you seen in:
  - program participants
  - other inmates
  - other staff members
  - facility, in general
10. How do other prison administrators respond toward you when they find out you have a PAP at your facility? Is this different from your interactions with them before you implemented the PAP?
11. How is the program funded?
12. What challenges did you face in implementing the program?
13. What do you think is the most positive aspect of the program (for the staff, inmates, or facility)? Why?
14. What do you think is the most negative aspect of the program (for the staff, inmates, or facility)? Why?
15. If you could change one aspect of the program, what would it be? Why?
16. Overall, do you think the program is positive or negative? Why?
17. Are you aware of anyone at this facility turning down parole because of their desire to continue participating in the program?

*Correction Officers*

1. When did you first hear that this program was coming to the facility?
2. How did you react? Why do you think you reacted that way?
3. How did you become associated with the program? For example, an official request, volunteer, etc.
4. What do you think is the most positive aspect of the program (for the staff, inmates, or facility)? Why?
5. What do you think is the most negative aspect of the program (for the staff, inmates, or facility)? Why?
6. If you could change one aspect of the program, what would it be? Why?
7. Overall, do you think the program is positive or negative? Why?
8. Are you aware of anyone at this facility turning down parole because of their desire to continue participating in the program?

## Appendix H

### Informed Consent

My name is Gennifer Furst and I am a doctoral student in the Criminal Justice Program at John Jay College of Criminal Justice of the City University of New York, and Principal Investigator of this project. The purpose of this study is to examine prison-based animal programs such as the one you are associated with at No Name Correctional Facility. Your participation will help in an overall understanding of prison-based animal programs, including things you like about the program and what you have learned from the program. This interview will take about 15-20 minutes to finish.

By signing you understand that:

- Taking part in this interview is **voluntary** and you may choose to stop or refuse to answer any question at any time without a penalty.
- The interviewer will take notes on the interview. You may ask to review the notes and may ask that they not be used in the research.
- Your name will not be connected to what you say during the interview. What you say during the interview will remain confidential.
- All consent forms and notes will be kept in a locked filing cabinet in my private office at The College of New Jersey.

If you have any questions about this study, or would like to receive a summary of the results, you may contact me through the mail at:

Gennifer Furst  
 Assistant Professor, Criminology  
 The College of New Jersey  
 Box 7718  
 Ewing, NJ 08628

If you have any questions about your rights as a participant in this study, you may contact:

Dr. Larry Sullivan  
 Associate Dean & Chief Librarian  
 Professor of Criminal Justice  
 John Jay College of Criminal Justice  
 899 Tenth Avenue  
 New York, NY 10019

\_\_\_\_\_  
 Participant Signature

\_\_\_\_\_  
 Date

\_\_\_\_\_  
 Principal Investigator

\_\_\_\_\_  
 Date

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