STATEVILLE CORRECTIONAL CENTER
CREST HILL
(near Joliet)
WILL COUNTY
ILLINOIS

IL HABS No. WI-1997-1

WRITTEN HISTORICAL AND DESCRIPTIVE DATA

PHOTOGRAPHS

Illinois Historic American Buildings Survey
Illinois Historic Preservation Agency
Springfield, Illinois

Prepared by
Wiss, Janney, Elstner Associates, Inc.
Chicago, Illinois
September 1999

ILLINOIS HISTORIC AMERICAN BUILDINGS SURVEY
STATEVILLE CORRECTIONAL CENTER
Crest Hill, Illinois
(near Joliet, Illinois)
ILLINOIS HABS No. WI-1997-1
OLD HOSPITAL – ILLINOIS HABS No. WI-1997-1-A

Location: Crest Hill, Will County, Illinois (near Joliet, Illinois)

Quad: Joliet Quadrangle, Illinois – Will County

UTM: Site: 16.407235.4605250; 16.408835.4605275; 16.408870.4604235; 16.410035.4604235; 16.409860.4603860; 16.409650.4603880; 16.409630.4603695; 16.409790.4603705; 16.409650.4603350; 16.409325.4602080; 16.406500.4602040; 16.406460.4604435; 16.407255.4604455
Stateville prison wall: 16.408460.4603600; 16.409030.4603605; 16.409040.4603140; 16.408470.4603135
Old Hospital: 16.408000.4603415

Present Owner: State of Illinois Department of Corrections
Springfield, Illinois

Present Occupant: Site: State of Illinois Department of Corrections
Old Hospital: vacant

Present Use: Site: maximum security correctional facility with satellite minimum security correctional facility
Old Hospital: vacant

Significance: Stateville Correctional Center was planned and constructed in the late 1910s and 1920s, when the State of Illinois was implementing its' "Progressive Merit System," which utilized indeterminate sentencing, inmate classification, and parole review in conjunction with industrial workshops and vocational and educational training to return reformed criminals to society. As originally planned by architect W. Carbys Zimmerman and the Illinois Penitentiary Commission, Stateville was the architectural embodiment of the Progressive Merit System, with the requirements for all custodial security levels located in one institution.

The prison was to house within its 64 acre walled enclosure eight panopticon cellhouses organized around a circular dining hall, with additional corridors leading to a chapel, a hospital, and several industrial workshops. The facility was revolutionary in its construction, using reinforced concrete structural framing systems, industrial steel window sash, and other elements of emerging twentieth century Modern architecture. Many of these buildings were constructed with the assistance of inmate labor.

However, the initial period of the facility's construction coincided with the American "experiment" with prohibition, leading to criminal activity that gradually filled and overfilled the country's jails. Stateville, even before its completion, was required to hold significantly more inmates than it was designed for, and discipline and order among the prison population was lax. Within a decade of the start of construction, corrections authorities in the state deviated from the original architectural designs with subsequent construction work. With only four panopticon cellhouses built, the state next constructed the gigantic Cellhouse B, reportedly one of the largest Auburn plan cellhouses in the nation and in the world. Other buildings, including the Hospital dating from 1934, also deviated from original plans. These succeeding buildings, designed under the direction of C. Herrick Hammond, F.A.I.A., State of Illinois Architect, utilized the latest planning and construction techniques.

In the mid-1930s, a warden was appointed who, in many respects, *was* Stateville. Joseph Ragen, warden of Stateville from 1935 to 1941 and 1942 to 1961, was one of the most influential corrections administrators in Illinois and the United States. It has been stated that, "Stateville was Joseph Ragen's answer to Walden Two."[1] Ragen instituted policies that led to a long period of order and stability, at the price of the constitutional rights of inmates or truly striving toward a rehabilitative program.

Numerous changes have occurred in corrections administration and prison culture since the retirement of Joseph Ragen. Many of the buildings at Stateville became obsolete, leading to the demolition of three of the four panopticon cellhouses and several other smaller buildings. New construction included four new K-plan cellhouses and other support buildings. Only in 1998, with the completion of the "super max" Tamms Correctional Center, did Stateville cease to be the "flagship" of Illinois' prison system.

[1] James B. Jacobs, *Stateville: The Penitentiary in Mass Society* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1977), 31.

PART I: HISTORICAL INFORMATION

A. Physical History

1. Dates of Construction:

a. Old Hospital: 1933

Appendix D contains an inventory of the existing and demolished structures at Stateville

2. Architects

a. Original Architects (1917 to 1925): W. Carbys Zimmerman; Zimmerman, Saxe & Zimmerman

William Carbys Zimmerman was born in Thiensville, Wisconsin, in 1856. He studied architecture at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, graduating in 1880. After working for several different architects, he opened an office in the late 1880s with John J. Flanders (1847-1914) in Chicago. After leaving the partnership with Flanders in 1898, he was a sole proprietor until joined by Albert Moore Saxe (born 1888) in 1910. Zimmerman was Supervising Architect for the State of Illinois from 1905 to 1913.[2] The firm was known as Zimmerman, Saxe & MacBride for a short time before Zimmerman was joined by his son Ralph Waldo Zimmerman to form Zimmerman, Saxe & Zimmerman. It was under this name that the firm undertook the design of Stateville. William Carbys Zimmerman retired in the mid-1920s and died in 1932.

The following is a list of buildings designed by W. Carbys Zimmerman and the firms with whom he was associated.[3] Text in bold indicates buildings known to be extant circa 1990; text in italics indicates buildings known to be demolished; roman text indicates buildings requiring further research:

Classical Revival Residence, 3824 South Michigan Avenue, Chicago – 1890s
Kimball Building, Michigan and East 11th Street, Chicago – 1892
Mallers Building, 224-238 South Market Street, Chicago – 1892
Residence, 5544 South Woodlawn Avenue, Chicago – 1898
Inter-Ocean Building, 57 West Monroe, Chicago – 1900
Tudor Revival Residence, 4840 South Greenwood Avenue, Chicago – 1902

[2] Henry F. Withey and Elsie Rathburn Withey *Biographical Dictionary of American Architects (Deceased)* (1956, reprint, Los Angeles: Hennessey & Ingalls, Inc.), 678; Albert Nelson Marquis, ed., *Who's Who in Chicago and Illinois* (Chicago: The A. N. Marquis Company, 1931), 1084-5.

[3] Commission on Chicago Landmarks and Chicago Department of Planning and Development, *Chicago Historic Resources Survey* (Chicago: Commission on Chicago Landmarks and Chicago Department of Planning and Development, 1996); Statler Gilfillen, ed., *The American Terra Cotta Index* (N.p., n.d. [circa 1972]); "Some Work from the Offices of Zimmerman, Saxe and Zimmerman," *The Western Architect* 31, No. 3 (March 1922): 45; and Frank A. Randall, *History of the Development of Building Construction in Chicago* (Urbana, Illinois: University of Illinois, 1949).

Gothic Revival Church, 6701 South Cottage Grove, Chicago – 1903
Institutional Building, 2144 West North Avenue, Chicago – 1905
Residence, 6205 North Sheridan Road, Chicago – 1906
Tudor Revival Residence, 6200 North Sheridan Road, Chicago – 1906
Residence, 4841 South Woodlawn Avenue, Chicago – 1906
Fieldhouse, 1329 West Chicago Avenue, Chicago – 1907
Illinois Supreme Court Building, Springfield, Illinois – 1908
Prairie Style Fieldhouse, 1113 West Cullerton Street, Chicago – 1908
Prairie Style Residence, 5001 South Ellis Avenue, Chicago – 1908
Residence, 4940 South Woodlawn Avenue, Chicago – 1908
Colonial Revival Residence, 5633 South Woodlawn Avenue, Chicago – 1909
Residence, 5707 South Woodlawn Avenue, Chicago – 1909
Residence, 956 West Sheridan Road, Chicago – 1909
Prairie Style Residence, 4906 South Greenwood Avenue, Chicago – 1910
University of Illinois Physics Laboratory, Urbana, Illinois – 1911[4]
Fieldhouse, 2300 West Shakespeare, Chicago – 1911
Commercial Building, 119 West Madison Street, Chicago – 1913
Petroleum Building (Harvester Building), 616-20 South Michigan Avenue, Chicago – 1913
Fieldhouse, 910 North Sacramento, Chicago – 1913
Fieldhouse, 37 North Hamlin Boulevard, Chicago – 1914
Fieldhouse, 1401 West Blackhawk Street, Chicago – 1914
Fieldhouse, 3047 West Augusta Boulevard, Chicago – 1914
Bakery and Cannery, Anna State Hospital, Anna, Illinois - 1914
Residence, 6937 West Constance Avenue, Chicago – 1916
Residence, 6734 South Bennett Avenue, Chicago – 1917
Cellhouse D, Stateville – 1919
Detention Building, Stateville – 1920
Cellhouse E, Stateville – 1921
Connecting Corridors (Tunnels), Stateville – 1922
Thomas Cusack Company Building, Chicago – 1922
Aurora Beacon News, Aurora, Illinois – 1922
Administration Building, Stateville – 1922 (completed 1929)
Eastern State Penitentiary, Graterford, Pennsylvania – 1922 (completed 1929)
Dining Hall, Stateville – 1923
Cellhouse F, Stateville – 1923
Residence, 9360 South Pleasant Avenue, Chicago – 1924
Joliet Herald-News Building, Joliet – 1924
Western United Corporation Building, Aurora – 1924
Joliet Elks Club, Joliet – 1925
Residence, 6947 South Constance Avenue, Chicago – 1925
Office Building and Studio for Thomas Cusack Company, Cleveland, Ohio – 1925
Building for William T. Welch, M.D., Joliet – 1925
Joliet Herald-News Building (addition?), Joliet – 1925
Cellhouse C, Stateville – 1926
Aurora Elks Club, Aurora – 1926
Hannah Store Building, 7569 Rogers Avenue, Chicago – 1927

[4] This building is discussed in Albert P. Carman, "The Design of a Physical Laboratory," *The Brickbuilder* XX, No. 12 (December 1911): 257-60.

Power House Addition, Stateville – 1928
Commercial Building, 1307 South Wabash Avenue, Chicago – 1929

Besides Stateville, Zimmerman, Saxe & Zimmerman designed the new Eastern State Penitentiary in Graterford, Pennsylvania. Like Stateville, it had a tall enclosing wall, although the cell blocks were laid out in a modified telephone pole plan. This prison, with an initial capacity of 2,000 inmates, was slightly smaller than Stateville, although expansion of the institution was possible since approximately one-third of the 62 acre yard area was left vacant.[5] A central corridor structure 1,700 feet in length connected the administrative offices, guard living quarters, inmate reception, and hospital building at one end; the gymnasium, school, and chapel were at the other. In between, the cellhouses lay on the left hand side of the connecting corridor and the industrial shops on the right hand side. Ralph W. Zimmerman wrote on the subject of prison design in 1929, specifically on the type of enclosing wall necessary for a secure prison:

> Experience in recent years has shown that, although escapes have been made from every type of cellhouse, the real security lies in a properly designed and guarded prison wall. It is practically impossible for the inmate to construct…and use the necessary scaling equipment in the unobstructed area adjoining the wall….
>
> The wall should be designed with observation towers not more than seven hundred feet apart. There should be no buildings nearer than one hundred feet to the wall, and all openings for utilities should be properly guarded. No sewer pipe of a greater diameter than eight inches should be used, and the foundations should extend to rock or twelve feet below finished grade….
>
> The height of the wall should not be less than thirty feet below finished grade. The height of the wall should not be less than thirty feet at any point….
>
> While a prisoner may escape from a cell he is still far from freedom if he cannot scale the wall, and is subject to discipline for his attempted escape….
>
> This new type of surrounding wall, constantly patrolled and with properly guarded entrances, has brought about a variable renaissance in the design and administration of penal institutions. For the first time in history the warden with the responsibility of safe keeping, and the theorist, interested in the improvement of administration, can work together in harmony within the wall as many complete units as necessary to accommodate properly the various type of prisoners.[6]

[5] United States Bureau of Prisons, *Handbook of Correctional Institution Design and Construction*, 65-69.
[6] Ralph W. Zimmerman, "Modernize Prisons, Urges Architect," *Chicago Herald and Examiner* (8 December 1929), n.p..

The younger Zimmerman wrote further on prison design, discussing the ideal layout for cellblocks, industries, and different service functions:

> Many states have tried to improve conditions by remodeling or building new prisons (such as Illinois with its model new prison at Stateville), but often the old prison, as at Joliet, with its unsanitary conditions is still in full operation, due to the increased prison population....
>
> It is only in recent years that more constructive thought has been given to other phases of penology, fully as important as, if not more important than, security of confinement with its usual objectionable living conditions. This is perfectly natural, however, as it is the Warden's duty to keep the inmates safe during the period of confinement and his responsibility ceases when the inmate is legally released. The fact that a large majority of prisoners are eventually released to return to society, should receive the most vital consideration, as it is obvious that unless some improvement has been made in the physical and mental condition of the inmate, very little has been accomplished by the State, except in a temporary way, and that at a rather heavy expense. In many cases prisoners, after their release, are a greater menace to society than when they were sentenced....
>
> According to a well known penologist, at least seventy percent of the men confined in a State penitentiary could not be classified as bad, but could be segregated as weak and easily led. This large majority of prisoners are especially subject to reform and can be returned to society improved physically and mentally if proper living conditions are provided within the prisons....
>
> Inasmuch as the individual cell has always been considered the only safe place of confinement (the wall generally serving to protect the yard only and not being patrolled at night), prison designers have directed their energies toward the cell blocks, with complicated locking devices and tool-proof steel bars and walls, without due consideration to the effect of this type of cell on the mental and physical condition of the inmates. The effort to keep secure the few who might attempt to escape, makes the entire prison population suffer, and efforts toward reclamation are severely handicapped....
>
> Secure cell blocks can be designed for discipline and for the few known desperate inmates, without contact with the rest of the institution, but even these cells need not be of the "inside" type without windows, as escape from the cell does not mean freedom, and a considerable saving in construction cost may be made.
>
> A large majority may be housed in well-lighted, airy dormitory buildings, with or without separate rooms, and just sufficient restraint to leave evidence of unauthorized absence.

> The buildings may be one or two stories high and economically constructed without window bars or complicated locking device. A fly screen over the ventilated portion of the window, fastened from the outside, offers sufficient restraint, as the most perfunctory inspection will reveal an attempted escape.
>
> First offenders, younger inmates, and those ready for parole may be kept in cottages without any restraint.
>
> Each unit should have its own separate dining hall and workhouse, but the entire institution may be economically served by one administration, hospital, kitchen, power plant, etc. This arrangement provides a flexible plan for housing, makes reclamation and education possible, and minimizes the possibility of riot without jeopardizing the safe keeping of any inmate regardless of how he may be classified.
>
> The new Eastern State Penitentiary at Graterford, Pennsylvania, is designed so that the inmates may be classified in eight groups with varying degrees of restraint and privileges. Each group has a separate dining hall, exercise yard and workshop, so that they may be entirely and permanently separated from each other.
>
> This new design, with its absence of orthodox prison atmosphere, with healthful living conditions, combined with safe keeping, offers the greatest possible opportunity for reclamation and is the latest step forward in prison architecture.[7]

However a contemporary critic, Alfred Hopkins, stated in a book on prison design that the work of the firm of Zimmerman, Saxe & Zimmerman failed to achieve the ideals that they and the prison administrators were seeking:

> [The] State of Illinois, never doing things by halves, wanted to startle the world with its conception of the perfect penological structure, [when] it planned a prison of eight panopticons...the most awful receptacles of gloom which were ever devised and put together with good stone and brick and mortar.[8]
>
> At the new Eastern Penitentiary at Graterford...a wall 30 feet high and 6030 feet long, enclosing 62 acres, is relied on to make certain of detaining the prisoner. Upon this theory "much expensive prison construction is eliminated," say the architects in an interesting statement describing the use and purpose of their plans. To go to the staggering expense of building an undefeatable wall on the theory that the enclosed prison can be greatly reduced in cost is well enough as a theory, if it had not been found in actual practice that most prisoners can be kept in the flimsiest kind of a defeatable prison without any wall at all. The theory of

[7] Ralph W. Zimmerman, "Prison Architecture through the Ages," in *Living Architecture*, Arthur Woltersdorf, ed. (Chicago: A. Kroch, 1930), 94-100.
[8] Alfred Hopkins, *Prisons and Prison Building* (New York: Architectural Book Publishing Company, 1930), 43.

> an undefeatable wall is untenable because there is no such wall, and undesirable because the entire prison is designed on the basis of the worst possible prisoner.[9]

b. State of Illinois Architects: 1925 to 1945

1) Old Hospital: C. Herrick Hammond

Architects employed by state agencies were often responsible for the design of buildings at state institutions up until the 1950s or 1960s. The Office of the Supervising Architect for the State of Illinois was created in 1899 and was responsible for the general supervision of state building construction, including modifications and repairs to buildings. In 1911 the Office of the Supervising Engineer was created as an advisor to the General Assembly and State Board of Administration for construction, repair, and management of charitable institutions in the state. After 1917, the positions of Supervising Architect and Supervising Engineer were combined. The new position was placed under the Division of Architecture and Engineering within the new Department of Public Works and Buildings. The Department of Purchases and Construction was created in 1925, and several divisions concerned with construction (including the Division of Architecture and Engineering) were transferred to its control. This organization existed until 1933, when the Department was abolished and the Division of Architecture and Engineering was returned to the Department of Public Works and Buildings. In 1943 the operations of the department were described by the Supervising Architect, C. Herrick Hammond:

> The Division functions similarly to a large architectural office in private practice. Commissions are received in the form of requisitions originated in the various State Departments who become our clients, which indicate the work to be performed and the amount and source of the funds. We then consult with our clients, discuss the needs and requirements, visit the sites and assemble all pertinent data affecting the problem at hand. As sketches progress, costs are considered so that the program can be made to come within the funds available. In general, we work only on projects requisitioned by the Departments and have no authority to originate work, but we are constantly advising when additional work is considered essential and under consideration. When plans and specifications are completed public bids are received, contracts awarded, and the work on the site supervised until completed and turned over to the respective Departments for use.[10]

By the 1950s or 1960s, many of the larger state buildings were designed by private firms operating under the control of the Division of Architecture and Engineering. In 1967 the Department of General Services was created and assumed control over

[9] Ibid., 71.
[10] C. Herrick Hammond, "Architectural Division Operates with High Efficiency," *Illinois Public Works* 1, No. 1 (Autumn 1943), 14.

the Division of Architecture and Engineering. In 1972 the Capital Development Board of the State of Illinois was created, assuming responsibility for construction projects in the state. However, by this time most of the architectural and engineering services were provided by private firms, with the Capital Development Board acting as the owner's representative.[11]

From circa 1900 to 1905, Robert Bruce Watson was the Supervising Architect for the State of Illinois. Watson was born in Chicago in 1869. He spent his early years in the profession with Burnham and Root, and worked on the planning of the 1893 Columbian Exposition. Through political connections he became an architect with the City of Chicago, Cook County, and State of Illinois. Among his buildings was the Female Infirmary (1900) at the Northern Illinois State Hospital in Elgin. He died in 1921.[12]

From 1905 to 1913, **W. Carbys Zimmerman** (see above) was the Supervising Architect. From 1913 to 1917, the Supervising Architect for the State of Illinois was James B. Dibelka. Dibelka was born in Bohemia in 1869. Arriving in Chicago in 1878, he was taught architecture by private tutors. He eventually became a teacher of drawing in the Chicago public schools. After working as a designer for heating and ventilating companies and cabinet manufacturers, he became an architect for T.W. Harvey Land Association. Dibelka was involved in political activities of the era, including a campaign for Cook County commissioner in 1896. During his service as State Supervising Architect, Dibelka's buildings included the State Office Building, Randolph and Fifth Avenue (Wells Street) of 1915, University of Illinois Ceramics Building, Urbana (1916), and the State Epileptic Colony, Dixon (1917). Dibelka left office under some controversy, with charges of corruption and mismanagement of projects. After leaving the Office of the Supervising Architect, Dibelka joined in practice in Chicago with Francis A. Flaks (1886-1945). Dibelka died in 1924.[13]

Following James Dibelka, William J. Lindstrom assumed the duties of State Supervising Engineer with responsibility for state building design from 1917 to 1929.[14] Under his direction, the Office of the Supervising Engineer completed numerous important buildings at state facilities, including the introduction of E-type cottages at state mental health institutions and unique individual buildings, such at Cellhouse C (Illinois HABS No. R-1997-1-A).

From 1929 to 1950, **Charles Herrick Hammond** was the State Supervising Architect. Hammond was born in Crown Point, New York, in 1882. He received

[11] Robert E. Bailey and Elaine Shemoney Evans, ed., *Descriptive Inventory of the Archives of the State of Illinois*, 2nd ed. (Springfield, Illinois: Illinois State Archives, 1997), 260-1.
[12] Obituary, *The Western Architect* 30, No. 9 (September 1921), 100.
[13] Albert Nelson Marquis. *The Book of Chicagoans* (Chicago: A.N. Marquis & Company, 1917), 186; Albert Nelson Marquis. *Who's Who in Chicago: The Book of Chicagoans.* (Chicago: A.N. Marquis & Company, 1926), 240; and Statler Gilfillen, ed. "American Terra Cotta and Ceramic Company," *The American Terra Cotta Index* [circa 1972].
[14] Additional research is needed to uncover biographical information on William Lindstrom.

his architectural education at the Amour Institute (later Illinois Institute of Technology) in Chicago. He also studied in Europe in 1904-1905. Prior to becoming State Supervising Architect in 1929, Hammond was a partner in the firm Burnham Brothers and Hammond with Daniel H. and Hubert Burnham, the sons of Daniel Burnham. As state architect he was directly responsible for the design of numerous state buildings, including the Neuropsychiatric Institute at the University of Illinois Medical Center (1941). He was active in professional societies, served as president of the American Institute of Architects, and president of the Illinois Society of Architects. In 1937 he was the United States delegate to the International Congress of Architects in Paris. He served at State Supervising Architect until 1950 and retired from private practice in 1959. Hammond died in 1969.[15]

[15] "The Grand Tour: Travel Sketches from the Permanent Collection." The Art Institute of Chicago, Summer 1997.

B. Context History: Joliet, Illinois

Geological Background

In prehistoric times, ancient seas covered the middle portion of the North American continent. The shells of sea creatures formed limestone. The underlying bedrock present today is composed of this limestone, left behind when continent lifted and the seas receded.

The oldest layer of rock that is generally exposed in the state belongs to the Mississippian era, exposed along the Mississippi River valley, and in the Illinois Basin containing the most important oil-producing rocks. Older rocks are usually not exposed except along Mississippi River and Illinois River valleys and at Hardin County in southern Illinois. The next rock layer in Illinois from the Pennsylvanian era contains coal beds as well as various rock types and some oil and gas. Layers from the Mesozoic and Cenozoic eras followed, these layers appear only in extreme southern Illinois and indicate the most northern extension of a prehistoric sea. The next groups of layers belong to the Pleistocene era, which dramatically changed the appearance of the landscape throughout most of the state.

The Pleistocene ("Ice Age") era began about one million years ago, as glaciers moved south from Canada and covered all of Illinois except the northwest corner, the extreme southwest edge, and the southernmost portion of the state. Until approximately 13,500 years ago, the area that is now northern and central Illinois was covered by glaciers that left gravel, rocks, and boulders over the limestone bedrock when they retreated. Most glacial deposits in the state were formed in the last two of four major periods of glacial advance, the Illinoian and the Wisconsin. The Illinoian reached as far south as Carbondale and Harrisburg, the Wisconsin only to Mattoon and Peoria. In addition to deposits from glaciation, streams also deposited sand and gravel across the landscape.

Pleistocene glaciers and the waters melting from them changed the landscapes they covered. The ice scraped and smeared the landforms they overrode, leveling and filling many of the minor valleys and even some of the larger ones. Moving ice carried colossal amounts of rock and earth, for much of what the glaciers wore off the ground was kneaded into the moving ice and carried along, often for hundreds of miles. Research reveals that the Illinoian glacier advanced southward to Carbondale, and during the Sangamonian Stage (interglacial) that followed, drift from the glacier was weathered as deeply as 15 feet (4.57 meters).[16] Lake Michigan was formed by successive advances, but took its current form during the Wisconsin period. Wisconsinan drift was deposited on the weathered Illinoian drift in much of Illinois. A significant feature left by the advance and retreat of glaciers in the northeast corner of the state are glacial moraines, low mounds tens of miles long left by the furthest advance of a glaciers in the Wisconsinan period. Joliet, Illinois, lies at the edge of the Valparaiso Moraine, the first large moraine located away from the shore of Lake Michigan.

[16] Kemal Piskin and Robert E. Bergstrom, *Glacial Drift in Illinois: Thickness and Character*, Circular 490 (Urbana, Illinois: State of Illinois, Department of Registration and Education, Illinois State Geological Survey, 1975, reprinted 1994), 3.

The region surrounding Joliet is a zone of fairly old limestones, sandstones, and shales where older rocks of Ordovician and Silurian age to the north give way near the surface to younger coal-rich rocks of Pennsylvanian age to the south. Overlying these are layers of glacially deposited drift from the numerous incursions into the area of the polar ice cap over the last million years, particularly the Lake Michigan lobe associated with the last, or Wisconsin, glaciation that left the area as recently as fifteen thousand years ago. The Illinois River valley, carved out initially before the ice age, became a major drainage channel for meltwaters from the retreating ice sheet. The valley filled up with out-wash material ranging from coarse gravels to fine silts. Hence the valley floor, anywhere from a half to two miles wide, is significantly lower than the surrounding countryside. It is etched in many places by bluffs on both sides and runs southwest and westerly from the present Lake Michigan through, and roughly at right angles to, a series of curved topographic zones of alternating flat plains derived from former lake bottoms and gentle ridges deposited as glacial moraines. While the broad flatlands evolved a dry prairie cover, the valley itself developed wooded slopes, with wet prairies in parts of the flood-plain proper.[17]

First Peoples

Human inhabitation of the North American continent from the Paleo-Indian culture has been dated to the last glacial advance about 15,000 to 12,000 years ago, generally migrating from the northeast Asian continent to the North American continent.[18] Increasing warmth toward the close of the Pleistocene Era caused the melting and disappearance of the ice sheet in approximately 9000 B.C. The arrival of the First Peoples, or Native Americans, in the region between the middle Mississippi valley and Lake Michigan appears to date from the earliest period following the retreat of the polar ice sheet. So far, however, archaeological evidence offers no detailed picture of the livelihood patterns or settlements of the earliest (Paleo-Indian) phase.

[17] Michael P. Conzen, "The Historical and Geographical Development of the Illinois and Michigan Canal National Heritage Corridor," in *Illinois and Michigan Canal National Heritage Corridor: A Guide to Its History and Sources* ed. Michael P. Conzen and Kay J. Carr (DeKalb, Illinois: Northern Illinois University Press, 1988), 4.

[18] In late July 1996, the skull and nearly complete skeleton of a 40 to 55 year old male were discovered near Kennewick, Washington. The remains, referred to as Kennewick Man, were later determined to be approximately 9,200 years old; the presence of a serated arrow head, dating from 8,500 to 4,500 B.P., partially healed in the right ilium gave further evidence to the age of the skeleton. This in itself would not be unusual, except for the fact that the remains lacked features common to Native American ancestors that had inhabited the region and had features more common to Caucasoid races. The discovery led to disputes between scientists, archeologists, and anthropologists, who wanted to study the remains; Native American groups that have legal domain over all such ancient remains under the Native American Graves Protection and Repatriation Act (NAGPRA) (despite evidence that failed to connect the remains to Native American ancestors); and the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, who controlled the land where the remains were found and enforced the laws to repatriate the remains. Native American groups objected to study of the remains, stating that they were dated from a period of inhabitation of Native American ancestors; they feared that identification of ancient Caucasoid peoples in North America would undermine their claim to remains discovered in the future. Eight scientists began a legal battle to be given access to the remains for further study. Efforts to amend NAGPRA to allow study of Kennewick Man failed in Congress. By 1998, an agreement had been reached between the scientists, the Army Corps of Engineers, and the Native American groups to allow study of the remains. For further information, see David H. Thomas, *Skull Wars: Kennewick Man, Archaeology, and the Battle for Native American Identity* (New York: Harper Collins Publishers, 1999).

A predominantly oak and hickory forest cover developed in the area, and the first signs of specific colonization date from the Archaic Period, prior to 1000 B.C., when deer hunting and wild plant gathering supported a dispersed population. Indian settlements spread up the Mississippi valley as far as eastern Minnesota and around the southern half of Lake Michigan in what has been termed a Hopewell Interaction network that reached as far as Louisiana and Lake Ontario. The following Mississippian Period (circa 1000 A.D. to the seventeenth century) saw the advent of large fortified towns with platform mounds, such as the community at Cahokia, located east of St. Louis. Further north, villages in the upper Illinois valley, though large, lacked platform mounds.[19] The villages of this period were typically located on valley bottom lands, close to river transportation.

By the time of the French explorations of the seventeenth century, the native people of Illinois as a group belonged to the Algonquian linguistic family, closely related to the Chippewa. The name "Illinois" was a native word signifying "men" or "people."[20] The specific tribes in the region included the Cahokia (near Cahokia, Illinois); Kaskaskia (near Utica, Illinois, later relocating to present day Kaskaskia); Peoria (in northeastern Iowa, later relocating to present day Peoria); and the Tamaroa (along the Mississippi River).

The motives behind French explorations of the continental interior between Quebec and Louisiana in the seventeenth century combined imperial strategy and trade with native peoples, whom they sought to convert to Catholicism. In 1673, the expedition of Father Jacques Marquette and Louis Jolliet traveled primarily along the Mississippi River and up the Illinois River to the region of Cook and Will Counties.[21] This expedition claimed the region for France.

During this period, the Native Americans were in conflict with each other and undergoing migrations. The Sauk, Foxes, Kickapoo, and Potawatomi displaced the Illinois. The Potawatomi, followed by the Sauk and the Foxes, were the predominant peoples in the northeastern Illinois. In 1678, an expedition led by Robert de La Salle with Henry Tonti and Father Hennepin explored the region along the Mississippi River and adjacent territory on behalf of France. A Jesuit mission was established at Chicago in 1696 by Father Pierre Pinet, but it failed to last more than a year. As time progressed the French centered their principal activities in the middle Mississippi valley, focusing on Fort de Chartres near Kaskaskia and its connections via the Ohio, Maumee,

[19] For discussion of the architectural history of Illinois, see Thomas Edward O'Donnell, "An Outline of the History of Architecture in Illinois," *Transactions of the Illinois State Historical Society* (Springfield, Illinois, 1931); and Thomas Edward O'Donnell, "Recording the Early Architecture of Illinois in the Historic American Buildings Survey," *Illinois State Historical Society, Transactions for the Year 1934* (Springfield, Illinois, 1934).

[20] John R. Swanton, *The Indian Tribes of North America* (1952, Bureau of American Ethnology Bulletin Number 145; reprint, Washington, D.C.: Smithsonian Institution Press, 1969), 241.

[21] Louis Joliett was born at Beauport, near Quebec, in September 1645. He began to study at the Jesuit College of Quebec in 1655 and in 1662 he received minor religious orders from Bishop Laval. After leaving the seminary he became a fur trader, gaining proficiency in surveying and mapmaking. Joliett was chosen by the government of France to be a member of a delegation meeting with the chieftains of the Indian tribes assembled at Sault Sainte Marie in 1671. Beginning the next year, Joliett led an expedition down the Mississippi, during which he traveled up the Illinois and Des Plaines Rivers. During this expedition he surmised that digging a canal from to connect the waterways in this region would allow transportation from the Great Lakes to the Mississippi and the Gulf of Mexico, which was later constructed in the 1830s and 1840s.

and Wabash rivers with Quebec, well to the south and east of the upper Illinois valley. Also, The Chicago portage became a significant channel of movement, especially for those involved in the fur trade.

From the time of these early French expeditions until the fall of Québec in 1759, the French dominated the region. Seven years after that battle, in October 1766, the British took Fort Chartres, extending British authority across the continent from the Atlantic Ocean to the Mississippi River. British control of the Illinois region lasted until the challenged during Revolutionary War.

The Northwest Territory

In 1778, at the direction of the Governor of Virginia, George Rogers Clark led an expedition against the British and captured their posts in the frontier northwest. Clark marched across southern Illinois, and by July 1778 had disarmed Kaskaskia, Cahokia, and Vincennes, and claimed the region for the independence-seeking Colonies. Following the conclusion of the Revolutionary War, the Ordinance of 1787 organized the Northwest Territory, consisting of what would become Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, Ohio, and Wisconsin. In 1801, Illinois became part of the Indiana Territory. Eight years later the Illinois Territory was formed, which included the region of Wisconsin.

By the early 1800s, conflict with the British located in Canada and Native American populations began to affect the region. Treaties with the Potawatomi and other tribes led to ceding of lands to non-native settlers in a corridor from the mouth of the Chicago River to Peoria. At the beginning of the 1800s, fewer than 5,000 settlers lived in the territorial region, with most located in the southern portion of what became Illinois along the Mississippi, Ohio, and Wabash Rivers. The northern portion of the state was more sparsely populated. At this time, the Native American tribe leader Tecumseh organized the tribes of the Northwest Territory against non-native settlers. Although defeated in the Battle of Tippecanoe of 1811, Tecumseh remained active throughout the War of 1812 and aided British forces in capturing many areas settled by non-natives. These reverted to American control at the end of the war.

Illinois Statehood

The United States Congress passed an enabling act on 18 April 1818 admitting Illinois as the twenty-first state as of 3 December 1818, although the population of the state was only 40,258, short of the 60,000 required by the Ordinance of 1787.[22] The state capital was established first at Kaskaskia and moved to Vandalia two year later.

The Native Americans who occupied the area at this time were divided into powerful tribes who fought to hold their hunting grounds. Chief among these tribes was the Kickapoo, who were among the first to engage in war and the last to submit and enter into treaties. On 30 July 1819,

[22] The northern boundary of the Illinois Territory was on an east-west line from the southern line of Lake Michigan. In order to give the future state a portage on Lake Michigan, in early 1818 the boundary was moved by a bill introduced in Congress to a line 10 miles north of the initial boundary. The legislation was amended before passage moving it a total of 51 miles north. This gave the region more potential economic security as well as lessened the potential for the area to be allied with the slave states in the south. Illinois became a state on 3 December 1818.

by the Treaty at Edwardsville, the Kickapoo ceded their land to United States and began to retreat to Osage County. By 1822, only 400 Kickapoo were left in the state. The Peace Treaty of Tippecanoe of 1832 was negotiated with the Potawatomi tribe, resulting in the ceding of the land now occupied by Chicago and Joliet to the federal government.

In the early 1800s, the southern portion of Illinois was more heavily populated by non-native settlers than the northern portion. With the movement of the northern boundary, the region around the Chicago River at Lake Michigan became part of Illinois. The first non-native settlement was founded in 1803 when members of the U.S. Infantry surveyed what would later be called Fort Dearborn. The site opposite the fort was already occupied by French settlers and their Native American wives. The site grew initially from the fur trade, and despite the Fort Dearborn Massacre of 1812, more settlers came to the area. The site was platted in 1830 and in 1833 the town of Chicago was incorporated. The building of the Illinois and Michigan Canal in the later 1830s led to a land boom in Chicago. Between 1840 and 1860 the population increased from 4,470 to nearly 100,000. The city was rebuilt after the fire of October 1871, which destroyed 17,450 buildings and killed at least 250 persons. By 1890, Chicago's population was more than 1,000,000 persons.[23]

Joliet, Illinois

The Great Sauk Trail, located approximately 30 miles south of Chicago in Will County, was named for the Sauk tribes of Native Americans that used the trail.[24] Non-native traders also used the trail from their earliest adventures into the region, and had been known to Marquette and Jolliet and to LaSalle.[25] It was not until 1829 that the first permanent settlers entered what is now Will County. Residents of these settlements, then part of Cook County, demanded a more convenient place to record land purchases and pay taxes. Therefore, a new county was created out of the southern sector of Cook County and named in honor of Dr. Conrad Will, a member of the state legislature who lived in the southern part of Illinois.[26] Will County was created by an act of the state legislature during the session of 1835-1836, the date of the actual charter being 12 January 1836. (When Will County was organized in 1836 it included a portion of Kankakee County north of the Kankakee River. In 1845, the boundaries of Will County were changed to their present locations.)

The first settler in Will County was Reverend Jesse Walker from Virginia, who arrived in 1826 as a Methodist missionary. The first settler in the Joliet region was Charles Reed, who arrived in

[23] Harry Hansen, ed., *Illinois: A Descriptive and Historical Guide* (New York: Hastings House Publishers, 1974), 176-83.
[24] Jean Stout, *A Look at Joliet and Will County, Illinois* (Joliet Public Schools, District no. 86, 1969), 26.
[25] Ibid., 33.
[26] Will County was named for Dr. Conrad Will. Born near Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, on 3 June 1779. Will studied medicine before emigrating to the Illinois Territory. First homesteading on the Big Muddy River in 1813, he established a salt works in 1816 using the salt springs in the area. He was instrumental in the formation of Jackson County from the lower half of Randolph County and part of present day Perry County. When the salt business did not prosper, he entered politics, becoming a state senator in the newly formed State of Illinois in 1818. In 1820 he became a member of the State House of Representatives, an office he held until his death on 11 June 1835. On the following 12 January, the state legislature passed an act sectioning the southern portion of Cook County in northern Illinois as a new county named for Conrad Will. (Alice C. Storm, *Doctor Conrad Will* (Joliet, Illinois: Louis Joliet Chapter of the Daughters of the American Revolution, 1917), 1-5.)

1831. After a brief hiatus during the Black Hawk War of 1832, others settled in the region. Reed is credited with being the founder of Joliet, when he relocated to north Joliet in 1833. In 1834 James McKee, a native of Kentucky, bought out Reed's claim and improvements and built a mill. A town was platted in 1834, at that time called Juliet to complement the nearby town of Romeo (later named Romeoville).[27] In 1837, the first Will County courthouse and jail building was constructed.[28] The Village of Juliet was incorporated by an act of the Legislature in 1837. After the Legislature revoked the village charter in 1841, the community was not officially reorganized until 19 July 1852, when it was incorporated as the City of Joliet by a special act of the Legislature. The town was incorporated in 1857 under the name of Joliet to commemorate explorer Louis Jolliet.

The first boats on the Illinois and Michigan Canal (see discussion below) arrived in Joliet on 11 April 1848 with band music, cannon salutes, and numerous speeches. Joliet's major industry prior to the founding of the steel industry was stone cutting. Entrepreneurs opened limestone quarries in Lemont, Lockport, and Joliet. Many of Chicago's early buildings were built of stone from these towns, hauled up the canal. The Illinois and Michigan Canal was also used to transport large blocks for building sites as far away as the east coast. The first stone building in the city was the store built in 1835 by Martin H. Demmond at the southwest corner of Jefferson and Bluff Street.[29] Numerous quarries opened in the region, including Bruce and Company, William Davidson and Brothers, and W.A. Steel. One of the largest and most successful quarries was that of the Joliet Stone Company, which began operation in 1877. The building stone industry reached its peak in the 1890s, after which the demand for crushed stone for roads began to surpassed that for building stone.[30]

Joliet acquired the name "Steel City" because of its early success in the steel industry. The laying of the first mill's cornerstone inspired a civic holiday and much celebration on 19 October 1869.[31] One of the major uses of steel was in the fabrication of barbed wire. "Barbtown" in Joliet was a cluster of plants south of Jefferson Street along the river in the 1870s. Ten barbed wire plants in Joliet were kept busy for a decade. The ten plants making barbed wire were later consolidated and became a part of the American Steel and Wire Company.

The first railroad to enter Joliet was the Rock Island, with the first train arriving from Chicago in October 1852. Two years later the Chicago and Alton and the Michigan Central railroads began service to Joliet. The Elgin, Joliet & Eastern railroad was chartered in 1887.[32]

[27] "Mound Juliet" was the name of a glacial moraine in the region that was quarried for the gravel it contained. It was fabled to be the site that Louis Jolliet camped during his journey through the region.
[28] Stout, *A Look at Joliet and Will County, Illinois*, 37-38.
[29] Stout, *A Look at Joliet and Will County, Illinois*, 84.
[30] For information on the development of the Joliet limestone industry, see Linda T. Pote, "'The Celebrated Joliet Marble Fields:' An Historical Geography of the Lower Des Plaines Valley Limestone Industry," *Time and Place in Joliet: Essays on the Geographical Evolution of the City,* Studies on the Illinois & Michigan Canal Corridor, ed. Michael P. Conzen (Chicago: University of Chicago: 1988): 15-28.
[31] Stout, *A Look at Joliet and Will County, Illinois,* 87.
[32] Ibid., 91.

The wallpaper industry was first introduced into Joliet by Frank J. Kelley of Chicago, who founded the Star-Peerless Company. At one time Joliet was the largest wallpaper-producing city in the United States. There were six companies manufacturing wallpaper: Star-Peerless, Joliet Wallpaper Mills, Lennon Wallpaper, Mid-West Wallpaper Mills, Superior, and the United Wallpaper Mills, Inc.

Joliet had the distinction of being the first city in northeastern Illinois outside Chicago to have electric service, provided by the Economy Light and Power Company in 1890.

The Illinois & Michigan Canal and Lockport, Illinois

The proximity of the headwaters of the Illinois River to Lake Michigan led early explorers to propose the construction of a canal to link the two, thus allowing river traffic to flow from the Great Lakes to the Mississippi River. In 1673 the French explorers Marquette and Jolliet were commissioned to verify the extent of the Mississippi River. While in northeast Illinois, they were required to make a short portage across the moraine dividing the waterways in the region. The northern branch of the Illinois River is the Des Plaines River, which at the closest point flows about five miles west of the shore of Lake Michigan before turning southwest in the region now called Summit. The Des Plaines River flows into the Illinois, which then flowed to the Mississippi, and the Chicago River flowed to Lake Michigan. The usefulness of a canal to link Lake Michigan with the Illinois watershed was apparent to the two explorers. A canal would eliminate the portages, providing a useful water route between the Gulf of Mexico and the Great Lakes. During periods of spring rains the two waterways were frequently linked as floodwaters that spread across the portage and part of the Des Plaines River spilled into the Chicago.

As early as 1794, plans were made to establish the Illinois waterway link with the lake. The Louisiana Purchase of 1803 gave a further impetus to the development of a canal. Army engineers began surveying the area after the War of 1812. Land acquisition began when a treaty with Native American tribes was signed at St. Louis in 1816, leading to the acquisition of a corridor from Chicago to Ottawa, Illinois. Debate on the canal project continued for several years until 1834 when Joseph Duncan, a strong supporter of the canal, was elected governor of Illinois. Governor Duncan supported legislation in 1836 to assist financing for the construction of a canal. Construction of the canal was began on 4 July 1836, with ground broken at Bridgeport in Chicago.[33]

The canal route followed the south branch of the Chicago River, the Des Plaines River, and the Illinois River to its western terminus at Peru.[34] After little progress was made during the first year of construction, financial problems developed. By 1840 the canal was two-thirds completed when another series of funding problems delayed completion of the canal until 1848. When opened the canal revolutionized freight and passenger traffic on the Illinois River route by allowing shippers to utilize Chicago as their route to the eastern United States.

[33] Leslie C. Swanson, *Canals of Mid-America*, 35.
[34] The eastern entrance into the canal was near the present intersection of Archer and Ashland Avenues and followed the right-of-way of the contemporary Stevenson Expressway (Interstate 55) to the town of Summit, where the canal turned to the southwest, paralleling the east bank of the Des Plaines River to Joliet. At Joliet the canal crossed the Des Plaines at river level. Continuing southwest, it made a level crossing of the DuPage River at Channahon. The canal then followed the west banks of the Du Page and Des Plaines Rivers and the north bank of the Illinois. It ended in a riverboat turning basin at La Salle/Peru.

Labor for the project was attracted to Illinois, including many new Irish immigrants. Bridgeport, now a Chicago neighborhood, was the eastern terminus of the canal and began as a settlement to house Irish canal workers. Numerous towns were founded as a result of the construction and operation of the canal. The canal commissioners had chosen Lockport as their headquarters. The town was situated where the first locks west of Chicago dropped the canal from its summit level.

The first settler in the region of Lockport was Armstead Runyon. The town was platted in 1836, and the Canal Commissioners constructed the headquarters in that year. Also in 1836, the Lockport post office and a mill were established. Archer Avenue was laid out in 1838 as a supply route from Chicago. With the opening of the canal in 1848, Lockport grew rapidly. The town included a successful grain market and as a business center of the local stone industry. Population in the town was 1,657 in 1850. Lockport was incorporated as a village in 1853.[35]

By 1851, barge traffic was already showing signs of having outgrown the canal; it was necessary to restrict passage to those with a draught of not over four and a half feet. Railroad service from the Chicago and Rock Island Railway was initiated in 1854, running parallel to the canal for much of its length. Business continued to increase for more than two decades, especially during the Civil War when commercial traffic was restricted on the Mississippi. In 1871 the last of the canal debt was paid. The decline of the canal began in the late 1870s, when the waterway showed a deficit of $40,000 a year and as railroads provided increased competition.[36]

Chicago had an influence on the future of the canal in an unusual way. Because the city dumped its sewage effluents into Lake Michigan (the source of its drinking water), the risk was high for pollution leading to epidemics. Plans were implemented to reverse the flow of the Chicago River, passing wastes down to the Illinois River. This also provided a widened and deepened waterway from Chicago to Lockport. The new canal, the Chicago Sanitary and Ship Canal, was constructed between 1890 and 1900.

Despite the decline in the canals use, Lockport continued to grow. In 1874, the Norton and Company paper mill employed 35 workers and produced 5 tons of straw board paper a day.[37] Norton and Company later dominated the economy of the town, much to its disadvantage when the company experienced financial problems in the nationwide depression of 1893. After Norton and Company went into receivership in 1896, the central business district in Lockport declined. Despite these setbacks, the village was declared a city in 1904. New industries moved to Lockport: the Illinois Steel Company opened a coke plant in 1908; and the warehouse and mills of the former Norton and Company were reopened by the Northern Illinois Cereal Company in 1911. One of the most significant additions to Lockport's economy was the opening of the Texas Company (later

[35] Michael M. Benedetti, "Urban and Municipal Development, 1836-1900," *Lockport Legacy: Themes in the Historical Geography of an Illinois Town*, Studies on the Illinois & Michigan Canal Corridor, no. 4 (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1990), 6-9; *Lockport, Illinois*, HCRS Publication no. 35 (Washington, D.C.: ; U.S. Department of the Interior, Heritage Conservation and Recreation Service, N.d.), 11.
[36] Swanson, *Canals of Mid-America*, 37.
[37] *Lockport, Illinois*, (U.S. Department of the Interior, Heritage Conservation and Recreation Service), 16.

Texaco) refinery in 1912. Because of the economic decline of the 1890s and despite the rebounding in the early 1900s, Lockport's downtown retained its historic character until the present day.[38]

Traffic over the Chicago to Joliet segment of the Illinois and Michigan Canal halted after 1900 with the opening of the Chicago Sanitary and Ship Canal. Other portions of the I&M Canal continued to be navigable until 1933 when the Illinois Waterway was fully completed. In the same year, the waterway was selected by the Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC) in Illinois for transformation into a recreational park.[39] The canal corridor was transferred to the control of the Illinois Department of Conservation in 1974. In 1984, the canal was named the first National Heritage Corridor following special legislation passed by Congress.[40]

Crest Hill, Illinois
The community north of Joliet was founded as Stern Park Gardens subdivision planned and constructed in the 1940s. The area became home to emigrants and their descendents from Russia, Serbia, Croatia, Poland, Slovenia, and Italy. During World War II, the area was renamed Lidice, in memory of the town in Czechoslovakia destroyed by the Nazis along with its citizens in retaliation for the assassination of General Reinhard Heydrich.

With the success of the Hillcrest Shopping Center in the late 1950s and interest by Joliet for annexation, the area was incorporated as Crest Hill in order to keep tax revenues within the subdivisions surrounding the shopping center. However, it was another ten years before disagreements with Joliet over ownership of sewer and water lines were resolved. In 1987, Crest Hill annexed Stateville Correctional Center. By the mid-1990s, approximately 20 percent of Crest Hill's residents were the inmates at Stateville. The State of Illinois paid the Village of Crest Hill taxes for city services, even though the prison has its own police and fire department. It was reported that, "the prison helps Crest Hill make ends meet without really tarnishing its image."[41]

[38] Ibid., 18-23. The Lockport Historic District, roughly bounded by the Illinois & Michigan Canal and Eighth, Eleventh, and Hamilton Streets, was nominated to the National Register in 1975.
[39] Gerald W. Adelmann, "A Preservation History of the Illinois and Michigan Canal," in *Illinois and Michigan Canal National Heritage Corridor: A Guide to Its History and Sources*, 43.
[40] Ibid., 50.
[41] Bob Merrifield, "Roots, Not Growth, Make Town Tick," *Chicago Tribune*, 6 August 1994, sec. 4, p. 1.

C. Context History of the State of Illinois Department of Corrections and Predecessor Agencies

Background

Ancient History

The western tradition of the practice of incarceration first appears in early Greek myths. Among the numerous stories of imprisonment was the punishment of the Titan Prometheus, who was chained to the Caucasus for giving the secret of fire to man. The philosopher Plato discusses the rationale for the punishment of criminals in Greece in the dialogue *Gorgias* (525 a-b):

> And he sees that owing to the license and luxury and presumption and incontinence of its actions the soul is surcharged with disproportion and ugliness, and see this he sends it away in ignominy straight to the prison house, where it is doomed on its arrival to endure the sufferings proper to it. And it is proper for everyone who suffers a punishment rightly inflicted by another that he should either be improved and benefited thereby or become a warning to the rest, in order that they may be afraid when they see him suffering what he does and may become better men. Now, those who are benefited through suffering punishment by gods and men are beings whose evil deeds are curable; nevertheless it is from pain and agony that they derive their benefit both here and in the other world, for it is impossible to be rid of evil otherwise. But those who have been guilty of the most heinous crimes and whose misdeeds are past cure – of these warnings are made, and they are no longer capable themselves of receiving any benefit, because they are incurable – but others are benefited who behold them suffering throughout eternity the greatest and most excruciating and terrifying tortures because of their misdeeds, literally suspended as examples there in the prison house in Hades, a spectacle and a warning to any evildoers who from time to time arrive.[42]

Although Plato rejected the idea of retribution or vengeance, his own Greek culture was extremely violent when addressing criminal actions. Athenian law states the forms of punishment that could be inflicted: stoning to death (lapidation); throwing the offender from a cliff (precipitation); binding him to a stake so that he suffered a slow death and public abuse while dying (apotympanismos, an early form of crucifixion); or the formal dedication of the offender to the gods, by a ritual cursing him or forbidding all from any social communication with him.[43] Dedication to the gods reflects the religious sanction that homicide and other crimes were thought to invoke. In other instances, the dishonored dead might be forbidden burial, and their houses might be destroyed.[44]

Plato also provides information on the prisons of ancient Athens. They were places of temporary custody for those about to be tried or those sentenced to punishment, structures for coercive detention for certain kinds of debtors, and sites of torture and execution. Prison, however, did not

[42] Plato, *The Collected Dialogues of Plato,* trans. W.D. Woodhead, ed. Edith Hamilton and Huntington Cairns (Princeton, New Jersey: Princeton University Press, 1961), 305.
[43] Ira J. Silverman and Manuel Vega, *Corrections A Comprehensive View* (St. Paul, Minnesota: West Publishing Company, 1996), 49. Army deserters were publicly displayed in women's clothing.
[44] Ibid.

play the largest punitive role in Athenian penology, since capital punishment, fines, and exile were more frequently used.[45]

In 451 B.C. *The Twelve Tablets*, the first written laws of Rome, were issued. They addressed private disputes between individuals, and even a few instances of offenses against the Roman state. Such offenses as physical assaults, theft, insult, the theft and destruction of crops, and perjury were all considered offenses against private persons (*delict*) to be prosecuted by the offended individual in the presence of the appropriate magistrates and before the assembly of citizens.

According to *The Twelve Tablets,* conviction of some offenses required compensation, but most called for capital punishment or death: burning (for conviction of arson), precipitation from the Tarpeian Cliff (for perjury), clubbing to death (for composers of scurrilous songs about a citizen), hanging (for theft of the crops of others, apparently a form of punitive human sacrifice to the goddess Ceres), and decapitation. Other forms of capital punishment used in early Rome, although not mentioned in *The Twelve Tablets*, included the *culleus* for those who had killed close relatives, whereby they were placed in a sack with an ape, a dog, and a serpent and thrown into the sea. Vestal virgins who violated the oath of chastity were buried alive. Exile might be chosen by a convicted offender as an alternative to execution, although this was not a formal punishment. Those who chose to go into exile in these circumstances lost their citizenship, freedom, and immovable property, and could be killed by any citizen if they returned to Rome.

The only reference to imprisonment in *The Twelve Tablets* occurs in the laws concerning debt. Debtors who could not or would not pay were to be held in private incarceration by their creditors for sixty days and were to have their debts publicly announced on three successive market days, on the last of which they might be executed or sold into slavery outside the city.

By law the male head of the Roman household had the right to maintain a domestic prison cell. This cell, the *ergastulum*, could be a work cell for recalcitrant or rebellious slaves or a place of confinement at the pleasure of the father for any members of the household for any infraction of household discipline.

Early places of confinement were crude structures, seldom built to serve for long-term use. Often they were strong cages within a fortress or castle enclosure or subterranean portions of public buildings. Both classical Greece and Rome reportedly used stone quarries as prisons. The only place of incarceration in Rome about which much is known is the Tullianum, later called the *carcer Mamertinus* (the Mamertine prison), an underground chamber at the Roman Forum from the third century B.C. It was adjacent to three quarry-prisons known as *latumiae*, located on the southern slope of the Capitoline Hill where rock had once been quarried. In the second century A.D., the historian Sallust described the chamber:

[45] Ibid., 6-8.

> ....there is a place called the Tullianum, about twelve feet below the surface of the ground. It is enclosed on all sides by walls, and above it is a chamber with a vaulted roof of stone. Neglect, darkness, and stench make it hideous and fearsome to behold. Into this place Lentulus was let down, and the executioners then carried out their orders and strangled him.[46]

The prison in Alba Fucens in central Italy, dating from the early second century B.C. and where Perseus, king of Macedonia, was held captive by the Roman army, was described as:

> ....a deep underground dungeon, no larger than [a dining-room that could hold nine people], dark and noisome from the large numbers [of people] committed to the place, who were men under condemnation on partial charges, for most in this category were incarcerated there at this period. With so many shut up in such close quarters, the poor wretches were reduced to appearance of brutes, and since their food and everything pertaining to their other needs was all so foully commingled, stench so terrible assailed anyone who drew near it that could scarcely be endured.[47]

The Romans frequently remanded Christians to prison for custodial purposes, to await the arrival of competent judicial officials or the attention of the local magistrate or to await the execution of a capital sentence. The "Acts of the Christian Martyrs" described the prisons in which they were kept as having several chambers, some even with windows.[48]

Imperial edicts of the early fourth century reflected a general concern for at least the minimal physical well being of inmates. An edict of Constantine in the *Theodosian Code* dated 320 A.D. referred to anyone held in custody awaiting the appearance of his accuser:

> He shall not be put in manacles of iron that cleave to the bones, but in looser chains, so that there may be no torture and yet the custody remain secure. When incarcerated he must not suffer the darkness of an inner prison, but he must be kept in good health by the employment of light, and when night doubles the necessity for his guard, he shall be taken back to the vestibules of the prison and into healthful places. When day returns, at early sunrise, he shall be forthwith let out into the common light of day so that he may not perish from the torments of prison.[49]

Constantine's edict, along with sources concerning the imprisonment of Christians, reveal that Roman prisons had different sections. One was a deeper, more obscure chamber in which the accused might be held in darkness without heat, placed in stocks or chains, poorly fed, and

[46] Ibid., 19. The Mamertime Prison, as it existed in the late nineteenth century, consisted of two chambers, one below the other. "The upper room measured 30 by 22 feet and received light from a hole in the ceiling 16 feet above the floor. The lower chamber, which was reached by means of an aperture in the floor of the room above, was cone shaped with a diameter of 20 feet and was completely dark."
[47] Peters, "Prison Before the Prison," *The Oxford History of the Prison*, 19.
[48] Christians may have been routinely placed within the inner chamber, as their jailers feared they would escape by means of magic.
[49] Peters, "Prison Before the Prison," *The Oxford History of the Prison*, 20.

abused and tortured by jailers. Such sections are also referred to in the *Theodosian Code* in reference to crimes "that deserve prison barriers and squalid custody."[50]

Justinians' *Code and Digest* of 527 A.D. quoted an edict from the second century emperor Antoniusm, giving stated his position on life imprisonment: "Your statement that a free man has been condemned to imprisonment in chains for life is incredible, for this penalty can scarcely be imposed [even] upon a person of servile condition."[51]

The Middle Ages

In the Middle Ages the general practice was to kill prisoners of war. There were few prisons, and no means of feeding prisoners of war, therefore incarceration was practically impossible. When incarceration was required, makeshift prisons were arranged. They were, however, substantial and secure in nature. Fortress, castles, the abutments of bridges, town gates, cellars of municipal buildings, and even private dwellings were potential places for prisoner detainment. Some fortresses like the Tower of London in England; the Bastille, Vincennes and Bicêtre in France; and Petropavlovsk in Russia were used primarily for prisoners of the state and consequently gained sinister and far reaching reputations.[52]

Dungeons in castles and fortresses in Europe and the Middle East during the Middle Ages were primarily used to store provisions and siege supplies, making this space too valuable for prisoners. Subsequently, many medieval prisons were ramshackle cages of timber standing in the castle yard or in one of the large halls of the castle keep. On the other hand, lower rooms in castle towers with a few modifications were particularly well suited for use as prisons. These towers sometimes contained a lighted chamber over an unlighted one; access to the latter was through a trapdoor. These rooms were usually equipped with a "necessary," a simple toilet cubicle in the thickness of the wall.[53]

With the introduction of gunpowder, the military and strategic value of a fortified dwelling began to decline and eventually castles were used only as dwelling places or as local jails. Such structures with thick, solid walls and partitions, largely windowless for defensive purposes and usually located in the center of the town, were well suited as places of confinement.[54]

Religious Prisons: Monasteries, Church Prisons, and the Inquisition

The concept of imprisonment as a substitute for death or mutilation was derived in part from the early Christian church practice of granting asylum or sanctuary to fugitives and criminals. This ancient right existed earlier among the Assyrians, Hebrews, and other cultures. The church at that time had under its protection a large number of clergy, clerks, functionaries, monks, and serfs, and except for the latter, most were under the jurisdiction of the church courts. These

[50] Ibid.
[51] Ibid., 21.
[52] Norman B. Johnston, *The Human Cage: A Brief History of Prison Architecture* (New York: Walker and Company, 1973), 6.
[53] Ibid., 7.
[54] Ibid.

courts subjected the wrongdoers to solitary cellular confinement, not as punishment alone, but as a way of providing conditions under which penitence would most likely occur.[55]

Statutes of the order of Cluny from the eleventh and twelfth centuries provide information on prison plans and conditions of the time. The prison was to be without doors or windows, the only entrance being in the middle of the vaulted ceiling, through which a ladder could be lowered. Sometimes prisoners were chained in irons. The twelfth century prison at Durham Abbey was a 10 by 20 foot vaulted room with an adjoining chamber containing a latrine and a hatch to pass food to the occupants.[56] Other disciplinary measures, including flogging, were often used in monastic prisons.

The architecture of monastic prisons was relatively undeveloped. The tomblike prison rooms explicitly expressed the treatment philosophy of solitude, suffering, and purification of the soul through mortification of the body. Since the Church's concern was with the well being of the soul as a preparation for the afterlife, physical comforts of prisoners were a low priority.[57]

In addition to the monastery prisons, every seat of church government contained a prison. One of the most famous structures in France is Mont St. Michel, built between the eleventh and fourteenth centuries, which has served successively as an ecclesiastical, civil, and military prison. Two small cells known as the "Twins" were located on the lower level of the Abbey. Directly above them was the ecclesiastical court in the Abbot's residence. The jailer's job was made relatively simple as a circular trapdoor in the floor gave access to the two cells below. These cells were about 10 by 15 feet and remained nearly dark with light and air coming from a narrow slit in the thick exterior walls. Each cell had a small niche in the wall with a hole in the floor as a latrine.[58]

The Inquisition, established in Spain during the fifteenth and sixteenth century to deal with cases of active dissents from ecclesiastical doctrine, created another type of ecclesiastical prison.[59] Most prisons during this period were adapted from already existing structures; few were newly built. An example of the church prison was at Goa in Portuguese India, built in the 1600s. It consisted of a complex of buildings, each two stories high, containing a total of about 200 separate cells. A corridor ran the length of the buildings with seven or eight cells on each side. On one side, cells measured approximately 10 by 10 feet, some with a small barred, unglazed window in the vaulted ceiling. The cells on the other side were dark, somewhat smaller, and lower.[60]

Church prison architecture undoubtedly inspired the regular use of the cell in civil prisons when large numbers of criminals were incarcerated as punishment instead of executed or corporally

[55] Johnston, *The Human Cage*, 9.
[56] Ibid., 8-9.
[57] Ibid. In Eastern Europe, especially Austria and Russia, monastic prisons with a large number of underground cells continued to be used well into the twentieth century.
[58] Ibid.
[59] The inquisition was directed towards people who were considered enemies of both God and Christian society.
[60] Johnston, *The Human Cage*, 9.

punished. The system of cellular imprisonment in force for the last 200 years is often regarded as the indirect growth of these uses of imprisonment by the church.[61]

Prisons and the Common Law of England

In Anglo-Saxon England, the Germanic codes recorded the use of imprisonment for theft and witchcraft, but the most common forms of punishment were similar to those used in the rest of Europe, such as mutilation, death, exile, or victim compensation. In the century following the Norman Conquest of 1066, William I (reigned 1066-1087) and his successors attempted to impose their authority throughout the kingdom, but with little success. Among the steps taken towards further strengthening of public law was the construction of the Tower of London by William I as the first royal prison of England, built to hold the King's enemies. Other royal prisons included the Fleet in London and the "baulk house" at Winchester, both used chiefly for the custody of those confined by London justices as well as occasionally for prisoners of war and hostages.

Strong public law and administration did not emerge until the second half of the twelfth century under Henry II (reigned 1154-1189). In 1166, when Henry II issued the Assizes of Clarendon, he ordered that sheriffs should build jails in each county to hold those accused of felonies until they cold be tried by itinerant royal justices.[62] The prison building program initiated by Henry II placed royal prisons throughout the kingdom. Nobles who had more limited rights of justice also kept prisons. Some English prisons were franchisal, with the right to arrest and hold a free man given (or sold) by the king. Keepers made a profit from the difference between money spent maintaining the prison and the prisoners and the money received for their upkeep.

Towns were also compelled by the king to build and maintain jails as part of their corporate responsibility for keeping the peace. Late twelfth century London, for example, had not only the Tower of London and the Fleet but also Newgate, largely for debtors and state prisoners; Ludgate, for freemen of the city confined for debt, trespass, contempt, and other lesser offenses; the Marshalseas, prisons of the royal Marshall; the Counters, prisons of the sheriffs of London and Middlesex County; and the Tun, chiefly for moral delinquents.[63] Jailers charged fees for what they termed "gentle keeping" and these fees were regulated by a London ordinance of 1346. Food, fuel, bedding, and other items of comfort were sold to prisoners. Debts to jailers had to be cleared before a prisoner could be freed. The prisoners thus bore much of the cost of their own confinement. However the crown limited the fees that could be charged, creating a narrow profit margin for the franchisal prisons.

Prisons in Medieval France

France during this period consisted of territorial principalities created by warlords in the wake of the fall of the Carolingian monarchy and the ninth and tenth century invasions. The emergence of strong kings in the late twelfth century, particularly Philip Augustus (1180-1223), and the extension of royal authority over many of the territorial principalities through inheritance, marriage, and conquest led to the creation of a strong and centralized monarchy. Kings Louis IX

[61] Ibid.
[62] Ibid., 34.
[63] Ibid., 35.

(1226-1270) and Philip IV (Philip the Fair, 1285-1314) also exemplified these qualities. Until the codification of law under Napoleon, civil and criminal law in France remained largely regional. By the thirteenth century the right to administered justice itself had become categorized with "high," "middle," and "low" justice, depending on the sphere of competence of the cardholder. Part of the centralization of royal power was the monopolizing of high justice by royal officials with courts directly responsible to the King of France.[64]

Around 1200 the Châtelet, a fortress on the right bank of the Seine, came to house the court and prison of the provost (royal governor) of the city. The prison was located in a tower in the northeast corner of the fortress. The highest rooms were comfortably appointed for nobles who paid their own expenses of four pence a night for a bed and two pence a night for a room. On a lower level was a single room shared by prisoners of lower social status and below this, as in English prisons, was the *fosse* or *oubliette* into which prisoners were lowered from the floor above. Even in the *fosse* prisoners had to pay one penny per night for their room. The system of prisons that emerged from French customary regional and royal law lasted until the French Revolution began in 1789.[65]

Prisons in Medieval Germany

During the eleventh, twelfth, and thirteenth centuries, Germany was the most regionalized and fragmented of European kingdoms. Princes, ecclesiastical rulers, and city leaders exercised unchecked local power. However, the scope of royal authority was limited due to local custom dictating punishments, often following archaic legal procedures, and operating at the discretion of the local ruler. Nobles were beheaded, and serious offenders of lower social status were broken on the wheel, burned, or hanged. As in France, the concepts of "high," "middle," and "low" justice were utilized in Germany.

For the most part, prisons in Germany consisted of rooms and holes in the foundations of local fortifications, cellars of town halls, and subterranean chambers known as Löcher. The Bornheimer Loch, for example, was a prison in Frankfurt under the Bronheim gate, and the Brückenloch was located under the bridge tower in Mainz. Local authorities regulated prisons such as these.[66]

Renaissance Italy

Late in the eleventh century a single manuscript of the Digest of Justinian (the key to late Roman jurisprudence) surfaced in northern Italy and from then on, Roman law was taught at a number of schools, like the great law university at Bologna. From the twelfth century on, learned law became the most popular subject of study in Europe, partly because it also served the needs of the rulers. The formal study of learned law gave considerable impetus to efforts by secular rulers to expand and legitimize their authority over wrongdoing.

In Roman law the philosopher Ulpian's statement that prisons should be used for confinement, not for punishment, was generally considered the formal doctrine on the subject. Roman law

[64] Peters, "Prison Before the Prison," *The Oxford History of the Prison,* 38.
[65] Ibid., 40.
[66] Imprisonment in Germany remained local and unreformed until well into the early modern period.

gave the presiding judge in criminal cases considerable discretion, and also allowed judges to create new punishments when the occasion seemed to call for them and to punish by "analogy," whereby punishments were developed for offenses not specifically defined in statutes.

In 1297, construction of Le Stinche was begun in Florence. This was a public institution that segregated its inmates according to age, gender, degree of sanity, and the seriousness of their offense. It was sometimes used to incarcerate children for their correction and improvement. It eventually became so well known that when the cities of Siena and Pistoia built prisons, they were informally referred to as Le Stinche.

In his *Treatise* (1460), Filarete distinguished between a small prison located in the palace and a main prison. He noted that small prisons were typically vaulted with torture chambers above "as required." A large prison was square, 200 by 200 braccia, and surrounded by two walls with a moat between. Classification of prisoners was according to class or crime. Those in the four corner buildings were "more sinister," often murderers, traitors, and perpetrators of other crimes usually carrying the death penalty. However, Filarete's ideal city had no death penalty, only life imprisonment.

During the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, jurisprudence in northern Italian city republics overcame the objection of Roman law to the use of punitive imprisonment, a significant development in lawmaking and law administration. These led to several pioneering prison designs, such as the one the architect Antonio da Ponte was commissioned to construct for a large public prison in Venice in 1559. It was designed to contain 400 individual cells in which prisoners would be incarcerated to serve life sentences.

Workhouses and Bridewells in England

By 1520 there were 180 imprisonable offenses in the common law of England. A significant number of these new offenses dealt with vagrancy, breaking the peace, illegal bearing of arms, moral offenses, and other similar acts. The sixteenth century response was the workhouse (known also as the house of correction), because of the idea of the rehabilitative value of regular work and the formation of "habits of industry."

In 1557 the famous London Bridewell workhouse opened, where its motley collection of prisoners was housed in a converted royal palace. Other English towns followed suit and in 1576 Parliament passed an act calling for each county to have its own "Bridewell." By the early eighteenth century 170 such houses had been opened across the country. Vagrants and servants who cheated their employers made up the bulk of those confined to the bridewells. The workhouse regime in England revolved around forced labor so that the prisoners would learn industrious habits. Trades varied widely, but rasping and cloth work were the most important industries. Cloth work included spinning, weaving, and fabricating such cloths as bombazine, canvas, or linen. Rasping involved the pulverization of logs of dyewood to produce powder to color material. It was a very strenuous job, which fell to males convicted of the most serious crimes. Women did the spinning and men and women with light sentences did weaving. Whatever the task, the prison normally required a minimum output from each inmate.

Religion was important in the English workhouse. On weekdays, the inmates were obligated to say a morning and an evening prayer. On Sundays, they performed no labor because it was a day for religious observance, with the prisoners assembling in a special room for services and sometimes receiving religious instruction.[67]

Between 1690 and 1720 many new workhouses were created. A Parliamentary act in 1699 vested new powers in the county justices to build and repair jails. In the following year, legislation sought to ensure the separation of debtors and felons. Parliament passed legislation in 1706 permitting judges to sentence felons to the house of correction for up to two years. The act further specified that the sentence could include hard labor.[68] In 1702 the Society for the Promotion of Christian Knowledge conducted an investigation at Newgate Prison and the Marshalseas. It listed abuses, as well as praised the idea of keeping prisoners in separate cells. In 1728 legislation was passed that required that jailers post a schedule of fees.

For a long time, transportation was the preferred form of penal bondage. Under this penalty, convicts were loaded on sailing vessels, transported overseas, and sold as laborers. With the passage of the Transportation Act of 1718 Parliament made transportation a primary penalty rather than a means to avoid capital punishment. This legislative act also decreed that the government from that time forward would pay for the shipment of convicts.[69]

In all, some 50,000 British convicts were transported to America between 1718 and 1775, condemned not only by English courts but also by Irish and, to a lesser extent, Scottish courts. More than half the persons transported were in their twenties and four-fifths were male. Maryland and Virginia were the most frequent destinations, although some convicts landed in the Caribbean. In America, the shipping contractors sold the convicts for private employment, mostly to middle-sized planters who also owned a small number of black slaves. Because the price of a convict averaged about a third of that of an African, the larger slaveholders protested the system. In 1775 there was an abrupt interruption of the transportation penalty. The government, in quickly trying to find a solution to this crisis, settled in 1776 on the use of old vessels as places of temporary confinement. These conveyances came to be called hulks. The plan adopted for the management of hulks was more rigorous than anything found in most of the jails in England. A restrictive diet was imposed and the prisoners were set at hard labor clearing the Thames River and seaports. They earned popular disapproval by being expensive and at least

[67] Peter Spierenburg, "The Body and the State," *The Oxford History of the Prisons*, 70.
[68] Randall McGowen, "The Well-Ordered Prison," *The Oxford History of Prison,* 83.
[69] Daniel Defoe's heroine Moll Flanders was born in Newgate prison, and after a life of adventures and mischief she returns there after being caught while stealing. Her character narrates, "...when I was first brought in, and when I looked round upon all the horrors of that dismal place...the hellish noise, the roaring, swearing, and clamour, the stench and nastiness, and all the dreadful crowd of afflicting things that I saw there, joined to make the place seem an emblem of hell itself, and a kind of an entrance into it." (Daniel Defoe, *Moll Flanders* (1722, reprint New York: Bantam Books, 1989), 207.)
Moll's prison sentence is later commuted to transportation to America (where she had lived earlier in her story). Defoe relates how Moll "…lay in the prison for near fifteen weeks after this. What the reason of it was, I know not, but at the end of this time I was put on board of a ship in the Thames, and with me a gang of thirteen as hardened, vile creatures as ever Newgate produced..." (Defoe, *Moll Flanders*, 223.) The voyage ended with the ship landing in Virginia.

initially unhealthy. England was deluged with crime, especially after the American Revolution, and for a brief period the authorities utilized the gallows. By 1783, however, the clamor was growing to return to transportation, and in 1787 the first post-American Revolution fleet transporting convicts set sail for Australia.[70]

Prisons on the Continent: 1500 to 1700
The only European country in which the principle for work as corrective reform was taken seriously was Holland, where in Amsterdam a house of corrections was opened in 1596 (originally for all vagrants, male and female, but later just for men) and in 1597 a separate house of corrections was opened for women. The former was called the Rasphuis (rasp house), the latter the Spinhuis (spinning house). An inscription at the Spinhuis read: "Courage! I don't avenge, I force you towards the good." Early descriptions and documents reveal that the Amsterdam establishments were better equipped and more humanely run than the English Bridewells. Before overcrowding set in there were no more than two men or three women to a bed. Latrines in the bedrooms were also provided.[71]

In 1596 a house of corrections was set up in Amsterdam for petty offenders. Within a few years other such establishments were opened across Holland. The Dutch house of corrections exerted a pervasive influence in Belgium and Scandinavia, and possibly also in Spain and Italy.[72]

Although the principles of these houses of correction represented a significant departure from older methods of treatment, the architecture revealed no break from the past. Workhouses frequently took the form of a hollow square, much as the hospitals and convents of the time. In fact, many were located in buildings once used for such purposes. Prisoners worked and slept in common rooms, while youthful "delinquents" committed by their well-to-do parents lodged in private rooms.[73]

In France, the change in approach to penal bondage started with galley servitude, which was first instituted in the sixteenth century as a form of punishment primarily for vagrants. During the seventeenth century, criminals sentenced by courts, especially deserters condemned by court-martial, became the predominant oarsmen in the galley fleet. After 1715 galleys lost their importance as naval tools.[74] In 1748 the galleys were abolished and the complex at Marseilles

[70] Randall McGowen, "The Well-Ordered Prison," *The Oxford History of Prison*, 85. Both forms of punishment (Bridewells and transportation) signaled a shift away from penalties that employed the body in a public spectacle to sentences defined in terms of labor and time. Well into the nineteenth century the hulks continued to be a major repository for convicts retained in England.
[71] Nikolaus Pevsner, *A History of Building Types* (Princeton, New Jersey: Princeton University Press, 1976), 161.
[72] Johnston, *The Human Cage,* 10. Through description of the English reformer John Howard, these "bettering houses" of Holland became models for some of the legislation and reform in both Britain and the colony of Pennsylvania. (Johnston, *The Human Cage*, 11.)
[73] Ibid.
[74] During the thirty years before 1715 almost half the oarsmen had been condemned by a court-martial, usually for desertion; during the following third of a century nine-tenths of the oarsmen had been sentenced for smuggling and common-law crimes. At the same time, those condemned to galley servitude increasingly served their sentences as workers rather than oarsmen. After 1715, more and more convicts remained in the harbor of Marseilles during the winter season, laboring in the arsenals or for private merchants on a for-hire basis.

was dismantled. French law, however, did not change and courts continued to impose galley servitude; to execute these sentences, the condemned were put to work in the naval arsenals at Toulon, Brest, and Rochefort. They had to carry heavy loads, turn wheels, drive pumps, and pull cables. Others labored in joinery, drilling, and caulking for building ships. At night they slept in barracks, chained to their beds. This kind of punishment continued until 1854.[75]

Asylums were also used for confining criminals. The institution in Paris, France, known as the Hôpital Général actually consisted of several physically distinct establishments administratively joined. Two of these, the Salpètrière for women, and Bicètre for men, had a separate ward, *la force*, which was in fact a prison within the institution. The prisoners in *la force* were committed at the request of their families, by courts, or by the lieutenant of police. In the last case, they were usually prostitutes, vagabonds, or petty thiefs. On the eve of the revolution, *la force* at Bicètre and at the Salpètrière accounted for about one-seventh of the total Hôpital Général population of Paris (about 650 at Bicètre and 1,000 at Salpètrière).[76]

The use of cellular confinement in the modern sense can be traced in Italy to the famous *casa di correzione* established in the hospice of San Michele in Rome in 1704. Although there were earlier examples of cellular confinement, San Michele was probably influenced more by the knowledge papal authorities possessed concerning the Dutch workhouses. The architect, Carlo Fontana, designed a rectangular structure with 30 outside rooms or cells arranged on three tiers with balconies or galleries on each level. Each cell contained a mattress and had a latrine, an outside window, and a solid door with a small aperture opening onto the balconies, which could be closed from without by a small covering. These sleeping rooms faced a large center hall that was used as a workroom, dining room, and chapel. The inmates wore leg chains and worked in silence, manufacturing articles for the Vatican.[77]

At the beginning of the seventeenth century, criminals were not the only inmates in prisons. Families would often turn over uncontrollable or developmentally disabled relatives to prison keepers, paying their maintenance. Imprisonment in such cases, while cruel and immoral, demanded a new type of treatment. Authorities responded by establishing separate wards, creating a new type of confinement with separation from the outside world, rather than forced labor and confinement. Although the prisoners did not suffer complete solitude, their treatment foreshadowed the nineteenth century system of solitary confinement by separating a class of inmate from the general population. In the Dutch Republic, during the mid-seventeenth century, this new system gave rise to a different sort of prison in which the inmates performed no work at all. Institutions for the confinement of family "embarrassments" proliferated in eighteenth century France, where they were often managed by monastic orders. England had these private prisons as well, although admissions were mostly limited to the insane.[78]

[75] Johnston, *The Human Cage*, 75.
[76] Ibid.
[77] Ibid., 12.
[78] Ibid.

Prison Architecture

Although early structures for confinement were usually adaptations of other, existing building types, such as castle keeps or hospitals, the development of ordered concepts of incarceration demanded a specialized architectural environment. Architects of the ancient world (such as Vitruvius) had little interest in prisons. It was not until the Renaissance that architectural theory addressed the question of suitable prison architecture. A Spanish writer of the sixteenth century, for example, suggested: "The jail has to be formed out of rough stones in order to appear fearsome, but in such a manner that the prisoners are not deprived of the light in the sky...." Francesco Milizia, in his *Principi de architettura civile* (1785), set forth the now familiar principle that the form of a prison must go along with its purpose. Melancholy should be made visible in the architecture of the civil prisons, it was thought. In the institutions for the more serious offenders, the style should be heavier: "...high and thick walls with savage-like appendages which throw forth the most horrible shadows," "uninviting cavern-like entrance," and "frightful inscriptions." Everything, in short, must inspire "darkness, threatening, ruins, terror" which, the writer felt, would control crime among the citizens.[79]

And even as early as 1789 John Howard (1726-90, see below) had written in his book, *An Account of the Principal Lazarettos in Europe*, that "the new gaols, having pompous fronts, appear like palaces to the lower class of people in Ireland; and the same persons object to them in this account, especially those who are obliged to contribute towards their expense, and think it would be better if they were less commodious."[80] Howard's *Encyclopedia Londinensis* (London, 1826) expressed such a philosophy of design:

> The style of architecture of a prison is a matter of no slight importance. It offers an effectual method of exciting the imagination to a most desirable point of abhorrence. Persons, in general, refer their horror of a prison to an instinctive feeling rather than to any accurate knowledge of the privations or inflictions therein endured. And whoever remarks the forcible operation of such antipathies in the vulgar, will not neglect any means however minute, of directing them to a good purpose. The exterior of a prison should therefore, be formed in the heavy and sombre style, which most forcibly impresses the spectator with gloom and terror. Massive cornices, the absence of windows or other ornaments, small low doors and the whole structure comparatively low, seem to include nearly all the points necessary to produce the desired effect. Our own Newgate perhaps embodies these as perfectly as can be desired.[81]

Revolt against reason and formalism which characterized the Romantic Movement in literature as well as architecture found expression in the revival of various period styles in the nineteenth century: Gothic, Classical Greek and Roman, Italianate, and Tudor. Before 1790 it was still unusual to find a prison erected *as a prison*, and when it was, there was little inside or out to distinguish it from any other large building. However in the early nineteenth century architects

[79] Ibid. Architects experimented with different motifs as well as styles. The Kilmainham Prison of Dublin, opened in 1796, had a pair of coiled serpents above the doorway. George Dance's Newgate in London, erected in 1770 and rebuilt in 1784, had festooned chains above the main gate. (Johnston, *The Human Cage*, 27.)
[80] John Howard, *An Account of the Principal of Lazarettos in Europe* (London, 1789), 78.
[81] "Prisons," *Encyclopedia Londinensis*, Volume XXI (London, n.p., 1826), 421-2.

began using the Greek Revival. The Doric Order or a castellated style involving Gothic details were the most common choices, although more straightforward style were sometimes employed.

Toward the Modern Period

Prison Reform in the late 1700s

Incarceration was given its modern form in the late 1700s and early 1800s. Many of the developments that occurred in this period originated in England and had direct effects on, or sometimes parallel development with, the prisons in the newly established United States of America. The most enduring accomplishment of this period was the creation of the prison as a place apart from the world, characterized by the loss of personal freedom. Although prisoners were denied any control over their days, they suffered less physical punishments than before. Another enduring consequence of this period was that the general public became less familiar with the inside of the prison. Finally, the prison regimen was beginning to be under the control or influence of an emerging group of specialists who had studied these institutions and what their proper function should be.

From the sixteenth century onwards, an increasing number of petty offenders were placed in prisons in lieu of corporal and capital punishment or forced labor. Older places of confinement, meant to be used for limited periods of time, proved both too small and unhealthy for the numbers of prisoners generated by this policy. Holding prisoners in large rooms with little attempt to separate men from women, adults from children, hardened offenders from the more naive, or the sick from the healthy had a detrimental effect on the entire inmate population. Lack of heat, clean water, and sanitary facilities made for a harsh existence.[82] Architecturally these ordinary prisons showed no uniquely characteristic form. The larger prisons in London, Paris, Rome, and other European cities consisted only of a series of strong rooms and courts, with little attempt to separate different types of prisoners or to supervise them. Smaller prisons consisted of one or several large rooms and occasionally individual cells for troublesome inmates.[83] The operation of jails and prisons at that time was often a moneymaking operation for the official charged with maintenance. Often no government funds were provided to run these institutions, and prisoners were required either to pay their own keep, work at producing goods, or both.

The workhouses, local prisons, and houses of correction built in England and on the European continent during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries showed signs of extensive deterioration by the last half of the eighteenth century. Josiah Dornford, an English political radical described the plight of prisoners as victims of disease, hunger, and jailers' greed. In 1773 Parliamentary legislation displayed some sensitivity to these concerns, permitting magistrates to appoint salaried chaplains to jails. In 1774 magistrates were empowered to select surgeons to attend to the care of the prisoners.[84]

[82] Johnston, *The Human Cage,* 15.
[83] Ibid.
[84] Randall McGowen, "The Well-Ordered Prison," *The Oxford History of the Prison,* 86.

In 1776 Jonas Hanway, a philanthropic entrepreneur, published *Solitude In Imprisonment*. In it he describes that whatever the source of crime, the remedy lay in the isolation of the individual soul, and that only by becoming an individual could the convict discover the right principles to guide his life. Hanway emphasized the need for religion in the program of isolating institutions. Solitude also cut the offender off from a corrupt world, promoting the internalization of more exacting rules for regulating private conduct.[85]

Shortly thereafter, experiments toward these goals began at local prisons. The most significant effort undertaken was by the Duke of Richmond in the rebuilding the Sussex County jail at Horsham beginning in 1775. This reconstruction brought together many of the measures proposed by reformers. Solid in exterior appearance, the prison was built on arches to incorporate air circulation. Each prisoner had a separate cell equipped with a bed and blankets. Prisoners washed upon entrance and were given clean uniforms. Debtors were permitted a quart of strong beer or a pint of wine a day, but felons had only water to drink. The county abolished all fees and provided the jailer with a salary. A salaried chaplain was appointed to give a weekly sermon and daily prayers.[86]

Additional reform efforts led by John Howard developed in the 1780s, eventually spreading to the Continent and North America. Howard was a middle-aged English country gentleman when he was appointed sheriff of Bedfordshire. His responsibilities included overseeing the jail, which he found in appalling condition. Many prisoners were ill and rules went unobserved. Prisoners who had been acquitted were still confined because they could not pay the jailer's fees. He protested to the magistrate, who asked him to show that others counties were not dong the same thing. Howard subsequently began an investigation that took him to all the prisons in England, and later to other countries.

Howard was struck by the almost complete lack of supervision and control over prisoners. Shakedowns and assaults were common and hardened criminals freely corrupted the younger and more naive.[87] Howard detailed his observations in his *State of the Prisons in England and Wales* (1777).[88] It focused attention on the prison, which Howard treated as the single answer to punishment, with other forms either being inadequate or inappropriate.[89]

Howard traveled extensively, visiting all jails and prisons of Britain and significant institutions of confinement all over Europe, some as far away as Russia and southern Italy.[90] Conditions were usually no better than in England. Howard's visits occurred more than once: after the book of 1777, he published an appendix a few years later and a second book in 1789.[91]

[85] Ibid.
[86] Ibid.
[87] Johnston, *The Human Cage,* 16.
[88] Ibid.
[89] "The difference between Hanway and Howard was that the former concentrated on the offender and on constructing a regime appropriate to his moral condition, and Howard focused on what made for a healthy and efficient institution." (McGowan, "The Well-Ordered Prison," *The Oxford History of the Prison,* 86.) It was John Howard who coined the term "penitentiary."
[90] Pevsner, *A History of a Building Types,* 161.
[91] Ibid.

The movement that developed from Howard's book campaigned for the passage of the Penitentiary Act of 1779, written by William Blackstone[92] and William Eden with Howard's influential support. The Act included solitary confinement of inmates, religious instruction, and a labor regime. The Act also called for prisoners to wear uniforms and to be subjected to a coarse diet. Work was to be arduous and servile. Officials were to be paid a salary, but the Act's authors expected these costs to be recovered from the profits of the prison labor. However, the prisoners would enjoy a share of the earnings. The act called for a progressive class system in which prisoners could earn a remission of part of their sentence for good conduct and effort. Two prisons were to be built, one for men and the other for women. However, the committee, consisting of Howard, Quaker physician John Fothergill, and George Whately, treasurer of the Foundling Hospital, fell into disagreement as to the location of the buildings and support for the project waned. However, much activity followed at the county level, resulting in the rebuilding of approximately 45 prisons between the 1770s and the 1790s.[93]

Due to Howard's influence, more detailed attention to prison construction occurred than before. Although separating inmates into individual cells was seldom implemented due to cost factors, close surveillance by the guards and prison governors was often performed over the yards, workrooms, and living quarters. An elaborate system of classification separated inmates into various classes within the prison.[94]

The Rectangular Plan

In reaction to these reform movements, a number of different arrangements were worked out by architects, court officials, prison directors, and master builders and stone masons. Prison floor plans at that time fell into three main categories: the rectangular plan, based for the most part upon the older eighteenth century jails and earlier ecclesiastical buildings; the circular plan, including various polygonal arrays; and the radial plan, by far the most prevalent from 1790 onwards in Britain. Considerable impetus was given to innovation by the technology of the industrial and scientific revolutions. The increasing use of cast iron was of particular value to prison designers for use as bars, doors, door jambs, and even floors and walls. Because "bad smells" were associated with disease, central heating and ventilating and indoor plumbing found some of their first applications in the prisons of the period.[95]

Examples of the rectilinear plan included a hollow square, simple rectangles, or H-shape. These plans were superior to their predecessors in terms of both security and health. However, they seldom provided for proper separation of prisoners of various classes and their arrangement of

[92] Just as influential as Howard in accelerating prison change in England was the architect William Blackstone. He designed nineteen prisons and influenced the planning of many more. Blackstone believed that the use of space and stone could shape human nature, and that architecture could promote the goals of confinement. Geometry and symmetry dominated his designs, which pursued health, order, and equalization of conditions. It was believed that a rationally organized space would foster the development of reason and self-regulation of inmates. Blackstone's plans also sought to strengthen the position of the jailer within the prison by promoting inspection and observation of the inmates.

[93] McGowan, "The Well-Ordered Prison," *The Oxford History of the Prison*, 89.

[94] Johnston, *The Human Cage*, 17.

[95] Ibid., 17-18.

cells and workrooms made it impossible to properly observe the prisoners in the continuous fashion expected at that period. Another example of the rectilinear plan was the Milan House of Correction, built in the late 1750s or early 1760s. The general design combined elements of the plan of San Michele (Rome, 1704) with the traditional cross plans found in Italian churches and hospitals of the period. The T-shaped main building contained 120 sleeping rooms, about 9 by 8 feet in size, arranged along the outer walls on three levels and connected by galleries. One wing housed men, another wing housed boys, a third housed women, and the last was an infirmary. The prisoners worked in the large corridor between the cells, which measured 124 by 31 feet.[96]

The Radial Plan

Although England had rectilinear prisons, it was the cross form that predominated there, evolving into radial or star-shaped arrangements. The antecedents of cross-shaped prison plans include the work of Joseph Furtenbach, published in 1628 and 1635, which included plans for hospitals, arsenals, schools, and lazarettos (quarantined area) in cross forms. Aside from the Greek cross and X-shaped arrays, multiple wings radiating from a central hub were also seen in the design of "lunatic asylums" of the period.

The Maison de Force at Ackerghem outside Ghent, built from 1772 to 1775 under the initiation of Vicomte J. P. Vilain, was the first prison to be constructed upon a definitive treatment program and built in response to the unsettled economic and social conditions in Austrian Flanders. Designed by architects Malfaison and S.J. Kluchman, the principle behind the building was faith in "amélioration par éducation et travail." Vilain's prison was of the radial type, so designed for convenience of communication rather than the economics of the supervisor. It was in the form of a giant octagon, with eight trapezoid-shaped units fitting together, each completely self contained to allow for the separation of various classes of prisoners as well as to facilitate construction of the prison in stages as funds became available. Each unit was to have sleeping cells and workshops back to back, with similar facilities in adjacent units. The central octagonal court formed by the inner sides of various units was flanked by service facilities. Prisoners were to be separated by gender, age, degree of criminality, and length of sentence.[97] In spite of its later deterioration, the Maison de Force at Ghent was initially a highly original and advanced institution, both in terms of treatment and architecture.

The radial pattern of Ghent was an inspiration to many. In 1782, Sir John Soane submitted a design for a prison for men in the form of a demi-octagon, with ranges (another term for cellhouses or cellblocks) along two of the sides and in the middle three crosses, each arm forming two parallel cell blocks. Other prisons on the radially-based plan were Ipswich, Liverpool, and Dorchester prisons, designed by William Blackburn and all dating from the 1780s and 1790s.[98] The most influential radial prison was Millbank, built in 1813-1821 by Thomas

[96] Ibid., 13.

[97] Alfred Hopkins, *Prisons and Prison Buildings* (New York: Architectural Book Publishing Co., 1930), 8; Johnston, *The Human Cage*, 13.

[98] William Blackburn, London architect, friend and advisor to John Howard, might be considered the father of the radial prison plan. During the last 15 years of his life (d. 1790) he was responsible for the construction of 18 jails and prisons in Britain. Blackburn experimented with different arrangements of cell buildings around a centrally-placed governor's house: fan shaped arrays, Greek crosses, a central hall flanked by two wings, a polygonal building in a half circle around the governor's house, etc. The first cruciform jail in Britain was probably his Suffolk

Hardwick, John Harvey, and Robert Smirke, based on a design by William Williams. This institution grouped the cellblocks on the exterior walls of a pentagon, rather than on radiating arms. Pentonville, built in 1840-1842 by Sir Joshua Jebb, Surveyor General of Prisons and author of the book *Notes on the Construction and Ventilation of Prisons* (1844); and Holloway, built in 1849-1852 by Bunning. H. Mayhew and J. Binny, were the most well known of the London prisons.[99] In 1826, *Fifth Report of the Inspectors General on the Prisons of Ireland* was published, which stated "...we consider the advantage of the radiating plan to be now so completely established in preference to those of any other, that we should not feel ourselves justified in reporting favorably on a proposed plan of a new county goal founded on any other principle."[100]

Between 1780 and 1840, the London Society for the Improvement of Prison Discipline, the chief lobbying group for prison development, continued to publish many books and pamphlets on prison reform. Their printed materials, along with similar publications from other countries, contained careful descriptions and detailed plans of existing institutions as well as conceptual model plans.

The Panopticon

The most forceful exponent of the circular form for prisons was the eighteenth century criminal law reformer, social philosopher, and political economist Jeremy Bentham. His direct inspiration for a circular prison developed from a trip he made to Russia in 1781 to visit his brother, Samuel, an engineer in the service of Prince Potemkin, prime minister of Catherine the Great. Samuel was constructing a circular textile mill, so arranged that the workers could be observed by supervisors in the center whom they could not see. Jeremy Bentham tried for 20 years to convince the British government to allow him to build and manage a proposed circular penitentiary. However, King George III never permitted the prison to be built.[101] Bentham's scheme consisted of a very large circular building of cast iron and glass containing cells on several tiers around the periphery. The cells were to have barred fronts, and were to be heated in winter and artificially cooled in summer by means of air forced over ice and directed through flues into the cells. Speaking tubes would connect each cell with the keeper's tower in the center.

County Jail at Ipswich (1784-1790), which was also the first such type whose plan permitted visual inspection of corridors from a central vantage point. Blackburn's Suffolk house of corrections at Bury St. Edmunds (1803-1805) had radiating wings joined to the center on the uppers floors by means of cast iron bridges. The keeper's house was in the center for surveillance, but the interior of the wings could only be seen by looking in the peepholes at the near ends of the cellblocks. Generally, different classes of prisoners were kept in different blocks. As the cell wings were characteristically divided by a wall down the middle, quite elaborate systems of classification and separation of prisoners were possible. Some of these early radial prisons were laid out in complicated fashion, largely to accommodate larger numbers of prisoners. The county jail and penitentiary for Kent at Maidstone (1816-1818) consisted of four clusters with either three or four wings radiating from a hub, with a total number of 15 wings. Each wing had a dividing wall down the middle, creating 30 divisions to hold various types of prisoners. (Johnston, *The Human Cage*, 23-25.) After 1800 the radial plan was used for insane asylums.

[99] Pevsner, *A History of Building Types*, 163. Additional radial prisons in France, Germany, Switzerland, and Italy are described in Pevsner, *A History of a Building Type*, 166.

[100] Johnston, *The Human Cage*, 25.

[101] For a study of Bentham's failed 20 year attempt to promote the construction of a panopticon cellhouse, see Janet Semple, *Bentham's Prison: A Study of the Panopticon Penitentiary* (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1993).

By these means the keeper in his louvred tower could carry out continuous and unseen surveillance, both visual and auditory, over the inmates.[102] Although the panopticon penitentiary was never erected in Britain, several circular institutions were later built in Spain (1852), at three locations in Holland (1880s), in the United States (Stateville, near Joliet, Illinois; 1916-1932), and in Cuba (Isle of Pines; 1925-1930).

A large number of semicircular prisons were built in Ireland, Scotland, England, and several on the European continent in the 30 years following the Panopticon proposal. In most cases, these were either directly or indirectly influenced by Bentham's efforts. The D-shaped Edinburgh House of Correction contained 129 "sleeping closets" and 52 much larger "working cages." At the center of the half circle was a "dark apartment...from which the governor or his deputy without being themselves visible, can see at a glance what is doing in all parts of the house."[103]

In the United States two early examples of modified panopticons illustrate the difficulties of achieving good visual surveillance. In 1797, Benjamin Henry Latrobe began supervising construction of the semi-circular gaol of Richmond, Virginia, for which Thomas Jefferson had submitted designs accompanied by Pierre-Gabriel Bugniet's plan of 1765. Jefferson supported Bugniet's design because it was cellularized, and Jefferson believed in the principle of solitary confinement, as he indeed called it. Opened in 1800, the prison was horseshoe-shaped, with cells opening onto covered arcades on four levels. Originally a wall joined the two ends of the horseshoe, with a warden's house in the center.[104] The second institution was William Strickland's Western Penitentiary designed in 1819 and erected outside Pittsburgh, opening in 1826. The architect, who was trained by Latrobe, built a ring-like structure with cells back to back opening into covered arcades. The inner yard of the prison was not roofed over and was divided by walls into smaller areas in such a way that neither range of cells could be properly observed. In addition the cells were totally inadequate for solitary confinement and work, so that the whole structure had to be torn down seven years after its opening.[105]

The Progress of Reform in England

For the two decades after the death of John Howard, the leading advocate of prison reform was George Onesiphorus Paul, son of a successful clothier. After the death of his father he settled down to enjoy the status of a landed gentleman. Frustrated by his failures to gain election to Parliament he turned to prison reform and proposed an ambitious platform of a phased imprisonment system, with the first third of a sentence passed in solitude. In 1785 Parliament approved this plan and secured designs by William Blackstone to build new facilities in Gloucester. Opening in 1792, it housed some 400 prisoners at a cost of £46,000. In 1792 Paul summarized the main ambition of his program: "Their clothing is comfortable, yet humiliating, secluded from the society of their friends, they are daily visited by gentlemen attentive to life

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[102] Johnston, *The Human Cage*, 19. The twentieth century cell buildings and dining room at the Illinois Penitentiary near Joliet, and the model prison on the Isle of Pines off Cuba were faithful reproductions of Bentham's plan but on a larger scale. (Johnston, *The Human Cage*, 21.)

[103] Ibid., 21.

[104] Ibid.

[105] Ibid.

and health, whilst the use of money is denied and, by this denial, every means of luxury, or partial indulgence, and of corruption, is prevented."[106]

The prison government that Paul proposed was organized around a governor with military experience, who would be responsible for record keeping, inspecting prisoners, and disciplining subordinates. The officers of the prison would have no interest in the fees or profits. The prison chaplain would be given independent authority to report on the governor's conduct, and a committee of justice would be responsible for visiting the prison three times a quarter.[107]

The criminal codes were often inconsistent, imposing death for a wide range of offenses. In 1808, Samuel Romilly inaugurated a campaign to improve criminal law procedures by determining alternative punishments to the death penalty. His proposals met with heated opposition, since more conservative government leaders held onto the concept of the death penalty as a deterrent.[108] In 1810, Romilly proposed that Parliament resurrect the Penitentiary Act of 1779. Parliament responded by appointing a committee to study the implications of reform. Called the Holford Committee, it consulted Paul and Bentham and others who had proposed reforms.[109] The committee's findings supported many of the reforms proposed.

Several religiously committed Quakers were the next persons to take a leading role in prison reform. William Allen, a London pharmaceutical proprietor, and fellow Quaker Elizabeth Fry, campaigned for a wider role for religion in prisons.[110] One of the most successful Quaker efforts was the establishment in 1816 of the Society for the Improvement of Prison Discipline. Rather than focusing their concerns on the prisoners alone, the society examined the practical arrangements of institutions. Committee members visited prisons and collected information for reports. They lobbied for the adoption of a radial design for prisons, a design that promised not only a rational organization of space but also the fullest measure of inspection of the inmate population. Society members advocated the tread wheel, a device introduced in the 1820s to occupy the time of inmates. On the wheel inmates would crawl or walk to propel either machinery or nothing at all.[111]

By the 1830s, English prison policy was again in crisis. In 1820, some 13,700 people had been incarcerated. By 1840, however, the number had nearly doubled with a total of 27,200.[112] Seeking to explain the failure of traditional systems, prison reformers pointed to the inadequately reformed prison as the source of trouble. The prisoners were still too free to communicate among themselves, they reasoned. Critics complained that the classification system, separating prisoners into different groups according to their crimes, had failed to prevent the influencing of less experienced offenders by hardened criminals. The answer to this was to impose a regime of silence. If prisoners could be prevented from communicating, they would be less resistant to the

[106] McGowan, "The Well-Ordered Prison," *The Oxford History of the Prison*, 91.
[107] Ibid., 92.
[108] Ibid., 93.
[109] Ibid., 94.
[110] Ibid.
[111] By 1824, some 54 prisons had adopted the mechanism. The tread wheel had many virtues in the eyes of the society. It could be operated by the uneducated and provided a prisoner with exercise.
[112] McGowan, "The Well-Ordered Prison," *The Oxford History of the Prison*, 94.

regime intended to reform them and less able to seduce others to continue committing crimes after their release.[113]

In 1834 William Crawford of the Society published a report that surveyed the two systems of prison discipline being used in the United States: the silent and the separate systems. In the silent system at Auburn, New York, prisoners worked together but with a silence reinforced by punishments for those who violated the rule. The separate system, utilized at Eastern State Penitentiary in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania (see below), attracted enthusiastic supporters in the 1830s. It isolated convicts in cells, so that they would commune with their own conscience. The prison architecture prevented communication between inmates in their cells and limited their glimpses of the outside world. Separation was thought to prepare inmates to receive messages offered by the chaplain.

In 1842, Pentonville Prison was opened in England. It utilized the separate system, influencing many local prisons in the decades that followed. Pentonville held 520 prisoners in separate cells configured with four wings radiating out from the central point from which one could observe each cell door, similar to Eastern State Penitentiary. The construction of the walls hindered communication between prisoners and even the guards wore padded shoes so that they would not disturb the silence. The guards were forbidden to talk to the convicts. Each cell was exactly the same: 13 feet deep by 7 feet wide by 9 feet high. Prisoners wore hoods when outside of their cells. Numbers replaced their names. Even in the chapel and exercise yard they had separate stalls. All of these features sought to lessen the convicts' sense of individuality.[114]

A further development of the separate system was the progressive stage system. The first stage consisted of a term of separate confinement, although there was little agreement about its purpose or length.[115] During the second stage the prisoners were sent to public works prisons, where they worked together at hard labor, building breakwaters, fortifications, or reclaiming moorland. The third stage involved the most controversy, offering conditional release to convicts based on their good conduct. In order to implement this system, facilities were constructed at Portland, Dartmoor, Portsmouth, and Chatham between 1847 and 1856.[116]

In the 1850s, advocates of more severe treatment of prisoners expressed complaints about the developing prison reforms. Such sentiments dominated the proceedings of the Carnarvon Committee of the House of Lords in Parliament. Appointed in 1863 to reexamine the question of discipline in local prisons, the committee was composed of politicians who were incensed by what they saw as convict "indulgence." They continued to believe that the physical shape and mass of the prison building would significantly reduce crime. The members bemoaned the "many and wide differences, as regards construction, labor, diet and general discipline," existing in "the various Gaols and Houses of Correction in England and Wales, leading to an inequality, uncertainty, and inefficiency in punishment, productive of the most prejudicial results." They

[113] Ibid.
[114] Ibid., 101.
[115] Complaints about the effects of separation on the prisoner's sanity led to a reduction of the term from eighteen to twelve and eventually nine months.
[116] Ibid., 102-3.

demanded closer procedural observations and more centralization. The committee maintained that prisons failed to inspire reform because criminals could not truly be reformed. Consistent with this pessimism, the committee was critical of efforts to apply industrial labor or education to the penal regime. They insisted that only confinement could achieve the central goal of all punishment, deterrence. They applauded the separate system for this reason. Standards needed to be developed for England's prisons, they thought, and good behavior should not be utilized as a standard since it could create a false sense of reform in convicts.[117]

English prison buildings in the mid-to latter 1800s were distinctive in many ways. Described as being offensive in smell, unheated and damp, and silent, the application of the separation system made it difficult to move large groups of inmates, as with weekly chapel attendance.[118] New prisoners, given a bath in foul water, a haircut, clothed in coarse, ill fitting uniforms, and assigned a number in place of their name, felt demeaned and humiliated. They had little right of privacy, reinforced by the presence of spy holes in the each cell door. One of the main aims of the reformed prison system was to render prisoners passive so that their characters could be reshaped. But the natural reaction of most convicts was to openly challenge the regimen. They received as punishment beatings or rationing of food to break their spirit.

Prisons Outside the Unites States: A Brief Postscript

Prisons and prison architecture continued to develop in Europe and elsewhere in the latter nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. European criminal justice systems introduced non-custodial systems of punishment in the 1880s and 1890s, including suspended sentencing and probation; this led to a reduction in the overall prison population. But parallel with this, repeat offenders were often subject to harsher punishments, such as the French penal colonies in New Caledonia and French Guyana (including the legendary "Devils Island" penal colony).

The twentieth century brought continued reform and experiments with alternative punishments, but because of horrific political development it also brought confinement of individuals perceived as enemies of the state, resulting in the gulag, internment camp, concentration camp, and the ultimate expression of mechanized inhumanity – the death camp. In the post-World War II era, the United Nations established standards of inmate confinement, including the "Minimum Rules for the Treatment of Prisoners" of 1955. European prisons in the contemporary era have sought to apply treatment, not punishment, as the ultimate goal of confinement institutions. However, prisons elsewhere in the world have yet to achieve even the most basic reforms. In this and many other respects, prisons in other parts of the world barely resemble those in the United States.

[117] Ibid., 104.
[118] Ibid., 105.

United States

Criminal Punishment in the Colonies

The American colonists were keenly apprehensive about criminal behavior, including a wide range of conduct from sinful actions (idolatry, blasphemy, and witchcraft) and social transgressions (theft, arson, and murder). However, they saw no way to eliminate crime from their society. From their perspective, crime reflected on the human condition. They believed that men were born in sin and did not come to sinful behavior through any basic flaws in social order.

The most popular sanctions when crimes did occur in the Colonies included fines, whippings, mechanisms of shame (the stock and the public cage), banishment, and for capital crimes, the gallows. Fines worked as long as the offender had property. The whip and other corporal punishments were more elementary and often complemented the fine. The advantages of the whip lay with its cheapness, its speed, and its effect upon those without property. Notions of cruel and unusual punishment had yet to be defined in the new American Colonies. The stocks and other mechanisms of public display worked well as a mechanism of shame. The colonists used several similar mechanisms. Another punishment was branding with a letter imprinted or worn to signify the offense. Deterrence was the primary goal in dispensing these punishments.[119]

Capital crimes were defined broadly because capital punishment had to compensate for the lack of long term development. For example, in 1736 the Massachusetts assembly ordered that a thief, on first conviction, be fined or whipped. The second time he was to pay extensive damages, sit for an hour upon the gallows platform with a noose around his neck, and then be carted to the whipping post for thirty stripes. For the third offense, he was to be hung.

Local jails were established throughout the Colonies from the beginning. Some towns located them in part of the courthouse building; others erected a separate structure. But regardless of form, these institutions had only limited functions. They held persons about to be tried, awaiting sentencing, or unable to discharge contracted debts. They did not, however, except on rare occasions, confine convicted offenders as a means of correction for a long period of time. They did not expand in function during the course of the eighteenth century to become a method of penalizing as well as detaining offenders.

Eighteenth century jails in fact closely resembled the household in structure and routine. They lacked a distinct architecture and special procedures. When the Virginia burgess required that county prisons be "good, strong, and substantial," and explicitly recommended that they follow "after the form of Virginia housing," results were in keeping with these directions. The doors were perhaps somewhat sturdier, the locks slightly more impressive, but the general design of the jail was the same as for an ordinary residence. True to the household model, the keeper and his family resided in the jail, occupying one of its rooms; the prisoners lived several together in the others, with little to differentiate the keeper's quarters from their own. They wore no special clothing or uniforms and usually neither cuffs nor chains restrained their movement. Security in these local jails was impossible to maintain, and escapes were easy and frequent.[120]

[119] David J. Rothman, "Perfecting The Prison," *The Oxford History of the Prison,* 113.
[120] Rothman, *The Discovery of the Asylum,* 55.

The development of coherent philosophies of imprisonment occurred in Quaker Pennsylvania, whose settlers pressed for ongoing penal reform. The first prison of any consequence to come from their efforts was the Walnut Street Jail, opened in 1776..[121] It had seventeen bays, a projecting center bay with a pediment, and a cupola. The Georgian architecture of the institution was similar to that used for hospitals and poorhouses.

In 1776, a group of Quakers formed an association, entitled the Philadelphia Society for Assisting Distressed Prisoners, for the purpose of improving the living conditions of the debtors and accused persons confined in the jail at Third and High Streets. Although they disbanded during the Revolutionary War, the society was reorganized as the Philadelphia Society for Alleviating the Miseries of Public Prisons in 1787.[122] By 1795 the Society had secured the abolition of barbarous criminal laws of Pennsylvania and the substitution of imprisonment for corporal or capital punishment for all crimes except murder. This necessitated the establishment of new prisons to confine convicted offenders. The Quakers had derived their doctrines of reform from proposals of William Penn and his associates and also from correspondence with John Howard and other contemporary European reformers.[123] The Society urged the Pennsylvania legislature that "solitary confinement, hard labor and abstinence from spirituous liquors proved the means of reforming these unhappy creatures."[124]

Further developments occurred in the aftermath of the Revolutionary War. As Benjamin Rush, the Pennsylvania physician and signer of the Declaration of Independence, argued:

> Capital punishments are the natural offspring of monarchial governments...Kings consider their subjects as their property; no wonder, therefore, they shed their blood with as little emotion as men shed blood of their sheep or cattle. But the principles of the republican governments speak a different language....An execution in a republic is like a human sacrifice in religion.[125]

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[121] Johnston, *The Human Cage,* 29. In 1790 the legislature ordered the erection of a cellhouse in the yard of the Walnut Street jail for the solitary confinement of men convicted of felonies, designating the old building for the separate detention of suspects, witnesses, and misdemeanants. The act directed the Walnut Street jail authorities to receive convicts from other counties until similar provisions could be made in their jails, thus providing a state prison without committing the legislature to that policy. The act further stipulated that labor should be provided in the several departments and that a rigid discipline should be maintained; more surprising was the authority given the sentencing court to release a convict before the end of his term in case an investigation revealed that he had been reformed. The Society supplied Bibles, religious counsel and instruction to the inmates. (Blake McKelvey, *American Prisons, A Study in American Social History Prior to 1915* (Montclair, New Jersey: Patterson Smith, 1936), 6.)

[122] Robert Jerin, "Pennsylvania Prison Society," *Encyclopedia of American Prisons,* ed. Marilyn D. McShane and Frank P. Williams III, Volume 1748 of the Garland Reference Library of the Humanities (New York: Garland Publishing, Inc., 1996), 350.

[123] Andrew A. Bruce, Albert J. Harno, Ernest W. Burgess, and John Landesco, *The Workings of the Intermediate-Sentence Law and the Parole System in Illinois* (1928, reprint Montclair, New Jersey: Patterson Smith, 1968), 24. This document was also referred to as the Clabaugh Commission report, for Hinton G. Clabaugh, Chairman of the Parole Board of Illinois in 1928. Ernest Burgess was a professor at the University of Chicago.

[124] H.E. Barnes, *The Evolution of Penology in Pennsylvania* (Indianapolis, N.p., 1927), 82.

[125] David J. Rothman, "Perfecting The Prison," *The Oxford History of the Prison,* 114.

The Program of Incarceration

The importance of a program of incarceration, removing the deviant from society, had come to be acknowledged. Some supporters believed that the strong deterrent of isolation and silence would decrease crime. Earlier structures, erected soon after the Revolution, had operated in a very ad hoc fashion. Little energy had been devoted to internal prison arrangements. The focus at this time was the legal system itself, not the physical architecture. The architecture of the institutions still commonly followed the model of the household.

Prisons were the responsibility of the individual states. One of the first acts of Congress encouraged the states to pass laws providing for the incarceration of offenders of both state and federal laws in state institutions. The Walnut Street Jail in Philadelphia, modified to serve as America's first penitentiary in 1790, was copied in such cities as New York.[126] The New Jersey Prison in Trenton, opened in 1798, was a typical two storied home complete with a columned doorway, and distinguished from a private residence only by a low wall enclosing a courtyard. Virginia and Kentucky completed their prisons in 1800, the same year Massachusetts made an appropriation for a prison at Charlestown. Vermont, New Hampshire, and Maryland added prisons soon thereafter.

For the most part, prisoners still lived together in large rooms and took their meals in one common dining area. They mingled freely without restrictions, and institutional life remained casual, undisciplined, and irregular. Occasionally, prison officers instituted a new procedure to extend the security of the institution. In 1790, convicts began to wear uniforms for the first time to render it more difficult for an escaped inmate to disappear into a town. Maryland and New Jersey prisons relied upon a coarse brown suit; Massachusetts, devised one that was half red and half blue; and New York compromised with coarse brown for the first offense, red and blue for the second. The focus on recapture pointed to the expectations as well as reality of frequent escapes.[127]

One of the first departures from the household model of prison design occurred in Massachusetts, where in 1800 architects carefully constructed a building to provide maximum security. The Board of Visitors to the Charlestown prison was pleased with the results, especially with the high wall of hard flint stone that surrounded the structure and an arrangement that fronted two sides of the building on water. Other states lacked these sensibilities, however, such as in to in Connecticut, where an abandoned copper mine was selected for use as a state prison in 1790. Prisoners served their sentences in slime covered caverns with water dripping from the ceilings.[128]

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[126] Ibid., 120.

[127] For the chaotic conditions in the first prisons, see Harry E. Barnes, *Penal Institutions in New Jersey*, 402-19, and Negley Teeters, *The Cradle of the Penitentiary*, 105-6. See also Orlando Lewis, *The Development of American Prisons*, 48, 58, 71-3, which includes a description of uniforms.

[128] *Board of Visitors, An Account of the Massachusetts State Prison* (Charleston, Massachusetts, 1806), 4; *Report of the Committee Appointed by the Legislature of Connecticut, to Inspect the Condition of Newgate Prison* (Hartford, Connecticut, 1825) 4-18.

By its very nature, longer prison terms led to unprecedented expenses for feeding and clothing convicts. Discipline was a problem too, especially for inmates held for long periods of time that had grown used to traditional methods of coercion to bring them into line. Also, some kind of daily activity was necessary, for otherwise inmates might come to suffer physical or perhaps emotional disability. Some activity was centered around work, and this was a pragmatic way to keep prisoners busy while reimbursing the state for the growing costs of confinement. Moreover, it helped to differentiate the prison from the almshouse, making it less of a "rest home" between arrests. Some students of crime declared that the routine of labor might serve to rehabilitate the offender, transforming him into a hard working citizen. Quaker reformers in Pennsylvania especially embraced this prospect. But most officials were simply interested in saving the state some money, occupying the inmates' time, and making clear that the incarceration was a punishment.[129]

The 1800s: The Pennsylvania and Auburn Systems

Influenced by trends in England, officials at the turn of the century determined that the great mistake of the prisons of the eighteenth century had been their failure to isolate inmates. They also sought to organize or supervise the prisoners' immediate surroundings. As a result of this thinking, prison architecture and arrangements became the central concern of reformers of the nineteenth century. They turned their attention to the division of time and space within the institution. The layout of cells, the methods of labor, and the manner of eating and sleeping within the penitentiary were the crucial issues.

Nineteenth century America reasoned that a rational, certain, and humane system of punishment would deter all but a handful of offenders. They had higher regard for the laws and system of justice developed in the new United States than those used in the Colonial period, most of which had originated from British law.[130] In avoidance of the death sentence, longer prison terms were the answer, and the penitentiary the physical embodiment of this movement. Most of the states revised their criminal codes in compliance with these views, so that by 1820 practically all had abolished the death sentence except for the crime of first degree murder or had strictly limited it to a handful of the most serious crimes.[131]

The penitentiary was viewed as useful to a variety of interested groups. Prosecutors supported it because they thought that juries would be less hesitant to convict the guilty if jury members knew that a prison sentence, not capital punishment, awaited the convicted. Reformers advocated confinement because of its rehabilitative potential. The appeal of the prison was so diffused through the society that to identify a single group of proponents would deny other members of the coalition that backed it.

In 1821, the state of Pennsylvania authorized a new penitentiary for the Eastern District of Pennsylvania. John Haviland, a young Englishman recently arrived in the United States and a pupil of James Elmes, was selected by the Philadelphia reformers to design the building. Haviland was well trained but had at that time only a passing interest in prisons. He selected a

[129] Rothman, *The Discovery of the Asylum*, 92.
[130] Rothman, "Perfecting The Prison," *The Oxford History of the Prison*, 115.
[131] Ibid.

radial design for the prison, which in its original conception was similar to the county jails that Haviland must have been familiar with in his native country. In his personal papers Haviland described the original center building as containing cells, laundry, bakery, and a chapel. However, before the building was finished, he made important modifications, utilizing for the first time the real potential for surveillance of the hub-and-spoke or radial layout.[132]

The Eastern State Penitentiary (or Cherry Hill, as it was called for a period of time) opened in 1829. When completed several years later, it contained seven wings radiating from a central rotunda. First floor cells had individual exercise yards. The cells, which were of generous proportions (8 by 12 by 10 feet high) contained hot water heating, a water tap, and toilet. Haviland gave careful attention to details: floor paving stones were joined at points inaccessible to prisoners, and the entire array of cells was visible from a central watch tower. The design focused on the prevention of illicit communication between prisoners; ventilation, heating, and plumbing systems; and created standards seldom equaled in prisons during the remainder of the nineteenth century.

The Building Commissioner for Cherry Hill mandated that "the exterior of a solitary prison should exhibit as much as possible great strength and convey to the mind a cheerful blank indicative of the misery which awaits the unhappy being who enters within its wall." In the context of such a philosophy, Haviland turned to the style of contemporary English prisons, giving the new building a heavy and gloomy Gothic Revival, but less elaborate and fussy than those found in most European and American examples of the style.[133] It was simple, restrained, and most of all massive.

The approach developed at Eastern State Penitentiary came to be known as the Pennsylvania System. Prisoners were to remain in their cells during their entire sentence except for serious illness.[134] Guards effectively prevented communication between convicts day and night. Hoods were placed over the heads of newcomers so that as they walked to their cells they would not see or be seen by anyone. Over the course of their sentences, inmates were given only a Bible and were not allowed to correspond with friends. They were given work in their cells (spinning was one common activity), with the expectation that through this treatment they would learn steady habits and discipline. They would be released to the community cured of vice and idleness and ready to take their places as law abiding citizens. Given the promise of reform, legislators readily

[132] Two other Haviland prisons included the reconstructed Western Penitentiary at Pittsburgh and the New Jersey State Prison at Trenton, both erected in the 1830s. Pittsburgh was designed with a V-shape plan with an inspection room at the apex. The New Jersey State Prison plan consisted of five wings radiating from the inspection room in a half circle radial pattern. This design embodied improvements over Cherry Hill, such as detached exercise yards, cell doors into the corridors, and two-story wings, although Cherry Hill was the most widely imitated.
[133] True Gothic Revival was rare in prison design. Norman was popular in England, e.g., a design of Sir John Soane's (1782), John Wightman's Walton Gaol at Liverpool (1848-1855), Waterhouse's Manchester (Strangeways) Prison (1866-1868). Egyptian was accepted in the United States, e.g., Moyamensing, the Philadelphia County Prison, started in the Gothic Revival style by T. U. Walter in 1829 but enlarged and modified to the Egyptian Exotic style by the same architect in 1831; Haviland's New Jersey State Prison at Trenton (1833-1836); and the Tombs in New York (1834-1838), a combined law courts and prison, also by Haviland. Charles Dickens called the Tombs "a dismal-fronted pile of bastard Egyptian." (Pevsner, *A History of a Building Type*, 167.)
[134] Johnston, *The Human Cage*, 30.

appropriated the funds for construction, and when more cells were needed, they made the funds available.[135] Perhaps even more important, prison wardens and guards were fully prepared to punish, and harshly punish, any inmate who broke the rules.

When erected Eastern State Penitentiary was the largest and most expensive structure of any kind in America. Its dramatic architecture and regimen of solitary confinement night and day became the subject of endless arguments, especially with the partisans of a rival system being developed in New York and Massachusetts.[136]

In an effort to relieve overcrowding in the old state prison on Greenwich Street in New York City, the state of New York began constructing a new prison at Auburn in 1816. The original wing was arranged according to the congregate system with rooms holding from two to ten prisoners. Following its opening there was considerable disorder and rioting. Consequently, subsequent construction of a new cellblock followed the Pennsylvania System but with some important alterations. Seeking economy, the building contractor erected small inside cells measuring 7'-6" by 3'-8" by 7 feet high, arranged back to back on five tiers in the center of a long cell building. Cell doors opened onto galleries facing a 9 foot wide space open from the ground level to the ceiling. The wing was heated by stoves placed in the tall corridors and ventilated with ducts through which the prisoners communicated easily. In an effort to repress all forms of communication John Cray, one of the men in control at the prison, devised a severe discipline which included such regulations as downcast eyes, lockstep marching, no prisoners ever meeting face to face, no talking, and constant activity when out of the cells.[137]

A commission also devised a plan employing a threefold system of classification, assigning inmates to one of three programs. The first group, the least serious criminals, was to work in silence in the prison shop during the day and be confined in separate cells at night. A second group, the more serious and hardened criminals, was to be confined in solitary cells, until there was evidence of their repentance. These prisoners were then kept in solitary at night and

[135] More cell blocks were added, eventually filling much of the walled enclosure.
[136] Haviland's prisons had some influence on other American prison architecture although the rival Auburn System prevented the Pennsylvania System from dominating prison development. The radial plan was used in a handful of other nineteenth century American institutions, e.g., the Philadelphia County Prison at Holmesburg (1895-1896), Rahway Reformatory, New Jersey, and the Federal Penitentiary at Leavenworth, Kansas (1896-1928). However, radial layouts became the prototypes for most of the prison buildings throughout the rest of the world during the nineteenth century. Soon after the first three cell blocks were completed at Eastern State Penitentiary and as New Jersey State Prison (Trenton) was being built, the governments of Britain, France, Prussia, Russia, Belgium and several other nations sent representatives to evaluate the rival American experiments. Among these was Alexis do Tocqueville, who was sent by the French government in 1831 to study the American prison system but ended up writing his landmark study *Democracy in America* (1835). Almost without exception, their reports favored the Pennsylvania System of solitary confinement and its associated architecture. The high quality of architecture provided by Haviland was one of the factors in the system's widespread acceptance.
[137] McKelvey, *American Prisons*, 8. Lockstep was a combination of march and shuffle that was unique to American prisons. Prisoners were formed in close order and single file, each looking over the shoulder of the man in front, faces turned to the right, and feet moving in unison. With the prisoners' head pointed to the right, guards could make certain that no one carried on a conversation. The lockstep promoted discipline and limit movement, lending greater ability for two or three guards to move a group of inmates.

permitted to work there during the day. The third group, vicious and hardened criminals, was to be confined in their cells without labor.[138]

The experiment in solitary confinement lasted only three years and was abandoned because of the devastating effect it had on the physical and mental health of the prisoners. The tiny cells were inadequate for work, there were no exercise yards, and no outside visitors were permitted. A new warden, Elam Lynds, subsequently worked out what came to be known as the Auburn System, consisting of congregate work in silence in the daytime in workshops, coupled with solitary confinement in sleeping cells at night.

In 1825 prisoners arrived in leg shackles from Auburn at a site on the Hudson River at Ossining, New York, to construct a new prison later to be known as Sing Sing utilizing this plan entirely. The plan was similar to the one at Auburn, with tiny cells back-to-back on five tiers and stairways at each end and the center of the cellblocks. Cell doors were iron with grillework in the upper portion, and they were fastened with gang locks. Each cell received a small amount of light from a tiny window located nine feet away in the outer wall opposite the cell door. The cells were extremely damp, dark, and poorly ventilated, and like those at Auburn, contained no toilet facilities except buckets. The East House, which alone contained 1,000 cells and continued in use until 1943, was to become the prototype for most American prison cellhouse construction.[139]

From the perspective of the Pennsylvania System supporters, the Auburn System was an incomplete and inconsistent version of their own plan. It tempted prisoners to communicate, forbidding conversation but placing them next to each other at meals and at work. Inevitably, guards would be forced to punish those prisoners who broke the silence, giving the congregate institutions an atmosphere of cruelty and corruption.[140] The Pennsylvania System, by contrast, was thought to be more humane, secure, ordered, and ultimately successful.

Auburn supporters responded not by defending their own position but by finding flaws in the Pennsylvania arrangements. Supporters argued that the Pennsylvania System was impractical, citing the difficulty of feeding and employing hundreds of inmates in the individual cells. They contended that the walls at the Pennsylvania were not thick enough to prevent conversation. Auburn proponents also insisted that total isolation was so unnatural that it literally drove prisoners mad. Perhaps most important, they maintained that the Auburn System was considerably less expensive to build and maintain and that prison labor in congregate workshops would bring greater returns to the state.[141]

[138] O.F. Lewis, *The Development of American Prison Customs, 1776-1845* (1922, reprint, Montclair, New Jersey, Patterson Smith, 1967), n.p.
[139] Johnston, *The Human Cage*, 40.
[140] Sing Sing was known for its severe discipline, while other institutions used corporal punishment only to maintain order rather than for its own sake. The whip was used in New York, Massachusetts, and Ohio. Pennsylvania silenced inmates by tying an iron gage over their mouths. Maine used the ball and chain. Out of the rehabilitative ideal, certain treatments were found to be acceptable since they were thought to promote obedience, which was the first step toward reformation. (Rothman, "Perfecting the Prison," *The Oxford History of the Prison*, 121.)
[141] Ibid., 119.

The very intensity of the debate, as well as the shared premise that criminals could be rehabilitated, made prison reform a central concern for state legislatures in the antebellum period. One after the other, they appropriated the considerable funds necessary to construct or renovate penitentiaries. In the late 1820s, Maryland erected a new facility at Baltimore. Illinois began constructed its' first prison in 1827, although it was not until 1860 with the opening of the prison in Joliet that Illinois had a viable state prison. In the 1830s, New Jersey, Ohio, and Michigan constructed their state prisons, and in the 1840s, so did Indiana, Wisconsin, and Minnesota. Almost all the states adopted the Auburn plan, eager to realize the rehabilitative influence of the prison without incurring the greater costs required by the Pennsylvania System.

The advocates for both plans were committed to the rehabilitative potential of the prison and were convinced that the routines imposed on the inmate would transform him into a law abiding citizen. Reform, not deterrence, became the aim of incarceration. The shared assumption was that the convict was not innately depraved but had failed to be trained to obedience by family, church, school, or community, and could be redeemed by the well ordered routine of the prison. The penitentiary would succeed precisely where other community institutions had failed. To fulfill this mandate, prison reformers focused their attention on the divisions of time and space within the facilities. The most influential benevolent organization devoted to criminal reform, the Boston Prison Discipline Society, appropriately considered architecture one of the most important of the moral sciences. The Society announced:

> There are principles in architecture, by the observance of which great moral changes can be more easily produced among the most abandoned of our race....There is such a thing as architecture adapted to morals; that other things being equal, the prospect of improvement, in morals, depends, in some degree, upon the construction of buildings.[142]

In fact, these reformers hoped that the solutions they devised to prison design problems would be relevant to the wider society. They talked about the penitentiary as serving as a model for the family and the school.

The daily routine of prison life followed a military style regimen. Following the sound of a horn or bell, guards opened cells and prisoners marched in lockstep for the remainder of their movement throughout the day. After emptying and washing their night pails, they moved to shops where they worked at tasks while sitting on rows of long benches. When the bell rang for mealtime, the group moved to the dining area to eat their meals while sitting erect with their backs straight. At the bell they stood, reentered formation, and in lockstep returned to their shops or cells.[143] Other aspects of military discipline included uniforms, short haircuts, and sparsely furnished cells with few articles other than a cot, a pail, a Bible, and dull tin utensils. The military model extended to uniforms for the prison guards as well as regimented marching and maintaining watch like sentries. Wardens often came to their positions after military service.[144]

For the remainder the nineteenth century, the characteristic layout for nearly all American prisons was a central administration building flanked by multi-tiered Auburn style cellblocks.

[142] Johnston, *The Human Cage,* 83.
[143] Rothman, "Perfecting the Prison," *The Oxford History of the Prison,* 122.
[144] Ibid.

Separate buildings were maintained for the shops, hospital, and power plant. Ohio's prison using this plan was opened in 1834 in Columbus. Wisconsin opened a similar type of prison at Waupun in 1851. The Illinois Penitentiary at Joliet (1858-1860), the Rhode Island Penitentiary at Cranston (1873-1878), the Tennessee Penitentiary at Nashville (1895), and numerous others used this plan. The largest prison of this sort was the Western Penitentiary at Pittsburgh (1882) with 1,100 cells on five tiers. A few such institutions were erected following the turn of the century, including Monroe, Washington, opened in 1908, and Cheshire, Connecticut, opened in 1913.[145]

Although in the early examples of the Auburn-style prisons cells were partitioned with heavy masonry construction with wood and iron doors, advances in building technology led to increasing use of steel, concrete, and manufactured items like steel window sash and wire glass. The architectural style of these institutions evolved as well, reflecting the more monumental aspects of fashionable building styles.[146]

Prisoner Lease System

Prisoner labor in the United States was used in some of the earliest jails. As each state established its prison system in the first quarter of the nineteenth century, efforts were also made to put convicts to work. Kentucky was the first state to develop a true leasing arrangement in 1825. Several other states followed, with the primary motivation being money to defer the cost of incarcerating the inmates. Leasing increased in the period after the Civil War, when inmate populations were increasing, or in the case of the southern states, no institution existed to house inmates because it had been destroyed in the war.

Conditions for inmates under the lease system were poor at best. Often the convicts were inadequately clothed and fed, with equally poor living conditions. Numerous investigations in the 1870s and 1880s reported on the high death rate among inmates. Economic conditions in many states, particularly in the South, prevented elimination of the leasing system. It was due mainly to the objections of business and labor on the late 1800s and early 1900s that states stopped leasing inmate labor. Prisoner-made goods undercut the price of privately made goods. Restrictions were imposed on inmate labor, limiting sale of their goods and services to government agencies.[147] These restrictions eventually led to the Hawes-Cooper Act of 1929, limiting the production of goods made by inmate labor, and the Ashurst-Sumners Act of 1935, which prohibited the interstate shipment prison made goods.[148]

[145] Johnston, *The Human Cage,* 40. By the early twentieth century, construction of state penitentiaries slowed because the existing demand had been filled. It was not until the dramatic increases in prison populations during the 1920s and early 1930s that more prisons were needed.
[146] Ibid. 41. A conscious attempt at period style was usually confined to the front facade of the prison or the administration building. Buildings screened by high prison walls were more spartan in style. For example, the older blocks at Sing Sing were, at least to contemporary eyes, lean and efficient in appearance. (Johnston, *The Human Cage,* 65.)
[147] Alexis M. Durham III, "Lease System," *Encyclopedia of American Prisons,* 277-81.
[148] For more information on these legislative actions, see Jeffery T. Walker, "Ashurst-Cooper Act," *Encyclopedia of American Prisons,* 41-43; and Michael A. Hallett, "Hawes-Cooper Act," *Encyclopedia of American Prisons,* 230-2.

The Reformatory

New York State opened the first reformatory in 1876 at Elmira. At the time it was termed the "third penal system" because it was established around a different approach than the Auburn and Pennsylvania Systems then in use. This new approach focused not on architecture (which molded so much of the Auburn and Pennsylvania Systems) but primarily on the convicts and their treatment. Men convicted for their first offense between the ages of 16 and 30 were committed on indeterminate sentences and exposed to a regimen based on emerging scientific and medical practices. Under the directions of Superintendent Zebulon Brockway, criminals were viewed as individuals whose behavior was determined by a variety of complex psychological, biological, social, and economic forces. The program included academic and vocational training, recreation, religious activities, and an elaborate classification system.

The experiment at Elmira was less than successful for inmates who resisted the program of reform. These recalcitrant inmates were subject to punishments that bordered on psychological torture. It proved a failure, since the goals of the institution were designed to instill "Protestant ethics" in offenders from lower social classes. However, a public relations campaign initiated by the administrators at Elmira in the 1880s convinced other states to build reformatories: Michigan (1877), Massachusetts (1884), Pennsylvania and Minnesota (1889), Colorado (1890), Illinois (1891), Kansas (1895), Ohio (1896), Indiana (1897), Wisconsin (1899), New Jersey (1901), Iowa (1907), Washington (1909), Oklahoma and Kentucky (1910), Connecticut (1913), and the District of Columbia (1916). These institutions evolved the Elmira System, with each institution developing certain aspects, with the Michigan and Massachusetts Systems competing with Elmira. The Michigan System utilized punishment and profit-oriented labor to reform inmates. The Massachusetts System consisted of aspects of both of the other systems, with treatment and punishment combined.

Few reformatories were established in the period from 1910 to 1930. By the 1930s, many of the previously established reformatories were converted to adult penitentiaries. Although the concept of developing an intermediate corrections facility was a sound one, psychological treatments had not advanced enough for these institutions to succeed.[149]

Twentieth Century Developments: The Big House

During the first half of the twentieth century the prison population increased from 50,000 to 163,000 inmates. Most of this upsurge in population occurred in the period between World War I and World War II due to increased criminality during Prohibition and the early years of the Great Depression. The solution to the resulting need for larger, high security prisons was the "Big House": large cell blocks designed to hold an average population of 1,000 inmates each, with as many as six tiers and one or two man cells. New cell blocks could be added as necessary. Two standard architectural solutions were adapted for incorporating the Big House cell blocks into an overall prison plan: an adaptation of the radial plan developed by Blackburn, Haviland, and Jebb, and the Auburn System with flanking cellblock wings. A third important plan came to be called the "telephone pole plan" or "telegraph pole plan." This consisted of a series of parallel cell blocks, service facilities, and shops connected by a central spine. A series of parallel pavilions arranged around a rectangular plot and connected by covered arcades had been used for large

[149] Alexander W. Pisciotta, "Reformatory," *Encyclopedia of American Prisons,* 388-9.

hospitals as early as the eighteenth century.[150] The plan as applied to prisons was functional from an engineering standpoint because of the spine allowed economical distribution of water, steam, sewerage, ventilation, and electrical power by means of a utility tunnel under the main corridor. Security and inmate traffic was also efficient as most of the institution's daily activities could be carried out without inmates going outside.[151]

One of the earliest versions of the telephone pole plan was Mettray (1839) in France designed by Abel Blouet. Although lacking a true central corridor, it consisted of a main building and with two parallel spine corridors and at right angles to it, with three rib-like cellblocks flanking each side of both corridors. A succession of prison designs developed in Europe in the nineteenth century, including Wormwood Scrubs in London (1874-1891), the Workhouse of Rummelsburg near Berlin (1877-1880), and Fresnes near Paris (1898-1901). In the United States, the prison at Graterford, Pennsylvania (1928), designed by the Chicago firm of Zimmermann, Saxe & Zimmermann, adopted the Fresnes plan. Soledad (1958) near San Francisco was similar in design, with a spine 1,100 feet long.[152]

The Big House era and the telephone pole plan did not relate to an overall penal system. Although treatment strategies continued to evolve, the architecture that housed them was no longer a key element.[153] With the eclipse of the "systems," the added use of vocational training, education, and professional services resulted in increased movement of prisoners within the confines of the prison.

Alfred Hopkins, author of *Prisons and Prison Building,* was the man most frequently credited with developing the telephone pole plan in the United States. He had a long standing interest in prison architecture and had visited Fresnes. He was familiar with the Stillwater and Graterford plans when he designed the Federal Penitentiary at Lewisburg, Pennsylvania.[154] Hopkins was a pioneer in many ways. For example, his first prison, Wallkill in New York State, was one of the first medium security prisons for adults. Although designed in a modern Gothic Revival style, it deviated from older institutions because of its campus layout and lack of enclosing wall. Hopkins' other prisons, the Westchester Penitentiary at White Plains, New York, and the Berks County Prison at Reading, Pennsylvania, looked like college dormitories of the 1930s.[155]

[150] Ibid., 42.
[151] Robert Carter, Richard A. McGee, E. Kim Nelson, *Corrections in America* (Philadelphia: J.B. Lippincott Company, 1975), 157.
[152] Pevsner, *A History of a Building Types*, 168.
[153] Johnston, *The Human Cage,* 41.
[154] Hopkins was critical of the prison at Graterford, Pennsylvania. In *Prisons and Prison Building,* Hopkins states (Hopkins, *Prisons and Prison Building,* 46.):

> At the new Eastern Penitentiary at Graterford...a wall 30 feet high and 6030 feet long, enclosing 62 acres, is relied on to make certain of detaining the prisoner. Upon this theory "much expensive prison construction is eliminated," say the architects in an interesting statement describing the use and purpose of their plans. To go to the staggering expense of building an undefeatable wall on the theory that the enclosed prison can be greatly reduced in cost is well enough as a theory, if it had not been found in actual practice that most prisoners can be kept in the flimsiest kind of a defeatable prison without any wall at all. The theory of an undefeatable wall is untenable because there is no such wall, and undesirable because the entire prison is designed on the basis of the worst possible prisoner.

[155] Johnston, *The Human Cage,* 42.

Lewisburg opened in 1932 and was built of red brick in a "northern Italian Gothic" style. The prison was innovative in being on of the first plans to incorporate different grades of security within the walled enclosure. It was designed with maximum security inside cells, medium security outside cells, dormitories, and "honor rooms." The Federal Bureau of Prisons regarded Lewisburg as the first institution in the history of prison construction with custodial facilities built around classification, reflecting the fact that about 75 percent of adult felons did not need to be held in a maximum security facility. Except for workshops, all other facilities of the prison were more or less adjacent to a connecting corridor.[156]

In later designs, refinements and improvements were made in Hopkins' basic layout based on the experience gathered from the operation of Lewisburg. El Reno, the Federal Reformatory in Oklahoma, opened in 1934 with a combination of telephone pole wings and detached dormitories enclosed within a wire fence enclosure. At Terre Haute, Indiana, the Federal Penitentiary opened in 1940, also without a wall, containing a chevron-like arrangement of cellblocks at each end of the central corridor.[157]

Another type of prison plan utilized in the 1930s and 1940s was the self-enclosed square, with buildings connected and arranged to enclose a central courtyard.[158] One of John Howard's model jail plans of the 1770s consisted of a rectangular array of six squares with open courts. The state prison opened in 1931 at Attica, New York, had an enclosing wall but the cellhouses were arranged in four blocks facing each other to form a very large square. One of the largest United States prisons was the 5,700 cell Michigan State Prison at Jackson (1924-1929), designed with huge cellblocks on three sides with two walls adjoining the ends, enclosing 57 acres.[159] Several institutions have combined elements of the self-enclosed plan and the telephone pole plan, such as the Bordentown Reformatory, New Jersey (1936), Hopkins' Wallkill Prison (1933), and the Pennsylvania Correctional Institution at Dallas (1956-1960).

Perhaps the ultimate Big House was Alcatraz, popularly known as "the Rock." The federal prison opened in San Francisco Bay in 1934 was originally a U.S. Army fortress established in 1853. The army had included the first jail on the island in the buildings constructed, and by the 1880s the chief function of the island was no longer as a fortress but as a military prison. The island was officially made a permanent military prison in 1907, and several more buildings were constructed or remodeled over the next 25 years. The buildings extant on the island in 1934, therefore, did not follow a single planning scheme. Further building modifications were made after the island became a federal penitentiary, mainly to improve security. It was officially closed as a prison on 21 March 1963.[160]

The Big House era lasted from about 1900 to 1950. But its development, the congregating of large numbers of inmates on relatively small sites, brought the collapse of prison industry and

[156] Ibid., 46.
[157] Ibid.
[158] Carter, *Corrections in America*, 157.
[159] Johnston, 48-9.
[160] Laura Davis, "Alcatraz," *Encyclopedia of American Prisons*, 21-24.

the emergence of prison idleness. It was impossible to maintain full employment of prison inmates, especially with outside pressures from the growing labor movement to prevent prison-made goods, produced with cheap labor, from being sold on the open market. The economic hardships of the 1930s placed additional restrictions on prison industries, when business and labor groups were able to persuade state and federal governments to pass legislation extending the prevention of convict-made product sales on the open market.

Classification of Inmates

Parallel with the development of the "Big House" prisons was the formal classification of inmates. Many state prison systems had established institutions for the mentally and developmentally disabled, juvenile offenders, and women. In order to rehabilitate inmates effectively, correctional systems began grouping them in the early decades of the 1900s by custody and security considerations. Earlier prison systems had attempted to separate younger offenders from older, hardened criminals. The new systems of classification were based on emerging social sciences: psychiatry, psychology, and sociology. In Illinois, the prison system was influenced by the Chicago School of sociology. Human behavior was studied to determine the causes of crime. In order to place new inmates in the proper institution, many states developed diagnostic facilities by the 1940s staffed by social workers and other human behavior professionals.[161]

The Federal Bureau of Prisons

On 14 and 27 May 1930, two acts were approved by President Herbert Hoover establishing the federal prison system.[162] With the official establishment of the Federal Bureau of Prisons and the availability of federal funding, the new bureau became a leader in the development and construction of innovative prison designs.

In the newly formed United States, persons convicted of federal crimes were held in state, county, and city prisons and jails. In 1870, the Department of Justice was established, and the imprisonment of federal offenders was centralized under its authority. The federal government did not operate any prisons until after 1891. In that year, the U.S. Congress authorized the construction of three federal penitentiaries, although funding was not authorized until some years later. The first federal prison was established 1895 at the surplus military prison at Fort Leavenworth, Kansas. The following year Congress authorized the construction of a new penitentiary three miles from the fort. Federal inmates held at the old surplus facility were used to assist with the construction. The new facility was opened in 1901 and completed in 1928.

The second federal prison was the United States Penitentiary at Atlanta, Georgia, begun in 1899. Conversion of the 1870s territorial jail at McNeil Island on Puget Sound followed next, and all three federal institutions (Leavenworth, Atlanta, and McNeil Island) utilized cellblocks on the Auburn System for its architectural floor plan. By the time the Federal Bureau of Prison was established, there were five federal penal institutions, including the Federal Industrial Institution for Women at Alderson, West Virginia, opened in 1927. Alcatraz, opened in 1934 at the former military prison in San Francisco Bay, was the next significant federal penitentiary (see above).

[161] Silverman and Vega, *Corrections: A Comprehensive View*, 135.
[162] Clifford E. Simonsen, "Federal Bureau of Prisons," *Encyclopedia of American Prisons*, 203-7.

With the growing crime rate, especially of federal offenses such as bank robbery and kidnapping, the establishment of the Bureau of Prison was timely. The newly established federal system developed into a wide range of specialized prisons for hard-core criminals (such as Alcatraz), more institutions for female inmates, and security hospitals for mentally ill or developmentally disabled inmates. In more recent decades the federal prison system has diversified to met out the required punishment of the prisoners within the system. These have included the level 6 or "super max" prison at Marion, Illinois, originally opened in 1963 as a progressive prison and later evolving to a super max prison,[163] to minimum security facilities that have been termed "country club" prisons in comparison.

Prisons after World War II: The Rehabilitation Movement

From the 1950s to the early 1970s, many prisons in the United States adopted rehabilitation programs for the "treatment" of offenders. These originated from the growth of social programs in economically deprived inner city areas. Public attitudes toward rehabilitation were reflected in a Harris poll from 1968: 48 percent of the public thought that the primary purpose of prison was rehabilitation, while 72 percent believed that the emphasis should be on rehabilitation.[164] Another example of the shift in penal philosophy was the name change of the American Prison Association to the American Correctional Association in 1954. Some reformers during the 1960s and 1970s predicted optimistically that de-institutionalization would occur, paralleling the changes in the nation's mental health system. Many institutions made sincere attempts at introducing new programs into existing prisons or constructing new prisons to meet the requirements of a rehabilitative institution. However, other prisons made only slight adjustments or renamed existing programs as being rehabilitative.[165]

The three components of the rehabilitative institution were individualized treatment to the fullest extent possible, indeterminate sentencing, and properly developed inmate programs. Treatment of individual inmates allowed for the diagnosis of each inmate's problems and deficiencies. Indeterminate sentencing allowed release of inmates who had shown satisfactory progress, or for holding inmates who failed or were unwilling to change their criminal lifestyles. Therapeutic programs, such as individual and group counseling, were the basis for behavioral and attitudinal change. Life skills were the focus of academic and vocational education.

The idea that prisons could be transformed into hospitals for curing offenders ultimately proved to be unrealistic. Appropriate diagnostic instruments and programs were not sufficiently developed and there was little understanding of the causes of criminal behavior. Also, the inmate population was overwhelmingly large at times, and the design of most prisons, with their close quarters and brutalist architecture, inhibited inmate rehabilitation. Moreover, all offenders were

[163] Marion was opened in 1963 as a progressive maximum security prison, with educational programs that led to master's degrees and numerous recreational activities. Increasing violence in the late 1970s and early 1980s reached its peak in 1983 when two corrections officers were killed and two others injured. After this incident, the facility went into permanent lockdown, hence the term "super max." In 1993, the facility reverted to a maximum security prison when a new federal facility, specifically designed for super max operations, opened in Florence, Colorado. (Wes Smith, "State's prisons test the limits," *Chicago Tribune*, 31 March 1991, sec. 1, p. 1.)

[164] Francis T. Cullen and Karen E. Gilbert, *Reaffirming Rehabilitation* (Cincinnati: Anderson, 1982), 8.

[165] Silverman and Vega, *Corrections: A Comprehensive View*, 141-3.

not sufficiently motivated to take full advantage of treatment programs. Changes in ethnic and racial composition of the prison population, along with the political and the administrative reaction to these changes, hastened the decline of the rehabilitative institutions. Changing public attitudes toward crime in the 1970s and the growing prison population led to further curtailment of rehabilitation programs.

One of the most successful rehabilitative institution was Soledad Correctional Facility in Soledad, California, opened in 1958. Perimeter security consisted of a high chainlink fence and guard towers. The prison plan was a variation of the telephone pole plan with a 1,100 foot long corridor off which were 1,500 cells. Inmates were housed in cells arranged around the outside walls of each wing so that each had an outside window, which was not barred. All cells, except the unit that housed newly arrived inmates and solitary confinement, had solid doors with small screened openings. This gave the cellblocks a character similar to a college dormitory.

One of the most useful modifications of the telephone pole plan was the use of corridor zones or completely separate living areas, set off according to types of facilities or degree of custody. This cut down on supervisory problems, making possible the closing of certain areas in the evening hours, and the separation of different offender groups within one institution. In the federal prison at Marion, Illinois, opened in 1963, all facilities were located off of four corridors, which joined at a central control area, successfully facilitating observation and traffic flow.[166]

The Louisiana Penitentiary at Angola (1955) was divided into areas based on function and security level because it held different types of adult male prisoners. The maximum security portion contained cellblocks with two tiers of either inside or outside cells and was surrounded by a double wire mesh fence with guard towers. The medium and minimum grades of security differed from one another only in the presence of a fence around the medium security area. Both the medium and minimum security areas utilized H-shaped plans.[167]

The "Tough on Crime" Movement

In the wake of social turmoil of the late 1960s, public opinion towards the rehabilitative potential of the prison reversed. This was the result of increased attention on increases in the crime rate, and a desire by politicians and the public to "get tough" on crime. In 1967, the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration (LEAA) was created as part of the Safe Streets Act passed by Congress in that year. One of LEAA tasks was to provide grants to local law enforcement agencies, resulting in more accurate collections of crime statistics. In many cases this led to the *appearance* of an increase in crime rates. Another result of the "tough on crime" movement was the replacement of indeterminate sentencing with minimum sentences for certain offenses; this in turn resulted in an increase in the inmate population.[168]

[166] Ibid.

[167] Ibid., 47-8.

[168] Mark Mauer and The Sentencing Project, *Race to Incarcerate* (New York: The New Press, 1999), 47-51; Robert Carter, "Determinate Sentences," *Encyclopedia of American Prisons*, 148.

Contemporary Prison Design

Changes in corrections administration and the introduction of minimum standards have greatly influenced and challenged architects designing corrections facilities in the late twentieth century. Architects and engineers of numerous disciplines, working with federal, state, and local corrections officials struggled to interpret the goals of governmental agencies, numerous court rulings, and American Correctional Association Standards in creating design solutions. Security units varied from 30 to more than 100 inmates in capacity, with a series of differing architectural forms. Institutions also grew in size from 300 to 400 inmates to some facilities supporting populations of 2,000 or more.[169]

Several steps were necessary in the design of a corrections facility, including a needs assessment analyzing present and future prisoner demographics; a feasibility study that examines expansion of existing facilities, construction of new facilities, availability of new sites, and allocation of funding; a site selection study that examines available or potential sites in more detail; and finally a facility program, examining the requirements of the new correctional center.[170]

Prisons and penitentiaries evolved into correctional centers, with the architecture of such facilities becoming more sophisticated. Sites could be rural or urban, and an increasing number of state correctional centers were located in economically deprived areas of the state, taking advantage of the eagerness of available local labor for better paying jobs.

The types of planning concepts that evolved in the last quarter of the twentieth century included the campus, campus modified, interconnected, contained, contained and linear, and contained and stacked. The campus plan utilized separate buildings for administration, inmate housing, and support services. Building massing was often restricted to one or two stories that were residential in scale. Circulation between buildings was in the open or in limited shelter structures. Security of the facility was provided by a perimeter fence and detection system.[171]

The campus modified plan differed from the campus plan in that the administration and support services were centralized in one building or buildings while the inmate housing units were still separate structures. Residential scale and exterior circulation between buildings were maintained. Perimeter security provisions were similar to the campus plan.[172]

The interconnected plan utilized centralized administration and support services, as well as larger scale buildings for these functions. This type shared many characteristics with the telephone pole plans of the past. Inmate housing units could be interconnected to add a potential level of security, and recreation facilities enclosed and connected to the housing units or

[169] Peter Charles Krasnow, *Correctional Facility Design and Detailing* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1998), xiv.
[170] Ibid., xiv-xvi.
[171] Ibid., 129. The campus plan most closely resembled the cottage plan, originally introduced in the United States at mental health facilities in the late 1800s. The first asylum using the colony (cottage) plan was Mareville near Nancy, France, constructed in the sixteenth century as a plague house (Pevsner, *A History of Building Types*, 157). Eastern State Hospital, Kankakee, Illinois, was the site of the first cottage plan used in the United States, in 1879 (Rothman, *The Discovery of the Asylum*, 135).
[172] Krasnow, *Correctional Facility Design and Detailing*, 129.

contained between buildings. Residential scale was typically maintained for the housing units, with perimeter security provisions similar to the campus plan.[173]

The contained plan was similar to the interconnected plan except that added security and larger inmate population resulted from greater use of enclosed circulation and larger inmate housing units. The security of the facility was obtained in whole or in part from grouping the administration, support, and housing units to form the perimeter wall, similar to the self-enclosed square. A perimeter security fence was optional. This allowed corrections facilities using the contained plan to be located in urban areas, due to their potential for a compact footprint.[174]

The contained and linear plan included all functions in a single or group of megastructures, Residential scale was not typically used. Recreation facilities were usually enclosed for greater security, and buildings were grouped to form the perimeter wall. Enclosure of inmate circulation resulted in greater control and security. Like the contained plan, the contained and linear plan was suitable for urban applications.[175]

The contained and stacked plan was the largest in scale architecturally, with megastructures holding administration, support, housing, and recreation functions. Often this type of plan resulted in highrise structures that were used in urban areas.[176]

The design of corrections facilities developed considerably since the time of the Auburn and Pennsylvania Plan cellhouses. Cellhouses took many forms, with octagonal, triangular, and semicircular forms not uncommon, along with clusters of these geometric forms. K, X, and T-shaped plans were also frequently used, especially in housing units where inmates were divided into smaller groups for security reasons. Architectural finishes also evolved. New construction needed to be economical, which was particularly challenging since inexpensive construction needs to be detailed with security as a primary goal. Bare cells of concrete and steel bars were often supplanted by rooms with doors and built-in fixtures.

Corrections Issues of the Late Twentieth Century

The following were some of the emerging issues in corrections in the last quarter of the twentieth century.

AIDS

In November 1981, the first confirmed case of Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome (AIDS), as it was later called, was identified in a New York State prison. By 1993, 8,525 inmates in 48 states had been diagnosed with the condition; 2,858 had died. This incidence of AIDS was approximately 20 times that of the general population. It was estimated in 1993 that the rate of Human Immunodeficiency Virus (HIV), the retrovirus that causes the syndrome, among inmates to be five or six times that of the general population.[177] Although many of these inmates had

[173] Ibid.
[174] Ibid.
[175] Ibid., 129-30.
[176] Ibid., 130.
[177] Malcolm L. Lachance-McCollough and James M. Tesoriero, "AIDS," *Encyclopedia of American Prisons*, 14. The level of infection in the general population in 1993 was 2.2 percent of the general population, with variations

become infected with HIV before their incarceration, there was also a significant risk of exposure to the virus while in prison. Two routes of transmission, intravenous drug use and sexual contact, were possible and in some prison cultures quite common. A third possible transmission route, exposure to HIV infected blood, is a significant danger during inmate violence. Corrections staff were also at some risk from inmates throwing their own waste at them.

Many states implemented inmate education programs to reduce HIV transmission. Mandatory blood testing of inmates was a controversial issue, with proponents of mandatory testing and inmate civil rights at odds. Many of the programs in American prison were modeled on public health programs, with counseling, education, testing, and post-testing counseling. For infected inmates that developed AIDS, health care facilities in prisons were required to respond with proper treatment. This strained the facilities and budgets of many correctional centers.

Boot Camps
The use of boot camps for adult and juvenile offenders, utilizing rigid scheduling, discipline, and labor in a "shock probation program"[178] of relatively short duration, was introduced in Oklahoma and Georgia in 1983. Numerous other states developed their own boot camp programs in subsequent years as an alternative to prison terms for first offenders. Boot camp inmates typically were convicted on non-violent offenses, such as drug possession and property crimes. The programs typically involved the use of a military-style camp with strict control of inmates, swift punishment for misdeeds, and relatively short incarceration periods (90 to 180 days) before release to probation or parole. Inmates were also limited in the amount of personal possessions, contact with visitors, and communication with persons outside of the prison environment. After release, offenders continued to receive intensive counseling to assist their transition to the community.[179]

Crowding and the Rapidly Growing Inmate Population
By the 1980s prison construction could not keep up with the increasing number of offenders entering corrections facilities. This was due to numerous factors. The "War on Drugs" in the late 1980s and 1990s led to mandatory and sometimes lengthy prison terms for possession and sale of illegal substances. Offenses such as domestic violence and stalking that were irregularly prosecuted in the past were now enforced more aggressively. Other offenses that had fines or light jail sentences before had mandatory sentences, while some limit the option for parole. Prison terms were lengthened as well for violent crimes. Other contributing factors included revision of parole statutes, resulting in fewer inmates receiving "good time" and requiring that more time be served before eligibility.

Crowding led to numerous problems in prison. Counseling and education programs were often unable to cope with the added case loads. High inmate to guard staff ratios led to inadequate supervision and increased prison violence. Numerous other effects included health and

from one region of the country to the other.
[178] Doris Layton MacKenzie, "Boot Camps," *Encyclopedia of American Prisons,* 61.
[179] Ibid., 61-63.

psychological problems due to inmates living in close proximity.[180] One example of this was the spread of diseases related to HIV infection, such as strains of tuberculosis that were difficult to treat. Numerous court rulings addressed overcrowding, with most decisions in the 1990s moving away from intervening directly in corrections administration to alleviate crowding.[181]

Increases in inmate populations meant that taxpayers carry additional burdens; it could cost approximately $30,000 to $50,000 per inmate per year to incarcerate federal and state inmates. Adding new beds to prisons could cost $30,000 to $130,000 per bed in construction costs, with annual life cycle costs amounting to 15 to 20 times the original construction cost.[182]

Disabled Inmates
Since the 1960s, as care for the developmentally and mentally disabled in the United States moved away from the use of institutional care, the prison system absorbed the role and population of the former mental health facilities. Individuals unable to function in society, despite (or perhaps because of) the presence of limited social programs, often resorted to criminality. The percent of individuals with developmental disabilities was higher in prison than in the general population: approximately 40 percent of incarcerated juveniles and 8 to 10 percent of adults inmates. These disabilities ranged from mild to moderate mental retardation, learning disabilities, and behavioral and emotional disorders. Inmates with developmental disabilities were less likely to be placed on probation; they also have more difficulty in becoming acclimated to prison discipline. While some facilities were staffed with counselors to assist and treat such inmates, most had inadequate resources.[183]

Federal legislation addressing the needs of developmentally disabled inmates includes the Education of the Handicapped Act and the Vocational Rehabilitation Act of 1973, which have influenced court decisions in favor of providing the disabled with adequate education; and the Americans with Disabilities Act of 1990, which expanded the federal mandate for providing disabled inmates access to education.

Mentally ill inmates constituted, according to some studies, from 1 to 40 percent of the prison population, although other studies estimated that 5 to 10 percent have significant mental health problems.[184] Many were incarcerated when other means of "treatment" were unavailable or

[180] Marilyn D. McShane, "Crowding: Introduction," *Encyclopedia of American Prisons,* 135.
[181] Jack E. Call, "Crowding: Court Rulings," *Encyclopedia of American Prisons,* 138. See also Richard D. Sluder, "Double Celling," *Encyclopedia of American Prisons.*
[182] McShane, "Crowding: Introduction," 135.
[183] Bruce I. Wolford, C. Michael Nelson, and Robert B. Rutherford, "Developmentally Disabled Offenders," *Encyclopedia of American Prisons,* 149-51; and Louis Veneziano and Carol Veneziano, "Disabled Inmates," *Encyclopedia of American Prisons,* 157-61.
[184] One federal study released in 1999 and conducted by the U.S. Department of Justice Office of Justice Programs, "Mental Health and Treatment of Inmates and Probationers," reported that 16 percent of state prison inmates, 16 percent of county and local jails, and 7 percent in federal prisons showed signs of mental illness, for a total of 283,800 inmates. More than half of those in the study (53 percent) had been convicted of violent offenses. ("A Quarter Million Inmates Are Mentally Ill," *Correctional News* 5, no. 6 (September/October 1999), 21.)

actual treatment programs had failed. De-institutionalization contributed to the number of mentally ill inmates in prison, increasing the burden on prison officials and administrations.[185]

Physically disabled inmates increased along with other disabled groups, although at a slower rate since these individuals were not directly affected by de-institutionalization. Disabled inmates included relatively small numbers with visually or mobility disabled inmates (0.2 and 0.3 percent of the inmate population); and a larger percentage with major health problems, including cancer (0.2 percent), cardiovascular disease (3.4 percent), diabetes (3.1 percent), epilepsy (0.9 percent), and hypertension (6.6 percent).[186]

Security Threat Groups

The emergence of gangs in correctional centers of all types has been a significant issue in the last three decades of the twentieth century. The earliest reports of gangs in prisons was in the 1950s, but their presence was not significant until the late 1960s.[187] By the 1970s, prison gangs included organizations aligned on racial boundaries, with African American, Hispanic American, and white supremacist affiliations. Gangs were first reported in Illinois prisons in 1969, with the Blackstone Rangers, Vice Lords, and Latin Kings present in Stateville.[188]

In the late 1990s, there were a reported 1,153 "security threat groups" (STGs) in American prisons, with an estimated 46,190 members. This constituted 5.9 percent of the total adult state and federal inmate population, with the greatest number of inmates in Illinois (14,900, or 48.1 percent), New Jersey (6,000, or 24.4 percent), California (3,384, or 3.2 percent), and Texas (2,720, or 5.3 percent).[189] For correctional administrators and guard staff, gang management had become a part of normal prison operations. This involved identification of gang members, tracking of activities, segregation of gang members from the general population, transfer of gang members to other correctional facilities, and concentrated efforts to prosecute illegal gang activities.

The Prisoner Right Movement

Beginning in the 1960s, a series of legal decisions had profound influences on the administration of prisons by recognizing the civil rights of inmates and empowering emerging prisoner rights groups. This trend occurred against the national backdrop of the Civil Rights Movement. In 1964 *Cooper v. Pate* a group of Black Muslims held in segregation at Illinois' Stateville presented a list of written demands to the administration, the first in the prison's history. Foremost of their demands was the use of the Chapel for religious services. Warden Frank Pate was forced to answer in court for not recognizing the Black Muslims. Although the Black Muslims won only a partial victory, it was the beginning of a series of changes at Illinois' prisons.

A case brought by inmates in Arkansas from 1965 (*Talley v. Stephens*) dealt with the issue of corporal punishment. A federal court issued an order to the Arkansas prison system to cease the

[185] Marilyn D. McShane, "Mentally Ill Prisoners," *Encyclopedia of American Prisons,* 320-5.
[186] Veneziano and Veneziano, "Disabled Inmates," 159. See also the discussion on AIDS provided above.
[187] Mary E. Pelz, "Gangs," *Encyclopedia of American Prisons,* 213.
[188] Ibid., 214.
[189] Ibid. The source of this information was a study by the American Correctional Association, *Gangs in Correctional Facilities: A National Assessment* (Washington, D.C.: National Institute of Justice, 1994).

use of such extreme measures without "appropriate safeguards."[190] Although reforms followed in Arkansas, later court decisions brought by inmates exposed more abuses in the state. Due to these and other cases, the nation's courts had increasing involvement in prison operations. At the extreme end of this movement was open inmate protests, including inmate strikes as Folsom Prison in 1968 and riots in Attica in 1971 (see **Riots** below).

A significant contribution to exposing deficiencies in American prisons and jails came from African American inmates. As demographics, social inequities, and criminal patterns changed in the middle twentieth century, the number of African American inmates increased in the post-World War II era. Groups such as the Black Muslims were initially viewed as disruptive; by the 1970s they had become, through their basis in religious beliefs, a stabilizing factor in the turmoil present in prisons at that time.[191] Other positive outcomes of the prisoner rights movement were the formation of self-help groups: multi-step therapy, ethnic pride, and religious-civic organizations. A commentary on the prisoner rights movement states the following:

> It is hard to tell exactly how much effect the prisoners' rights movement actually had on prisons and jails. It was surely greater than zero. Prison life became, in many ways, more humane, though it is difficult to say that the court cases *caused* these changes, except in the most obvious ways. Still, progress is easy to see in some ways: better general conditions, better health care; more recreation, education, and religious freedom. Prisoners today can play baseball, write letters, watch TV, go to school, and do all kinds of normal things. In some prisons, male inmates can even have sex with their wives from time to time.[192]

Prisons for Women

The female inmate population increased 202 percent between 1980 and 1989 in federal, state, and local prison facilities. However, women accounted for only 5.4 percent (or 43,000 inmates) of the total national inmate population in 1991. It was determined that this increased is not due primarily to increased criminality among women but, as with male inmates, to increased conviction rates, in the use of prison sentences as punishment, and in the number of crimes with minimum prison sentences.[193]

In the 1980s alone, 34 facilities (both additions to existing facilities and complete prisons) were constructed for holding female inmates. Although historically several of the women's prisons constructed prior to the 1980s utilized the cottage plan, with detached buildings housing cells and support facilities, many of the newer institutions were constructed more like traditional men's prisons. Not only was this more economical, it was recognized that greater discipline was necessary in prisons for women inmates. Along with these changes, women's prisons were provided with better health care facilities and areas for contact and interaction between inmate mothers and their children.[194]

[190] Lawrence M. Friedman, *Crime and Punishment in American History* (New York: Basic Books, 1993), 313.
[191] In the 1970s inmate gangs and radical groups such as the Black Panthers emerged in United States prisons. Gangs continued to evolve of the next two decades to plague prison administrators.
[192] Ibid., 314.
[193] Joycelyn M. Pollack, "Women Inmates; Current Issues," *Encyclopedia of American Prisons,* 503.
[194] Ibid., 505.

Another area of corrections that expanded was the use of co-correctional facilities with both male and female inmates. (In a sense, this was actually a *return* to this type of occupancy, since female inmates were often incarcerated in a portion of early state prison largely holding male inmates.) In 1971, the Federal Bureau Prisons opened two co-correctional units on an experimental basis: the Robert F. Kennedy Youth Center (for males) in Morgantown, West Virginia, converted one cottage for adult female inmates, and a former public health facility in Fort Worth, Texas, was renovated for both male and female inmates. Over 40 co-correctional facilities followed over the next three decades. Several reasons for utilizing this type of correctional treatment were advanced, including eliminating some of the social interaction and discipline problems that arise in single sex institutions and providing an environment closer to "normal" society.[195]

Privatization of Prisons

One of the most significant and controversial developments in correctional center management in the 1980s and 1990s was the emergence of privately operated prisons, which were constructed and/or staffed and managed by for-profit corporations. These institutions functioned much as publicly operated prisons, except that federal, state, and county corrections agencies let contracts for incarceration services much as many other services are obtained by a governmental agency. Although this paralleled the current trend of privatization of government services, applying the philosophy that the private sector functions more efficiently than government in conducting some services, the private sector has had a long history of involvement with prison operations, most recently with leasing of convict labor.

Opportunities for privately run prisons increased in the 1980s due to the rapid rise in inmate populations across the United States. To meet the demands for new correctional centers, a few large corrections corporations emerged and dominated the market. The largest private corrections corporations in early 1999 included Corrections Corporation of America, Wackenhut Corrections Corporation, and U.S. Corrections Corporation.[196] Many of these corporations built prisons "on spec," i.e., they obtained financing from investors and constructed the facility even before a contract has been concluded with a governmental agency, a practice similar to the construction of a speculative office building.

Private corporations could plan, construct, and complete a new prison facility faster than a government agency. While government agencies were often limited in the methods of specifying, bidding, and awarding a construction project, a private company could be much more flexible and potentially more cost effective. A privately operated prison could be staffed with guards who do not have to meet civil service requirements or need to receive the same large benefits package that state workers often receive. Leasing also allows government agencies some flexibility when or if inmate populations decline.

[195] John O. Smykla, "Co-Correctional Facilities," *Encyclopedia of American Prisons*, 96.
[196] These corporations were publicly traded, and market reports of the performance of their stock was included as a feature in each issue of the trade publication *Correctional Building News* (later named *Correctional News*).

Private prisons were not only beneficial to government agencies but potentially to inmates as well. They were housed in new facilities that were not usually overcrowded to the same degree as state-run correctional centers, and rarely housed the most violent and dangerous offenders. However, the growth of private prisons and the rapid pace of prison construction, both public and private, has been termed "the prison-industrial complex."[197]

> Three decades after the war on crime began, the United States has developed a prison-industrial complex – a set of bureaucratic, political, and economic interests that encourage increased spending on imprisonment, regardless of the actual need. The prison-industrial complex is not a conspiracy, guiding the nation's criminal-justice policy behind closed doors. It is a confluence of special interests that has given prison construction in the United States a seemingly unstoppable momentum. It is composed of politicians, both liberal and conservative, who have used the fear of crime to gain votes; impoverished rural areas where prisons have become a cornerstone of economic development; private companies that regard the roughly $35 billion spent each year on corrections not as burden on American taxpayers but as a lucrative market; and government officials whose fiefdoms have expanded along with the inmate population.[198]

Other potential problems included lack of proper security, inadequately trained guard staff, inadequate inmate services, and improper separation of inmate classifications (such as maximum security level inmates housed with minimum security inmates). There was also the ethical question of whether government should delegate punishment of convicted offenders to for-profit entities. Numerous legal questions also arose, such as the potential limitation of an inmate's right to seek damages for constitutional violations under Section 1983 of the Federal Civil Rights Act.[199]

Riots

Although prisoner riots occurred throughout the history of prisons, the inmate disturbances in the last third of the twentieth century were larger in scale, affected prison administration, and influenced public opinion more than at any time. Probably the most significant prison riot of the last half of the twentieth century was the September 1971 revolt that occurred at Attica Correctional Facility in New York State. Among the many causes for that event was the inability of the white, rural corrections staff to deal effectively with the changing population of inmates from the inner city areas, who were African Americans or Hispanic Americans. After a nearly five days of failed negotiations, the prison was retaken by force that resulted in fatalities including 10 hostages and 29 inmates. Other significant riots included the 1980 uprising at the penitentiary at Santa Fe, New Mexico, where 33 inmates were killed by other inmates and numerous hostages were injured, and the 1993 riot at Southern Ohio Correctional Facility, Lucasville, where 9 inmates and 1 correctional officer were killed after an 11 day stand off.[200]

[197] Eric Schlosser, "The Prison-Industrial Complex," *The Atlantic Monthly* 282, no. 6 (December 1998): 54. Author Schlosser uses this term to refer to a statement in President Dwight D. Eisenhower's farewell address to Congress, when he warned against the "acquisition of unwarranted influence, whether sought or unsought, by the military-industrial complex." Eisenhower was disturbed by the growing armaments race and the economic and political power that defense contractors had the potential to obtain during the "Cold War."
[198] Ibid.
[199] Silverman and Vega, *Corrections: A Comprehensive View*, 276.
[200] For discussion of the causes and effects of riots and inmate violence, see Sue Mahan, Richard Lawrence, and

Prisons at the End of the Century

The United States prison population reached 1.8 million in early 1999.[201] The State of California alone, with an inmate population of 159,000 inmates, held more convicted criminals in its correctional centers than France, Germany, Great Britain, Japan, Singapore, and the Netherlands combined.[202] The United State prison population had risen 500 percent since 1972.[203] In the 20 years since 1980, nearly 1,000 new correctional and detention centers were constructed, effectively more than doubling the number of prisons in America. Between 1980 and 1993, federal spending on corrections was increased 521 percent, while employment and training programs had been cut by almost half; spending on higher education decreased as well.[204] The increase in the national inmate population has sparked interest in utilizing prisoners as a "captive" labor force.[205] The increase in the prison population was due to numerous factors, and at least according to statistics appears to be contributing to the decrease in violent crime.[206] However, the overwhelming majority of the increases in incarceration has been due to non-violent and property crimes.[207]

Public opinion has influenced prison construction in the United States since the early 1800s, but this opinion influenced prison development on several levels. Public opinion on crime and drugs has led to increased prosecution, longer prison terms, and less application of parole. While in prison, inmates receive fewer opportunities for education and training due to reductions in government funding.[208] Social programs that treated the sources of crime, such as education and social programs for lower income neighborhoods, were reduced as well despite the proven success of many of these programs. However, the price of more prisons meant more taxes. The effort to build more and more prisons reached "monumental" proportions:

> The spirit of every age is manifest in its public works, in the great construction projects that leave an enduring mark on the landscape. During the early years of this century the Panama Canal became President Theodore Roosevelt's legacy, a physical expression of

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Deanna Meyer, "Riots," *Encyclopedia of American Prisons;* and Marilyn D. McShane, "Violence," *Encyclopedia of American Prisons.*

[201] "Longer Terms Boost U.S. Prison Population," *Chicago Tribune,* 11 January 1999, sec. 1, p. 8. Of the 1.8 million individuals behind bars, approximately 100,000 are in federal custody, 1.1 million are in state custody, and 600,000 are in county and local jails. Even more disturbing statistics are the 200,000 mentally ill inmates, who rarely received proper treatment; the 70 percent of the inmate population that is illiterate, during a time when education services are often being cut back; and the number of African-American males in prison, where one out of fourteen is in prison currently, and one in four may be in prison at some point in their lives. (Schlosser, 52, 54.)

[202] Schlosser, "The Prison-Industrial Complex," 52, 74.

[203] Mauer, et al., *Race to Incarcerate,* 1.

[204] Ibid., 61.

[205] Author Mark Mauer relates in *Race to Incarcerate* that he had received a telephone call from a researcher at an investment firm wanting to know how many inmates were incarcerated in the United States and other nations of the world "in order to determine the total size of the 'market'....At various times in history, prisoners have been thought of as sinners, deviants, or members of an oppressed class. As we approach the twenty-first century, they have now become mere commodities in the eyes of global entrepreneurs." (Ibid., xiii.)

[206] Ibid., 77.

[207] See chapters 4, 5, and 6 of Mark Mauer and The Sentencing Project, *Race to Incarcerate,* pages 56-117.

[208] Silverman and Vega, *Corrections: A Comprehensive View*, 537-8.

> his imperial yearnings. The New Deal faith in government activism left behind huge dams and bridges, post offices decorated with murals, power lines finally brought electricity to rural America. The interstate highway system fulfilled dreams of the Eisenhower era, spreading suburbia far and wide; urban housing projects for the poor were later built in the hopes of creating a Great Society.
>
> ...A recent issue of "Construction Report," a monthly newsletter published by *Correctional Building News,* provides details of the nation's latest public works: a 3,100-bed jail in Harris County, Texas; a 500-bed medium-security prison in Redgranite, Wisconsin; a 130-bed minimum-security facility in Oakland County, Michigan; two 200-bed housing pods at the Fort Dodge Correctional Facility, in Iowa; a 350-bed juvenile correctional facility in Pendleton, Indiana; and dozens more....And every one of them, every brand-new prison, becomes a lasting monument, concrete and ringed with deadly razor wire, to the fear and greed and political cowardice that now pervade American society.[209]

Contemporary prisons had a realistic service life of several decades, meaning that the new institutions would be a part of American society for two or more generations. Added to this was the social structure that grew up around these new facilities – prison staff and the communities they live in, material manufacturers and suppliers, contractors and architects, and other interested parties. This group became a powerful lobby whose motives may not necessarily be focused on the chief function of such institutions – a house of correction and reform.

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[209] Schlosser, "The Prison-Industrial Complex," 77.

Development of the Hospital

This narrative of Stateville Correction Center includes documentation of the Old Hospital building. The section below is a background history of the development of hospital architecture. Appendix B contains a table comparing the types of medical facilities present in American prisons circa 1928; "Medical Service in Correctional Institutions," from the Handbook of Correctional Design and Construction (1949); and rules for the operation of the prison hospital at Stateville, from Joseph E. Ragen and Charles Finston, Inside the World's Toughest Prison (1962).

Under the Benedictine rule of the sixth century, charitable forms of care were the compulsory responsibility of the monks and the abbeys. The Synod of Aachen of 816 and 817 declared it a duty of every bishop to have a hospice for travelers and for the poor.[210] Gradually, lay fraternities took over the care of the sick and the poor. Increasing numbers of lay fraternities took monastic vows to perform social work. Some orders were created especially for hospital service: the Lazarites, who looked after the lepers, and the Antonites, who cared for those with skin diseases. The Order of the Holy Spirit, which in 1198 took over the existing hospital of Santa Maria in Sassia on the Vatican side of the Tiber in Rome, eventually became a powerful facilitator of hospital care.[211]

The medieval hospital served many functions, including infirmary, almshouse, asylum, orphanage, foundling home, guest house, and poor house. The custom in monasteries such as St. Gall, Switzerland, was to have the guest house to the west of the claustral precinct and the infirmary to the east. The infirmary at Kirkstall, the Cistercian abbey outside Leeds, was designed with an aisle leading to a chapel at its east end so that the sick could see the altar and the services.

One of the most famous medieval hospitals was the Hôtel-Dieu, west of Notre Dame on the Ile de la Cité in Paris.[212] It is believed to have had four long double-nave wards, with three wards set at right angles to the fourth. The estimated total number of beds in the late Middle Ages had been 450, while the estimated number of patients was 1,280. The patients were typically placed three to a bed without discrimination of illness, resulting in high mortality rates.[213] The Hôtel-Dieu was intended to provide care and relief for all that sought assistance. This basic philosophy of the hospital resulted in the vast overcrowding that made conditions within terrible.

By the mid-fifteenth century, a new type of hospital building was developing in Italy. Its origins lay in a 1334 addition to the Santa Maria Nuova in Florence, a cruciform structure with four open wards radiating from a center in which an altar was placed and where the east-west arms were shorter than the north-south. The plan of the Santa Maria addition created a revolution in hospital planning that extended into the sixteenth century.[214]

[210] Pevsner, *A History of Building Types*, 139.
[211] Pevsner, *A History of Building Types*, 140.
[212] Ibid., 141.
[213] Ibid., 148.
[214] Ibid., 142-4.

In the late seventeenth and early eighteenth centuries, it was realized that adding more than four arms to the structure would allow more beds within the same area. Antoine Desgodets, who devised an octagon center with sixteen radiating wards, noted the earliest of these radial plans in a treatise. The center was to carry a dome to provide ventilation. The lavatories were in the inner angles between the wards; more wards extended along the periphery. Leonhard Christoph Sturm, who spent ten weeks in France in 1699, designed an ideal hospital following this concept in 1720. Its plan formed a rectangle composed of an octagonal church as the center and eight radiating wards.[215]

The Hôpital Général, founded in Paris in 1656, was established by the strongly centralized monarchy of Louis XIV. It was designed to handle society's less acceptable elements including the impoverished elderly, those with venereal diseases, epileptics, and the mentally ill, who were victims of imprisonment by the state at the Hospice of the Salpêtrière (for women) or Bicêtre (for men). Able-bodied boys up to the age of 25 who were considered lazy or girls who were considered immoral were included in this classification by decree in 1690.[216]

The threefold purpose of the Hôpital Général was first, economic: to provide productive work for the able-bodied and end unemployment; second, social: to punish willful idleness, restore public order, and rid Paris of beggars; and third, religious and moral: to relieve the needy, ill, and suffering; to deal with immorality and antisocial behavior; and to provide Christian instruction. In time other Parisian charitable foundations were absorbed into the Hôpital Général, and this type of institutional foundation became a model for dealing with problems of poverty and disease in other large cities in France and throughout Europe.[217]

One of the masterpieces of Baroque architecture was the chapel of St. Louis-des-Invalides by Jules Hardouin-Mansart, which served the Hôtel des Invalides, the hospital for old and disabled soldiers, designed by Libéral Bruant. Founded in 1670, this institution grew to a series of wings enclosing courtyards, with the chapel positioned on the central axis. A near contemporary of the Hôtel des Invalides and using the same general planning concept was the smaller Chelsea Hospital in England, founded in 1682 and designed by Christopher Wren. Wren also designed the Royal Naval Hospital, Greenwich, begun in 1694.

Numerous less monumental but still sizeable hospitals were constructed in Britain in the eighteenth century, including London Hospital (designed by Boulton Mainwaring, begun 1751), which was twenty-three bays wide and three stories tall. The infamous Bethlehem Hospital, known as Bedlam, was founded in London in 1675. The hospital was surrounded by a high stone wall with an iron entrance gate, and housed the insane poor, acute, and dangerous cases. For a penny, visitors could walk the wards and observe the inmates. A wide gallery ran across the north front of the hospital and large cells opened off it, each with a high barred, unglazed

[215] Ibid., 147. A series of institutions were constructed with radial floor plans. These included a central mass such as a dome with radiating wings housing patient and treatment rooms. Examples constructed in Great Britain in the nineteenth century included Glasgow (designed by William Stark, begun 1810) and Wakefield (Watson & Pritchett, begun 1814).
[216] John D. Thompson and Grace Goldin, *The Hospital: A Social and Architectural History* (New Haven and London: Yale University Press, 1975), 54.
[217] Ibid.

opening. Some patients were allowed to walk in the gallery but most were kept behind bars and the corridor reserved for visitors.

The next significant development was the use of detached pavilions to house different hospital functions. Introduced at the Naval Hospital at Stonehouse in Plymouth (designed by Rowehead, begun 1756), separate pavilions were organized around a central courtyard. John Howard in his *An Account of the Principal Lazarettos in Europe* (1789) included the plan of Stonehouse. When the Hôtel-Dieu was destroyed by fire in 1772, concepts were advanced by Jean-Baptiste Le Roy and Charles-François Viel for a series of one story wards set parallel to each other, with each block perpendicular to a central courtyard. Le Roy, who was a scientist, stated that "a ward is, as it were, a machine for treating the sick." However, this scheme was not constructed, and many institutions constructed in Europe in the late 1700s and early 1800s used large Classical blocks for overall planning with only a few using pavilion configurations.[218]

Changes in patient care influenced the acceptance of the pavilion plan, when the British nurse Florence Nightingale led a campaign to replace the Military Hospital at Netley in Hampshire. Nightingale, in treating wounded soldiers in the Crimean War in the 1850s, had improved levels of sanitation and introduced organizational methods that improved chances of recovery dramatically. Upon returning to England, Nightingale and others recognized the problems inherent in large municipal and military hospitals, and began campaigning for the introduction of pavilion plan hospitals that allowed improved organization and isolation of contagion. By the end of the nineteenth century, numerous pavilion plan hospitals had been constructed in the United States and Europe.

At the beginning of the twentieth century, block plan hospitals continued to be constructed but utilizing the new organizational schemes reflecting medical advances of the late nineteenth century. Edward Fletcher Stevens (1860-1946) and Frederick Clare Lee (born 1874) were architects who specialized in hospital design, with over 100 prominent commissions from 1912 to 1933 in the northeastern United States and across Canada.[219] Although historicist in elevation design, the work of Stevens and Lee, along with other prominent hospital architects such as Richard E. Schmidt (born 1865) in Chicago, was modern in its floor plans, utilizing rational planning methods to lay out floor plans.[220] Stevens stressed the importance of the plan in many of his publications: "Unlike most architectural problems, the *plan* of the hospital is the strongest factor in the design....While the design should never be overlooked, the plan should hold at least eighty per cent of importance of the entire structure; and if the plan is right, we should be able to clothe it properly."[221]

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[218] Pevsner, *A History of Building Types,* 151-4.
[219] Annmarie Adams, "Modernism and Medicine: The Hospitals of Stevens and Lee, 1916-1932," *Journal of the Society of Architectural Historians* 58, no. 1 (March 1999): 43-45.
[220] Both Stevens and Schmidt published books on hospital design: Edward F. Stevens, *The American Hospital of the Twentieth Century,* 2nd rev. ed. (New York: F.W. Dodge Corporation, 1928); John Allan Hornsby and Richard E. Schmidt, *The Modern Hospital* (Philadelphia: W.B. Saunders Company, 1913).
[221] Edward F. Stevens, "The American Hospital Development, Part I," *Architectural Record* 38 (December 1915): 645, as quoted in Adams, "Modernism and Medicine," 57-58.

Some of the medical advances in the late 1800s was in the practice and techniques of surgery. By 1900 surgical spaces were becoming a significant features of hospitals. Surgeries developed from amphitheater arrangements that allowed student to observe procedures to surgical suites with large windows or skylights and typically located on the top floor of a hospital. Where space permitted, a separate building was often recommended for the surgery to prevent the spread of infections. Patient wards were evolving at this time as well, with large multiple bed rooms giving way to smaller rooms with one to a few patients.

Standards for hospital design were developed in the early 1900s. Books authored by E.F. Stevens and by Richard E. Schmidt included check lists of hospital equipment to be considered in the design of medical spaces. In 1918, the American College of Surgeons developed standards and encouraged hospitals to apply for approval.[222] However, one of the keys to successful hospital design in the early twentieth century was flexibility, since changing medical procedures demanded that spaces be designed with consideration for future renovation options. Modern materials and systems such as steel and reinforced concrete structural systems, mechanical ventilation and plumbing systems, and durable, antiseptic interior finishes advanced the technology of hospital design. Beginning in the 1930s, Modern architectural imagery became more common in the exterior appearance of hospitals.

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[222] Adams, "Modernism and Medicine," 50.

State of Illinois

Punishment in Early Illinois

In 1718 French colonists and soldiers settled in an area called Kaskaskia and erected a fort. If any laws were known during this occupation other than the arbitrary control of the military and the clergy, it was the corporal punishment law of France, whereby imprisonment was sparingly used.[223] The first public use of a prison facility in the area was in 1780, when State's Attorney John Girault obtained permission from General Montgomery to use the military prison at Fort Kaskaskia to incarcerate some court offenders in an effort to bring about more respect for local law.[224] Although the Northwest Ordinance of 1787 prohibited slavery, guaranteed religious freedom, and decreed that schools and education should be encouraged, the criminal laws and ordinances of the territory authorized the erection of whipping posts in each county, made flogging the customary penalty for both men and women, and provided for a death sentence in cases of treason, murder, arson, horse stealing upon a second conviction, and rape.[225]

The Territory of Indiana, of which Illinois was a part of until 1809, enacted legislation in 1802 requiring that each county court have a jail.[226] Subsequent legislation provided for a debtor's prison yard, known as "prison bounds,"[227] and directives concerning the duties of the jailer, segregation of sexes, "except where lawfully married," and inspection standards for county judges.[228] A territorial act, passed on 17 September 1807, provided that "In all cases of penalties where free persons are punishable by fines, servants shall be punished by public flogging at the rate of twenty lashes for each eight dollars," and Section 3 of an equally inhuman statute of the same year provided that vagrants who could not (or would not) obtain an employer who would furnish them with food and clothes, were to receive a penalty not exceeding 39 lashes on the bare back.[229]

When the Illinois territory separated from Indiana, it lacked a sufficient number of secure buildings for holding prisoners.[230] In fact, Illinois relied upon a severe frontier system of justice, employing flogging and confinement in stocks as punishments for minor offenses.[231] For

[223] Bruce, et al., *The Workings of the Indeterminate-Sentence Law and the Parole System in Illinois*, 22.
[224] Clarence Walworth Alvord, ed., *Kaskaskia Records, 1778-1790*, Volume V of the Collections of the Illinois State Historical Library (Springfield, Illinois: N.p., 1909), 182.
[225] Bruce, et al., *The Workings of the Indeterminate-Sentence Law and the Parole System in Illinois*, 22.
[226] An Act directing the building and establishing of a "Court-house County Jail Pillory Whipping-post and Stocks in every county" was passed 1 August 1802 by Winthrop Sargent (Acting Governor). (Theodore C. Pease, ed., *Laws of the Northwest Territory*, Volume I of the Collections of the Illinois State Historical Library (Danville, Illinois Printing Co., 1985), 77.)
[227] Francis S. Philbrick, ed., *Laws of the Indiana Territory*, Volume XXI of the Collections of the Illinois State Historical Library (Springfield, Illinois: Jefferson Printing and Stationery Co., 1980), 257.
[228] Francis S. Philbrick, ed., *Pope's Digest-1815*, Volume XXX of Collections of the Illinois State Historical Society ("Law Series," Springfield, Illinois: Trustees of the Illinois State Historical Society; 1940) IV, 380-1.
[229] Ibid.
[230] Philbrick, *Laws of the Indiana Territory*, clxxxi.
[231] Dr. Samuel Willard spoke about the severity of flogging in an address before the Illinois State Historical Society on 24 January 1960: "There was then no penitentiary in the state, hence other penalties had to take the place of confinement. Near the courthouse on the public square [in Carrolton, Illinois] there was set a strong post, an unhewn log, ten feet high, with a cross-piece near the top. I saw a man brought from the jail by the sheriff and a constable, to

felonies, youthful offenders, as well as hardened criminals were incarcerated together in foul smelling, overcrowded, and poorly constructed county jails until the Illinois Constitution of 1818.[232] The county jails, which were for the most part rude log dwellings, comprised the earliest forms of punishment of public offenders in the state.

In 1818, Article III, Section 5 of the Illinois Constitution, gave the governor the power to grant reprieves and pardons after conviction by civil courts.[233] In order to obtain a pardon, a petition was usually circulated among respected citizens. With their respective signatures, the petition was then sent to the governor to sign. Article VIII, Section 14 was the first movement towards a more civilized and humane view of punishment. It stated: "All penalties shall be proportioned to the nature of the offense, the true design of all punishments being to reform, not to exterminate mankind."[234]

However, for almost a decade reform of the state criminal code seemed primarily limited to speeches. No positive action was taken until the late 1820s, when Governor Edward Cole, in a speech to the Fifth Assembly in 1826, addressed the deplorable county jail system as a means of justice. The inadequacy of this system was recognized, but the popular antipathy to any increase in taxation prevented the adoption of any other policy until 1827. Without a State Prison, individual counties were subjected to a heavy financial burden. This frequently caused the citizens to petition for the pardon of a criminal merely to rid the county of the expense of his imprisonment. To relieve this inconvenience, as well as to equalize and promote the great ends of punishment, Cole proposed that the state erect a penitentiary.[235]

The Senator John Reynolds, an advocate for abolishing capital punishment, a member of the state legislature, and later governor of Illinois (1830-38), also took up the challenge of reforming the criminal code. Through his agitation, negotiations were started with the federal government to obtain a grant of saline lands, the sale of which would bring in money to construct a penitentiary.[236] In February 1827, three commissioners, Shadrach Bond, William P. McKee, and Gershasm Kane were appointed by the legislature to select a site for a penitentiary. The state

be whipped thirty lashes for the theft of a horse. He was stripped naked to the hips, his hands were tied and the rope was carried to the cross-piece and drawn as tight as could be without taking his feet from the ground. Then Sheriff Fry took that terrible instrument of punishment and torture, a rawhide. It was hard, ridged and rough, but flexible as a switch, three quarters of a yard long. The Sheriff began laying strokes on the culprit's back, beginning near his neck and going regularly down one side of his backbone, former Sheriff Young counting the strokes aloud. Each stroke made a red blood-blister. When fifteen blows had been counted, the officer paused, and someone ran to the poor wretch with a tumbler of whiskey, then the other side of the man received like treatment. Then the man's shirt was replaced and he was led away to the jail. One of the bystanders said, 'O Lord, he isn't as bad cut up as C.H. was when L.M. flogged him three or four years ago.' Boy as I was, I did not know what a dreadful infliction it was. The whipping-post remained there two or three years but I never heard of any further use of it."
[232] Philbrick, *Laws of Illinois Territory, 1809-1818*, xxxiv.
[233] Emile Joseph Verlie, ed., "Constitution Series," *Illinois Style* (Springfield, Illinois: State Historical Library, 1919), 126.
[234] Ibid.
[235] *Journal of the Senate, Fifth General Assembly of the State of Illinois* (Vandalia, Illinois: Robert Blackwell, 1825), 21.
[236] *The Revised Code of Laws of Illinois (1827), Sixth General Assembly of the State of Illinois* (Vandalia, Illinois: Robert Blackwell, 1827), 357.

legislature directed that the location should be in the vicinity of the town of Alton along the Mississippi River.[237] Governor Edwards[238] requested on 2 December 1828 that the Senate allow some of the proceeds from the sale of 30,000 acres of reservation lands given by Congress be allocated to the construction of a state penitentiary.[239] A year later the Commission selected a seven acre site on a bluff overlooking the Mississippi River.[240] Work began on the Illinois' first State Penitentiary in the latter part of 1830.

Alton State Penitentiary

The construction of the state penitentiary at Alton was reported in the annual report of the Boston Prison Discipline Society of 1830, noting that the Lieutenant Governor of Illinois (probably William Kinney, Lieutenant Governor of Illinois, 1826-1830) had visited prison facilities in the eastern United States for the purpose of obtaining information regarding the proper design and configuration of prison buildings.[241] At this time there were two types of state prison systems in operation in the United States: the Pennsylvania or "Separate" System, with solitary cells and isolated exercise yards, and the Auburn (New York) System of individual confinement at night but cooperative labor during the day.

Alton Prison was based on the Auburn System.[242] It was to be a stone structure with 24 cells, similar in size to the cells of the prison at Auburn, measuring 7'-0" deep by 3'-5" wide by 7'-0" high. The structure was to be located in the slope of a hill one hundred yards from the river and a several hundred yards from the town. The grounds, comprising an area 320 by 290 feet, were to be surrounded by a wall 3 to 5 feet thick. The prison officially opened in 1833.[243]

Jacob C. Bruner was appointed the first warden and first postmaster at Alton Prison. His annual salary as warden was $600.[244] The first prisoner admitted was John Dormer from Jo Davies County in northwest Illinois, who was convicted of rape and sentenced to life or 99 years. He escaped after serving one year of his sentence.[245] Prison records also report that in 1833, the beds in Alton prison were made of straw with coverings of blankets and buffalo robes.[246] A daily work performance log was kept. Those inmates who worked efficiently were rewarded with tobacco, sugar, or a cup of coffee.[247]

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[237] Ibid.
[238] "Governor Edwards' insistence upon release of federal lands to the respective states for purposes of improving the state was cited as one of the concessions which the western states will request from Federal Government as have the southern states demanded states rights." (E. Niles, ed., *Niles Weekly Register* 35 (Baltimore: Franklin Press, 1829), 379.)
[239] *Journal of the Senate, Illinois General Assembly 1829* (Vandalia, Illinois: Robert Blackwell, 1825), 9-10.
[240] *History of Madison County*, 378.
[241] *Fifth Annual Report of Boston Prison Discipline Society* (Boston: Boston Type of Stereotype Foundry, 1850), 38.
[242] *Sixth Annual Report of Boston Prison Discipline Society* (Boston: Perkins and Harvin, 1831), 81.
[243] *Reports to the Senate and House of Representatives-1848* (Springfield, Illinois: George Weber, 1846), 101-2.
[244] *Laws of Illinois Passed at the Seventh General Assembly*, 109.
[245] S.W. Wetmore, *Behind Bars, Life and Times in Joliet Prison* (Chicago: Ottaway Printing Co., 1883), 38.
[246] *The Prison System in Illinois*, 588.
[247] Ed McCarthy, "Corrections Traced to State's Founding," *Corrections in Illinois* 5, no. 3, March 1978, 1.

The State Criminal Code of 1833 abolished flogging as a punishment for crime and lengthened the terms of imprisonment. Murderers, as before, were punished by death, as were those who were convicted of the crime of treason. Arson of any dwelling, mercantile building, or public building was punishable by a term of imprisonment not less than one nor more than ten years, and arson of other buildings for a term not exceeding two years and a fine not exceeding $100. The penalty imposed for burglary at night was a term of not less than one nor more than ten years; for robbery, confinement in the penitentiary for not less than one nor more than fourteen years; for larceny, confinement for not less than one nor more than ten years; for embezzlement by a public servant, a term of not less than one year nor more than ten years; for counterfeiting, confinement for not less than one year nor more than fourteen years; for bigamy, a fine not exceeding $1,000 and imprisonment in the penitentiary not exceeding two years; for adultery, a fine of not more than $500 or imprisonment of not more than one year; and for fornication, a fine not exceeding $200 and imprisonment not exceed six months. Persons under the age of eighteen years were to be confined in the county jails except in cases of robbery, burglary, or arson, for which crimes they were sent to the penitentiary.[248] Manslaughter and robbery of amounts of greater than $10 carried sentences from a year to fourteen years, and in the case of rape, a life term at the state penitentiary.[249] Those sentenced to hard labor at Alton were to be confined in the penitentiary, although their work could be in or around Alton."[250]

The Criminal Code of 1833 did not consider any system of paroles, probation, or indeterminate sentencing. Though the very term penitentiary presupposes repentance and reformation, the reformation of the prisoner was not specifically dwelt upon, and appears to be based on humanitarian issues. This desire for humanity is also emphasized by an Act of February 7, 1833, which provided for the appointment of three inspectors whose duty it was to examine "the conduct of the penitentiary, its discipline and police, and the punishment and employment of the prisoners." However, there was a concession in this legislation to the old ideas of prison discipline since by an Act of February 15, 1831, almost autocratic powers were given to the warden. These included the power "to suppress all arisings, rebellions or other refractory conduct of the said convicts, and for that purpose they and each of them (the warden and his officers) shall have power to use all necessary force and violence toward such convicts to accomplish the same." By the prior Act of January 6, 1827, solitary confinement for a term not exceeding thirty days was mentioned as a proper punishment, and flogging as a means of suppressing rebellions, and refractory conduct was, no doubt, still continued even if not actually authorized.[251] The Illinois Constitution (revised by the Criminal Code of 1833) was the first in the Union that abolished imprisonment for debt; it contained the following provision:

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[248] Bruce, et al., *The Workings of the Indeterminate-Sentence Law and the Parole System in Illinois*, 24. Although persons eighteen years old or under were usually not to be sentenced to Alton, but this was not strictly adhered to in later years. In the Wardens Report to the Legislature 1849, a list of inmates reveals several as only fifteen and sixteen years of age. (*Reports to the Fifteenth General Assembly* (Springfield, Illinois: Charles H. Lamphier, 1849), 2.)
[249] *Laws of Illinois 1830, Seventh General Assembly* (Vandalia, Illinois: Robert Blackwell, 1831), 110.
[250] Ibid., 103.
[251] Bruce, et al., *The Workings of the Indeterminate-Sentence Law and the Parole System in Illinois*, 25.

> The object of punishment is reformation and not for extermination, which shows the spirit of the age. On the same principle the penitentiary system was established in Illinois – to reform the convicts and not to exterminate them...it is too brutal and barbarous to whip, crop and brand a man in the pillory if it can be avoided. But one single other amendment do our laws require, and that is to abolish capital punishment and confine the convicts for murder, during life, in a dungeon. Intelligence and the age of progress will in a few years carry out the system, and then we will prevent an ignorant and debased rabble from rushing in thousands to see a human being hung.[252]

Even after the establishment of a state penitentiary, the subcontracting of convicts for labor was authorized. An Act of February 9, 1837, permitted the inspectors of the penitentiary "to farm out the convicts to some individual or some individuals as they, in their judgment, may best advance the interests of the State," and this legislation was followed by an Act of March 1, 1845, which provided:

> ...for the leasing of the penitentiary at Alton and the labor of the convicts now and hereafter to be confined herein, to one Samuel A. Buckmaster, who is to apply the labor of one-fourth of the convicts to the manufacturing of hempen articles within one year from the commencement of the lease, and thereafter the labor of the majority of the convicts for the same purpose. In consideration of this lease, said Buckmaster is to pay to the Treasury of the State a bonus of $5,100 and is also to pay the usual fee of the inspectors, and to furnish at his own expense, the necessary guards and food, clothing, beds and bedding, and necessary bills of physicians for the convicts.[253]

In the early years at Alton penitentiary, escapes were frequent and eventually reached a point in 1839 where the legislature felt obliged to appoint a committee to investigate the conditions.[254] The committee found 28 convicts for whom there were only 24 cells, with 32 additional cells under construction.[255] The female prisoners were kept in a two story building, the first floor housing the shoe shop, clothing room, and laundry, with the upper floor divided into cells.[256] J.C. Bruner and J.R. Hoods, officials at the penitentiary, suggested that the state should lease the penitentiary and its inmates to a private person rather than have the state continue to support it. (Under the lease system, the state entered into a contract with a leasee, who agreed to house, clothe, prevent escape, and put the convicts to work. The state in turn received a set sum for the convicts' labor.[257] (Prior to that time, prisoners could be "farmed out" to individual employers.) The committee concluded that the "alluring" view of the river and town activity enticed the prisoners to plan escapes and that the construction of the prison was such that it was possible for prisoners to converse with persons outside the walls. This seemed to defeat the purpose of the penitentiary and provide additional temptations to escape. The committee recommended that

[252] John Reynolds, "Chicago Historical Society," *My Own Times* (Chicago: Fergus Printing Co., 1879), 172.
[253] *The Illinois Prison System*, 1937, 588.
[254] *House of Representatives Report of January 15, 1839, Reports to the Senate and House of Representatives* (Springfield, Illinois: State of Illinois, 1839), 3.
[255] Ibid.
[256] *Reports to the General Assembly of Illinois at its Twenty-first Session*, 306.
[257] *National Commission on Law Observance and Enforcement* (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1831), 257.

more shops be built in order to employ the inmates and to make the prison more economically self sufficient.[258]

The committee also noted that the walls of the penitentiary were in need of repair. An appropriation of $17,000 was suggested for the building of a warden's house and for rebuilding of the outer wall. Together with the original cost of the penitentiary ($36,715) this brought the total cost for the institution to $53,715. (However, the warden's house was not built until 1849.)

The Alton prison site quickly proved to be a poor choice for this institution. The buildings had been placed on the side of a steep slope, extending down to the Mississippi River. The rain cut deep gullies through the yard, and the walls were always in danger of being undermined.[259] The warden acted as the master of the works, interested in getting as much labor out of his inmates as possible. He had the power to choose his own officers and guards.[260] In 1842 the lease for convict labor services, with Samuel Buckmaster acting as warden, was extended for three more years. In return Buckmaster was to pay all expenses and to give the state $6,000 a year as a "bonus" for use of the prisoners.[261] The following year the legislature reissued the lease to Samuel Buckmaster, but this time for a period of eight years at a price of $5,100 per year.[262]

In their 1844 report, the legislative inspectors noted a decline in prison population.[263] However, a year later, the inspectors reported that the first 88 cells were already insufficient. A decade later 300 prisoners were crowding into 188 small cells at Alton.[264] The following year Miss Dorothea Dix visited Alton and observed the shortage of cell space.[265] Prisoners were chained to walls in passages and some were placed two to a cell, while others were confined in cellars. Miss Dix summarized conditions at Alton as:

> ...too confining; workshops inconvenient and out of repair; walls defective to the point where they are in need of rebuilding rather than repairing; inadequate ventilation; no rules or by-laws regarding the proposed conduct or duties of the prisoners; no record of hospitalized prisoners or of their diseases.[266]

Dix also reported that the prison hospital was in a damp, unventilated cellar; that there was no chapel, chaplain, or moral and religious instructors; and no provision for destitute discharged convicts, whose own clothes were often lost or rotted by the end of their term. There were no provisions for bathing, the eating room had neither flagging nor flooring, but a dirt floor that could not be washed, and that this was the only prison in the United States at that time in which

[258] *Reports to the Senate and House of Representatives-1839*, 178.
[259] *The Prison System in Illinois*, 588.
[260] Bruce, et al., *The Workings of the Indeterminate-Sentence Law and the Parole System in Illinois*, 26-27.
[261] *Chicago Daily American* (28 May 1843), 2.
[262] *Laws of the State of Illinois - 14th General Assembly* (Springfield, Illinois: Walters and Weber, 1845), 105.
[263] *Report to the Senate and House of Representatives-1846*, 103.
[264] McKelvey, *American Prisons*, 32.
[265] Dorothea Lynde Dix (1802-1887) was an American social reformer and pioneer in the movement for specialized treatment of the mentally ill. She influenced the founding of state hospitals for the insane in the United States, Canada, and Europe. Dix also did notable work in penology.
[266] Quoted in *Reports to the Senate and House of Representatives-1846*, 100.

the inmates had to stand while eating their meals.[267] According to Miss Dix, the only economical and practical way to remedy the situation at Alton was to sell the penitentiary and erect a prison on a new site.

The penitentiary at Alton underwent some changes in 1849 after action by the Fifteenth General Assembly. A new Warden's house costing $3,800 and a copper shop costing $3,230 were built. Forth-eight dollars was also appropriated for twenty tables and forty benches.[268] Warden Buckmaster's detailed records documented other reforms including the keeping of a physician's report, and the holding of religious services. In 1849 the General Assembly authorized the Governor to appoint and empower the inspectors to buy adjacent land for the purpose of putting an addition on the penitentiary.[269] In 1855, $34,700 was spent for the building of one hundred and four new cells. In the same year a burial place for deceased convicts was purchased for $300.[270] In 1851, the lease or contract with Warden Samuel A. Buckmaster was once again extended, this time for five years on the same terms and conditions as before.

On 6 January 1857, the *Chicago Daily Tribune* reported "hints of misconduct to the prisoners." These claims were further substantiated by the report of 1857 of the Committee on the Penitentiary that reported that prisoners were fed tainted meat and bread made from spoiled corn and bran causing intestinal disorders. Prisoners were denied sufficient quantities of fresh vegetables resulting in epidemics of scurvy.[271] Prisoners who were thought to be feigning sickness were put under a cold shower. Those who died while in the penitentiary were buried without ceremony.[272]

As a result of this publicity, the lease with Buckmaster was terminated. By an Act of February 16, 1857, a new lease of the penitentiary and its inmates was made to S.A. Casey with the same terms and conditions as the former leases. It was not until 1867 that the policy of making the warden both a jailer and an employer was discontinued.[273]

In February 1857, the Alton town council petitioned the legislature to move the penitentiary from their city. They also asked that the necessary legal steps be taken to give the state a clear title to the penitentiary, so it could be sold for other local and state purposes. The citizens of Alton felt that the penitentiary hindered real estate development. The practice of leasing prisoners provided unfavorable competition with workers in the town, leading to unemployment.[274] The town's request was taken very seriously, and not only because of the constant demand for repairs to the old prison. Due to the rise in the proportion of the inmate population coming from the northern

[267] *The Prison System of Illinois*, 588.
[268] *Report to the Fifteenth General Assembly of the State of Illinois* (Springfield, Illinois: Charles W. Lamphier, 1849), 11.
[269] *Laws of the State of Illinois Fifteenth General Assembly* (Springfield, Illinois: Lamphier & Walker, 1853), 64-65.
[270] *Reports to the General Assembly of Illinois at its Twentieth Session* (Springfield, Illinois: Lamphier and Walker, printers, 1857), 441.
[271] Ibid.
[272] Ibid., 451.
[273] Bruce, et al., *The Workings of the Indeterminate-Sentence Law and the Parole System in Illinois*, 26.
[274] *Reports to the General Assembly of Illinois at its Twentieth Session*, 251.

part of the state (primarily due to the growth of Chicago), costly and dangerous transportation was required to deliver the convicts to Alton.[275]

The New Penitentiary in Joliet

As early as 1840 the House of Representatives of the Eleventh General Assembly had appointed a commission to select a suitable location for a proposed penitentiary in the northern part of the state.[276] This initiative was eventually put on hold. In 1855, a bill was introduced into the House of Representatives for the purpose of selecting and purchasing a suitable site for a new state penitentiary. The original bill asked that the site be located somewhere along the Illinois & Michigan canal; however, this phrase was stricken out of the final draft.[277] On 19 February 1857, the state legislature appointed David Y. Bridges, Chauncy L. Higbee, and Nelson D. Elwood as commissioners for the purpose of selecting a "suitable" location.[278] Nonetheless, the site they selected fronted on the Illinois & Michigan canal, one hundred and sixty by sixty rods in area, north of the town of Joliet.[279] It was purchased by Dr. Anson H. Taylor for $100 per acre, at a total cost of $7,219. The towns of Aurora and Batavia had sought consideration by the state as potential sites for the new penitentiary, but Joliet was selected mainly because of its proximity to stone quarries and the abundance of spring water.[280]

Notices for proposals to construct the east wing and dining hall of the new penitentiary were placed in various newspapers throughout the state.[281] The contract for constructing the penitentiary was awarded to Zadock Casey for his bid of $129,000.[282] In July the construction contract was transferred, upon approval of the penitentiary commission, to Lorenzo Sanger and Samuel K. Casey.[283] Since the penitentiary commission had promised the people of Alton that the old penitentiary would be removed by July 1860 at the latest,[284] the property at Alton was put up for public auction as soon as the bid for Joliet was let.[285] Construction of the penitentiary at Joliet began on 10 August 1857. Sanger and Casey were permitted to use convicts in the construction of the new penitentiary.

[275] Ibid., 451
[276] *Journal of the House of Representatives Eleventh General Assembly* (Springfield, Illinois: William Walter, public printer, 1839), 267.
[277] *Reports to the General Assembly of Illinois at its Nineteenth Session* (Springfield, Illinois: Lamphier and Walker, printers, 1855), 415.
[278] *Laws of the State of Illinois Passes at the Twentieth General Assembly* (Springfield, Illinois: Lanphier & Walter, 1857), 131. The commissioners, along with the architects, Otis Leonard Wheelock (1816-circa 1886) and William W. Boyington (1839-1898) of Chicago, visited penitentiaries in Ohio, New York, Pennsylvania, New Jersey, and other states to study the needs and designs of penal institutions.
[279] *Daily Illinois Journal* (6 May 1857), 2.
[280] Since the buildings were to be of stone nearness to a quarry was essential. *Laws of the State of Illinois Passed at the Twentieth General Assembly, 1857*, 131.
[281] *Reports to the General Assembly of Illinois at its Twenty-first Session*, 165.
[282] Ibid., 166.
[283] Ibid., 169.
[284] Ibid., 153.
[285] *Daily Illinois State Journal*, 4 September 1857, 3.

While Joliet was being constructed, Lewis G. Pilsbury, former superintendent of Albany County Penitentiary in New York, "the model institution of the country," was asked to assume charge. However, Casey became Warden upon its opening and Pillsbury was placed in charge of the remaining convicts at Alton.[286] On 13 August 1858 a fire at Alton prison destroyed nearly all the workshops, with an estimated $30,000 in property damage. The state subsequently closed the prison, moving out the remaining prisoners by 24 July 1860.[287]

Of the 40 acre tract of land selected for the Joliet penitentiary, only fifteen acres were to be enclosed by a wall, 800 feet square, 25 feet high with a 5 foot wide catwalk on top. The plans called for a four story Warden's residence, 98 by 87 feet, costing $20,000; two cellblock wings of four hundred cells each, 260 by 54 feet, at a cost of $73,000 per wing; and a kitchen and a dining room, large enough to seat 1,000 inmates, measuring 264 by 66 feet, at a cost of $13,000. Additional cells, as well as individual cells for women, were estimated to cost $17,000.[288]

By July there were 145 prisoners engaged in the construction of the new penitentiary at Joliet.[289] Although funds appropriated in 1859 and 1860 were exhausted, work continued as the need for a secure and safe penitentiary was immediate. In 1861 the office of the Superintendent of the Penitentiary was discontinued, and the discipline and government of the prison was given over to the warden.[290] The perimeter wall of the penitentiary was finished on 1 April 1863.[291]

As the completion of the Joliet penitentiary neared, a reform movement promoted changes in the administration of state penal institution. One of the greatest defects of the Illinois institutions was the general lack of employment. It was commonly believed that work properly done was the surest proof of reformation and of fitness for release. No reformation, however, could be accomplished when men had no work for months at a time. In the 1860s, Mr. Louis N. Robinson reported to the National Crime Commission that employment was recognized as essential in English and German correctional institutions, in spite of the large number of unemployed in the free population. Employment was even furnished when men were awaiting trial. It was thought, however, that in no instance should prison wardens or those who were directly entrusted with the care, supervision, and reformation of the convicts be allowed to make a personal profit from their labor. This had been the defect of earlier experiments.[292]

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[286] *Chicago Daily Press,* 24 April 1858, 1. The legislature also passed an act requiring the lease to provide five hundred dollars for a library to which the prisoners were to have free access.
[287] After the state abandoned the Alton penitentiary, the federal government took it over as a military reservation for Confederate prisoners and Southern sympathizers during the early years of the Civil War. At one point it confined 2,000 men. (*The Prison System in Illinois*, 589.) A few ruined stone walls are all that remains of the prison today on Williams Street just north of Broadway, adjacent to downtown Alton. A marker tells the ruin's history as Illinois' first state prison and subsequent use as a Civil War prison. However, tourist literature in the town highlights the connection to the Civil War era rather than as Illinois' first state prison.
[288] *Reports to the General Assembly of Illinois at its Twenty-first Session*, 171.
[289] Ibid., 230.
[290] Reverend S.G. Lathrop, *Crime and Punishment* (Chicago: Norton & Leonard, printers, 1866), 243.
[291] *Reports to the General Assembly of Illinois at its 23rd Session*, 1863, 228.
[292] Bruce, et al., *The Workings of the Indeterminate-Sentence Law and the Parole System in Illinois,* 27.

During the 1860s, the number of Illinois state charitable institutions increased from three to eight emphasizing the need for central management. A board of public charities was created in 1869 with authority to inspect all public institutions except the state prison. Frederick Hoard Wines, son of a New York reformer, was chosen as secretary for the board. In the years that followed the county jails and city jails of Chicago benefited from his advocacy.[293]

In 1867 the state investigated the system of the lease arrangement being used at Joliet. Its findings left the state to assume management of the prison. Governor Richard Oglesby appointed three commissioners to take over the penitentiary, ending the original lease plan. Simultaneously, the use of the lash was abolished as the main vehicle of punishment by the state legislature.[294] In Section 37 of Chapter 81 of the Statutes of 1868 and on page 30 of the Session Laws of 1867, flagellation was outlawed. However, solitary confinement and food deprivation (except minimal sustenance of bread and water) were permitted.[295]

In 1874, when Major Robert W. McClaughry became warden at Joliet, he began a program focused on the welfare of the inmates. He installed air ducts above the cell blocks, forcing fresh air into the poorly ventilated cells.[296] He also showed concern over the number of stairs that had to be climbed to reach the top tier of cells; thus causing a "good deal of heart trouble among the prisoners." While McClaughry was warden at Joliet, the Prisoner's Aid Society of Chicago was formed in 1882 to aid the discharged prisoner in obtaining employment.[297] It was largely through the efforts of Warden McCaughry that a new system of prisoner identification was started at Joliet. This system had been developed by Alphonse Bertillion at the LaSante prison in Paris in 1870.[298]

The basis of Bertillion's anthropometric identification system, was the measurement of the length of the head, which was classified as short, medium, or long. The width of the head was classified next using the terms short, medium, or long. As an example, the prisoners would be classified under short-medium, short-short, etc. Measurements of the middle finger on the left hand and the length of the left foot completed the identification. All of these were recorded along with distinguishing marks, the height, and weight of the prisoner.[299] The case of quickly

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[293] McKelvey, *American Prisons,* 56.
[294] Prior to 1867 the lash was reportedly utilized frequently and mercilessly, but it is not clear what the warden's true authority was to inflict this punishment. Although in Criminal Code of 1833 said nothing concerning flagellation as a means of prison discipline, in a prior Act of January 6, 1827, the powers of the warden were defined and those powers did not include its use. (Ibid., 31.)
[295] In the Act of July 1, 1871 this section was amended to strike out every reference to solitary confinement. (Bruce, et al., *The Workings of the Indeterminate-Sentence Law and the Parole System in Illinois,* 31.)
[296] *Proceedings of the Annual Congress of the National Prison Association of the United States*, 1889, 47. Warden McClaughry was a progressive and active member of the National Prison Association. He remained at Joliet a period of fourteen years. He then became warden of the Federal Prison at Leavenworth, Kansas. (Illinois State Historical Library, *Transactions of the Illinois State Historical Society, 1919* (Springfield, Illinois: Illinois State Journal Company, 1920), 81-82.)
[297] *Charter Constitution and By-Laws of the Prisoner's Aid Society of Chicago* (Chicago: Calvert, Page, Hoyne and Co., 1882), 7.
[298] Edmund Spearman, "Known to the Police," *The Nineteenth Century* 36, July-December 1894, 259.
[299] Alphonse Bertillion, "The Bertillion System of Identification," *The Forum* 11 (New York: Forum Publishing Co.,

ascertaining the true identity of a prisoner made this an attractive plan. Instead of looking through thousands of names it was now possible to narrow down the number of possibilities.[300]

Southern Illinois Penitentiary

Although the original plans for the penitentiary in Joliet were thought to be sufficient to house prisoners at least for a generation, it was filled in less than ten years.[301] The number of convicts increased in the period at the end of the Civil War, including a large number of the inmates disabled due to war wounds. The punitive criminal laws of the state were believed to be responsible for the overcrowded conditions, as well as the general population increases that occurred in Illinois during and after the war. A 1836 report of the superintendent of the penitentiary advised the legislature that an adjustment of the laws would eliminate the necessity of building a new penitentiary. It stated that two-thirds of the total inmates had been sentenced for larceny and of that number, three-fourths were for stealing property of a value of less than $20.[302] In 1863 a law was passed lowering the minimum amount to $15, although the commissioners had recommended a minimum of $25.[303] As a result, criminals that might not otherwise be placed in state custody were sentenced to Joliet.

In April 1877 a bill was introduced into the legislature to enlarge Joliet prison. It was decided however, to substitute the Southern Penitentiary bill already passed by the House in 1876. By August several sites were examined, and Grand Towers in Jackson County was highly recommended by the Commissioners. It was located on the Mississippi in the southwestern part of the state, about fifty miles from Cairo, although it was "comparatively inaccessible" for transportation purposes.[304] The site was finally rejected however by the committee of Governor S. K. Cullom, Attorney General Jones E. Edsall, and Public Auditor T.S. Needles. The committee revisited Grafton, Alton, East Carendelet, and Chester, with the later finally selected as it was located only three miles from the sand quarries near the Kaskaskia River. The selected site was a limestone bluff overlooking the Mississippi River and containing 122 1/2 acres.[305] It was purchased from Mr. Jacob Bunn for $25 an acre.[306] The selection of the site was influenced by the Great Railroad Strike of 1877. The commissioners of the Southern Illinois Penitentiary did not want to be dependent on the railroad, and access to the river allowed a secondary means to reach the new prison. They felt that the site at Chester, while on the river, was high enough to be safe from the river water flooding.

1990), 333.

[300] *Proceedings of the Annual Congress of the National Prison Association of the United States*, 1889, 18-27.

[301] By 1884, Joliet was listed as the fourth largest penitentiary in population in the United States, with a daily average of five hundred and thirteen inmates. By December of the following year, there were one thousand seventy-three inmates, necessitating the housing of two men in some cells.

[302] *Reports to the General Assembly of Illinois at its 26th Session*, 179.

[303] *Reports to the General Assembly of Illinois at its 23rd Session*, 35.

[304] Ibid.

[305] Flooding of the Mississippi in 1881 altered its' course, with the Mississippi taking over the river bed of the Kaskaskia. The prison was then located on the Mississippi River and the confluence of the Kaskaskia and Mississippi occurred approximately a mile upstream.

[306] *Reports to the General Assembly of Illinois at its 31st Session* (Springfield, Illinois: Weber and Company, 1879), 10.

The commissioners originally had plans prepared for a cellhouse with 200 cells and "warden house" or administration building, which by the law authorizing the new prison's construction was to conform to the same basic layout as the Joliet Prison. The size of the cellhouse was soon enlarged to 400 inmates and a second, flanking cellhouse was constructed a few years later. Most of the labor used to build the prison facility was furnished by prisoners transferred from the Joliet prison. Two hundred prisoners transferred from Joliet when the first cellhouse opened in 1878.[307] From that time on the southern district court of Illinois sent convicted inmates to Southern Illinois Penitentiary.

1880 to 1900

In February 1883, the state legislature passed a law requiring the warden to keep a record of infractions incurred by prisoners. If a prisoner did not have any infractions after a month, one day was subtracted from his time; two months without infractions resulted in the subtraction of two more days; three months without infractions, took off three days; and subsequent "good" months, deducted five additional days per month from the original court sentence.[308] Under this new commutation act, when a certificate of "good behavior" was presented to the governor, all the rights of citizenship forfeited by imprisonment were restored to the ex-prisoner.[309]

Both Joliet and Southern Illinois Penitentiary (also known early on as Menard) housed male and female inmates: Joliet at a floor of its' administration building and Menard on the upper floor of its' laundry building. In 1889 legislation was passed requiring female prisoners to be sent to Joliet prison, where in 1896 a separate Women's Prison was opened adjacent to the original buildings.

H.D. Demont became warden at Joliet Prison in 1891. He maintained that punishment based on solitary confinement rather than corporal punishment brought better results with violators of prison rules.[310] For the violation of prison rules he first administered restricted privileges. If the misconduct continued, he ordered solitary confinement. Warden Demont stated, that there was not a man in Joliet prison whom he could not calm down by placing the offender in "solitary" for 48 hours.[311] Subsequent users of the system placed prisoners in solitary with their arms handcuffed through the cell door, being let him down only at noon each day. Another painful practice was the issuing of thin sole slipper that caused the prisoners' ankles to swell from the long contact with the damp cold floor of the solitary cells.[312] Documentation shows that discipline at Joliet was always strict, and in this respect it was conceded by inmates to be "one of the worst prisons in the old days."[313]

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[307] The second cellhouse was built in 1890. *The Prison System in Illinois*, 593.

[308] *Public laws of the State of Illinois passed by the 23rd General Assembly* (Springfield, Illinois: Baker and Phillips, printers, 1883), 63.

[309] E.C. Wines and Theodore W. Dwight, *Report on the prisons and Reformatories of the United States and Canada* (Albany: Van Benthuysen and Sons, Steam Printing House, 1867), 156.

[310] Charles Richmond Anderson, *Modern Prison Systems* (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1903), 187.

[311] *Proceedings of the Annual Congress of the National Prison Association of the United States*, 1893, 153.

[312] Charles L. Clark and Earle Edward Burbank, *Lockstep and Corridor.* (Cincinnati: University of Cincinnati Press, 1927), 89-90.

[313] Ibid., 123.

In 1896, the Women's Prison at Joliet opened in a structure adjacent to the Joliet Prison. In the fall of 1896, 66 women inmates, including 19 that had been convicted of murder, were admitted to the new prison. The new facility had been constructed by the male inmates of Joliet for $75,000. Most of the women inmates worked in the laundry, where approximately 500,000 items of clothing were cleaned each month. Inmates were held in single person cells. Unlike the limited recreation activities available in the Joliet Prison, where women inmates rarely were allowed out of doors, the new prison had its own recreation yard.[314]

State Reform Schools

An item of concern in the post-Civil War period was the lack of suitable places of confining juvenile offenders. In response J. Brockway, a leader in juvenile reform, advocated the classification of prisoners by the court or some other authority upon the basis that "the technical title of the crime is not a sure index of the offender's character."[315] To this end, Illinois enacted a law in 1867 and supported by the Illinois Teachers' Association, asking for the construction of an institution known as the "State Reform School" for the reformation of juvenile offenders and vagrants. The purpose of the institution was to take charge of boys between the ages of eight and eighteen and to educate them along industrial and vocational lines.[316] Under the law, the boys were employed under "light" labor contracts, with a maximum work day of six hours.[317] Sixty-four acres at Pontiac in Livingston County was donated by Jesse Pell of Normal as a site for the school.[318] In June 1871, the Illinois State Reformatory at Pontiac opened. It was a reform school for male first offenders between the ages of 16 and 26 years.

In 1899 the passage of the Illinois Juvenile Court law made possible the establishment of the first separate court for children with probation as one of the fundamentals. In 1899 the juvenile court system in Illinois was begun with the opening of the Chicago Juvenile Court.[319]

In 1901 the Illinois State Training School for Boys, located near St. Charles, opened as minimum security facility. The institution took in orphan and delinquent boys from ages 10 to 17 years. The typical stay for youths in the institution was 6 months.[320]

Pardons

Originally, the only way that a prisoner could be released early was through the governor's pardon. This practice evolved from the early territorial code, wherein the power to commute or shorten sentences was vested in the President of the United States.[321] Later territorial

[314] John Whiteside, "Behind Bars at the Joliet Women's Prison," http://www.copleynewspapers.com/joliet/ prisons/women/women.html [Joliet Herald-News, 1999].
[315] Allen Thorndike Rice, ed., *The North American Review* 87, 1883, 42-43.
[316] John A. Wigmore, ed., *Illinois Crime Survey* (Chicago: Blakely Printing Co., 1929), 437.
[317] *Blue Book of the State of Illinois, 1895* (Chicago: William Hollister & Bros., 1895), 256.
[318] Ibid., 236.
[319] H. Loo, *Juvenile Court of the United States* (Chapel Hill, 1927), cited in N.S. Yimashaff, *One Hundred Years of Probation -1841-1941* (New York: Fordham University Press, 1941), 45.
[320] Paul Powell, ed., "Illinois Spokesman for Rehabilitation of Adult and Juvenile Offenders," *Blue Book of the State of Illinois, 1969-1970*, 643.
[321] John A. Wigmore, ed., *Illinois Crime Survey* (Chicago: Blakely Printing Co., 1929), 429.

constitutions did not specifically mention the power of granting pardons, although it was felt that this was one of the implied powers inherent in the executive office of each state or territory.[322]

On 7 January 1867, in the opening address to the Twenty-fifth General Assembly, Governor Richard J. Oglesby requested that an attempt be made to set up a more stringent pardon policy. His suggestion was that the convict should place a notice of his intention to petition for a pardon in the newspaper at least four weeks in advance, in order to give proper publicity to the application.[323]

By an Act of June 5, 1897, a State Board of Pardons was created consisting of three persons, not more than two of whom belonging to the same political party, to be appointed by the Governor, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate. Section 5 of the Act provided that:

> All petitions and requests for pardons and commutations shall be addressed to the Governor as heretofore, and, as to form, accompanying statements, publication of notices, etc., shall be governed by the Act of May 31, 1879, entitled "An act to regulate the manner of applying for pardons, reprieves and commutations," except that the three weeks notice provided in that act to be given hall have reference to the hearing before the Board of Pardons, and not the Governor; and every such petition or request shall, before its actual presentation to the Governor, be filed and kept in the office of the Board of Pardons for the preliminary action of said Board as contemplated by this act.[324]

The pardon system was not instituted so much as a reward for a prisoner's reformation, as indicated by his conduct inside the penitentiary, as it was the result of "extra-mural" influence. Outside influence was often necessary to gain release of these that had proved their innocence while in prison.[325]

The Development of Parole

The practice of giving improved offenders release from prison after a period of good behavior has been traced to Boston where John Augustus, a humanitarian-minded shoemaker, advocated for clemency for convicted drunkards and personally sponsored a number of persons during their probationary periods. This practice was adopted in 1841.[326]

The formal application of parole dates from reforms in the mid-nineteenth century. On Norfolk Island in the 1840s, the superintendent of the island prison colony developed a form of release giving the inmate's responsibility for their actions. Similar release procedures were used in Ireland in the 1850s. In the United States, parole was discussed at the first annual meeting of the American Prison Association (later the American Correctional Association) in Cincinnati, Ohio, in 1870. Parole was officially established in New York State in 1877.[327]

[322] Philbrick, *Laws of the Illinois Territory*, ccccIxiii.
[323] *Reports to the General Assembly of Illinois at its 25th Session*, 1867, 19.
[324] Ibid., 40-41.
[325] O'Hare, *Life and Leisure of Elizabeth L. Comstock* (Philadelphia: John C. Winston & Co., 1895), 1947.
[326] Kenyon Scudder, "Common Sense in Penology," *Survey* 133, no. 8, August 1947.
[327] Edward E. Rhine, "Parole Boards," *Encyclopedia of American Prisons*, 342-3.

In the early history of Illinois, although there was no recognition of parole in the statutes, the power was exercised by the Governor in certain cases under his constitutional power to grant pardons, reprieves, and commutations.[328] The same state legislative act in 1867 that led to the establishment of a state reformatory provided the beginnings of the parole system in Illinois. In Section 17 of this Act it states:

> When any person is committed by any court of competent jurisdiction to the reform school, or growing up in mendicancy, ignorance, idleness, or vice, the reform school board shall be constituted the guardian of his person, and said board may detain him until his reformation is deemed complete, or he shall have arrived at the age of 18 years; and they shall have power to bind out, under the most favorable conditions, with consent of said minor, if over 14 years of age, to any inhabitant of this state, and the said board master or mistress, apprentice or servant shall respectively have all the rights, to be subject to all the duties set forth by the statute laws of this state, relative to apprentices, guardians and wards.
>
> Said board shall also have power to permit such persons in their guardianship as they shall judge for subjects for such treatment, to be placed out under the care of any proper person or persons in this state, on 'ticket of leave'; and such person so placed out, may be kept and retained by such person or persons during the pleasure of the board and subject at all times to their regulation and control.[329]

In 1879, under a constitutional provision that allowed the legislature to make rules for the method of applying for pardons, a statute was passed that required all applications be in writing and accompanied by statements from the presiding judge and prosecuting attorney. The Act of 1867 was followed a number of years later by an Act of June 18, 1891, which provided that:

> Sec. 16. The said board of managers shall have the power to establish rules and regulations under which prisoners within the reformatory may be allowed to go upon parole outside of the reformatory building and enclosure, but to remain while on parole in the legal custody and under control of the board of managers and subject at any time to be taken back within the enclosure of said reformatory; and full power to enforce such rules and regulations to re-take and re-imprison any inmate so upon parole, is hereby conferred upon said board, whose order, certified by its secretary and signed by its president with the seal of the reformatory attached thereto shall be a sufficient warrant for the officer named in it to authorize such officer to return to actual custody any conditionally released or paroled prisoner, and it is hereby made the duty of all officers to execute said order the same as ordinary criminal process: Provided, that no prisoner shall be released on parole until the said board of managers shall have satisfactory evidence that arrangements have been made for his honorable and useful employment, for at least six months while upon parole, in some suitable occupation.[330]

The General Parole Act of 1895 was passed through the influence of Governor John P. Altgeld. A system of paroles was provided for, which was to be exercised by a Board of Prison

[328] Bruce, et al., *The Workings of the Indeterminate-Sentence Law and the Parole System in Illinois*, 44.
[329] Ibid., 29-30.
[330] Ibid. The Act of 1891 established a parole system for male juvenile offenders.

Commissioners to be appointed by the Governor by and with the consent of the State Senate.[331] It was applicable to misdemeanors only. It was, however, amended before passage against the protest of State's Attorney Charles Deneen and others so as to include all felonies excepting treason and murder. On 10 June 1897 it was further amended and manslaughter and rape were added to the excepted crimes.[332]

Governor John Altgeld patterned his parole system for Illinois after that of Massachusetts. It differed from a pardon in that parole released an offender from penal or correction institution after serving a portion of his sentence, but was still under the administrative custody of the state. Under these conditions the state could re-incarcerate in the event of misbehavior.[333] The system required that district parole officers visit each parolee daily.

Indeterminate Sentencing in Illinois

Prison sentences determined by not only the courts but by the decision of a parole authority are called indeterminate sentences, i.e., the courts may specify a minimum length of sentence, but the parole authority reviews inmates' cases after this period to determine if sufficient reformation has taken place. If not, inmates continue their sentence until rehabilitation has occurred. In the United States, New York's Elmira Reformatory introduced a form of indeterminate sentencing in 1877.

Illinois passed an Indeterminate Sentence Act in 1897.[334] The act stated:

> ...every person over twenty-one years of age who shall be convicted of a felony or other crime punishable by imprisonment in the penitentiary, excepting treason, murder, manslaughter and rape, shall be sentenced to the penitentiary, but the court imposing such sentence shall not fix the limit or duration of the sentence, and the term of imprisonment of any person so convicted and sentenced shall not exceed the maximum term provided by law for the crime for which the person was convicted and sentenced, making allowance for good time as now provided by law.[335]

This legislation, it was thought, made possible the system for separating the improvable from the incorrigible. The power to parole offenders lay with the Board of Pardons. In its first form this law did not include persons who formerly had been committed to a state penitentiary. This law was repealed in 1899 and a new act was passed which made even an habitual criminal eligible for parole.[336]

[331] Ibid.
[332] Ibid., 37.
[333] "Parole," *The Attorney General's Survey of Release Procedures*, Volume IV (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Justice, 1939), 4.
[334] The Indeterminate Sentence Act was passed with the support of reform governor John Peter Altgeld. Altgeld discusses this concept of sentencing and provides supporting comments in *Our Penal Machinery and Its Victims* (1884), reprinted in John P. Altgeld, *Live Questions* (Chicago: Geo. S. Brown & Son, 1899), 52-62. By the 1960s, many states replaced their indeterminate sentencing laws with definite penalties.
[335] Bruce, et al., *The Workings of the Indeterminate-Sentence Law and the Parole System in Illinois*, 37.
[336] It was rescinded in 1907.

Decline of the Contract Labor System

The evils of the prison lease or contract labor system in Illinois led to its abolishment in 1867. The Public Account-Contract system was inaugurated in its place, by which the prison administration became the manufacturer and seller for goods produced by the prisoners' labor.[337] This reform turned out to be an expensive one. The cost of operating the Joliet Prison under the new plan for the next four and a half years was $874,000, far in excess of appropriations. Although the Illinois Constitution of 1870 had forbidden the "letting out" of convict labor, Governor Palmer, alarmed at the deficit, urged the adoption of the straight contract system.[338] Under this plan, initiated in 1872, labor was performed within the confines of the prison, but under the direction of the firm hiring the labor and with machinery provided by that firm. Convict labor was advertised in Illinois newspapers.[339] This system soon led penal institutions to become "anxious" for offenders with long terms in order to increase profits – inmates with long prison terms were more productive than shorter term inmates since they had well developed labor skills.[340] The first year of operation under the straight contract system in the state involved the Fuller Cigar Company and the Illinois Car Company: the former paid the state 55¢ a day for each convict worker and latter paid 70¢ a day for the first 75 inmates and 72¢ a day for the next 75.[341] Criticism of this system was voiced by humanitarians as well as organized labor, as the program was run with little regard for the rehabilitation of the prisoner.[342]

It wasn't until 1893 that outgoing Governor Joseph W. Pifer noted that the Illinois Constitution forbade convict labor and asked that some type of employment be found that was not in competition with "free" labor of the open market. The prison administration, however, took no action, and the Governor did not press the matter. On 11 April 1899, a commission was created to investigate convict labor systems in the State of Illinois. In 1903, a law was passed forbidding prison labor to manufacture any goods other than those to be used in state institutions. Subsequently the state established a board of Prison Industries, composed of the commissioners of the penal institutions at Joliet and Menard and the Board of Managers from the Illinois State Reformatory at Pontiac, to coordinate and distribute products from prison shops.

With the passage of the law in 1903, the contract labor system was eliminated. The law was designed to take the profit motive out of prison administration and to substitute a more enlightened view of rehabilitation. Under the new law, 40 percent of the prisoners were to be employed in the manufacture of goods to be sold on the open market. The state and its prisons entered upon this plan with enthusiasm but it fell far short of anticipations. Manufacturers and organized labor soon attacked it and gradually succeeded in reducing industries so that idleness became "a menace and curse."[343]

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[337] Gillin, *Criminology and Penology*, 409.
[338] *Reports to the General Assembly of Illinois, 1892* (Springfield, Illinois: HW Rokker, 1893), 6.
[339] *Daily Illinois State Journal*, 26 April 1877, 4.
[340] John Mitchell, "The Wage Earner and the Prison Worker," *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, 16 March 1913, 12.
[341] *Illinois State Penitentiary, A Report of the Committee* (Springfield, Illinois: State of Illinois, 1875), 12.
[342] Albert Tilendis, "The Prison Labor Problem in Illinois," Unpublished thesis, University of Illinois, Urbana, 1941, 36.
[343] Ibid.

Obsolescence of the Joliet Prison: Construction of Stateville

By 1900 the prison in Joliet was nearly 50 years old and portions of the facility were in very poor condition. Reports from the officers and warden discussed the need for repairs and improvements to the buildings of the institution. New buildings were requested, but by 1906 the commissioners of the prison expressed the desire to abandon the facility. Besides the squalid conditions within the prison, it was located less than 200 feet from the Illinois Steel Company plant. The state legislature passed an act in June 1907 creating the "Penitentiary Commission," charged with the selection of a 2,000 acre site for a new prison.[344] With the aid of geologists and agronomists (in order to insure that the land was suitable for farming), the commission chose a site 2,193 acres in size on high ground 1/4 mile west of the Des Plaines River and approximately 5-1/2 miles northwest of the Joliet Prison.

The commission members appointed W. Carbys Zimmerman as architect of the new facility. He was lead partner in the firm Zimmerman, Saxe & Zimmerman and served as Supervising Architect for the State of Illinois from 1905 to 1913. Zimmerman and the commission spent several years studying the design of prisons in the United States and Europe before developing and unveiling their plans.

The new penitentiary plans called for circular cell houses, patterned along the lines of Jeremy Bentham's panopticon, or inspection house. The circular design enabled every cell to receive sunlight with hot and cold running water in each cell.[345] The original plan of the institution was laid out within a high wall enclosing a 64 acre yard. The buildings were aligned in an axial arrangement centered on a circular dining hall that served as the hub on the building complex. Each of the eight planned panopticon cellhouses were connected to the dining hall with enclosed corridors. On the main east-west axis, a corridor connected the Administration Building at the east end with the dining hall and continued onto the power station flanked by storage and prison industry buildings at the west end. On the north-south axis, corridors connected the dining hall with the prison hospital on the north and chapel on the south.

Actual construction of the first cellhouse on the new prison near Joliet, soon named "Stateville," began in 1917. Inmate labor was again used, with prisoners quartered in farmhouses that had been moved to near the center of the site and grouped together.[346] Around 1927, it was decided not to complete the prison using panopticon cellhouses. Therefore, only four of the eight planned circular cellhouses were constructed, followed by a fifth cellhouse using the Auburn System floor plan.[347] Other deviations from the original master plan were made as well. Construction on the institution was formally concluded in 1932 with the completion of the prison hospital building.

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[344] John Lambert, James A. Patten, and Ira A. Copley, *The New Illinois State Penitentiary, Stateville, Ill.* (n.p., 1919), 1
[345] *The Daily Pantagraph*, 24 September 1920, 17.
[346] *Journal of the Senate to the General Assembly* (Springfield, Illinois: Illinois State Journal Company, state printer, 1917), 206.
[347] This cellhouse (Cellhouse B), along with nearly identical cellhouses constructed concurrently at Pontiac and Menard, has been described as the largest Auburn System plan cellhouse in the world.

Probation

In 1911, probation was extended to select classed of adult inmates in Illinois, but only for certain crimes. As in the case of paroles, the scope of the statutes gradually increased. By an Act of June 28, 1915, the Act of 1911 was amended to be applicable to all offenses except murder, manslaughter, rape, kidnapping, willful and corrupt perjury or subordination of perjury, arson, larceny and embezzlement where the amount taken or converted exceeded $200 in value, incest, burglary of an inhabited dwelling house, and conspiracy against election laws. Under this legislation, probation officers were to be appointed by circuit judges, with not more than one officer provided for every fifty thousand inhabitants of the state. In 1919 the system was rendered more effective by a provision that the compensation and expenses of the probation officers should be paid out of various county treasuries.[348]

Administrative Changes

Before 1917, each state prison was more or less managed independently of the others by its own board of trustees appointed by the governor. Earlier centralizing bodies had lost political battles to control the state prisons. The prison administrators had resisted all efforts by the State Board of Charities to obtain supervisory and inspection authority. They were also successful in 1909 in removing themselves from the State Board of Administration.

On 1 July 1917 the Civil Administrative Code was passed, creating the Department of Public Welfare, which consisted of a Director and Assistant Director of Public Welfare, an Alienist,[349] a Criminologist,[350] a Fiscal Supervisor, a Superintendent of Prisons, a Superintendent of Pardons and Paroles, and a Superintendent of Charities. The Board of Pardons and Paroles, replacing the Board of Pardons established in 1895, was made a subdivision of the Department of Public Welfare. The nominal head of this board was the Director of Public Welfare and the active and operating officer was the Superintendent of Pardons and Paroles. The other members of the board were not clearly identified. Presumably, the members were to be chosen from the personnel of the Department of Public Welfare, although this practice was generally not followed.[351] In 1919, the Division of the Criminologist began routine examination of all inmates being considered by the Parole Board.

The passage of the Civil Administrative Code coincided with entry of the United States into World War I. During the war, former inmates on parole who enlisted in the armed forces were

[348] Bruce, et al., *The Workings of the Indeterminate-Sentence Law and the Parole System in Illinois*, 43.
[349] An Alienist was an early term for psychiatrist. The term was adopted by many judicial and mental health agencies for the title of the individual holding an official position.
[350] Illinois was first state to officially recognize the profession of the criminologist. Herman Adler, a professor of psychiatry at Harvard Medical School, was the first to be appointed to the position, which was primarily advisory in nature. However, Adler's first act was the creation of the Institute for Juvenile Research, which was also the first of its kind in this country. The First Civil Administrative Code, Illinois Revised Statutes, Chapter 108, Paragraph 109 (1917) provided for the Division of the Criminologist with primary activities that included the direction of the mental health treatment and rehabilitation program within the Psychiatric Division of the Illinois State Penitentiary System, where a daily average of over 600 patients were hospitalized as (a) mentally ill, or (b) in need of mental treatment or (c) intellectually deficient with continuing criminal propensities, or as (d) sexually dangerous persons. (Arthur V. Huffman, "Criminologist," *1965 Annual Report, Department of Public Safety*, 52.)
[351] Ibid.

given final discharge from the penal system after serving for six months. The Superintendent of Pardons and Paroles reported in late 1917 that approximately 200 inmates on parole had joined the service, with another 1,200 inmates still in prison who were physically fit enough to enter the army.[352]

In 1920, the Progressive Merit System was implemented, with the new prison at Stateville near Joliet as its' focus:

> There will be inaugurated a progressive merit system that will encourage and give opportunity to the inmates to prepare themselves for ultimate freedom through the operation of the Parole Law. Under this system, after sufficient progress has been made by the inmates, the plans for construction make the sort of provisions that will enable the management to give opportunity to the prisoners to live in and learn how to adapt themselves properly to community life.[353]

The Progressive Merit System was developed from many years of experience by John L. Whitman, warden of the old Joliet Prison. Upon entering prison, all prisoners were to be placed in C grade, with the possibility of working up in grades through their conduct, general disposition, and mental attitude. Inmates were to be assigned to Section 1 of the prison, consisting of two of the intended eight cellhouses. In Section 1, prisoners were kept under close supervision and were given no responsibilities. The cellhouses in this section were the "strongholds" of the prison. The supervision exercised was intended to reveal the natural or vicious tendencies of each prisoner so as to enable the officials to decide upon the sort of treatment or training necessary for the inmate's improvement.

While the inmates were under constant daily observation, accurate markings of behavior were made and weekly records were compiled into monthly averages. Inmates were to be given a copy of this record. Each month the inmates were called before a staff committee composed of the warden, deputy warden, psychiatrist, and physician. Bad marks led to inmates being set back into lower grades. Inmates who showed habits of industry and development of character were to be advanced to the four Section 2 cellhouses, each cellhouse varying in degree of restraint and size and number of inmates per cell. If progress continued, the inmates were considered to fit subjects for assignment to sections outside the walls in the cottages of Section 3. These cottages were arranged similarly to a college dormitory, in which the inmates were "looked upon as men worthy of being trusted, at least to some extent." The 12 cottages were to house 15 men per cottage. Training then continued with possible advancement to Section 4, the prison farm, and then to the ultimate goal of consideration by the Board of Pardons and Parole.[354]

[352] *Proceedings of the Annual Congress of the American Prison Association, New Orleans, Louisiana, November 19 to 23, 1917* (Indianapolis: Wm. B. Burford, 1917), 246-7.
[353] *State of Illinois Department of Public Welfare Annual Report, July 1, 1917, to June 30, 1918*, 243.
[354] John Lambert, James A. Patten, and Ira A. Copley. *The New Illinois State Penitentiary, Stateville, Ill.* (n.p., 1919), 1; *Third Administrative Report of the Directors of Departments under the Civil Administrative Code Together with the Adjutant General's Report, For the year, July 1, 1919 to June 30, 1920* (Springfield, Illinois: State of Illinois, 1920),, 337-8.

In 1923, the position of State Probation Officer was created by the General Assembly. This position, however, was not filled until August 1929. In a bill approved 6 July 1927, the Civil Administrative Code was amended.[355] With this bill the Board of Pardons and Paroles was split into a new Board of Parole with a separate appropriation, consisting of the Superintendent of Pardons and Paroles and nine other members, and a Board of Pardons.[356] Both Boards were advisory, though their recommendations were usually recognized by the Governor. However, the Governor was not necessarily bound by their decisions, since pardoning power was vested in his office by the state Constitution, with paroles legally a conditional pardon.[357]

Clabaugh Commission

The violent murder of Deputy Warden Peter Klein at Stateville in 1927 led to an investigation of the Board of Parole. In examining Klein's personal effects after the murder, a small notebook was discovered containing information on trafficking in paroles in the institution. As a result of the scandal, the chairman of the Board of Parole and the director of the Department of Public Welfare both resigned. An inquiry commission consisting of Judge Andrew A. Bruce, affiliated with the Northwestern University Law School; Albert J. Harno, Dean of the College of Law at the University of Illinois; and Ernest W. Burgess, professor at the Department of Sociology and Anthropology at the University of Chicago. The Clabaugh Commission, as the inquiry came to be known (for Hinton G. Clabaugh, Chairman of the Parole Board of Illinois), studied not only the parole system but also the entire prison system in Illinois since its development. The committee appointed John Landesco to act as field worker and Clark Tibbits as research assistant.[358]

In their final report, the committee determined that the indeterminate sentencing system was adequate, but that the parole system needed to be free from political influence. Parole board members needed to be more conscientious in their duties. Regarding the workings of the prison system, the three primary institutions (Joliet, Pontiac, and Menard) were all overcrowded to a degree and that most inmates were idle. Industrial training was deficient, as was educational efforts. Recommended reforms included renovation of the physical plant at many of the institutions, as well as reformation of the administrative structure.

The Honor Farm and State Reformatory for Women

In the 1920s, the concept of the honor farm system was introduced in the State of Illinois.[359] One of the first such institutions was founded at Stateville. Stringent means were used in selecting men to go to the farm. However, some prisoners seemed unable to resist the temptation to escape. Eventually the selection of inmates became stricter and a semi-secure building was created in which men were locked at night.

In 1927 an act was passed creating the State Farm at Vandalia, where male misdemeanants served sentences from sixty days to one year. The prisoners were to be housed in wooden

[355] *Laws of Illinois*, 1927, 844.
[356] Bruce, et al., *The Workings of the Indeterminate-Sentence Law and the Parole System in Illinois*, 45.
[357] Ibid.
[358] Ibid., iii and ix.
[359] Gangs of prisoners were also placed on road work before concrete surfaced roads were perfected. This experiment was continued for a year or two and then abandoned.

dormitories with a capacity of 125 men each.[360] The creation of a penal farm for petty offenders had been the idea of the State Charities Commission.[361] In 1935 the Department of Public Welfare issued a regulation that only those men with good records and less than eighteen months to serve should be assigned to the honor farm.[362]

Also in 1927, the state legislature established a State Reformatory for Women, which gave the Department of Public Welfare the power to transfer the women inmates at Joliet to the reformatory upon its completion.[363] The institution founded by this legislation was located at Dwight, with prison buildings based on the cottage plan. Opened as the Oakdale Reformatory for Women, it received its first inmates on 24 November 1930. It had eight separate cottages, each with thirteen single rooms, a kitchen, a living room, and a porch. The 100 acre tract was surrounded by a wire fence.[364] The growth of separate institutions for women convicts in the United States was slow. By 1943 only one-half of the states had such institutions.

Prison Conditions

In the late 1920s, Illinois conducted an exhaustive survey of its penal institutions and the administration of justice. This Illinois Crime Survey compared conditions at the penitentiaries at Joliet and Menard, observing that the Southern Illinois Penitentiary had progressed to a greater degree than Joliet.[365] While the condition of the penitentiary at Joliet was poor, Southern Illinois Penitentiary at Menard was praised as being in "excellent" condition.[366]

Around the time the Illinois Crime Survey was published, the U.S. Congress passed the Hawes-Cooper Act in 1929, which required that after five years prisons were to divest themselves of industries that competed with the open market.[367] Illinois law already prohibited sale of prison made goods to private parties and limited distribution to state officials and state supported institutions. The restrictions placed upon the marketing of prisoner made goods had a demoralizing effect upon the inmates in the penitentiary work programs. These work programs included shoe and boot factories, fiber furniture, clothing, sheet metal, and carpentry.

However, 20 years later Frank D. Whipp, superintendent of the Illinois Division of Prisons in 1942, reported his concern about the conditions in the "old style" cellblocks at Joliet and Menard:

> The average cell in these old cellhouses is dungeon-like, being four feet wide, seven feet long, and seven feet high. The cell is usually shared by two inmates, with approximately 100 cubic feet of air for each inmate. There is no outside air, and no toilet facilities, except the unsanitary night bucket, and a jug of water. In these stone cells the atmosphere

[360] *The New York Times*, 25 May 1931, 1.
[361] *The Institution Quarterly* 7, no. 2 (30 June 1916), 111.
[362] Ibid.
[363] *Journal of the Senate, The 55th General Assembly* (Springfield, Illinois: State Journal Printing Co., 1927), 1574.
[364] Fred Haynes, *The American Prison System*, (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1939), 100. Subsequently, the facility was renamed the Illinois State Reformatory for Women, and in August 1973, the Dwight Correctional Center.
[365] Wigmore, *Illinois Crime Survey*, 491-505.
[366] *Journal of the Senate, 45th General Assembly of the State of Illinois*, 843.
[367] Paul W. Tappan, *Crime, Justice and Correction* (New York: McGraw Hill, 1960), 239.

is almost unbearable especially in warm and hot weather when the odor of human bodies and toilet buckets is intense. Many of the state institutions have remodeled their old-style cellhouses by installing plumbing and restricting the use of the cells.[368]

Illinois State Penitentiary System

In 1933, the Illinois State Penitentiary System was created. Under this system, all state prison programs were consolidated and coordinated. Judges sentenced inmates to the Illinois State Penitentiary rather than to a specific institution.[369] The final placement of incoming inmates was made at one of two Diagnostic Depots, with one set up at the former Women's Prison at Joliet and the other at the Illinois State Penitentiary, Menard Branch. Also in 1933, Pontiac was officially designated a part of the Illinois State Penitentiary system after having held adult inmates for several years. In 1935 the statewide inmate population was approximately 13,000, with 6,000 at Joliet, 2,500 at Pontiac, 3,000 at Menard, 1,100 at Vandalia, and 275 at Dwight.

Illinois was one of the first states to inaugurate a defined system of classifying prisoners. In 1931, the practice of separating types of prisoners was initiated.[370] When Illinois instituted "classification," the primary concern of administrators was to develop a file of case studies which could be used later as a source of information for developing and implementing the penal program. Special note was made of intelligence and educational levels of prisoners, nationality, family and religious background, occupational skills, and previous criminal record. In each prison a unit composed of one or more psychiatrists, psychologists, and sociologists, all working under the direction of a state criminologist, made studies of the prisoners.[371] The two receiving stations or Diagnostic Depots were designated for the initial diagnosis and classification of all prisoners prior to placement within the Illinois Penitentiary System.[372] Findings from these studies were of immediate value in planning vocational activities for prisoners and were later of value to parole boards.

The first program for the formal training of prison guards was initiated on 5 April 1939, when Warden Joseph Ragen at Stateville initiated an experimental Training School for Officers. Sixty men who had passed an examination by the Civil Service Commission reported to the sixty day curriculum, established to produce qualified officers to serve as guards in Illinois state prisons.[373]

In 1941 the Illinois Department of Public Safety was established, which included the Illinois State Police and the state prison system under its jurisdiction. Other divisions of the department included the Psychiatric Division at Menard (later named Menard Psychiatric Center), the state penal farm at Vandalia, the Bureau of Criminal Identification, parolee supervision, fire prevention, and crime prevention. A Division of Narcotic Control and State Police Merit Board was also added to this department.[374]

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[368] Ibid.
[369] Ed McCarthy, "Corrections Traced to State's Founding," *Corrections in Illinois* 5, no. 3 (March 1978), 2.
[370] Tappan, *Crime, Justice and Correction*, 92.
[371] Edwin H. Sutherland, "The Prison as a Criminological Laboratory," *Prisons of Tomorrow*, Sutherland and Sellin, ed. (N.p., 1931), 135.
[372] Arthur V. Huffman, Criminologist, *1965 Annual Report, Department of Public Safety*, 52.
[373] *State of Illinois Department of Public Welfare, Twenty-second Annual Report, June 30, 1939*, 524.
[374] Ibid.

At this time (circa 1940s), the Joliet Branch had two large cell houses and a total inmate population of 1,800. Joliet held repeat offenders and men not considered to be improvable. The industries consisted of a textile plant, a mattress shop, a concrete shop, and a quarry located outside the walls but approached by an underground tunnel. After 1933, several of the support buildings dating from the 1860s and 1870s were demolished to make room for a baseball diamond and playing field.

The Pontiac Branch housed first offenders of the "improvable type." Pontiac had three cell blocks, holding a total of 2,600 inmates. Industries at Pontiac included a large foundry, a shoe shop, a machine shop, a blacksmith shop, and a sheet metal shop. Education was also emphasized at Pontiac.

The Menard Branch contained two separate units: the General Division and the Psychiatric Division (which was established in the late 1930s). To the latter were sent inmates from all the branches that showed signs of being or becoming insane. The Psychiatric Division inmates were kept segregated from the General Division. The General Division had three cellhouses and a dormitory. Menard had two rock quarries, one inside the walls and another outside, and a large knit shop. Also located at Menard was the tobacco plant, which supplied all smoking and chewing tobacco to the state penal and mental institutions, and a brush and broom shop. Menard also had its own farm surrounding the institution.

Men convicted of misdemeanors and offenses less serious than felonies continued to be sentenced to the Illinois State Penal farm, located two miles north of Vandalia. The men located here served sentences of one month to one year, with a rapid turnover of the population. The average population was 1,100. The farm occupied 3,000 acres of land, and produced dairy products, vegetables, grain, and meat.

The Illinois Women's Prison at Dwight occupied 60 acres of landscaped grounds and was surrounded by a high steel mesh fence. The eight cottages housed inmates and employees together. One cottage at Dwight was set aside as a receiving station for sociological, psychological, and physical examinations, operating as a diagnostic depot on a small scale.

The number of inmates who escaped was 1.1 per 1,000 inmates during the year 1939, compared to 1.8 in 1938 and 3.3 in 1929.[375]

Prison Riots

A series of riots broke out at the penal institutions in Illinois in the early part of 1931. At Joliet, some prisoners alleged that the riots were the outgrowth of an incident involving the killing of three convicts while they were trying to escape during the previous February.[376] Reportedly, the guards had known of the planned escape three weeks in advance and it was therefore believed that the killing was unnecessary. Others reported that the riots were the result of unfair parole

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[375] Bowen, *Fifteenth, Sixteenth, Seventeenth and Eighteenth Annual Reports of the Department of Public Welfare*, 315.
[376] *The New York Times*, 23 March 1931, 14.

laws. Additional riots broke out soon after at Stateville, resulting in serious damage to one of the prison industry buildings.

Riots at Menard in 1952 had ramifications far outside the prison. With the nomination of Illinois Governor Adlai Stevenson as the Democratic candidate for president, some events in Illinois took on national importance. One week before the presidential election, Governor Stevenson was forced to break his campaign schedule to fly back to Illinois to oversee the end of a hostage crisis at Menard. A riot began on 27 October 1952, when approximately 340 of the 650 inmates of the East/West Cellhouse returning from the evening meal, seized control of cellblock and took seven guards as hostages. After attempts to obtain the release of the hostages failed, the cellhouse was retaken by force. The action was successful, resulting in only one inmate receiving wounds from which he later died. The officers held as hostages were released unharmed.[377]

Treatment of the Criminal Insane

From 1851 to 1853, the officials at Alton Prison were confronted with seven cases of insanity among the inmates. The difficulty involved in transferring them to the Hospital for the Insane at Jacksonville prompted a decision to house the more dangerous prisoners in a separate building on the penitentiary grounds. A building with 24 cells was constructed with walls 14 inches thick and double doors of iron and wood.

In 1889 the Thirty-sixth General Assembly passed an act to provide for an asylum for the insane criminal, making appropriations for the construction of a building. The site selected was on the grounds of the Southern Illinois Penitentiary at Chester. On 1 November 1891 the Illinois Asylum for Insane Criminals at Chester received its first prisoners.

The 1933 General Assembly also approved new provision for care of the criminal insane.[378] These acts provided for a classification of prisoners by institutions. To carry out these new laws, it was necessary to renovate the building formerly used as the Women's Prison at Joliet. Nearly $100,000 was expended.[379] In 1933 legislation created the Psychiatric Division of Illinois State Penitentiary at Menard (later named Menard Psychiatric Center). Construction of a new facility to the north of the North Cellhouse at Menard soon followed, and upon completion was reported to be the best in the United States at this time for the care of insane criminals.[380]

The old hospital for insane criminals at Menard, then known as Chester State Hospital, was renamed the Illinois Security Hospital. In 1943, the jurisdiction of the Illinois Security Hospital at Menard was transferred to the Department of Public Welfare, administrators of the state's mental health facilities.

[377] William E. Doherty, "Menard Prison Riot Smashed," *Chicago Sun-Times,* 1 November 1952, p. 2; Martin, 750; and Joseph D. Bibb, Director, *Annual Report of the Department of Public Safety, for the Fiscal Year July 1, 1952 - June 30, 1953*, 48.
[378] *The Prison System in Illinois,* 595.
[379] Ibid.
[380] Ibid.

Juvenile Reformatories

The St. Charles School for Boys was renamed the Illinois State Training School for Boys in 1939. Two years later the Sheridan Correctional Center, located 70 miles west of Chicago, was completed. It served as a juvenile facility.[381] The Illinois Industrial School for Boys at Sheridan, a maximum security facility, opened in 1950 as the Illinois State Reformatory, later renamed the Industrial School. The school received males between the ages of 13 and 20 years.[382]

The Illinois Youth Commission was formed in 1953, assuming administrative control over the Illinois State Training School for Boys (St. Charles), Illinois State Training School for Girls (Geneva), and the Illinois Industrial School for Boys (Sheridan). Illinois Youth Center - Joliet, a maximum security juvenile facility for males, opened in 1959. The center later evolved from a juvenile reception and classification center to housing the most aggressive juvenile delinquents and felons in the Juvenile Division. In August 1960, the Illinois Youth Commission established the Kankakee States Boys' Camp (later named the Illinois Youth Center - Kankakee). In March 1963, Pere Marquette State Forestry Camp (Illinois Youth - Center Pere Marquette) opened at Grafton, and became part of the forestry camp system. It housed boys between the ages of 14 and 17. The core of the treatment program consisted of work projects, recreation activities, an academic curriculum, and counseling services. Work assignments consisted of aiding the staff at the Alton State Hospital, the Department of Conservation, and community service projects in nearby towns.[383] In 1964 the Illinois Youth Center - Warrenville opened. It was the first coeducational juvenile facility to be accredited. The former St. Joseph's Servite Seminary became the Illinois Youth Center - Valley View on 3 October 1966.

1960 to 1970

Prison industries in early 1960s were reported to be self-sustaining and functioned through a revolving fund in the State Treasury with tax subsidies. They consisted mainly of a furniture and upholstery department, book bindery and cardboard products plant, garment department, soap plant, sheet metal shop, mattress factory, shoe factory, textile mill, quarry, sign shop, foundry, broom and brush factory, tobacco factory, concrete plant, knitting mill manufacturing hosiery and underwear, and wax industry. Sales of industrial products were approximately $5 million annually.[384] Extensive farm operations were also conducted in the 1960s at the various institutions, producing a large part of the beef and pork, milk and dairy products, fresh vegetables, as well as grain and feed for hogs, beef, and dairy herds. Large quantities of vegetables and garden produce were canned each year.[385]

On 15 November 1965, the Vienna Correctional Center opened as a minimum security prison without walls or fences. Located in southern Illinois adjacent to the Shawnee National Forest, the center exemplified the newly introduced concept of a prison without the usual walls and guard towers. Inmates were provided an environment conducive to maximum rehabilitation. It was

[381] It was converted to an adult facility in 1973.
[382] Paul Powell, ed., "Illinois Spokesman for Rehabilitation of Adult and Juvenile Offenders," *Blue Book of the State of Illinois, 1969-1970*, 643.
[383] Paul Powell, ed., "Illinois Spokesman for Rehabilitation of Adult and Juvenile Offenders," *Blue Book for the State of Illinois, 1969-1970*, 645.
[384] "Department of Public Safety," *1963 Annual Report Department of Public Safety*, 3.
[385] Ibid.

built on a 3,400 acre site and constructed in a four stage building program that would eventually accommodate 1,200 inmates. The first fifteen inmates were admitted on 23 November 1965.

In the mid-1960s, Illinois initiated halfway house and work release programs for adult offenders to assist them in making the transition from prison to the community. Two such halfway house facilities were planned initially, with one in the Chicago area serving northern Illinois and one in the East St. Louis area serving the southern part of the State. The work release program allowed the transfer of prisoners who:

> ...have completed at least one half of their minimum sentence and have not been convicted of aggravated kidnapping, treason or murder. The program allowed inmates with work release status to be released from confinement during reasonable hours for the purpose of carrying on gainful employment, if, in the opinion of the Department, the prisoner's progress toward rehabilitation would be advanced by such employment and no undue risk to the public would result.[386]

Joliet Community Correctional Center opened in 1968. In 1974, this work release facility moved to the St. Charles Pastoral Center, located at Route 53 and Airport Road in Romeoville.

1970 to 1980

The Illinois Department of Corrections was established on 1 January 1970 by an Act of the 76th General Assembly, combining all the functions of the Illinois Youth Commission and the correctional responsibilities formerly performed by the Department of Public Safety. This single code agency operated two major divisions: one for juveniles (boys under age 17 and girls under age 18 years) and one for adults. The Juvenile Division maintained 11 correctional facilities, the Adult Division maintained 9. The agency's correctional programs were geared toward providing proper treatment for juvenile and adult offenders, as well as creating humane living conditions within all the correctional institutions, making them safe for both offender and staff.[387]

In addition to its responsibilities to adult and juvenile offenders, the Department of Corrections was charged with the setting of standards and the inspection of all municipal and county jails throughout the state. In addition, Department staff sought cooperation with universities throughout the state to establish training seminars and courses of study relative to law enforcement and sociology to provide proper training of personnel at the state's detention facilities. One such program was Southern Illinois University's Center for the Study of Crime and Delinquency.

Winnebago Community Correctional Center began operating as a work release center in 1970, growing from an original 15 bed facility to a 95 bed facility in 1995. The former Kane County Springbrook Tuberculosis Sanitarium near Aurora became the Fox Valley Community Correctional Center in April 1972.

[386] Illinois was the eighth state in the nation to operate work release at the state level. "Criminologist," *Annual Report Department of Public Safety, 1967* (Springfield, Illinois: State of Illinois 1967), 56.
[387] Ibid.

In early 1972, the state's penal code was revised, allowing more privileges to inmates. These revisions, many of which were influenced by the problems that led to the rioting at Attica Penitentiary in New York State, included lowering of restrictions on the number of letters that an inmate could send each month; guidelines for prison staff on the use of tear gas and other anti-rioting procedures; the formation of an inmate grievance committee (initiated the following year in Illinois, as discussed below); and elimination of the ban on conversation between inmates and guard staff.[388] In December 1972, riots at Pontiac left two dead; the riots were sparked by fighting between rival members of two Chicago street gangs.[389]

Toward the end of 1973, the Department of Corrections announced the appointment of the first prisoner advocate and the first superintendent of the correctional training academy. The prisoner advocate, a former inmate of the federal prison system, investigated inmate grievances and worked with institution staff to correct complaints to the satisfaction of inmates and guard staff alike. He also acted as a representative for the residents when rules, regulations, and procedural changes were initiated at the institutions.[390] Early in 1974, the department announced the appointment of a youth advocate for the Juvenile Division.[391]

In a unique arrangement of corporate sponsorship, the Illinois Youth Center – Warrenville was constructed by the Standard Oil Company in 1973 at no cost to the taxpayers of Illinois. The center was designed as a reception center for juvenile females, with incarceration facilities for male and female juvenile offenders.[392] Also in 1973, the Sheridan Correctional Center was converted to an adult correctional facility. Metro Community Correctional Center in Chicago was first opened in December 1973. It was relocated to a different facility in March 1975.

Also in 1973, an overhaul of the state prison system was announced by corrections director Allyn Sielaff. The intent of these changes was "to transform Illinois prisons from paramilitaristic, dictatorial institutions to establishments concentrating on needs of the inmates."[393] The prisoner advocate, a former inmate of the federal prison system, investigated inmate grievances. Other goals included expansion of inmate education and training programs. The results of a study of health care conditions were also announced, including lack of proper facilities and equipment, inadequate staff, and poor record keeping. Several measures were being taken or being studied to correct these deficiencies, including the possibility of covering inmates under Blue Cross and Blue Shield health insurance.

The office of Program Services was established in mid-1973 and was responsible for the department's school district, vocational and educational training, chaplain services, library services, treatment services, correctional training academy, university liaison, medical services

[388] John O'Brien, "Inmates Get More Privileges Under Revised Penal Code," *Chicago Tribune*, 27 February 1972, sec. 10, p. 11.
[389] James Jackson, "Changes Follow Riot at Pontiac State Prison," *Chicago Tribune*, 1 July 1973, sec. 1, p. 35.
[390] Michael J. Howlett, ed., "Illinois Corrections Moves Forward," *Blue Book for the State of Illinois, 1973-1974* (Springfield, Illinois: State of Illinois, 1974), 314.
[391] *Illinois Department of Corrections Fact Sheet*, 2.
[392] Information downloaded from the website for the Illinois Department of Corrections, at www.idoc.state.il.us, February 1999.
[393] William Juneau, "Major Prison Overhaul Pledged," *Chicago Tribune*, 20 August 1973, sec. 1, p. 11.

administration, volunteer services, and planning and evaluation.[394] The Office of Operations was also created in mid-1973 to administer services for correctional industries, food services, internal investigations, security, safety, and sanitation.[395]

In January 1974, the Department of Corrections announced that it was considering the conversion of Dwight Correctional Center from a female to a minimum security male facility. Women inmates were to be transferred to several correctional centers, including Cook County Jail. However, in April the department decided that the facility would remain an all women correctional center.[396]

Also in 1974, the Department of Corrections was facing criticism for its implementation of legislation dating from 1969 that allowed administrative staff to release inmates temporarily (typically a three-day period) on the basis of good behavior in prison. This procedure was implemented to adjust inmates for their return to society. It was reported that the department was misapplying the procedure, allowing dangerous convicted criminals to walk the streets.[397] The department's response was that, "the furlough program has a 99.4 percent 'success' rate," and that between 1972 and 1974 6,450 furloughs had been granted.[398] Two years later, the procedure was found to be unconstitutional by an Illinois Circuit Court judge, citing that it was an improper assumption of judicial powers by the executive branch of state government.[399]

In 1974 the Illinois Law Enforcement Commission provided a grant of $300,000 to the Department of Corrections to establish a training academy for correctional personnel.[400] In 1976 a permanent facility was established at St. Xavier College in suburban Cook County. Space for both instruction and housing was limited, and it was evident that the department needed to seek a larger facility for the training academy.

In 1975, the Department of Corrections had jurisdiction over 7,100 offenders, including 6,200 adults and 900 juveniles. In addition, 3,100 adults and 1,800 juveniles were under parole supervision. The department's staff numbered approximately 4,800 and the agency's operating budget for fiscal year 1975 was $76,972,600.[401] Adult Division Institutions in 1975 included Dwight Correctional Center, Joliet Correctional Center, Menard Correctional Center, Menard

[394] Michael J. Howlett, ed., "Department of Corrections," *Blue Book for the State of Illinois, 1975-1976* (Springfield, Illinois: State of Illinois, 1976), 341.
[395] Ibid.
[396] "Women to Remain at Dwight," *Chicago Tribune,* 23 April 1974, sec. 2, p. 2. The year before, the John Howard Association issued a report stating that the facility was "run by nineteenth century standards which cause the 112 inmates to suffer profound psychological oppression..." (Steven Pratt, "Howard Association Blasts Dwight Conditions," *Chicago Tribune*, 4 April 1973, sec. 1B, p. 11.
[397] "Furloughs for Murderers," *Chicago Tribune*, 2 September 1974, sec. 1, p. 12. The procedure was included in penal reform legislation in 1969 and signed into law by Governor Richard Ogilvie. (Allyn R. Sielaff, Director, Illinois Department of Corrections, "Prison Furlough Success," *Chicago Tribune*, 2 February 1972, sec. 2, p. 2.)
[398] "Prison Furloughs Defended," *Chicago Tribune*, 12 September 1974, sec. 1A, p. 1.
[399] William Juneau, "Judge Rules Furlough, Work Plans Unconstitutional," *Chicago Tribune*, 11 March 1976, sec. 1, p. 2.
[400] "Illinois Corrections Moves Forward," *Blue Book for the State of Illinois, 1973-1974*, 314.
[401] *Illinois Department of Corrections Fact Sheet,* 2.

Psychiatric Center, Pontiac Correctional Center, Sheridan Correctional Center, Stateville Correctional Center, Vandalia Correctional Center, and Vienna Correctional Center.

The Office of Field Services for the Adult Division consisted of parole supervision, community correctional centers (halfway houses), work release, and pre-release programs for adult offenders. Those selected for participation in the work release program were transferred from their place of confinement to one of the department's seven work release centers located in Chicago (with three facilities), Joliet, Brimfield, Carbondale, and Aurora. Inmates in the program were allowed to leave the facility during the day, returning at night to a supervised environment. A portion of their earnings was placed in a trust fund that was released to them on parole.[402]

The pre-release program included all residents who had been granted a parole and who were awaiting release to parole status. Group and individual counseling was provided, enabling staff to determine each resident's needs. From the pre-release program the "client" moved into a parole situation, either to a community correctional center, where he resided for 60 to 90 days undergoing additional one-to-one counseling, or else to his own home.[403]

In 1975 the Juvenile Division institutions had youth centers in Channahon, near Morris; Dixon Springs, near Brownfield; Du Page near Naperville; Geneva; Hanna City, near Peoria; Joliet; Kankakee; Mississippi Palisades; St. Charles; Grafton; and Valley View, between Peoria, Chicago, and St. Charles. The Office of Field Services of the Juvenile Division was responsible for providing community based programs and services to juveniles through the Community Services Unit, Special Services Unit, and Family and Youth Counseling Services. Working closely with local citizens, staff assisted in organizing community efforts to combat juvenile delinquency and to provide parole services to youths as they returned to the community. The Community Services Unit provided both professional and para-professional auxiliary services to communities in the state by consultation, public education, surveys, training conferences and close liaison with community organizations, schools, juvenile courts, police departments, and private social agencies.[404]

The prison population in Illinois had increased by 22 percent between 1974 to 1975, leading to requests in fiscal year 1975 to increase appropriations of $105 million by 10 percent. The reasons for this increase included "get tough" attitudes on crime and improved conviction rates by police and prosecutors. With the increase, Illinois' prisons were approximately 80 percent full in early 1976. Total capacity of Illinois state prisons was 10,500 inmates.[405] Overcrowding was reported to be increasing and contributing to inmate violence, with "double celling" becoming common at some facilities. By August 1976, prison population was 9,005, which was reported to be less than the absolute maximum capacity but 2,469 more than the "ideal" population.[406]

[402] Ibid., 5.
[403] Ibid.
[404] *Illinois Department of Corrections Fact Sheet,* 10.
[405] Jon Van, "Prison Population Soars – and So Does the Cost," *Chicago Tribune*, 7 March 1976, sec. 1, p. 5. The article also gives a statement by Norval Morris, dean of the University of Chicago law school, that inmate "population growth among poorly educated, unemployed minorities is significant because these are the people most likely to be sent to prison."
[406] Charles Mount, "Overcrowding Blamed for Violence in Prisons," *Chicago Tribune*, 17 August 1976, sec. 2, p. 1.

Until 1976 the warden of each prison was responsible for his own manufacturing or farm operation. In that year, the prison industry program officially became "Illinois Correctional Industries," under which the program was controlled by the central industries office. These changes allowed Correctional Industries to utilize its resources more effectively.

Urbana Community Correctional Center, a community based adult male correctional facility, opened in March 1976 in a converted office building leased from Champaign County. The initial capacity of 70 residents was expanded to 83 in November 1987, to 108 in June 1994, and finally to 112 in June 1995. Logan Correctional Center, opened in 1977, was formerly the Farm Colony of Lincoln Developmental Center dating from the late 1880s. Decatur Community Correctional Center, a coed adult residential facility, opened on 21 May 1979.

Projections by the department in early 1977 estimated that by the mid-1980s the inmate population would be between 15,000 and 17,000, and that $400 million to $1 billion would be necessary to bring all state corrections institutions into line with federal standards.[407] In January 1977, newly inaugurated Governor James Thompson announced several measures to reduce the overcrowding at Illinois prisons. These included re-establishment of the diagnostic facility at the former women's prison at Joliet; conversion of some of the juvenile corrections facilities to medium security adult facilities for non-violent offenders; and establish a pre-release center in Chicago.[408]

In May 1977, a report was released of a two year study by the National Clearinghouse for Criminal Justice Planning and Architecture, a group that included staff from the School of Architecture at the University of Illinois.[409] The study determined that several of the state's corrections facilities were in violation of federal corrections guidelines for cell space requirements, as well as other guidelines. The state's three maximum security prisons, Stateville, Pontiac, and Menard, were determined to be inadequate in many areas, including physical hazards to guards and inmates; lack of sufficient counseling, recreation, and medical facilities; and pressing needs for proper classifications of mentally disabled and other special needs inmates.[410]

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[407] Bob Wiedrich, "Build More Jails – or Free Criminals," *Chicago Tribune*, 14 January 1977, sec. 3, p. 4. The column also states that "many of the facilities are historic." This was perhaps a gentle way of saying that they were "old and obsolete."

[408] John Elmer, "Thompson Offers Plan to Reduce Prison Ranks," *Chicago Tribune*, 21 January 1977, sec. 1, p. 16.

[409] National Clearinghouse for Criminal Justice Planning and Architecture. *Illinois Corrections Master Plan: Adult Division.* Urbana, Illinois: Board of Trustees of the University of Illinois, 1977.

[410] Richard Phillips, "Abandon 4 Largest Prisons, Lighten Sentences, State Told," *Chicago Tribune*, 18 May 1977, sec. 1, p. 3. The following year David Fogel, onetime nominee for the position of director of the Illinois Department for Corrections, stated the following in an editorial in the *Chicago Tribune* (David Fogel, "Guards: Forgotten Men in Prison," *Chicago Tribune*, 31 July 1978, sec. 4, p. 3.):

> In Vienna, Ill....the Vienna Correctional Facility was opened in 1971. It appears to be a suburban community. Cellblocks are neighborhoods, cells are rooms, the big yard is a town square, the chapel is a church, there are workshops and shopping areas, a barber, gymnasium, music facility, and a spacious school, library...
>
> The academic program boasts some 30 courses. Half the student body is made up of convicts; the others are townspeople who come on campus as fellow students.
>
> Vienna has a full range of offenders, from swindlers to murderers. But they are defined as safe, are treated as aspiring humans, and they respond, given the normal range of problems with almost 500 people in a congregate living program.
>
> Illinois is at a crossroad. We can continue the fortress prison operation (Pontiac, Stateville, Menard) or we can build smaller, but more secure, Viennas [Vienna Correctional Center], closer to urban areas....From a historical point of view, the current horror of Pontiac will fade into indifference when the General Assembly becomes preoccupied with other matters. Eventually we will all pay for our indifference towards guards and volatile prison conditions, as 95 percent of the inmates eventually become our neighbors...

One of the most serious outbreaks of violence in recent history of Illinois prisons occurred at Pontiac in July 1978. Three guards were killed and seven other corrections employees were injured when approximately 1,100 of the 2,000 inmates rioted. Three inmates were hospitalized. Two hundred and fifty guards and state police were required to quell the disturbance. During the uprising, fires damaged the commissary, chapel, general store, laundry, and clothing store buildings. Some 150 firefighters from surrounding communities were required to put out the various fires.

In March 1979 the Illinois House of Representatives approved a prison renovation bill, which included improvements at Stateville and Pontiac, as well as the Illinois Youth Center at Kankakee, Menard, and Illinois Youth Center at St. Charles. The total appropriation, subsequently approved by the Senate in a modified form, was $37.2 million.[411] In 1979, the only program for sex offenders in Illinois was at the Menard Correctional Center in the Menard Psychiatric Center. The program was voluntary for inmates.[412]

In 1979, the Department of Corrections signed a contract for the lease of the former Concordia Seminary located in Springfield. In the latter months of 1979 and early months of 1980, staff records and equipment of the guard training academy were transferred from the former cramped quarters in Cook County to the new Department of Corrections administrative headquarters and Academy installation on the site of the former Seminary. Although some management staff transferred with the Academy, it was necessary to hire an almost totally new teaching staff, as well as clerical personnel, to staff the Academy. The first classes began in Springfield in 1980 with a four week class for pre-service correctional officers. In 1981 the facility had 97 dormitory rooms with multiple capacity to house some 245 students. Maintenance of the facility and grounds was performed by inmate labor.[413]

1980 to the Present

In June 1980, the Department of Corrections announced plans to construct a new 500 to 600 bed medium security prison in Cook County as well as a 350 bed expansion to Sheridan Correctional Center. The plans to build a new prison in Cook County were based on the recommendations of a legislative panel appointed in the wake of the 1978 Pontiac riots. The department also planned to reduce the number of inmates at Pontiac Correctional Center and to convert it to a medium

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[411] Mark Polzin and Mitchell Locin, "Illinois House OKs Prison Renovation Bill," *Chicago Tribune*, 30 March 1979, sec. 3, p. 9.

[412] "Treatment for Sex Offenders," *Chicago Sun-Times,* 15 January 1979, p. 29.

[413] Michael P. Lane, Director, *Corrections Training Academy Status Report*, State of Illinois (June 1981).

security facility. This would involve the demolition of the two Auburn plan cellhouses flanking Pontiac's administration building.[414]

The East Moline Correctional Center, located on a bluff overlooking the Mississippi River, opened in 1980 with a design capacity of 688. On 24 September 1980 the John A. Graham Correctional Center was opened. In October of 1980 the medium security Centralia Correctional Center, designed to hold 750, received its first inmates. The first ethanol production plant built on prison property anywhere in the nation was completed in 1980 at the Vienna Correctional Center. On 16 August 1980, the Jessie "Ma" Houston Community Correctional Center, a residential facility housing 50 adult females, opened just north of downtown Chicago near the city's "Gold Coast" area.

The *Illinois Blue Book* for fiscal years 1981 and 1982 reported an adult population exceeding 14,000 and almost 1,200 juveniles in the thirteen prisons, three work camps, twenty-one work release centers and eight juvenile centers. The staff of the Department of Corrections numbered more than 7,500 with a budget of more than $250 million annually.[415] In 1982, pressure was brought on the Department of Corrections to eliminate the double celling of inmates at Pontiac Correctional Center; this would have been impossible without the release of hundred of inmates. A federal judge gave the department 60 days to respond with a plan of action.[416] However, the U.S. Court of Appeals later ruled that double celling was legal, since the practice did not have a direct effect on the health or safety of inmates.[417] An appeal of this ruling was later rejected by the U.S. Supreme Court.[418]

In August 1983, the Safer Foundation opened Crossroads Community Correctional Center at 3210 West Arthington, in Chicago in a building once housing the YMCA adjacent to the Sears, Roebuck and Company Merchandise Plant. Illinois Youth Center – Harrisburg opened in 1983, having been formerly the A.L. Bowen Developmental Center, operated by the Department of Mental Health, and built in 1966. Dixon Correctional Center also opened in 1983 as the largest medium security facility in Illinois; it also was the first Illinois prison for male inmates to have a woman as warden.[419] The facility, originally opened on 1 May 1918 as the State Colony for Epileptics and later renamed Dixon Developmental Center, housed a general population of male and female inmates as well as a Special Treatment Center for developmentally disabled inmates. Conversion of the mental health facility to a prison was strongly supported by the citizens of Dixon, since it brought more jobs to the region.[420] It included a living unit for older male inmates with special needs, and as of 1 January 1995, became a reception and classification unit for physically disabled inmates.

[414] Bill Grady, "State Plans New Prison Here, Changes at Pontiac," *Chicago Tribune*, 10 June 1980, sec. 3, p. 1.
[415] Jim Edgar, ed., State of Illinois, "Department of Corrections," *Blue Book for the State of Illinois, 1981-1982* (Springfield, Illinois: State of Illinois, 1982), 360.
[416] Douglas Frantz, "1-man Cells Soon, Judge Tells State," *Chicago Tribune*, 7 January 1982, sec. 3, p. 1.
[417] William B. Crawford, Jr., " 'Double-celling' Ruled Legal by Appeals Court," *Chicago Tribune*, 6 October 1982, sec. 2C, p. 1.
[418] Mitchell Locin, "Group Suggests Buffer for State Prison Crunch," *Chicago Tribune*, 24 May 1983, sec. 2, p. 3.
[419] Linda Giesen was appointed in July 1982. (Douglas Frantz, "Woman is Named Warden of Men's Prison," *Chicago Tribune*, 7 July 1982, sec. 2, p.. 1.
[420] Lynn Emmerman, "Dixon Hopes New Prison Might Ease its Pain," *Chicago Tribune*, 21 June 1982, sec. 1, p. 4.

Also in 1983, a report issued by the John Howard Association addressed the rapid growth in the number of prison cells in the state. Since 1976, the state had added 3,500 beds to the system, with plans for 3,000 more. The budget for the Department of Corrections had increased 258 percent between 1973 and 1983, and during the same period the number of inmates had increased from approximately 6,000 to 13,245 at the end of fiscal year 1983. The John Howard Association report included several recommendations for slowing the growth of the prison population. These included elimination or reduction of minimum sentences, to be replaced with legislatively mandated sentences directly tied to the capacity of the prison system; implementation of alternatives to incarceration in a prison facility, including probation (with several administrative improvements), victim restitution, community service, electronic detection for home incarceration, and fines; and the use of imprisonment for the most violent and dangerous offenders.[421]

Two months after the John Howard Association report was made public, the Illinois Supreme Court ruled that the early release program in use by the Department of Corrections for nearly a year was unconstitutional. Governor Thompson requested that county officials in the state cease sending new inmates to Illinois prisons for several days because the state facilities could not accept any more. Many counties complied, even ones with jails near capacity, but Cook County Sheriff Richard Elrod could not comply given the overcapacity of Cook County Jail.[422]

Two weeks later, in late July 1983, Department of Corrections director Michael Lane ordered 300 near complete prison cells be made available for use. The 300 cells were in wings under construction at East Moline (minimum security) and Sheridan (medium security) Correctional Centers. Lane also authorized additional funds for completing two work camps in southern Illinois, with 170 beds, ahead of schedule.[423] As a temporary measure, the department sought to lease 361 beds in downstate jails that were below their capacity.[424] In August 1983, the state sent 20 inmates to the prison system in Nevada.[425] Governor Thompson signed a bill in September 1983 requiring the Department of Corrections to review changes in the state's Criminal Code to estimate their impact on existing facilities and on the department's budget.[426]

In October 1983, a report on the prison system in Illinois was issued by a special task force appointed by the governor. The study recommended that the state consider alternates to incarceration, changes to the probation system, revised sentencing guidelines for judges, and

[421] Locin, "Group Suggests Buffer for Prison Crunch," *Chicago Tribune*, 24 May 1983.
[422] Daniel Egler and Bill Grady, " Governor Asks Counties to Keep Inmates," *Chicago Tribune*, 16 July 1983, sec. 1, p. 5.
[423] Manuel Galvan, "New Prison Cells Ordered into Use," *Chicago Tribune*, 29 July 1983, sec. 2, p. 1. The article also mentions that corrections authorities were considering approaching the general assembly to pass legislation to allow double celling in new prison cells, which was then not allowed.
[424] John Schmeltzer, "State Hopes to Lease Downstate Jails as Prison Crisis Stopgap," *Chicago Tribune*, 4 August 1983, sec. 2, p. 1. The state also considered the conversion of two more mental health facilities to corrections use. See Daniel Egler, "Thompson Details Emergency Plan on Prison Crisis," *Chicago Tribune*, 18 August 1983, sec. 2, p. 1.
[425] "State Inmates Sent to Nevada Prisons," *Chicago Tribune*, 19 August 1983, sec. 2, p. 8.
[426] Daniel Egler, "More Children Eligible for State Medical Aid," *Chicago Tribune*, 20 September 1983, sec. 2, p. 3.

construction of new prison facilities. The task force also recommended that the state pass a Community Corrections Act to authorize payment to counties to hold non-violent felons. Of the state's corrections facilities, Stateville was at 99.6 percent of capacity; Joliet at 87.6 percent; Dwight at 108.5 percent; Pontiac at 94.5 percent; Logan at 104.7 percent; Graham at 125.7 percent; Vandalia at 100.5 percent; Centralia at 124.1 percent; Vienna at 103.1 percent; Menard at 99.9 percent; Menard Psychiatric Center at 130.1 percent; Sheridan at 105 percent; and East Moline at 103.9 percent. Overall, the state's prisons were at approximately 102 percent of design capacity.[427]

Also in October 1983, Governor Thompson asked the state legislature for additional appropriations for the construction of a 750 bed prison, as well as enlargement of Dwight, Vienna, and Danville Correctional Centers. The governor also asked for a revised early release statute to allow the Department of Corrections to respond to future prison population crises.[428] The following month, the governor asked the legislature for a $30 million appropriation for the construction of two "modular or prefabricated prisons."[429] The sites for these prisons were later announced to be Lincoln and Jacksonville, each with a 500 bed capacity.[430]

Late in 1983, the Governor Thompson and the Department of Corrections announced that the Chicago area was being considered for three minimum security prisons to hold a total of 900 inmates. The new centers would operate as "pre-release" centers or halfway houses for inmates convicted of non-violent and white collar crimes.[431] Over the next several months, the communities surrounding the proposed Chicago area sites, including Lemont, objected to the new facilities, essentially ending consideration of these sites.[432]

Jacksonville Correctional Center, located on the eastern edge of Jacksonville, Illinois, opened in 1984 as a medium security correctional center. The 500 bed facility consisted of approximately 70 acres; 24 acres of which were located within the perimeter fence.

Lincoln Correctional Center was opened on 17 January 1984 as a minimum security correctional center adjacent to Logan Correctional Center in Lincoln, Illinois. Shawnee Correctional Center opened in 1984 as a medium security correctional center and was located adjacent to the Vienna Correctional Center. The Hardin County Work Camp was opened later that year as a minimum security facility under administrative control of the Shawnee Correctional Center.

Late in 1984, the Department of Corrections announced that the state's first privately run corrections center was to open in a few months. The proposed minimum security facility, to be located in a former YMCA building in the Englewood neighborhood of Chicago, was to be

[427] Daniel Egler and Mitchell Locin, "Jail Study Gets Basic Approval from Governor," *Chicago Tribune*, 18 October 1983, sec. 2, p. 1.
[428] Daniel Egler, "Thompson Ask Funds for New Prison, Return to Early Release," *Chicago Tribune*, 20 October 1983, sec. 4, p. 9.
[429] Daniel Egler, "$30 Million Requested for 2 Prefab Prisons," *Chicago Tribune*, 1 November 1983, sec. 2, p. 3.
[430] Daniel Egler, "State Picks 2 Sites for New Prisons," *Chicago Tribune*, 11 November 1983, sec. 1, p. 8.
[431] Daniel Egler, "Thompson Targets Chicago for 3 New Prisons," *Chicago Tribune*, 13 November 1983, sec. 4, p. 1.
[432] Clyde Penn, Jr., "Lemont Residents Say No to Prison," *Chicago Tribune*, 5 February 1984, sec. 3, p. 1.

converted and operated by Arbor, Inc., of Des Plaines. Arbor was an organization formed by Forest Hospital Foundation.[433]

The *Chicago Tribune* reported in March 1985 that since 1977, $452.1 million had been expended on prison construction in what was labeled "the nation's most ambitious prison expansion program."[434] This was significantly more than the $49.2 million expended between 1972 and 1976. The story also reported that 10,150 beds in 11 new or expanded prison facilities would be added by 1986. The inmate population at that time was 17,600 adult offenders, 9,000 parolees, 1,200 incarcerated juvenile offenders, and 1,200 juveniles under court supervision. The Illinois Department of Corrections was the sixth largest in the nation, with an operating budget in fiscal year 1983 of $347 million. Department director Michael Lane stated: "We're an organization that spends almost $1 million a day, 365 days a year....We have operations at 48 different physical sites. We have 9,000 employees and a total responsibility for more than 28,000 offenders."[435]

In April 1985, the *Chicago Tribune* presented a series of articles on the mentally ill and developmentally disabled in Illinois' prison system. Changes in the system of care at facilities operated by the Illinois Department of Mental Health meant that many individuals who were not sick or disabled enough to remain in institutions were released to the community. Unable to function in society, many fell into criminal activity, becoming inmates at Illinois prisons. This phenomenon was occurring among juveniles as well as adult offenders. It was estimated that as much as 20 percent of the 17,600 adult inmates met the medical definition of mentally retarded, and that as many as 15 percent of the entire nation's prison population (430,000 in 1985) were mentally ill. Other disturbing statistics in the series included that two-thirds of the inmates (or approximately 125 individuals) convicted under a 1981 law defining them as "guilty but mentally ill" were not serving their sentences in proper psychiatric facilities.[436]

In October 1985, Danville Correctional Centered opened with a population of 926. The Ed Jenison Work Camp at Paris, Illinois, opened 11 June 1993 under Danville's jurisdiction and five years later had an inmate population of 195. Hill Correctional Center opened in October 1986 with a design capacity of 896 inmates. Peoria Community Correctional Center also opened in 1985 in a 100 year old building. The center had been located in Peoria since the early 1970s.

The *Illinois Blue Book, 1985-1986,* reported that the Department of Corrections Adult Division was the fastest growing unit of state government. Between 1977 and 1986 eight new prisons were built and two more were under construction. Seven work camps were established and five prisons existing before 1977 were expanded.[437] A report issued by the Department of Corrections

[433] Mark Zambrano and Bill Boyce, "Private Corrections Center Would be a First for State," *Chicago Tribune*, 9 December 1984, sec. 4, p. 10.
[434] Bob Wiedrich, "Still Room for Reform at Prisons," *Chicago Tribune*, 31 March 1985, sec. 1, p. 2.
[435] Ibid.
[436] Hanke Gratteau, "Mentally Ill Land in Jail if they Fall Through Cracks," *Chicago Tribune*, 28 April 1985, sec. 1, p. 1; Hanke Gratteau, "Little Help for 'Guilty but Mentally Ill'," *Chicago Tribune*, 30 April 1985, sec. 1, p. 1; and Hanke Gratteau, "State Urged to Probe Jailing of Mentally Ill," *Chicago Tribune*, 1 May 1985, sec. 2, p. 1.
[437] Jim Edgar, ed., "Department of Corrections," *Blue Book for the State of Illinois, 1985-1986* (Springfield, Illinois: State of Illinois, 1986), 218.

in March 1985 stated that despite the addition or expansion of new prison facilities, the system was still dangerously overcrowded, with such practices as double celling leading to increased rates of violence. Six out of every 100 corrections staff were assaulted by inmates, and 7 out of every 100 inmates were assaulted by other inmates. Other statistics noted that disciplinary problems had increased 48 percent between 1983 and 1985, and that good time revocations had increased 88.4 percent. Over the same period, the inmate population had increased 28 percent.[438]

In March 1988, a disturbance in the Pontiac Correctional Center Condemned Unit left 16 guards and 9 inmates injured. Three of the 47 inmates in the Condemned Unit had set fire to equipment in the recreation room, forcing an evacuation. The fire was extinguished before significant damage was done to the buildings.[439]

In September 1988, requirements by the Department of Corrections for drug testing of all personnel led to the ending of jail classes by Northern Illinois University and Southern Illinois University teaching staff. The administration at the two universities disagreed with the drug testing policy, which they felt placed restrictions on their staff that was not in line with their own policies. The department had implemented the testing as part of a program to eliminate drugs among the prison population.[440]

On 22 April 1989, the Western Illinois Correctional Center, located on Route 99 south of Mt. Sterling, opened as a medium security facility with a population of 728. The correctional center later administrated the Clayton Work Camp, opened on 14 June 1993 and designed to house 150 inmates. Illinois River Correctional Center, opened in October 1989, on 100 acres at the western edge of Canton, Illinois. Illinois River later operated the Hanna City Work Camp, located between Canton and Peoria, approximately 17 miles from the parent facility.

In 1990 a program to monitor some inmates with electronic devices in their homes was implemented. The program, known as Electronic Detection, was monitored from many of the existing correctional centers in the state.[441] That same year, a boot camp program was established to steer first time juvenile offenders away from a life of crime. The facilities included Dixon Springs in southern Illinois, which was to hold 750 juvenile offenders each year and was a converted corrections work camp.[442]

Taylorville Correctional Center opened in 1990, located on Illinois Route 29 about 30 miles southeast of Springfield. The facility was designed as a 600 inmate facility. The minimum security

[438] Hanke Gratteau, "State Gets a Warning on Prisons," *Chicago Tribune*, 7 March 1986, sec. 1, p. 1. Additional information on inmate disturbances is contained in the newspaper article by Wes Smith, "State's Prisons Test the Limits," *Chicago Tribune*, 31 March 1991, sec. 1, p. 1.
[439] Wes Smith and Daniel Egler, "25 Hurt in Revolt at Pontiac Prison," *Chicago Tribune*, 31 March 1988, sec. 2, p. 1.
[440] John Lucadamo, "Colleges Rip Drug Testing, End Jail Classes," *Chicago Tribune*, 2 September 1988, sec. 2, p. 1.
[441] George Ryan, ed., "Department of Corrections," *Blue Book for the State of Illinois, 1993-1994* (Springfield, Illinois: State of Illinois, 1994), 230.
[442] Rob Karwath, "Thompson OKs prison 'Boot Camps'," *Chicago Tribune*, 21 August 1990, sec. 2, p. 2.

Robinson Correctional Center, located in Crawford County one mile north of Robinson and seven miles from the Indiana border, was opened in 1991 as a facility for 600 inmates.

In October 1990, it was reported that the prison population in Illinois had increased 20.9 percent, the most of any state in the country. As of 30 June 1990, the state held 27,295 in custody, an increase over the 22,576 recorded on 30 June 1989. The rapid increase in the prison population was tied to the increased occurrence and prosecution of drug-related crimes. Over an 18 month period before the release of the statistics, 39 percent of new inmates had been drug offenders. Second and third in inmate population increases were Texas (18.9 percent) and New Jersey (16.5 percent). The national average was an 11.4 percent increase. However, Illinois was below the national average of per capita statistics of incarcerated individuals: 233 Illinoians for 100,000 of population, compared to 268 per 100,000 nationwide. Also, partially due to its smaller population, Illinois ranked seventh in total prison population, behind California, New York, Texas, Florida, Michigan, and Ohio.[443]

Part of this increase was due to 250 inmates returned in January 1990 from Missouri corrections facilities that Illinois had sent there under a contract with that state. Missouri's prisons were too crowded to continue holding the Illinois inmates.[444] By 1991, the need to construct another maximum security, or even a "super maximum" security, prison began to be voiced by corrections authorities in the state.[445]

[443] Rob Karwath, "State No. 1 in Increase of Inmates," *Chicago Tribune*, 3 October 1990, sec. 2, p. 1.
[444] Daniel Egler, "Missouri Returning 250 Inmates," *Chicago Tribune*, 8 January 1990, sec. 2, p. 1.
[445] Wes Smith, "State's Prisons Test the Limits," *Chicago Tribune*, 31 March 1991, sec. 1, p. 1. The article also contained a table, from which the following population information was adapted:

	Construction	Design Capacity	1990 Average Daily Population	Convicted Murderers
Maximum Security				
Joliet	1860	761	1,344	210
Menard	1878	1,460	2,544	763
Pontiac	1871	2,000	1,929	802
Stateville	1925	1,506	2,049	832
Medium Security				
Centralia	1980	750	1,115	81
Danville	1985	896	1,118	193
Dixon	1988	1,179	1,344	380
Graham	1980	750	1,122	121
Hill	1986	896	1,127	168
Illinois River	1989	728	809	77
Logan	1977	1,204	1,146	65
Shawnee	1984	1,046	1,204	118
Sheridan	1941	1,005	1,005	16
Western Illinois	1989	728	829	63
Minimum Security				
East Moline	1980	688	825	80
Jacksonville	1984	500	633	2
Lincoln	1984	558	697	5
Vandalia	1921	599	953	0

In May 1991, the Department of Corrections warned Governor Jim Edgar that 26 new prisons, costing $1.4 billion, would be needed to keep pace with increases in the prison population. It was projected that the state's inmate population would nearly double to 55,000 by the end of the 1990s. Budgetary constraints imposed by the governor that prevented the opening of 1,700 beds at one medium security prison and four work camps.[446]

Two years later, the department again warned of the rapid increases in prison population. The Director of the Department of Corrections, Howard Peters, testified to an Illinois House of Representatives committee that the prisons would reach maximum capacity within 16 months unless legislators approved bills providing alternate means of criminal punishment. Tougher sentencing and anti-crime legislation before the body would also lead to even more incarcerated persons. The state's inmate population at that time was 33,038.[447]

West Side Community Correctional Center opened in July 1993 and became the largest work release center in Illinois. Established in what was a vacant warehouse, the capacity of the facility was 150 male residents. In January 1994, a wing was opened to accommodate female residents. By 1998, the center had the ability to house 162 men and 56 women.

Big Muddy River Correctional Center opened in 1993. Located in Ina, 15 miles south of Mount Vernon, the medium security prison incorporated 20 buildings with a total of 391,150 square feet of space in a 120 acre complex. Design capacity was 1,152 inmates, although by 1995 the facility held over 1,800.

In 1995, the inmate college education programs ended at Illinois' maximum security prisons as the federal Pell Grant program was eliminated for most prison inmates. Because of the loss of Pell Grant money, the Department of Corrections was also forced to cut back many of the college education programs from medium and minimum security prisons around the state.[448]

Opened in 1995, the Southwestern Illinois Correctional Center opened as the twenty-fifth adult prison operated by the Illinois correctional system. The facility was located on a 24 acre compound that served as the former Assumption High School near East St. Louis. The former parochial high school was purchased by the state in 1989 for $350,000. It cost $20.3 million to renovate the 200,000 square foot complex containing four buildings and surrounded by a 12 foot high fence. Illinois Youth Center – Murphysboro opened in 1996.

	Construction	Design Capacity	1990 Average Daily Population	Convicted Murderers
Vienna	1965	835	992	49
Female Facility (all security classifications)				
Dwight	1930	470	715	156

[446] "State Urged to Revamp Sentencing," *Chicago Tribune*, 16 May 1991, sec. 2, p. 2.
[447] Rick Pearson, "State Prisons are Approaching Their Capacity, Lawmakers Warned," *Chicago Tribune*, 26 February 1991, sec. 2, p. 2.
[448] Christi Parsons, "Gates Being Closed on Prison Colleges," *Chicago Tribune*, 18 June 1995, sec. 2, p. 1.

On 19 August 1996, Illinois Director of Corrections Odie Washington announced a series of initiatives to enhance the security and effectiveness of the state prison system. These initiatives included converting Pontiac Correctional Center to a permanently locked down facility; designating an existing facility as a non-gang prison; establishing high-tech drug detection equipment and canine units at maximum security prisons; mandating random drug testing for all employees in inmate contact positions; eliminating family picnics at maximum security prisons; and commissioning a panel of national experts in the field of corrections to evaluate the department and offer further recommendations for improvement.[449]

Nearly a year later, the director announced the recommendations of the final report of a panel of prison management experts commissioned by the department on 30 September 1996 to examine the adult prison system in Illinois. The final report of the Performance Review Panel listed 112 recommendations in more than 100 pages, detailing research and data compiled during a seven month comprehensive review of policies, procedures, and practices of the department. The panel was charged with reviewing security; drug and contraband search efforts; inmate discipline and movement and the extent of discretionary inmate privileges; the extent of gang influence; the adequacy of treatment, education, and work programs for inmates; and the extent of sexual assault and the response of the agency to such incidents; and with establishing agency policies consistent with nationally recognized standards.[450]

Tamms Correctional Center, Illinois' first "supermax" corrections facility, was opened on 3 February 1998. The 500 bed supermax facility, located in far southern Illinois, also included a 200 bed minimum security work camp (which had opened in 1995). When the $73 million complex was opened by Governor Jim Edgar, he said, "The inmates sent to this fortress prison will have earned their way in, and they will have to earn their way out by demonstrating that they can abide by this prison's stringent rules and regulations. The other 25 prisons in Illinois will be safer because these predators will live at supermax here in Tamms."

The inmate population in Illinois on 30 June 1998 was 42,137; the year before the population had been 40,397.[451] The Department of Corrections announced in February 1997 that a site was being sought to construct a new medium security corrections facility and a medium security juvenile facility.[452] The adult prison was planned to contain 952 cells and house 1,808 inmates. A 120 acre site was being sought to construct the $69 million medium security corrections facility. The juvenile detention facility, estimated to cost $45 million, was planned to house 400 youths and required a 100 acre site. As enticements to interested communities, the department stated that correctional officer positions paid $26,544 per year after completion of a six months training and probationary assignment, and that health care, retirement benefits, paid vacation, and other benefits were added to the basic salary package. At the time of the press release from the

[449] Illinois Department of Corrections, News Release, 19 August 1996. Downloaded from the website for the Illinois Department of Corrections, at www.idoc.state.il.us.
[450] Illinois Department of Corrections, News Release, 7 July 1997. Downloaded from the website for the Illinois Department of Corrections, at www.idoc.state.il.us.
[451] "Illinois Prison Population Continues to Grow," *Correctional Building News* 4, no. 6 (September/October 1998), 7.
[452] Illinois Department of Corrections, News Release, 27 February 1997. Downloaded from the website for the Illinois Department of Corrections, at www.idoc.state.il.us.

Department of Corrections, 2,009 youths were housed in facilities with a design capacity of 1,160.

Nearly two years later construction of the medium security juvenile facility began in Kewanee, Illinois.[453] Also in 1999, construction of the medium security adult facility commenced near Lawrenceville, Illinois. The project had been scaled back to an estimated $39 million budget, and was to utilize a T-plan cellhouse design instead of the typically used X-plan cellhouse design.[454] In addition to these institutions, the Meyer Mental Health Center, operated by the Illinois Department of Human Services, was being converted into a correctional center for women.[455]

At the end of 1998, the state's new medium security correctional facility at Pinckneyville, Illinois, began operation. The $75 million facility had 2,250 beds in 5 units. With administration and other support buildings, there were 19 buildings with a total of 434,000 square feet.[456]

In 1999 the Illinois Youth Center – Chicago opened as a facility for juvenile females, although it had originally been designed for "superpredators" under the age of 12. The facility was planned to house 30 preteen offenders convicted of violent crimes, a trend that was predicted by criminologists in the early 1990s. By the time the new institution was under construction, trends in violent juvenile and preteen crime had decreased. The Department of Corrections decided to use the facility to hold juvenile females, since this group had been growing at a faster rate than juvenile males (122 percent from fiscal year 1994 to fiscal year 2000 for females versus 35.6 percent for males) and the existing facilities at the Illinois Youth Center – Warrenville was overcrowded. When completed, the new facility in Chicago had a capacity of 44 juveniles.[457]

In early 1999, newly elected Governor George Ryan announced that the new maximum security correctional center in Thomson, Carroll County, Illinois, would be expanded from 1,200 beds to 1,800 beds even before construction bids were received. At the same time, the governor announced that the state would build a new 1,800 bed women's prison, although the site had not yet been named. The state's second all-women correctional center with 500 beds, located in Decatur, was expected to open in the summer of 1999. The total construction budget for corrections facilities in Illinois was $184.7 million in fiscal year 2000.[458]

[453] "Illinois Builds New Juvenile Facility," *Correctional Building News* 5, no. 2 (March/April 1999), 23.
[454] "New Prison to use "T" Cell-House Design," *Correctional Building News* 5, no. 2 (March/April 1999), 21.
[455] "Illinois Prison Population Continues to Grow," 7.
[456] "Small Town of Pinckneyville, Ill., to House $75 Million Prison," *Correctional Building News* 4, no. 6 (September/October 1998), 19.
[457] Louise Kiernan, "Doors Shut on 1 Theory as Youth Prison Opens," *Chicago Tribune,* 30 August 1999, sec. 1, p. 1.
[458] "Illinois Max May Get 600 More Beds," *Correctional Building News* 5, no. 3 (May/June 1999), 9.

Information on Specific Facilities

The mission of the Department of Corrections is to protect the public from criminal offenders through a system of incarceration and supervision which securely segregates offenders from society, assures offenders of their constitutional rights and maintains programs to enhance the success of the offender's reentry into society.[459]

Corrections facilities operating in the State of Illinois in 1999 are listed below:[460]

Super Maximum Security Institutions

Tamms Correctional Center, Illinois' first "supermax" corrections facility, was opened on 3 February 1998. The $73 million, 500 bed facility located in far southern Illinois also included a 200 bed minimum security work camp (which opened in 1995). Tamms was the most stringent correctional facility in the State. Inmates at Tamms were not allowed to make telephone calls, they had very limited contact with each other and prison staff, and contact with visitors was not allowed. The inmates were handcuffed and shackled whenever they were out of their cellblock, and access to recreation equipment was allowed only individually. In addition, the inmates were not allowed to smoke and were limited in the amount of personal property that was allowed in their cells. The 23 acre supermax prison compound was protected by double rows of 12 foot high chain link fencing topped with razor ribbon. A courtroom with video conferencing equipment was located inside the prison. This decreased the need to take inmates out of the prison for court appearances. An execution chamber was constructed at the facility, although condemned inmates were not housed routinely at Tamms. This chamber was designed especially for executions by lethal injection.

Work camp inmates handled maintenance, laundry service, groundskeeping, and food preparation for the supermax prison as well as community service work for the surrounding area. A total of 445 people were employed at the prison and work camp, including 312 security staff.

Maximum Security Institutions

Joliet Correctional Center originally opened in 1860, and by the mid-1990s had an average daily population of over 1,200 despite a design capacity of 761. This same period saw a continued dramatic increase in the number of newly received inmates at its Reception & Classification Center. Joliet received 20,558 admissions to the unit, which processed all newly arrived inmates convicted in Cook and other counties in northern Illinois. Projects at the facility included a roofing project on five buildings. A new medical emergency room was made operational. Correctional Industries provided employment for approximately 80 inmates. The industry program manufactured mattresses, sheets, and pillowcases for use at all correctional centers, Department of Human Services facilities, and state universities. A dry cleaning plant provided cleaning services for officers' uniforms at Joliet and Stateville Correctional Centers.

Menard Correctional Center was established in Chester on the banks of the Mississippi River in 1878. Menard was the state's largest maximum security prison. Menard was originally built to house 1,581 adult male felons (design capacity in the mid-1990s was 1,460, although the actual

[459] Statement from the website for the Illinois Department of Corrections, at www.idoc.state.il.us.
[460] Information on specific correctional centers in Illinois has been derived from information on the website for the Illinois Department of Corrections.

inmate population was nearly 2,600. In fiscal years 1994 and 1995, Menard experienced flooding that significantly affected prison operations. Flooding in 1994 was more serious, closing some of the cellhouses for seven weeks.

Effective 1 December 1994, the Menard Correctional Center took over Menard Psychiatric Center, transforming it to the Segregation Unit. The project that received the greatest attention was probably the construction of a new X-plan cellhouse east of the prison, designed to house 448 medium security inmates. The project was started in November 1994 and was scheduled to be completed in April 1996. To avoid future problems with flooding, this new cellhouse was placed on higher ground above the bluff.

Pontiac Correctional Center was originally built as a reformatory for boys in 1871. In 1933, the institution became a part of the Illinois State Penitentiary system with adult inmates and changed its name to the Illinois State Penitentiary, Pontiac Branch. In 1970, the Department of Corrections was created and the facility was renamed the Pontiac Correctional Center. The facility's design capacity was 1,258 inmates, although the average daily population in fiscal year 1995 was 2,183. A number of physical improvements were made during fiscal year 1995, including new heat exchangers in the power plant, a fiberoptic cable system, and new barrier wire on recreational yards and catwalk fencing. Additional cameras were installed as needed at other locations. New roofs were put on the receiving dock building, tower 12, the car wash assignment area, and Dormitory D of the Medium Security Unit. A number of operational improvements were also made. Slots were cut into the acrylic panels of Tower 5 to enable staff to fire warning shots through the opening. In response to inmate incidents and security related issues, the prison was placed on lockdown on several occasions during 1995. Despite these interruptions of normal operations, programmatic activities continued.

Construction of the **Stateville Correctional Center** near Joliet began in August 1916, and the prison was officially opened 9 March 1925. Its 33 foot high wall enclosed a 64 acre yard surrounded by more than 2,000 acres of farmland. In addition to original prison buildings, including the circular Dining Room, the panopticon Cellhouse F, rectangular Cellhouse B, and factory buildings, were two K-plan cellhouses. Stateville housed more than 2,000 inmates, despite a design capacity of 1,506. It was administered under a unit management system. Seven living units were supervised by unit managers responsible for daily operations, generally independently of each other. A full complement of security, clerical, clinical, medical, and administrative staff were assigned to each unit. Construction of a modern health care unit with a 22 bed infirmary was completed in December 1989. Stateville employed approximately 150 inmates and nine staff in correctional industries work assignments. Education programs at Stateville operated under the direction of School District 428, which provided selected vocational courses including commercial custodian and barber college. Approximately 205 inmates were enrolled in adult basic education and 30 in vocational programs.

The **Medium Security Unit** at Stateville made a number of planned improvements. A pedestrian walk-through gate was installed on the MSU sallyport as well as a heating and cooling system for the building itself. A running track was constructed on the MSU to facilitate improved health and recreational needs for inmates. Additionally, numerous small projects and procedures were initiated in various areas to further improve security, sanitation and day-to-day operations.

School District 428 had a high rate of success with the students enrolled in the mandatory academic programs, with many of the mandatory students continuing their education. During fiscal year 1995, 46 students earned a two or four year degree from MacMurray College, 35 received program completion certificates, 14 received vocational training certificates, and 49 received their general education degree (GED). Correctional Industries continued to be successful in the production of reflective decals for police and government vehicles. In the early 1990s, new equipment was installed in the data entry shops of the Medium Security Unit.

Since the Death Penalty was re-established in Illinois by Public Act 80-26, effective 21 June 1977, 281 inmates were admitted to the Illinois Department of Corrections **Condemned Units**. The Illinois Department of Corrections received its first female inmate with a death sentence in 1991. Of the 281 inmates, 96 had their sentence reversed and were re-sentenced, 2 had their sentence reversed and were discharged, 9 died in prison, 4 were in federal or other state custody, 11 were executed, and 1 had their death sentence commuted. As of January 1998, there were 158 inmates with an Illinois death sentence and 3 inmates with a federal death sentence (two at Menard, one at Pontiac, 64 at Menard, 91 at Pontiac, 3 at Tamms, and 3 at Dwight). The average time from admission to death row to execution was 13 years.

Medium Security Institutions

Big Muddy River Correctional Center opened in 1993. Located in Ina, 15 miles south of Mount Vernon, the prison incorporated 20 buildings, which totaled 391,150 square feet of space in a 120 acre complex. Design capacity was 1,152, although the prison held more than 1,800 in 1995. The facility was ADA accessible. Inmate aides were assigned to assist disabled inmates to dress, bathe, eat, and move about the facility, proving a rewarding and productive role for the inmate aides.

Big Muddy River had a network of educational programs, beginning with an evaluation to determine appropriate achievement levels. Classes were available from first grade through the first two years of college. Programs with Rend Lake College included small business management, culinary arts, electronics, horticulture, construction trades, automotive mechanics, and computer technology. Federal grants for the Sex Offender Treatment Program and the Substance Abuse Treatment Program allowed these treatment programs to continue to accommodate 100 inmates, who were double celled in their own housing unit.

A subsidiary facility to Big Muddy River was the DuQuoin Impact Incarceration Program, a work camp that was converted to a boot camp in 1995, with a capacity of 200 inmates. Boot camp inmates endured a rigorous schedule of physical, psychological, and emotional training, and spent part of each day providing public service to communities in the surrounding area. Work crews picked up trash along county roadways and state highways, mowed lawn and grass areas, and cleaned debris in state parks.

The **Centralia Correctional Center** received it first group of inmates in October 1980. The facility was designed to house 750 inmates; however, by the mid-1990s the population had climbed to over 1,400 inmates. Health care at the facility consisted of three, four-bed wards which provided planned nursing care to acutely ill patients and medically disabled inmates who could care for themselves. The nursing staff provided 24 hour coverage of the health care unit.

Danville Correctional Center opened in October 1985. Designed to hold 1,096 inmates, the average daily population in the late 1990s was over 1,800. Danville was the first correctional facility in the nation to be accredited by the American Correctional Association in less than a year from its opening date. The Ed Jenison Work Camp at Paris, Illinois, opened 11 June 1993 under Danville's jurisdiction and five years later had an inmate population of 195. Inmates were actively involved in growing produce in gardens on institutional grounds, both at Danville and at the work camp in Paris. Vegetables were distributed to food co-ops, rescue missions, and local nursing homes through coordination with the leisure time services department.

Dixon Correctional Center, opened in 1983, was the largest medium security facility in Illinois, with an inmate population of 1,910. Located on the north edge of the City of Dixon, the Dixon Correctional Center encompassed 462 acres of land with 120 acres inside the perimeter fence. The facility operated its own power plant and sewage treatment plant. It was the most diversified correctional facility as well. This facility housed a general population of males and females and a Special Treatment Center for the developmentally disabled and mentally handicapped inmates. It also had a living unit for older male inmates with special needs, and as of 1 January 1995, became a reception and classification unit for wheelchair inmates.

Dwight Correctional Center, located approximately 75 miles south of Chicago, was the primary state correctional/reception and classification facility for adult female offenders. The facility was opened on 24 November 1930, as the Oakdale Reformatory for Women. Subsequently, the facility was renamed the Illinois State Reformatory for Women, and later the Dwight Correctional Center in August 1973. With a design capacity of 670 inmates, the average daily population was 750. Educational programming included 12 programs ranging from Adult Basic Education to senior college and from entry level vocational education to apprenticeship programs. Cosmetology classes provided both education and hair care for inmates of the facility. In 1981, Dwight became the first prison in Illinois to have apprenticeship programs licensed through the Federal Bureau of Apprenticeship and Training. Vocational programs offered included computer technology, commercial art and photography, secretarial science, and restaurant management. The correctional industries garment shop employed approximately 85 inmates who were paid on a piecework basis. Garments produced included officer and maintenance uniform shirts, male and female inmate clothing, dietary clothing, hospital gowns, and specialty items. Total sales in fiscal year 1995 were $790,000.

Medical services were provided by a comprehensive major medical contractor. Besides full time nurses on staff, part time obstetric/gynecology services were offered and appropriate referrals made to specialty clinics as determined by medical needs. During fiscal year 1995, 54 babies were born to inmates at Dwight. A children's visitation center was opened in April 1993, permitting visiting children the opportunity to spend time with their mothers in a wholesome, structured setting.

Projects completed during the 1995 fiscal year included replacement of heating units in the education building and phase two of the ongoing water and sewer utilities upgrade. Funding for a 448 bed "X" housing unit was approved and scheduled for construction in April 1996. In addition to the construction of the housing unit, funding for rehabilitation of three cottages was approved.

Kankakee Minimum Security Unit was a satellite facility of Dwight and housed 200 adult female offenders. Construction of a second living unit began during fiscal year 1994.

Graham Correctional Center opened in 1980 and had a design capacity of 750; the inmate population in fiscal year 1995 was 1,374. The center's reception and classification unit continued to receive inmates from 45 counties in southern and central Illinois. More than 2,000 inmates were processed annually for transfer to the other facilities. Building projects completed in 1997 included a new cellhouse for 448 inmates, for use in part for reception and classification activities. The Gateway Substance Abuse Residential Treatment Program was located in an entire cellhouse and consists of an intensive treatment unit and a reintegration unit for those who had completed the intensive phase of the program. Over 80 inmates participated in this program in fiscal year 1995. During the same period, the education department provided classroom or vocational instruction to 1,457 inmates. Of this number, 117 earned GED certificates, 119 college vocation certificates, 22 associate's degrees and 7 bachelor's degrees. In addition, 451 students were awarded good time for school attendance. Lincoln Land Community College also provided a variety of vocational and academic courses. Through these programs, inmates had the opportunity to receive associates degrees in several fields. Roosevelt University provided senior college courses for inmates, allowing inmates to receive bachelor's degrees.

Correctional Industries expanded its' operation. It made prototypes of its own line of office furniture. Correctional Industries had $869,160 in sales during fiscal year 1995, with 30 inmates employed. Another program at Graham was the auto body shop. Graham provided inmate work crews cutting grass and cleaning brush at sites in the region. Work crews also repaired and built firing range targets, a practice fire house, and a pole barn at the State Police firing range in Pawnee.

Hill Correctional Center opened in October 1986. With a design capacity of 896 inmates, the center had an average daily population of 1,710 in fiscal year 1995. During the same period, 1,877 inmates were processed through the institution's seven day orientation program. PreStart, an integral part of pre-release education, was held on a five day per week basis. A total of 797 inmates participated in PreStart, learning job activities, self esteem, and parole regulations. Computers were installed in inmate living units. This promoted better contact and speedier information retrieval for counselors as they deal directly with inmate requests and records. During fiscal year 1995, 2,147 inmates were enrolled in educational programs at Hill. By meeting educational goals, 602 students were awarded earned good conduct credits. Six students obtained bachelor's degrees in general studies from Roosevelt University; 38 students earned associate's degrees; 88 college vocational certificates were awarded to students by Carl Sandburg College; and 115 students received GED certificates. A total of 858 students were assigned to Carl Sandburg College programs including data processing, business occupations, electronics, auto diesel, and custodial maintenance.

The Correctional Industries program produced milk, meat, and juice supplies for 15 adult correctional centers, 4 juvenile facilities, and 1 mental health center, and, in doing so, provided 75 full time inmate assignments. Correctional Industries' meat processing plant produced 2,547,415 pounds of meat in fiscal year 1995, reflecting total sales of $3,932,783. The Industries' milk processing plant produced 11,673,050 half pints of milk, 3,698,650 half pints of

juice; 3,713,265 quarter pints of juice, and 32,445 five gallon bagged milk and juice containers which reflected combined sales of $2,592,600.

Illinois River Correctional Center, opened in 1989, was located on 100 acres at the west edge of Canton. The facility consisted of 27 buildings, including towers and shelters, and also included a Special Management Unit designed to operate separately from the main institution The prison also operated the Hanna City Work Camp which was located between Canton and Peoria, approximately 17 miles from the parent facility. The camp consisted of 36 buildings on 39 acres of land. It operated as a satellite facility of the prison since the early 1990s. Designed for a capacity of 987, the entire facility held over 1,600 inmates. Illinois River filled to its originally planned capacity within three months of opening in October 1989. The facility has concentrated on the expansion of productive and meaningful work assignments and program offerings. The Leisure Time Services Department provided all inmates an opportunity to participate in recreational activities on a daily basis; it also supervised publication of the prison newspaper, *The Illinois River Current*.

Logan Correctional Center, opened in 1977, was located near Lincoln and occupied 138 acres of land. The facility was formerly the Farm Colony of Lincoln Developmental Center, dating from the late 1880s. In the mid-1990s, the correctional center consisted of 23 main buildings, 20 of which were located inside the perimeter fence. With a design capacity of 826, the total average daily inmate population was 1,153. Twelve of the buildings were inmate housing units, with four of those units housing women averaging 423 inmates. The education program had several components. More than 1,200 inmates were served in all education programs combined in fiscal year 1995. Approximately 215 inmates were in college sponsored programs and 240 in GED and English as a Second Language programs. MacMurray College served approximately 700 students. Seventy-five vocational certificates were earned by inmates in seven programs, along with 29 vocational degrees. Eleven students earned associate of general studies degrees and three achieved bachelor of general studies degrees.

In addition to the furniture refinishing and reupholstery work at Logan, Correctional Industries added two more types of seating lines to bring the total selection available from the furniture shop to five. During fiscal year 1995, the Logan tire recycling operation delivered almost 1,000 tons of shredded tires for use as a protective playground material to approximately 30 schools. The facility also completed the test burning of tire derived fuel produced in boilers at the prison. Industries produced approximately 600 tons of tire derived fuel. Inmate jobs increased in tire recycling from approximately 35 to 50 inmates from Logan and from 6 to 12 inmates from the adjacent Lincoln Correctional Center.

Approximately 11,000 inmate hours and 3,000 staff hours were logged by outside work crews completing such tasks as splitting and stacking wood, raking leaves, painting, unloading trucks, sorting shoes, picking up litter, setting up and tearing down for events, general cleaning, moving furniture, filling sandbags and tornado cleanup. Vocational classes from MacMurray College often worked in the community to build, remodel, and landscape for various agencies including the Lincoln Youth Center, the Boys & Girls Club, and the Mini O'Beirne Crisis Nursery in Springfield.

Pinckneyville Correctional Center opened during fiscal year 1999. The facility had a capacity of 2,250 inmates in 19 buildings totaling 434,000 square feet. There were five housing units with 224 cells each. One of the housing units was designed for inmates in disciplinary segregation status and had its own areas for food preparation and a law library. A multi-purpose building includes space for academic and vocational education programs, a library, religious services, and indoor recreation. The administration building included offices and space for medical services and special housing for newly received inmates and others in disciplinary status. A dietary complex included space for inmates and staff dining and food preparation in addition to food storage, an inmate commissary and barbershop, and the institutional laundry. A boilerhouse, a vehicle maintenance building, and a small greenhouse were also located on the grounds. Illinois Correctional Industries plans to operate a fish processing plant.

Shawnee Correctional Center, opened in 1984, was located adjacent to the Vienna Correctional Center. With a design capacity of 1,046, the average daily population in fiscal year 1995 was 1,783. Shawnee Correctional Industries remained a trend setter in Illinois Correctional Industries. The Correctional Industries program at the prison had 68 inmates assigned on three shifts. These inmates work in the development and manufacturing of precision sheet metal products. The program faced the challenge of providing metal institutional furniture for the entire department in its current period of rapid growth. Additionally, the Correctional Industries program at the prison was involved in developing new products. Shawnee staff and inmates were involved in the development and manufacturing of a complete line of lockers. The prison industry also made items that became raw materials for other correctional industries around the state. Some of those products included aluminum sign blanks, bed frames, and specialty hardware for furniture plants.

The **Hardin County Work Camp** was a minimum security facility under administrative control of the Shawnee Correctional Center. Located on Route 1 in Hardin County, the work camp confined 175 inmates who performed public service work for area communities. Inmate work crews regularly assisted in work such as clearing and restoring cemeteries and buildings or maintaining hiking trails through state and federal parks and recreation areas. Other work included picking up trash and litter in communities and along roadways and parks, mowing grass, trimming weeds on public properties, and removal of snow and ice from sidewalks and roadways during winter. During fiscal year 1995, work camp inmates performed approximately 56,000 hours of community service labor at 17 different work sites. Nearly 2,000 hours were provided to the Hardin County Road District, which was credited as in-kind contribution for a federally funded road project. Without this assistance the local community could not have qualified for the road improvement.

In fiscal year 1995, 668 inmates were served through Southeastern Illinois College at the prison and work camp. Ninety-six inmates completed Adult Basic Education requirements and 44 students received GED certificates. Due to an increase in inmate population and the inmate turnover rate at Shawnee, the education department continued to have a long waiting list for school programs at all levels, despite the addition of one more instructor. Southeastern Illinois College issued 97 certificates of completion for vocational education programs, 8 associate of applied science degrees, and 11 associate of liberal studies degrees. Printing services were provided by the graphic arts programs, computer programs were developed, and existing

programs were modified for several departments within the institution by the computer technology program. Service and maintenance department vehicles and equipment were provided by the diesel mechanics programs. The industrial plant maintenance program provided support for the maintenance department and the prison industries operation.

The **Sheridan Correctional Center**, located approximately 70 miles west of Chicago near the village of Sheridan, was constructed in 1941 as a juvenile facility. It was converted to an adult correctional facility in 1973. During fiscal year 1995, the average daily inmate population was 1,083; design capacity of the facility was 624. The level of staffing during that period was 419. The construction of a new housing unit consisting of 224 cells was completed in fiscal year 1996. The unit was a two story X-plan configuration building. The opening of this unit increased the population at the facility by 448 inmates with double celling. In order to maintain service to the increasing population, the institution relocated and expanded the inmate commissary, which sells food, clothing, and personal hygiene items to the inmates.

The Gateway Foundation program for treatment of substance abuse was begun at Sheridan in September 1990, and by fiscal year 1995 served 280 inmates. Classes offered by School District 428 at Sheridan included adult basic education, English as a Second Language, special education for inmates with learning disabilities, Chapter One remedial reading and math instruction, GED instruction for eighth grade level and higher, barbering, and building maintenance. Illinois Valley Community College offerings included academic coursework toward associate degrees in general studies or in arts, along with vocational classes in culinary arts, small engine repair, commercial custodian and automotive technology. A computer lab in the school building provided computer instruction. In addition to furniture refinishing and reupholstery, Correctional Industries operated an auto body repair service for state vehicles.

The **Western Illinois Correctional Center** was located on Route 99 south of Mt. Sterling. Designed as a medium security facility with a population of 728, the facility opened in 1989. During fiscal year 1995 the center had an inmate population of 1.515 using double celling. The center had 18 buildings, mostly masonry and brick, inside a perimeter fence enclosing surrounding 32 acres. The buildings included three residential housing units; an administration, medical and receiving unit building; a dietary and maintenance complex; multi-purpose building with education and recreation areas; and a Correctional Industries building.

A new curriculum component called life skills was added to the Adult Basic Education program. Life skills instruction comprised one-third of the student's daily school learning experience. The construction occupations class at Western Illinois built pre-fabricated walls for a Coles County Habitat for Humanity House. The wall units were transported from the correctional center by truck and erected by volunteers at the construction site in Charleston. A total of 1,252 inmates attended School District 428 and MacMurray College classes during fiscal year 1995. The inmate newspaper, *The West Side Story*, offered features in English and Spanish.

Correctional Industries provided skilled jobs and wages for inmates in the production of all kinds of meat products for state correctional facilities, including wieners, bologna, Polish sausage, breaded fish, turkey patties, and hamburger patties. Six Correctional Industries staff supervise 59 inmate workers.

Administrated by the prison was the Clayton Work Camp, opened on 14 June 1993 and designed to house 150 inmates. The goals of the work camp were to provide a service to the community in the local area. During fiscal year 1995, inmates from the work camp provided 46,278 hours of work helping local communities with sandbagging during flooding of the Illinois River, cleaning up various communities after tornadoes, and other general grounds keeping and cleanup operations.

Minimum Security Institutions

East Moline Correctional Center, located on a bluff overlooking the Mississippi River, opened in 1980 with a design capacity of 688, although the average daily population in fiscal year 1995 was 1,019. The East Moline Correctional Industries laundry operated daily except Thanksgiving, Christmas, and New Year's Day. It served the laundry needs for two hospitals, a mental health center, a developmental center, a nursing home, and two correctional centers. The facility recycling plant began as a pilot project working in conjunction with Rock Island County to help cut down on landfill use and to address the needs of the community in disposing of old appliances.

Jacksonville Correctional Center, located on the eastern edge of Jacksonville, approximately 30 miles west of Springfield, opened in 1984. The facility consisted of approximately 70 acres; 24 acres of which were located within the perimeter fence. The prison was originally constructed as a 500 man correctional facility; however, on 30 June 1995, there were 932 inmates housed at the facility. This increase in inmates resulted in double celling at all five of the prison's housing units. Administrated by the prison was the Greene County Impact Incarceration Program, a 200 bed boot camp located on Route 267 between Roodhouse and White Hall opened in 1993. After the first two years of operation, 1,060 inmates completed the 120 day special program. Each inmate participated in military drill, hard labor details, physical training, basic education, substance abuse education and treatment, life skills, and the PreStart Program.

Lincoln Correctional Center was one of two facilities located within Logan County (the other being Logan Correctional Center). Opened in 1984 as a 500 man minimum security facility, the facility housed over 900 inmates by the mid-1990s. The facility and associated work camp were staffed by approximately 320 employees providing administrative, security, clinical, clerical, fiscal, educational, vocational, recreational, medical, dietary, maintenance and supply services. Work crews from the prison and the work camp were involved in numerous community work assignments and other projects. During fiscal year 1995, 104 inmates received certificates, including 69 GED certificates and 35 vocational certificates. MacMurray College awarded 25 associate degrees.

Opened in 1991, **Robinson Correctional Center** was located in Crawford County, one mile north of Robinson and seven miles from the Indiana border. The facility was designed for 600 inmates; however, during fiscal year 1995, the population reached a high of 1,188. At the end of the same fiscal year, 293 employees worked at the prison.

Opened in 1995, the **Southwestern Illinois Correctional Center** was the 25th adult prison operated by the Illinois correctional system. The facility occupied a 24 acre compound that was

the former Assumption High School near East St. Louis. The former parochial high school was purchased by the state in 1989 for $350,000. It cost $20.3 million to renovate the 200,000 square foot complex containing four buildings and surrounded by a 12 foot high fence. Another building was opened in 1996. The prison's mission was to provide substance abuse counseling and education during incarceration and continuing intervention after inmates were released under parole supervision. There was also a 50 bed work camp on site that provided community service work to government and non-profit group projects within 30 miles of the prison. All inmates worked or went to school.

Taylorville Correctional Center, opened in 1990, was located on Illinois Route 29, about 30 miles southeast of Springfield. The facility was designed as a 600 inmate facility and housed 1,175 inmates. During fiscal year 1995, educational programs served more than 1,100 inmates in full and part time academic/vocational classes. Included in this total were 70 students who obtained their GED certificates, and 45 students who succeeded in meeting agency literacy requirements of at least a sixth grade reading and mathematics ability. Two hundred inmates also took advantage of a commercial driver's license study course, taught by inmates who had been truck drivers, in preparation for becoming licensed commercial drivers on release. Vocational programs in business management, data processing, construction occupations, and commercial food services were offered by Lincoln Land Community College. Vocational certificates were earned by 117 students and 17 associate degrees were awarded during fiscal year 1995. The vocational construction occupations program was actively engaged in volunteer programs such as Habitat for Humanity, the Ronald McDonald House, and Catholic Charities.

Vandalia Correctional Center was a minimum security prison that housed male felons. Located 85 miles southeast of Springfield, the prison was initially opened in 1921 as a prison farm housing misdemeanants. It was later renovated and reprogrammed to house felons. With a design capacity of 599 inmates, the average daily population in fiscal year 1995 was 1,058. In the mid-1990s Vandalia completed numerous improvements including a dormitory renovation project, renovation and conversion of a second dormitory for use as an in-house substance abuse treatment program, relocation of the inmate commissary and renovation of the building used to house it, rehabilitation of the general stores coolers, and renovation of vocational building trades classrooms. The educational department provided services to 1,844 inmates in full and part time academic/vocational classes. An average of 550 students received services each month. Inmates enrolled in these programs earned 166 GED certificates, 79 vocational certificates of completion, 54 one year vocational certificates, and 9 associate degrees in liberal arts studies.

Correctional Industries operations provided other correctional centers with beef, pork, Polish sausage, lunch meats, corned beef, milk and assorted juices. In addition, Correctional Industries harvested 50,284 bushels of corn, 6,131 bushels of soybeans, 3,255 bushels of grain sorghum, and 2,100 bushels of wheat. During fiscal year 1995, Correctional Industries produced and packaged 106,015 five gallon containers of milk, 11,194,200 cartons of white milk, and 668,750 cartons of chocolate milk. In addition 2,174,00 cartons of flavored juice were produced and packaged along with 2,939,175 cartons of juice concentrate. Crews from the Vandalia Work Camp and garden house were instrumental in providing approximately $15,000 worth of fresh garden vegetables for daily meals at Vandalia, $12,232 worth of fresh garden vegetables for other institutions, and $1,481 worth of fresh vegetables for charitable organizations.

Vienna Correctional Center, located in deep southern Illinois adjacent to the Shawnee National Forest, was considered to be one of the most innovative prisons in the nation, attempting to instill responsibility in inmates who were in preparation for reintegration into society. The concept of building a minimum security prison without walls or fences was presented to the legislature in the early 1960s. It was an attempt not only to boost the economic base of the area, but also to introduce a correctional strategy built on the premise that rehabilitation in concert with custody could produce a released inmate who would become a productive citizen. In expanding the facility after its opening in 1965, the buildings were designed around a town square concept to enhance inmates' awareness that they must be prepared to return to society. With a design capacity of 845 inmates, the center held a daily average of 1,319 inmates in fiscal year 1995.

An enhanced rapport between the facility and the community occurred in 1974 with the assignment of state certified inmate emergency medical technicians to the Multi-County Ambulance Service administered from PADCO Hospital in Cairo. This marked a milestone in the delivery of community health care and was the first program of its kind through which felons provided allied health care to the free community.

On 15 October 1990, the Department of Corrections' Impact Incarceration Program at Dixon Springs received its first 10 inmates. This program had a boot camp philosophy designed to provide a short term program of labor-intensive discipline and programming aimed at improving self esteem of the offenders and discouraging further criminal behavior. The facility was designed to house and program 244 youthful adult offenders. A primary focus of the program was to provide work crews to accomplish public service work in surrounding communities, hospitals, state parks and other state facilities and cemeteries. Work crews contributed more than 116,900 hours toward public service projects in fiscal year 1995.

Community Correctional Centers

In August 1983, the Safer Foundation opened **Crossroads Community Correctional Center** at 3210 West Arthington in Chicago, in a building once housing the YMCA near the Sears, Roebuck and Company Merchandise Plant. In 1995, the average daily population was 286 residents. The center was the only contractually operated work release center in Illinois. Crossroads was reaccredited by the American Correctional Association in September 1993, receiving one of the few nationally awarded 100 percent ratings.

Decatur Community Correctional Center was a coed adult residential facility opened on 21 May 1979. The center was housed in a single story converted motel leased from a private owner. The center housed and served 75 males and 35 females completing the remaining three months to two years of their prison sentence. Consistently, over 90 percent of the center's residents employed were in the community. Employed residents were required to pay a prescribed maintenance fee equal to 20 percent of their net earnings. Weekly allowances were provided to residents from their savings for personal expenses. Counselors provided financial counseling to all residents. Many hours were donated each year to community service projects. Most notably, more than 650 hours were provided by residents in the set up/take down of concession stands and

trash removal throughout the operation of the Decatur Celebration summer festival. Assistance was given to United Cerebral Palsy in swimming and bowling programs for clients.

The former Kane County Springbrook Tuberculosis Sanitarium near Aurora became the **Fox Valley Community Correctional Center** in April 1972. In the mid-1990s, Fox Valley had a staff of 24, an average daily in-house population of 128, and an average Electronic Detention population of 38. The center's grounds consist of 8-3/4 acres of timber and grass landscape. The center provided substance abuse counseling, job search development, and job placement. Waubonsee Community College provided testing and tutoring for GED examinations.

The **Jessie "Ma" Houston Community Correctional Center** was a residential facility housing 50 adult females. It was located just north of downtown Chicago near the city's Gold Coast area. The center opened on 16 August 1980, and was named in honor of the late Jessie "Ma" Houston, who spent five decades visiting and advocating the rights of incarcerated people. The facility had 20 rooms on three floors. The center had a vision statement that each resident should be exposed to and provided with an "individual experience which promotes, produces, and fosters mutual respect, self esteem, independence, creativity, and provided needed educational training, employment support, and employment opportunities." All clients were responsible for participating in a minimum of 35 hours of program activity. These activities included employment, training, education, and substance abuse and family support counseling. As part of the center's financial program, clients were required to pay a room and board fee, establish a personal budget, participate in a savings plan, and provide funds for child care and family assistance. As part of this financial plan, clients were required to purchase their own personal items from their own accounts. This program enabled clients to return to the community with a sound financial start.

Joliet Community Correctional Center opened in 1968. In 1974, this work release facility moved to the St. Charles Pastoral Center, located at Route 53 and Airport Road in Romeoville. Joliet CCC had a design capacity of 92, although in the mid-1990s the population was considerably higher. The center provided a gradual reintegration of adult male offenders into community life through a system of structured supervision and Electronic Detention in the community. Since the inception of Electronic Detection in July 1989, Joliet CCC had placed 825 male and female residents into the program. Through this new technology, the department provided a tool for the positive reintegration of prison inmates back to the community with strict attention to the mission of protecting the public. The facility offered in-house educational programs but encouraged residents to use existing community resources such as Joliet Junior College and other adult education facilities. The work release center was cost effective because residents were required to pay maintenance fees for room and board. Center residents earned $754,289 during fiscal year 1995 and paid $135,772 in taxes. Room and board maintenance paid to the state totaled $150,857. Residents were allotted $407,316 for personal expenses, with 75 percent of the personal expense funds spent in the surrounding community.

Metro Community Correctional Center in Chicago was first opened in December 1973. Relocated to a different facility in March 1975, the center housed 80 male residents consisting of three types of inmates including work release residents, boot camp graduates, and individuals placed in the Electronic Detention Program. The average daily Electronic Detection population was

100 participants. Metro CCC's mission was to assist its clients in their return to the community through positive support services. As participants in the program, residents were expected to obtain and maintain employment or enroll in school programs including vocational and educational classes. Safer Foundation was the primary provider for employment services. Residents were required to pay 20 percent of their net income for room and board and were encouraged to save another 20 percent of their earnings. Metro's substance abuse services were provided contractually by the Salvation Army-Harbor Light Center. Freedom Flyers Ministries had offered Bible study and church services since January 1994.

Peoria Community Correctional Center opened in 1985 in a 100 year old building. The center was located in Peoria the early 1970s. Housing 70 male offenders, it operated at full capacity most of the time. Plans to expand and relocate the center were developed. Peoria CCC was also a site of the PreStart Program to counsel residents in returning to society. Residents were employed in businesses and industries of Peoria.

Southern Illinois Community Correctional Center, located near Southern Illinois University (SIU) in Carbondale, was to make maximum use of community resources to assist in the reintegration of residents into society, while offering protection to the community. The residents also were expected to contribute to the community through public service projects. SICCC maintained an average daily resident population of 62 residents, while averaging approximately 56 residents on Electronic Detention during fiscal year 1995. In that same period, gross resident earnings from employment were $409,502 resulted in $107,091 room and board fees paid back to the state and $46,504 paid in state and federal taxes.

Urbana Community Correctional Center, a community based adult male correctional facility, opened in March 1976 in a converted office building leased from Champaign County. The initial capacity of 70 residents was expanded to 83 in November 1987, to 108 in June 1994, and finally to 112 in June 1995. In fiscal year 1995, center staff monitored 162 male and female inmates on Electronic Detention in 21 counties. All residents were expected to participate in a minimum of 35 hours per week of constructive programming, which included employment, vocational training, education, community service work or a combination of these assignments. Urbana CCC consistently had 100 percent employment and all residents were engaged in productive, full time activities. Residents often participated in individual volunteer projects. Many worked at the Eastern Illinois Food Bank where they loaded and unloaded trucks, stock shelves, or assist with cleanup projects. Residents also performed volunteer work at the Salvation Army Homeless Shelter and kitchen. One of the favorite volunteer projects was working with animals at the local Humane Society.

West Side Community Correctional Center in Chicago was the newest and largest work release center in Illinois. West Side CCC was established in July 1993 in what was a vacant warehouse, with the capacity to house 150 male residents. In January 1994, a wing was prepared to accommodate female residents. The center had the ability to house 162 males and 56 females. The center was also home for the Northern Region staff of the Special Intensive Supervision Unit supervising Electronic Detention placements in that area. Approximately 150 Electronic Detention clients were monitored by West Side staff.

Together with full time employment, educational programs were a priority at West Side CCC. Residents were studying toward educational achievement ranging from GED certificates to masters' degree diplomas. A wide variety of vocational training opportunities were also available. These programs were a tool to assist residents in their pursuit of gainful employment so they could provide for themselves and their families after release. Community organizations serving the needs of residents included Safer Foundation, Resource Dimensions and Women Working Together for Employment Opportunities; Lakeview Learning Center, Malcolm X and Wright Community Colleges for GED tutoring; Goodwill and Inner Voice for vocational needs; Garfield Counseling Center, Salvation Army, Bobby Wright Center, Haymarket House and Grace House for substance abuse counseling; and Horner Association for Men, My Sister's Keeper and St. Leonard's House for housing needs of releasees who had completed their sentence.

Opened in 1970, **Winnebago Community Correctional Center** operated as a work release center, growing from a 15 bed facility to a 95 bed facility in 1995. During that fiscal year, a total of 305 residents were transferred into the facility and 301 transferred out. Of these exits, 86 residents were released to the free community under mandatory supervised release, 140 were transferred to Electronic Detention placement, 63 were returned to prison for disciplinary action, 11 transferred to other community correctional centers, and one was an administrative transfer. Winnebago CCC residents participated in volunteer projects to help the community. Some of these included the SHARE Program, Allen Chapel Soup Kitchen, Rock Valley Food Pantry, and the Black Health Care Fair. Winnebago Community Correctional Center adopted the PreStart Program to improve the life skills of residents and their chances of success in free society after release.

Juvenile Institutions

In 1999 the **Illinois Youth Center – Chicago** opened as a facility for juvenile females, although it was designed for "superpredators" under the age of 12. The facility was planned to house 30 preteen offenders convicted of violent crimes, but opened with a capacity of 44 juvenile females.

Illinois Youth Center – Harrisburg had a design capacity of 276 juvenile males, although the average daily population during fiscal year 1995 was 387. Most of the population was 17 years of age or younger. The facility opened in 1983, having formerly been the A. L. Bowen Developmental Center built in 1966, operated by the Department of Mental Health. The education department at IYC-Harrisburg continued to focus on the delivery of quality academic/vocational programs. In fiscal year 1995, 69 students at Harrisburg earned their GED certificates, 51 earned eighth grade diplomas, and six earned two year associate's degrees from Southeastern Illinois College. There were 40 college certificates awarded and over 3,078 college credit hours earned by youth at the center. The center operated a program with the local Habitat for Humanity affiliate, with building materials fabricated into walls, trusses, and other components for assembly by Habitat staff.

Illinois Youth Center – Joliet, a maximum security juvenile facility for males, opened in 1959. The center evolved from the juvenile reception and classification center to its present purpose: housing the most aggressive and sophisticated juvenile delinquents and felons in the Juvenile Division. While the facility's rated capacity was 212, the average daily population during fiscal

year 1995 was 292. Programs at IYC Joliet included a substance abuse education program, youth choir, religious programming and services, art therapy programming, soccer, and special mentoring presentations by professional athletes and area coaches.

Illinois Youth Center – Murphysboro opened in 1996. Cadets were eligible to have visits after completion of orientation (which usually lasted two weeks). Only authorized visitors may visit, which included family.

Located near Alton and opened in 1963, **Illinois Youth Center – Pere Marquette** was a minimum security juvenile correctional facility for males. Program services were expanded in the 1990s to meet the needs of the juvenile population and to increase their chances for success upon return to the community. Expanded classes included anger management, morals education, social skills, job seeking skills, and a violence interruption program. The educational program had a high level of success, with a 100 percent passing rate in completion the elementary diploma (Eighth grade) and a 99 percent passing rate in the GED program. Unlike most of Illinois' correctional facilities, IYC – Pere Marquette maintained an average daily population in 1995 that was lower than its design capacity: for a design capacity of 64. In 1993 and 1995 the facility was evacuated due to flooding: in 1993 for seven weeks and in 1995 for seven days.

After Illinois created the nation's first juvenile court system in 1899, a board of trustees was established in 1902 to develop an institution of correction for youths. Opened in 1904 as the St. Charles School for Boys, the facility was now known as the **Illinois Youth Center – St. Charles.** Despite an aging physical plant, the center continued to provide treatment and guidance to a growing number of delinquent youth. In fiscal year 1995 the facility had an average daily population of 453 youths, although its current design capacity was 318. In addition to general population and special treatment programs, IYC-St. Charles operated the reception center for all juvenile males committed to the Juvenile Division of the department, managing over 1,800 admissions at the reception center in fiscal year 1995. All receive extensive personal interviews during their 10 day stay, including a psychological screening evaluation, medical screening and orientation services before leaving for their assigned facility to serve their term. Educational and vocational training at the center parallels the programs available at other IYC facilities.

The **Illinois Youth Center - Valley View** was a medium security male juvenile facility. Opened in 1966, the center had a design capacity of 228, although during fiscal year 1995 the center had an average daily population of 256. The center improved overall treatment services in the areas of sex offending behavior, substance abuse education, basic social skills, and situations requiring control of anger. About 70 percent of the youth at IYC-Valley View continue to be 16 years or younger. Educational and vocational programs at the center guide youth toward an eighth grade diploma, high school credits or diploma, GED certificate, and vocational certificates. IYC-Valley View also offers training in the area of life skills, survival skills, and transitional planning. During fiscal year 1995, 94 percent of the total population attended school daily. This resulted in 98 eighth grade diplomas, 26 GED certificates, 4 high school diplomas, and 32 vocational certificates earned by youth.

Opened in 1973, The **Illinois Youth Center – Warrenville** was the reception center for juvenile females, and was the only coed youth center in Illinois. The population was approximately two-

thirds females and one-third males. Design capacity was 108, with an average daily population in fiscal year 1995 of 129. The center was built by the Standard Oil Company at no cost to the taxpayers of Illinois, and was subsequently turned over to the Illinois Department of Corrections. A wide variety of therapies and interventions offered at IYC-Warrenville included individual, group, and family therapy; occupational counseling; and substance abuse counseling. The center school offered elementary and secondary academic and vocational programs. About 95 percent of the youth were enrolled in full day class schedules. Approximately 5 percent of the residents completed secondary school and work full time.

Illinois Correctional Industries

In 1976, the prison industry program officially became "Illinois Correctional Industries." Before the change, industry programs were run within individual correctional facilities under the authority of the warden. Now, all aspects of the program were controlled by the central industries office.

Illinois Correctional Industries (ICI) provided high quality products designed and manufactured by adults incarcerated in the Illinois correctional system. ICI operated factories, farms, and service programs, employing over 1,700 adults. These men and women were voluntarily employed, aiding in the development of useable skills and positive work habits. The products and services provided at the numerous plants and farms located across the state range from data entry services to fabrication of traditional and contemporary wood furniture to preparation of food products. Correctional Industries plants also produced city and highway signs, men's and women's garments, silkscreen and embroidery, a complete range of cleaning supplies, eyeglasses, and recycling of vehicle tires.

ICI operations were not supported by tax dollars. ICI was a self supporting program, deriving its revenues solely from the sale of its products and services. State statute defined those entities that may purchase from ICI. The State, its political units, its agencies, and public institutions were qualified customers. Not-for-profit corporations chartered in Illinois may also purchase ICI produced goods and services.

D. History of Stateville Correctional Center

The Need for a New Prison: 1900 to 1916

On the one hand the steel works.
On the other hand the penitentiary.
Santa Fé trains and Alton trains
Between smokestacks on the west
And gray walls on the east.
And Lockport down the river.[461]

...Illinois can no longer ignore the stern necessity for the abandonment of this prison as soon as a new one can be erected.[462]

By 1900, Joliet Penitentiary was over 40 years old. Reports from the officers and warden of the prison discussed the need for repairs and improvements to the buildings of the institution. Repairs were necessary because of normal wear and tear and deterioration of the exterior masonry. In order to implement repairs on the original buildings, construction of an addition was necessary to house inmates. Certain prison industries had recently been discontinued. Between expenditures for building maintenance and inmate employment, the institution had used much of its annual budget eight months before the end of the fiscal year.[463]

It was stated in the 1900 annual report that the officers of the prison had asked for an appropriation for a new cell house, but the appropriation for this construction was defeated in the legislature. One reason for the defeat was resistance to enlarging the prison, because the existing site was located a few hundred feet from the Illinois Steel Company plant.[464] It was noted that the "unpleasant smoke, fine dust, and gases from the blast furnaces and rolling mills of the Steel Company often envelop the entire prison grounds, to the extreme discomfort of the officers and prisoners."[465] The health of the inmates suffered as a result of the exposure to industrial pollution. However, the officers realized that relocating the prison could not be accomplished in the near future.

In the meantime, several modifications were requested to modernize the existing facility, including the construction of a new cellhouse with single inmate cells. It was noted that the women's prison, located immediately east of the men's prison, had cells with one inmate per cell with a wash bowl and water closet in each, resulting in much better conditions than were present in the crowded cellhouses with inadequate facilities of the men's cellhouses.[466] Funding for an

[461] Carl Sandburg, *Joliet,* stanza 1, in *The Complete Poems of Carl Sandburg* (New York: Harcourt Brace Javanovich, 1970), 120.
[462] *Report of the Commissioners of the Illinois State Penitentiary at Joliet* (Springfield, Illinois, 30 September 1906), 1.
[463] Officers of the Illinois State Penitentiary, *Report of the Commissioners* (30 September 1900), 9-10.
[464] A historic aerial photograph in the collection of the Chicago Historical Society shows the close proximity of the Joliet prison to the steel plant, with smoke from the plant drifting north to almost enshroud the prison.
[465] Officers of the Illinois State Penitentiary, 11.
[466] Inmate cells were described as follows: "...so far as the cellhouses are concerned, in which the inmates spend their sleeping hours as well as Sundays and holidays, there are no sanitary facilities of any description, and when

inmate dining room was requested for inmate discipline as well as cleanliness, eliminating the need for serving meals in the cells. Serving in a controlled dining room setting would also prevent food from being wasted, it was hoped.

The new dining room was added in 1904.[467] However, construction of the new cellhouse was held up by concerns about enlarging prison, considering the pollution threat present nearby. The warden recommended that the state purchase land near the old prison with access to the Illinois and Michigan Canal and railroad lines. The suggested size of the site was 500 to 1,000 acres for "a new penitentiary worthy of our State." By 1906 the commissioners (formerly the officers of the prison) expressed the desire to abandon the existing facility.

> It is simply impossible for any man, or any set of men, to visit this prison, and see with their own eyes the actual condition of affairs in respect to proper surroundings and internal sanitary conditions, and not be fully convinced that the State of Illinois can no longer ignore the stern necessity for the abandonment of this prison as soon as a new one can be erected.[468]

The Commissioners suggested that funding for a new prison could come from taxes, and inmate labor could be used to subsidize the venture. In fact, the commissioners had already consulted with architects and contractors, soliciting opinions on the amount of skilled labor versus inmate labor that would be necessary for the project. It was thought that quarrying and dressing of stone, fabricating carpentry, and setting iron work could all be performed by the inmates. The commissioners estimated that $1,500,000 would be necessary for the erection of a new prison.[469] In the meantime, limited repairs were planned for the old prison.

The state legislature passed an act in June 1907 creating the "Penitentiary Commission," charged with the selection of a 2,000 acre site for a new prison.[470] The commission members were appointed by Governor Charles S. Deneen: John Lambert of Joliet served as Chairman, along with James A. Patten of Evanston and Ira C. Copley of Aurora.[471] Commission members served without pay. Their first task was the selection of a site. With the aid of geologists and agronomists (in order to insure that the new site was suitable for farming), the commission chose a 2,193 acre site on high ground 1/4 mile west of the Des Plaines River, and approximately 5-1/2 miles northwest of the Joliet Penitentiary.[472] Located across the river was the town of Lockport.

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you consider that thus fully two-thirds of their time is spent in cells 7 feet long by 4 feet wide, with a slop bucket for use of nature's calls, it is easy to see under what difficulties the medical department labors to maintain anything like a proper degree of health among the prisoners." (*Report of the Commissioners of the Illinois State Penitentiary at Joliet*, 30 September 1900, 1.)

[467] *Report of the Commissioners of the Illinois State Penitentiary at Joliet* (Springfield, Illinois, 30 September 1904), 1.

[468] *Report of the Commissioners of the Illinois State Penitentiary at Joliet* (Springfield, Illinois, 30 September 1906), 1.

[469] Ibid., 6.

[470] John Lambert, James A. Patten, and Ira A. Copley. *The New Illinois State Penitentiary, Stateville, Ill.* (n.p., 1919), 1.

[471] Louis L. Emmerson, Secretary of State, ed. *Blue Book of the State of Illinois, 1917-18*, 293.

[472] The land consisted of sections 20, 21, 28, and 29 of Lockport Township in Will County. A plat from 1873 lists the names of several owners on the 2,000 plus acre site, including H. Reed and D. Mall (who owned the property that the prison buildings would be located on) as well as John McGuire, J. McGoery, McFadden, J. and S. Haywood, Henry Wall, W. Hawley, Theodore Harder, J. Mather, S. Wilson (who owned the site that the Honor Farm dormitory would later be built) and numerous others. The plat shows farmsteads close to the bordering roads, including what would later be named Renwick Road to the north, State Route 53 to the east, Caton Farm Road to the south, Weber Road to the west, and Stateville Road running east-west between sections 20 and 21, and 28 and 29. Another plat book lists many of the same property owners or descendants thereof, along with some subdivision of the acreage, presumably as estates were divided. The 1909 plat also shows a school northwest of the intersection of Caton Farm Road and State Route 53. (*Combination Atlas Map of Will County* (Elgin, Illinois: Thompson Brothers & Burr, 1873), 27; *Standard Atlas of Will County, Illinois* (Chicago: Geo. A. Ogle & Co., 1909), 93.)

Its location was far enough from the industries of northern Joliet to escape the pollution plaguing the old prison. It was described as "a truly magnificent site, where the pure, invigorating air and sunlight and the panorama of the hills, valley and woods add Nature's regenerating influence to the processes of reformation."[473]

The commission members appointed W. Carbys Zimmerman as architect of the new facility. He was leading partner in the firm Zimmerman, Saxe & Zimmerman and experienced in the design of institutional buildings, and served as Supervising Architect for the State of Illinois from 1905 to 1913. Zimmerman and the commission spent several years studying the design of prisons in the United States and Europe. They traveled to England, France, Germany, and India, as well as several other countries.[474] The plans for the new Joliet prison were examined by noted criminologists, penologists, and students of prison reform, and were considered "a new thought and the last word in prison architecture."[475] They also had the assistance of Professor Charles R. Henderson, President of both the International Prison Congress and International Prison Association. The resulting designs deviated from the Auburn plan buildings found in most American prisons.

In the existing Joliet prison, as described in the *Blue Book of the State of Illinois, 1917-18*, guards could only observe prisoners when standing directly in front of their cells. Because of the chance for unsupervised prisoner activities, it was considered dangerous to have cells with access to the exterior, so cells were grouped on the interior in a block (such as the Auburn plan cell houses). In order to give cells direct access to light and air and provide adequate security, a circular cellhouse with a guard station in the center was developed using Jeremy Bentham's panopticon cellhouse as a model. The front of cells had wire glass doors, giving inmates "a room and not a cage, and no longer subject to the physical and moral foulness of an adjoining criminal."[476]

Zimmerman described in a professional trade journal that:

> Penologists universally agree that society has the moral right to restrain the criminal from working further injury to law-abiding citizens, but that is all. If his incarceration is for the purpose of curing the diseased brain, which inspired his criminal acts, and making him fit to return to society, it is certain an obvious truth that society has not the right to inflict subtler tortures upon him, such as undermining his body so that it is an easy victim to contagious diseases.

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[473] Lambert, Patten, and Copley, *The New Illinois State Penitentiary, Stateville, Ill*, 1.

[474] Illinois Prison Inquiry Commission, *The Prison System in Illinois, A Report to the Governor of Illinois* (1937), 156.

[475] *Blue Book of the State of Illinois, 1917-18*, 294.

[476] Ibid.

> Notwithstanding these commonly accepted truths, the modern prison, through efforts have been made previously to better conditions, is a breeding-place for vice, vermin, and disease. Architects have striven toward new ideals and have tried to adopt the theories of the penologists, but hampered by old ideas in prison construction and the necessity of absolutely safe confinement, have fallen short of the mark. The fault for the horrible conditions which sicken the heart of the visitor to the penitentiary of today lies not in the detailed construction, but it the planning or arrangement of the buildings thought to be requisite.[477]

The first appropriation from the state legislature for the new prison was made in 1913. At this time, Edmund Allen was warden at Joliet. Allen objected to the fortress design of the new prison, initially to cost $6,000,000. Allen's idea for a new prison was a perimeter fence and smaller, residential scale buildings based on the cottage plan used at mental health facilities.[478]

The facility was planned with an "administration building" (later called the Detention Building) to include offices of the institution, identification department, and psychiatric departments with cells for temporary detention. Linking the Detention Building to the Dining Room building at the center of the prison was to be an enclosed corridor. Radiating from the Dining Room were to be corridors leading to the cellhouses. The Dining Room was planned to seat the entire prison population of approximately 2,000 at one time. The Dining Room building also was to house the kitchens, bakery, and staff dining room. The Dining Room was planned to serve as the focal point of the chapel, school house, hospital, and prison industries. An article on the newly planned prison reported:

> The Dining Hall will be divided into eight sections, each section being devoted to the inmates of one cell house. Each section will be adjacent to the corridor leading to its cell house and thus it will be possible to fill or empty the Dining Hall very expeditiously. Portable steam-tables are to be located at each point of entrance, and a cafeteria system of food dispensation will prevail, making it possible to serve the entire group within a period of five minutes.
>
> The Hall is surrounded by a board corridor by means of which a given group may be "shunted" around the Dining Hall to any given cell house, the Chapel, the Kitchen, the Bakery, the eight corridors leading to the cell houses, or the four corridors leading to the other portions of the prison.[479]

[477] W. Carbys Zimmerman, "The Circular Prison and Jail Plan," *The Brickbuilder* XXIII, no. 8 (August 1914), 189-90.
[478] Gladys A. Erickson, *Warden Ragen of Joliet* (New York: E.P. Dutton & Company, Inc., 1957), 95. This proposal of Allen's was shared by other prison administrators and advisors, although it was not truly implemented in Illinois until the construction of Oakdale Reformatory for Women (later Dwight Correctional Center) in 1930 and Vienna Correctional Center in 1965. Allen's involvement in the development of the new prison would soon end through tragic circumstances. On 16 June 1915 Allen's wife Odette was murdered by an inmate working as a household servant in the warden's quarters of the Administration Building. Mrs. Allen, a former operetta singer, had been a supporter of reform programs that allowed inmates, known as "trusties," to work in prison administration and domestic service. Allen resigned as warden soon afterwards.
[479] Rexford Newcomb, "The New Illinois State Penitentiary at Stateville," *The Western Architect* XXXI, no. 12 (December 1922), 138.

The infrastructure of the facility was planned with a centralized power and heating plant and service tunnels with steam and water piping leading to the prison buildings. Sewer piping was to lead to a large "Imhoff" purifying plant located about one-half mile outside the wall. No sewers were to run under the cellhouses. All of the buildings at the prison were to be of "absolutely fireproof construction," with floors, partitions, and roof structures using reinforced concrete. All doors were planned to be steel. Windows were steel sash and glazed with wire glass. The outside walls were faced with light buff-colored pressed brick with terra cotta trim and cornices.

The design of the cellhouses was the most unique feature of the new prison.[480] Instead of rectangular plan cellhouses such as those at the old Joliet Prison, or Auburn plan cellhouses, the new cellhouses in Stateville were based on Jeremy Bentham's panopticon plan. The selection of this type of cellhouse was made for two specific reasons – inmate health and welfare and proper security. Access to light and air were key features of the new cellhouse design. Cells in the old Joliet Prison received little natural light and had inadequate ventilation.

> The old standard type of cell block which consists of cells with barred, open fronts set back from the outside wall and away from the windows and grouped back to back within the enclosing walls of a long rectangular building has been entirely discarded in the new plans. It has been found that the health of the inmates cannot be maintained properly in this form of a cell block....The problem therefore seemed to be how to give the inmate the advantages of ample light and air through a good, generous window and at the same time not give him the opportunity or time to make use of these advantages to effect an escape. All authorities and experienced wardens agree that if sufficient and constant supervision could be arranged the prisoner might be given an outside window, and it was with this idea as a basis that Mr. Zimmerman evolved and developed the scheme adopted. The radical feature of the New Penitentiary is the circular dormitory of cellhouse wherein every cell is an "outside" room, (each provided with a good, generous window) and where the guard, who is stationed in an observation tower at the center of the building, has a full view of each cell at all times, as the fronts of the cells consist of steel sash glazed with small panes of plate "wire" glass, so that no secret operations are possible. With the installation of windows in the cells it is no longer necessary to secure a supply of air through open, barred gratings in front. The architectural effect of the small panes of glass is the same as a "French" door and the absence of the barred doors and gratings removes the old impression that the inmate is a "caged animal."[481]

[480] Stateville inspired the design of a large prison complex on the Isle de la Juventud south of Cuba (formerly the Isle of Pines). Built by Cuban president Gerardo Machado and interior minister Rogerio Zayas Bazán from 1925 to 1931, the "model penitentiary" as it was called consisted of a circular dining room surrounded by four panopticon cellhouses, each with five levels designed to hold 930 inmates (significantly larger than those at Stateville). With additional buildings on the site, approximately 5,000 inmates could be accommodated. During the 1950s the institution was used to hold political prisoners as well as criminals. It was in one of the buildings at the prison, a hospital known as Building 1, that Fidel Castro and many of his fellow revolutionaries were held from 1953 to 1955. Several biographies of Castro contain accounts of his experiences at the model penitentiary, including Tad Szulc, *Fidel: A Critical Portrait* (New York: William Murrow and Company, Inc., 1986), 304-19. For a photograph of the Isle of Pines prison in its' current ruined state, see Rachel Carley, *Cuba: 400 Years of Architectural Heritage* (New York: Whitney Library of Design, an imprint of Watson-Guptill Publications, 1997), 136.
[481] *New Illinois State Penitentiary At Stateville*, 5.

The circular central floor space was one unit, with steel roof trusses spanning the full width of the building. The center floor space could be used for exercise during inclement weather, workshop space, or other functional uses. An additional feature of the cellhouses was the skylight extending the full width of the roof. The skylights took up two opposing segments of the roof between roof trusses as well as the center ring at the peak. At the roof peak was a raised roof monitor for ventilation. For those cells located on the north side of the building, the skylight, "which has been astronomically calculated with relation to the various positions of the sun for every season of the year," allowed sunlight light to reach the interior wall of the cellhouse.[482] This would allow the north facing cells to receive some sunlight during the day. Tuberculosis was one of the diseases that had always been a great menace to the health of prisoners, and sunlight was thought to be one of the preventatives of this disease.[483]

Eight panopticon cellhouses were originally planned for Stateville (although only four were eventually built). Each cellhouse was to hold 248 inmates in as many cells, for a total capacity of 1,984 inmates. With eight cellhouses, it was intended to classify and segregate different types of prisoners according to the Progressive Merit System into separate cellhouses. First offenders were to be separated from more "hardened criminals." The new cellhouses allowed "adaptability to the various grades or classifications ranging from the grade entitled to 'privileges' down to a confinement of the most vicious and subnormals."[484]

It was reported by state prison officials that the essentials for effective prison management were threefold: treatment of the mentally ill or physically sick; a classification system; and the "Progressive Merit System."

> There will be inaugurated a progressive merit system that will encourage and give opportunity to the inmates to prepare themselves for ultimate freedom through the operation of the Parole Law. Under this system, after sufficient progress has been made by the inmates, the plans for construction make the sort of provisions that will enable the management to give opportunity to the prisoners to live in and learn how to adapt themselves properly to community life.[485]

The new prison was to have a medical department for the proper diagnosis of inmates' mental and medical conditions. After determination that the individuals were fit subjects to undergo the rigors of prison discipline, they were passed on to a second section where the men were given an opportunity to adapt themselves to the operation of the Progressive Merit System. The Progressive Merit System was developed from many years of experience by John L. Whitman, warden of the old Joliet Prison. This system was to give prisoners "an opportunity to demonstrate their intention or ability to make progress in character building as will fit them to go out upon parole."[486] This system was made up of five grades: A, B, C, D, and E.

[482] Ibid., 7.
[483] Office of the Penitentiary Commission, *The New Illinois State Penitentiary* (N.p., 1924), n.p.
[484] Ibid., 8.
[485] *State of Illinois Department of Public Welfare Annual Report, July 1, 1917 to June 30, 1918*, 243.
[486] *New Illinois State Penitentiary at Stateville*, N.p., n.d. [circa 1920s], n.p.

All prisoners upon entering prison were to be placed in C grade, with the possibility of working up in grades through their conduct, general disposition, and mental attitude. Inmates were to be assigned to Section 1 of the prison, consisting of two of the intended eight cellhouses. In Section 1 prisoners were kept under close supervision and were given no responsibilities. The cellhouses in this section were the "strongholds" of the prison. The supervision exercised was intended to reveal "the natural or vicious tendencies of each" so as to enable the officials to decide upon the sort of treatment or training necessary for the improvement of the inmate.

While the inmates were under constant daily observation, accurate records were made and weekly records were compiled into monthly averages. Inmates were to be given a copy of this record. Each month they were called before a staff committee composed of the warden, deputy warden, psychiatrist, and physician. Bad marks would lead to inmates being set back into lower grades. Inmates who showed habits of industry and development of character were to be advanced to the four Section 2 cellhouses, each varying in degree of restraint and the size and number of inmates per cell. If progress continued, they became fit subjects for assignment outside the walls in the cottages of Section 3, arranged similar to a college dormitory, in which they would be "looked upon as men worthy of being trusted, at least to some extent." These cottages were to be arranged with 15 men per cottage, for a total of 12 cottages. Training was then to continue with possible advancement to Section 4, the prison farm, and then to the ultimate goal of parole. Inmates eligible for parole were reviewed by the Board of Pardons and Parole.[487]

The rehabilitative potential of the new prison was optimistically expressed in articles from the period:

> With the exception of the life-termers, practically the whole prison population is destined to be returned to society eventually: therefore the state cannot, except with peril to itself, neglect the regeneration of these unfortunates who have fallen under society's wheel. It is believed at Stateville that the Progressive Merit System more nearly accomplishes this end than any system of penal procedure yet devised, and it is the belief of the prison officials that the new plant now in process of erection and partially occupied will greatly facilitate this important work of regeneration.[488]

Prior to 1917, prisons in Illinois were run independently by the warden and a board of trustees. In 1917, state prisons were placed under the control of the Department of Public Welfare and a Superintendent of Prisons. In reality, the individual institutions continued to have autonomy until 1933, when the prisons were reorganized under the Classification Act as the Illinois State Penitentiary system.[489]

[487] Ibid.
[488] Newcomb, "The New Illinois State Penitentiary at Stateville," 136.
[489] James B. Jacobs, *Stateville: The Penitentiary in Mass Society* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1977), 17.

Construction of Stateville: 1917 to 1924

> *Illinois is the First State in the Union to make a successful attempt to get away from the old traditional ideas of what a prison plan and design should be.*[490]
>
> *There has been nowhere in the entire plant any attempt to give the institution the castellated, embattled, rock-faced architectural character so frequently associated with prison architecture. The aim of the architects has been to build an efficient plant for the treatment of criminals rather than an impressive work of architecture.*[491]

Work at the prison site began when a farm house and a barn from the site were moved to form a farm camp. Another building was constructed to serve as a dining room. Inmates who were to farm and perform construction work were housed in the camp. On 25 August 1916, work began on the construction of a temporary wooden stockade fence surrounding the 64 acre prison yard. A total of 175 inmates worked under the direction of construction workers and supervisors. Additional inmates were shuttled from the old prison during the day to work at the site.[492]

Of the approximately 2,200 acres constituting the "State Farm," 64 acres in the center were to be enclosed by a reinforced concrete wall, 1.25 miles long and 33.5 feet high, 14 inches thick at the top and 24 inches thick at ground level. Construction of the permanent wall was started in 1918 and was completed in 1921.[493] The footings of the wall extended ten feet below grade in most areas, but as far as eighteen feet in other areas. The wall was not intended for armed guards to patrol, as was the custom in other institutions. A guard tower was positioned at each of the four corners of the prison yard. Another guard tower was located at the railroad and wagon gate on the south wall of the prison. The east or front wall of the enclosure was located about 1,000 feet from the "Bluff Road" (now State Route 53), the main highway between Joliet and Chicago. Railroad connections with the Elgin, Joliet & Eastern Railroad were constructed.

Concrete was one of the primary construction materials, used for the structural framing on many of the new buildings, which were then faced with brick. The facility was constructed at a time when concrete was gaining wide use as a construction material. In order to transport materials across the site, a narrow gauge railway was laid. Rails were also used in the construction of the concrete walls to move formwork. A 50 foot long section of wall could be placed with inmate labor in three hours and twenty minutes, and inmates were said to have reached "a high degree of proficiency in concrete work."[494] Gravel beds southwest of the prison yard and a crushing plant provided aggregate for the concrete structures at the new prison. The use of steel reinforcing added to the efficiency of construction:

[490] *New Illinois State Penitentiary At Stateville*, n.p.
[491] Newcomb, "The New Illinois State Penitentiary at Stateville," 138.
[492] Illinois Prison Inquiry Commission, 157.
[493] Illinois Prison Inquiry Commission, 159. Until completion of the enclosing wall in 1921, some 200 escapes were made by inmate laborers from the site, although most were quickly apprehended. (Erickson, *Warden Ragen of Joliet*, 96.)
[494] *New Illinois State Penitentiary At Stateville*, 14 and 18.

> The enclosing wall requires only about one-third of the amount of concrete usually employed in walls of this kind. This great economy is due to the application of sound engineering principles in a new way, and to the efficient method of construction and manner of reinforcing. For these reason its design has been adopted by the State of New York for use around the new Sing Sing Prison.[495]

The guard towers were constructed with reinforced concrete walls, exterior walkways, and conical roof covered with composition roofing. Interior stairs led to the observation level that had steel sash windows. Construction of the wall involved regrading of the surrounding landscape, especially at the western portion of the enclosing wall. At the south entrance gate, constructed circa 1920, the natural grade was raised approximately 10 feet.[496]

Because construction on the new prison began concurrently with the United States' involvement in World War I, there was a shortage of labor available for construction as well for operating the old prison. Many workers, including prison guards from the penitentiary, left to join industries like the Illinois Steel Company, where they received wages of $25 to $40 more per month than at the prison. This increased the incentive for using inmate labor for construction of the new prison. Other prisoners were released on special industrial paroles.[497] The inmate population dropped during this period: 1,335 men and 38 women, for a total of 1,373 persons in 1917. The year previously, the population had been 1,621.[498] At this early date, it was already projected that all of the inmates at the old prison at Joliet could be moved to the new prison at the end of 1918.[499]

Besides construction of the new prison yard wall, several new structures were built to accommodate growth of the prison farm, including two silos. Between 1916 and 1917, the farm acquired 350 head of cattle, 500 pigs and hogs, 200 sheep, and 600 chickens. The farm crops reached a reasonable yield, resulting in over 5,000 gallons of tomatoes, as well as beans and corn.[500]

A complete overview of the facility was presented in a Department of Public Welfare annual report of 1919.[501] Built to accommodate approximately 2,000 inmates, the facility was planned to be a self-contained "village," now given the name of "STATEVILLE" as approved by Illinois governor Frank O. Lowden. Stateville was designed to provide inmates with the following requirements:

[495] Lambert, Patten, and Copley, *The New Illinois State Penitentiary, Stateville, Ill.*, 2.
[496] W. Carbys Zimmerman, Architect, New Illinois State Penitentiary, 5 Wall Towers, sheet 1, revised 5 February 1920; and W. Carbys Zimmerman, Architect, New Illinois State Penitentiary, Wagon Lock and R.R. Gate, sheet 1, revised 15 March 1920.
[497] *State of Illinois Department of Public Welfare Annual Report, July 1, 1917 to June 30, 1918*, 395-7.
[498] Ibid., 397.
[499] State of Illinois, *First Administrative Report of the Directors of Departments under the Civil Administrative Code Together with the Adjutant General's Report, For the year, July 1, 1917 to June 30, 1918* (Springfield, Illinois: State of Illinois, 1918), 470.
[500] *State of Illinois Department of Public Welfare Annual Report, July 1, 1917 to June 30, 1918*, 397.
[501] *State of Illinois Department of Public Welfare Annual Report, July 1, 1919 to June 30, 1920*, 3-8.

> FIRST: A prisoner must be confined safely. He must be confined in a manner, which reduces the possibility of escape to minimum and precludes the opportunity of a repetition of his offense.
> SECOND: He is entitled to his health and to such surroundings that he will not be degraded either physically of morally, for the prisoner is not condemned to die prematurely, and since he is not sentenced to physical or mental torture, there is no moral or legal authority for depriving him of the opportunity to maintain his health and improve in every way.
> THIRD: THE REGENERATION OF MAN. This also becomes a duty of the State since, in the average case, the prisoner at the expiration of his sentence will mingle with society.[502]

By the end of fiscal year 1919 (ending 30 June 1919), several steps had been taken to expedite construction. Drainage tile was installed on the farm. The farm camp was enlarged to accommodate more inmate labor. Eight miles of high-tension electric line were hung to provide a dependable supply of power. A 1,100 foot deep temporary well was drilled. Two and one-half miles of railroad track were laid to connect the facility with main lines. A gravel washing and rock crushing plant was set up to provide the aggregate for the concrete walls and buildings. Besides the nearly complete Cellhouse D, the Laundry was under construction as well. The temporary heating plant stack, constructed of reinforced concrete, was completed. Eight hundred feet of the enclosing wall and several hundred feet more of wall foundations were completed. During the first two years of construction, between 35 and 70 inmates were used in the daily construction operations.[503]

Construction on Cellhouse D, the first of the panopticon plan cellhouses, was begun in 1917 and completed in 1919.[504] On 29 May 1919, the first 31 male inmates were assigned to Cellhouse D. Gradually more inmates were housed there, so that by 31 December 1919 approximately 240 inmates were held at Stateville.[505] The combined average population at the old prison and at Stateville was 1,398 in 1919 and 1,565 in 1920.

The cellhouses were designed with load bearing brick masonry walls and reinforced concrete inner walls. The cellhouses were to be trimmed with terra cotta cornices with an integral gutter. Mechanical and plumbing systems services were to run in a utility tunnel below the main access corridors leading to the cellhouses and at the basement level at the perimeter of each cellhouse. In addition, a tunnel led to a central observation tower. Security in the cellhouses was maintained by the central observation guard tower, with a guard controlling the hydraulic door locking and lighting systems.[506] The guard tower was a steel frame structure clad with 5/16 inch boilerplate

[502] Ibid., 5.
[503] Ibid., 10.
[504] Erickson, *Warden Ragen of Joliet*, 96.
[505] *New Illinois State Penitentiary At Stateville*, 11; Illinois Prison Inquiry Commission, 156.
[506] The guard tower in the panopticon cellhouses would turn out to be one of the most problematic elements to the new prison. Guards could see the prisoners on the side they faced, but prisoners could see when their back was turned. In her insightful study of Jeremy Bentham's panopticon prison, Janet Semple wrote of Stateville that "it was started in 1916 to astonish the world as a perfect penological structure, but it was a travesty of Bentham's plan, fatally flawed by the failure to understand that unseen inspection [where guards were concealed from the prisoners] was of the essence. The central inspection [guard] towers were devised so that the inmates could observe every move of the guards; supervision became a mockery." (Janet Semple, *Bentham's Prison: A Study of the Panopticon Penitentiary* (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1993), 313.)
One inmate later reported: "Deputy Cvek succeeded in convincing his superiors that the panopticon feature, which permitted two guards to supervise the entire cellhouse by letting them see into every cell, worked both ways. The guards could see the cons in all the cells, all right, but so could the cons see the guards. Anyone who got caught cooking, for instance, in the cell was just plan stupid, for it was pretty easy to post the cell partner on point and have him watch the screw while a guy 'jungled up.' " (Nathan F. Leopold, Jr., *Life Plus 99 Years* (New York: Doubleday & Company, 1958), 208.)
Nathan Leopold, along with Richard Loeb, was responsible for the 1924 murder of Bobbie Franks. Both Leopold and Loeb were inmates at Stateville and their lives inside the institution were intertwined with many significant events there. The information cited from Leopold's memoirs needs to be treated with some skepticism since he left out information that reflected badly on him. (Hal Higdon, *The Crime of the Century: The Leopold and Loeb Case* (New York: G.P. Putnam's Sons, 1975), 234.)
[507] *New Illinois State Penitentiary At Stateville*, 6.
[508] Ibid.

steel. Vertical circulation to the four cellhouse tiers was limited to two sets of stairs adjacent to the main access corridor.

Each cell was intended for one prisoner. Despite later overcrowding, the cells at Stateville were much more accommodating than at the old Joliet Prison: approximately 6'-6" wide, 10'-8" high, and enclosed approximately 550 cubic feet. This was five and one-half times as much as the cells of the Joliet Prison, which were 4'-0" wide, 7'-0" long, and 7'-0" high, and usually accommodated two inmates. The original drawings for the cellhouses showed reinforced concrete walls, 4 inches thick, and reinforced concrete floors, 5 inches thick. Corners of cells, including floor/wall and wall/ceiling intersections were rounded to prevent dirt from accumulating. Tier galleries were 4 feet wide. Stateville's cells were painted with an enamel paint so they could be washed. Interior colors included buff ceiling, light green walls, dark green trim, with the colors "selected in accord with the psychology of color."[507] Each cell at Stateville also had a toilet and hand sink, while those at Joliet had a night bucket and a common jug of water. Lighting in the cells was from a ceiling mounted fixture with a 50 watt incandescent lamp bulb, which could be unscrewed by the inmate to suit his own convenience. At 9:00 p.m., all lights were extinguished. In all the round cellhouses, the cells were equipped with rigid spring beds supporting straw filled mattresses.

Each cell in the new prison had independent heating and ventilating. Heating was provided by a steam radiator. Ventilation was through an open grating by a centrifugal fan located in the basement. Fresh air was taken from the outside and washed by being passed through a finely divided spray of water. It was then heated to the proper temperature and forced through sheet metal ducts into the cells, "so that each man is provided with an abundance of fresh, washed, tempered, and properly humidified air."[508] In addition, each cell had the advantage of an open window at the exterior wall and a transom above the cell doors.

With inmates housed in Cellhouse D, more construction progress was made in fiscal year 1920 than the previous year. Having more prisoners on site eliminated the need and possible security problem of transporting men in trucks from the old prison. Longer working hours were also possible. By the end of 1920, the concrete wall was three-fourths finished; Cellhouse D and the

Laundry building in use; and the water tower completed. Foundations were laid for another cellhouse unit (Cellhouse E) and also for the main dining room. The Detention Building was under construction as well. Substantial progress had been made on the large cold storage plant located near the south railroad entrance gate. Also, a second well was installed to a depth of approximately 1,600 feet.[509] With progress on Stateville continuing, no recommendations were made for repairs to the buildings at the old prison since it was assumed that they would be abandoned within a few years.

The two story brick masonry Detention Building was designed as a utilitarian structure with a low sloped "flat" roof and punched openings glazed with steel sash; openings were provided where needed for the interior spaces.[510] However, despite the utilitarian appearance of the building, it had a terra cotta cornice. Within the building, which also had a basement, the identification department was located on the south end of the first floor and the temporary hospital on the north end. The second floor had detention cells.

Also completed circa 1920 was the Special Cellhouse, located at the north end of the prison yard. The one story brick masonry building with a low sloped "flat" roof was designed with 20 cells flanking a central corridor lit by skylights. Flanking the entrance vestibule for the building were four "trusty" cells. Many of the features of the panopticon cells were used in the special cellhouse cells, with the addition of security features such as hollow metal doors (in addition to barred doors) and windows located high above floor level.[511]

The State Farm (as it continued to be called, to separate it from the enclosed prison) also showed progress in 1920, with crop yields above previous years. The average number of inmates working on the farm in 1920 was 73. Alfalfa and timothy hay, straw, silage, oats, rye, barley, wheat, corn, and sorghum molasses were among the produce grown at the State Farm. Over 21,000 bushels of oats were harvested, while the rest of the yields were fairly good. The numbers of live stock increased, with a daily average of nearly 600 hogs, 167 cattle, 36 horses, and 28 mules, along with 1,200 chickens, over 200 ducks (wild and tame), 113 geese, 85 turkeys, and 28 guinea hens.[512] The net sales of the industrial departments, including the State Farm and the shops at the old Joliet Prison, were $396,665.02 as of 30 June 1920.

Farm buildings listed in the reports of 1920 included laying of the foundations for a brooder house for 5,000 chickens. A reinforced concrete silo, 16 in diameter by 50 feet tall, was completed for the dairy department. Work was underway on the boundary fence for the entire farm, to extend over 12 miles.

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[509] State of Illinois, *Third Administrative Report of the Directors of Departments under the Civil Administrative Code Together with the Adjutant General's Report, For the year, July 1, 1919 to June 30, 1920* (Springfield, Illinois: State of Illinois, 1920), 504.
[510] Zimmerman, Saxe & Zimmerman, Architects, New Illinois State Penitentiary, Detention Building, sheet 1 [?] and 2, 13 November 1922.
[511] W. Carbys Zimmerman, Architect, New Illinois State Penitentiary, Special Cell House Set, sheets 1 and 2 [?], 20 December 1919 and Revised 5 February 1920.
[512] *Third Administrative Report of the Directors of Departments under the Civil Administrative Code Together with the Adjutant General's Report, For the year, July 1, 1919 to June 30, 1920*, 504.

With continued progress on the new prison in fiscal year 1921, officials were optimistic that the old prison could be vacated in the near future.[513] Work on Cellhouse F was begun and plans were further developed for the Detention Building to include a psychiatric and classification department and temporary hospital. Work was near completion on Cellhouse E; the Cold Storage and Supply Warehouse; and the Kitchen, Bakery, and Dining Hall. The shell of the permanent Powerhouse and the smokestack were completed. Five wall towers were near completion. Storm and sanitary sewers, steam lines, and water mains, all running through the secured basement level of the 1,860 foot "tunnel" structure, were in place at this time as well.

During fiscal year 1922, the Powerhouse was completed and brought into use. It was reported that as many as 700 inmates were involved in the construction of the new prison.[514] Portions of the Kitchen, Bakery, and Dining Hall were almost under roof. Construction had also started on a factory with ground dimensions of 125 by 250 feet. Given the extent of progress, it was expected that the transfer of all prisoners to Stateville would take place by the end of fiscal year 1924.[515] It was noted in an article from the period that inmate labor was being efficiently supervised by Mr. Henry W. Tomlinson, A.I.A., Superintendent of Construction for the Commission.[516]

Despite this progress, the report from the Division of Farm, Garden, and Dairy of the Department of Public Welfare in 1922 stated that the farm at Stateville was the poorest organized in the state. It noted that some of the farm building had been built and that others were being planned or underway.[517] The following year some progress had been made, and 125 inmates were assigned to the farm.[518]

The total population of the Illinois State Penitentiary on 1 January 1923 was 1,956 inmates with 189 employees.[519] The third cellhouse was nearing completion and the foundations for the fourth had been laid. The steam plant was complete and connections to each of the buildings were to be in place by the winter of 1923. The changes in the Detention Building progressed, with an area devoted to the Divisions of Pardons and Paroles almost ready for occupancy. The central Dining Room building was to be complete by 1 January 1924. The cold storage and supply warehouse was ready to accommodate the surplus vegetables from the farm for winter use. The first industrial building constructed was one for use as a shoe shop and finishing for fiber furniture. This building was completed in 1922, although not put into full use until late 1924.[520] The main feature of the work in the shoe factory was to be the production of better quality of shoes and a diversified number of sizes.

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[513] *State of Illinois Department of Public Welfare, Fourth Annual Report, July 1, 1920 to June 30, 1921*, 38.
[514] State of Illinois, *Fifth Administrative Report of the Directors of Departments under the Civil Administrative Code Together with the Adjutant General's Report, For the year, July 1, 1921 to June 30, 1922*, 411.
[515] Ibid.
[516] Newcomb, "The New Illinois State Penitentiary at Stateville," 138.
[517] *Fifth Administrative Report of the Directors of Departments*, 444.
[518] *State of Illinois Department of Public Welfare, Sixth Annual Report, July 1, 1922 to June 30, 1923*, 159.
[519] Ibid., 158. Prison officials continued to report that the removal of the entire population to the new prison would be possible during the spring or early summer of 1924.
[520] Illinois Prison Inquiry Commission, 159; Louis L. Emmerson, Secretary of State, ed. *Blue Book of the State of Illinois, 1925-26*, 455.

The original drawings for the Dining Room building showed eight sections of seating.[521] The center of the room originally had a bandstand, but was later replaced by a guard tower. In addition to steam radiators on the room perimeter were steam radiators surrounding the bandstand. The room also had a ring of skylights with a raised roof monitor at the roof peak. At the perimeter of the dining hall was a corridor that was to link to each of the corridors from the panopticon cellhouses. The partition wall between the dining hall and corridor was glazed with wire glass. The exterior walls of the building contained large steel sash windows. Extending from the southwest segment was the original wedge shaped kitchen wing, which had a large central preparation area flanked by food lockers, a pantry, an office, and smaller preparation areas.

The total inmate population as of 30 June 1924 was 2,051 at the old Joliet prison and at Stateville. One year later it was 2,318, with a population distribution of approximately 900 at Stateville and the remaining number at the old prison.[522] Construction of Cellhouse C had been started (although it was not completed until early 1927). The observation hospital, located in the south wing of the Detention Building, was in service at this time, allowing the inadequate facility at the old Joliet Prison to be vacated. The drug room, surgical room, laboratory, prison physician's office, mental health office, one ward of six beds, and three private rooms were on the first floor. The second floor had sixteen cells used as hospital wards. This new facility was only meant to be temporary until a separate building could be constructed. The Detention Building later used the 32 cells for segregating inmates who were suspected of being developmentally disabled. "Feebleminded" inmates were sent to the Chester State Hospital adjacent to Southern Illinois Penitentiary at Menard in Chester, Illinois.[523]

Late in 1924, drawings were completed for the construction of a deputy warden's and guards' room as an addition to the Dining Room building. The addition consisted of two wedged shaped one story structures with basements flanking the corridor leading from the Dining Room building to the Detention Building.[524]

[521] W. Carbys Zimmerman, Architect, New Illinois State Penitentiary, Dining Hall, sheets 3, 11, [and ?], revised 29 December 1921 and 12 January 1922.
[522] *State of Illinois Department of Public Welfare, Eighth Annual Report, July 1, 1924 to June 30, 1925*, 16. The annual inmate per capita costs for the fiscal year ending 30 June 1925 was $292.18 (Ibid., 21).
[523] Illinois Prison Inquiry Commission, 150. See Illinois HABS No. R-1997-1, Menard Correctional Center for information on Chester State Hospital (founded as Illinois Asylum for Insane Criminals) and successor institutions.
[524] Zimmerman, Saxe & Zimmerman, Architects, New Illinois State Penitentiary, Deputy Warden's & Guards Room, sheet X, 10 October 1924.

1925 to 1935: Completion of Stateville

> *Stateville Penitentiary was opened in 1925 as a reform era's effort to ameliorate the overcrowded, physically dilapidated, and scandal-ridden Joliet prison.... Despite...sociological reforms, management of Stateville was performed poorly, leading to violence and instability among the inmates. Between Stateville's opening in 1925 and the appointment of Joseph Ragen in 1936* [sic]*, the prison failed to meet the goals of its reform-minded creators. An additional important factor was the ever increasing inmate population, leading to overcrowding of the new prison without closing of the old Joliet institution.*[525]

The formal dedication of Stateville took place on 6 December 1924, with law enforcement officials from all over the state in attendance. On 9 March 1925, Stateville officially opened to receive prisoners. It was reported that the last of the prisoners would be transferred to Stateville from the Joliet Prison at that time. The clothing room and tailor shop; chief clerk, record clerk, and mail room; and the identification department were all moved to the new prison. In addition, during the latter part of 1924 the shoe manufacturing department was transferred and installed at the new prison, with preparations made for the transfer of the fiber furniture department along with installation of the hardwood department and drying kiln.[526] That same year a cemetery was established on the grounds of the institution, approximately one-quarter mile south of the enclosing wall adjacent to the railroad spur.[527] On 1 July 1925, 1,000 prisoners were living in the new compound. More transfers were temporarily halted until an inadequacy in the water supply could be corrected. Nevertheless, the prison was reported to be "vindicating itself and Illinois offers to the states of the United States and the nations of the world [as] a penitentiary unique in conception...."[528]

The total inmate population by 30 June 1926 was 2,639 at Joliet and Stateville, with 218 employees. Religious services were held at this time in the Dining Room on the bandstand at the center; a guard tower with a tunnel for access was erected in place of the bandstand in 1930 for $25,000. Acoustics in the space were reported to be poor, and a proper auditorium-style space was requested.[529] It was also reported that the old prison would be sold to private industry when it was abandoned.[530]

Cellhouse C was completed in early 1927. This cellhouse was built slightly differently than the other three. Whereas the other cellhouses were designed to have one inmate per cell (two or

[525] Jacobs, *Stateville: The Penitentiary in Mass Society*, 200-1. Ragen was appointed warden at the end of 1935.
[526] In February 1927 the shops in which the fiber chairs were woven were still at the old prison; the finishing and shipping departments had recently been moved to Stateville. At this time the entire chair industry in the penitentiary was on contract to the Haywood-Wakefield Company. (Leopold, *Life Plus 99 Years*, 168.)
[527] The first inmate to be buried at the Stateville cemetery was John Mack, convicted of robbery in Cook County and in the middle of his second year (of a 3-to-20 year sentence) at the prison, when he died 18 July 1925. (Don Babwin, "Forgotten in Death," *Chicago Tribune*, 24 August 1997, sec. 17, p. 4 - 6.)
[528] Emmerson, ed., *Blue Book of the State of Illinois, 1925-26*, 455.
[529] *State of Illinois Department of Public Welfare, Ninth Annual Report, July 1, 1925 to June 30, 1936*, 271. The chapel was later located in a makeshift room in one of the industry buildings until the completion of the Chapel building in 1937. (Illinois Prison Inquiry Commission, 209.)
[530] Louis L. Emmerson, Secretary of State, ed. *Blue Book of the State of Illinois, 1927-28*, 422.

more were accommodated actually), Cellhouse C was designed with many cells as dormitories for the inmates of the Honor Farm. The lowest gallery cells were typical single cells; galleries two and three with double cells (single cells without adjoining walls); and the top gallery with triple cells.[531]

Despite the planned abandonment of the Joliet Prison, facilities for electrocution, newly mandated by the Fifty-fifth Illinois General Assembly, were provided at the old prison to replace hanging.[532]

As of 30 June 1928, the inmate population at the two prisons was 3,132 with 284 employees. New construction at Stateville included three new guard towers and a 1,500,000 gallon reservoir. Three wells were reconditioned, which along with the reservoir solved the water supply problems at the prison. Additional utility lines for electric power, steam, and communication telephone were installed in the prison yard. Sewer culverts were extended from the prison to Route 4 (now State Route 53), the main road to the east of the institution. The main Administration Building east of the enclosing wall was also under construction under the supervision of the State Superintendent of Construction, and was completed circa 1930. The hardwood furniture factory and drying kiln were also under construction. A separate hospital wing was requested, given that 1,671 inmates were now within the confines of Stateville and the temporary facility was not designed to accommodate that level of population.[533] There was inadequate space for a proper laboratory, and no x-ray machine was available. Isolation of cases of tuberculosis was not possible.

The original drawings for the furniture factory, with Units 'A' and 'B,' show a utilitarian structure with an 18 foot structural grid. The first floor area was laid into three main areas: mill room, sanding room, and fitting room. The reinforced concrete roof over the factory area was formed with a modified saw tooth form with outward operating hopper windows on the steeply sloping faces. The exterior brick masonry envelope of the building, with utilitarian steel sash windows, was supported on the reinforced concrete frame with cut stone copings, window lintels, and window sills. The third portion of the furniture factory, Unit 'C,' consisted of the drying kiln and cutting room for lumber. The roof structure of the cutting room had "Summerbell" wood bow string trusses shown on the drawings. Adjacent to the drying kiln was a steel tower with a dust collector.[534]

Work on the farm included construction of four 20 by 120 foot wood frame poultry houses, a similar sized brooder house, and remodeling of existing concrete block brooder houses. A new

[531] Illinois Prison Inquiry Commission, 136.
[532] State of Illinois, *Tenth Administrative Report of the Directors of Departments under the Civil Administrative Code Together with the Adjutant General's Report, For the year, July 1, 1926 to June 30, 1927* (Springfield, Illinois: State of Illinois, 1928), 441.
[533] *State of Illinois Department of Public Welfare, Eleventh Annual Report, July 1, 1927 to June 30, 1928*, 306.
[534] William J. Lindstrom, Supervising Engineer, State of Illinois Department of Purchases and Construction, Division of Architecture and Engineering, Illinois State Penitentiary, Furniture Factory Unit 'A;' Furniture Factory Unit 'B;' and Furniture Factory Unit 'C;' Stateville, Illinois, sheets 2, 3, 4, 6, 7 [?], 9, 11, 14, and 15, 7 June 1927. For a discussion of the development of factory structural and architectural forms, see Betsy Hunter Bradley, *The Works: The Industrial Architecture of the United States* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1999).

16 by 200 foot concrete block hog house was added, along with a 20 by 36 foot concrete block slaughterhouse. Approximately 81 inmates worked on the farm, although only six of these were actually on the "honor system"; the remaining inmates returned to within the wall at the end of the work day.[535] Manufacturing work by 1928 included shoes, fiber furniture, and clothing for use within the prison.

Problems due to overcrowding began to manifest themselves at this time. The inmate population continued to increase at Stateville and new construction could not keep pace as new inmates were transferred from Joliet to Stateville.[536] By the end of 1929, 2,030 inmates were held in the facility. The population grew to 2,607 by the end of 1930, 3,014 by the end of 1932, and 3,867 by the end of 1934.[537]

The increase in criminal activity after the enactment of the eighteenth amendment to the U.S. Constitution (Prohibition) was not the only factor in the inmate population increase in the late 1920s. In 1927, the Illinois legislature enacted a law that sentenced a man convicted of robbery to ten years to life: newly convicted criminals would not receive their first parole hearing for ten years. However, this did not affect inmates previously convicted, who only had to wait six years and three months.[538]

With the completion of Cellhouses C in 1927, four of the panopticon cellhouses were in use. At about this time, most of the responsibilities for new building design passed from Zimmerman, Saxe & Zimmerman, the original architects, into the hands of the Division of Architecture and Engineering of the Department of Purchases and Construction. This occurred concurrently with the There had also been a change in wardens and the superintendent of prisons, each with ideas of their own as to future development of the facility. The unforeseen increase in population and a lack of funds was considered to justify the change in plans.[539] It was reported in the *Handbook of American Prisons and Reformatories* of 1929 that:

> The general building program to complete the institution has been discontinued, although the old prison is very seriously overcrowded and provides living conditions, which on the whole are far below modern institutional standards. It appears doubtful whether the additional cell houses called for by the plans will be constructed on the circular plan, with the cells on the circumference. Extravagant claims have been made for this type of construction and criticism almost equally extravagant has been leveled at it. The cells at least are better lighted and ventilated than in the old type of cell house, and the large central floor space could be used advantageously in many ways.

[535] Bruce, et al., *The Workings of the Indeterminate-Sentence Law and the Parole System of Illinois*, 154.
[536] Leopold, *Life Plus 99 Years*, 169.
[537] Illinois Prison Inquiry Commission, 156-8.
[538] Erickson, *Warden Ragen of Joliet*, 96-97.
[539] Ibid., 158. In 1929, C. Herrick Hammond became Supervising Architect of the State of Illinois. Hammond's predecessor was William J. Lindstrom, a highly qualified engineer who introduced many new construction systems and buildings types, such as the C- and E-type cottages at state mental health facilities. However, Hammond was one of the more talented architects in Chicago at the time, and his appointment was a significant asset to Illinois' Division of Architecture and Engineering. Hammond was to be supervising architect for many of the buildings at Stateville.

> In its uncompleted state, as least, the present yard is too large. This is the only prison in the country where the grounds inside the walls are covered by horse patrol. Whether the need for this type of patrol will obtain when the institution is completed is not certain, but supervision becomes very difficult in a prison yard of over 60 acres....
>
> The plant as a whole has been carefully planned and well constructed and a high standard of sanitation can be easily maintained. It is, however, already beginning to show the effects of insufficient attention to upkeep.
>
> Working conditions in the shops are excellent. The shoe shop is a good industry and appears to be well equipped. It will be interesting to compare the effectiveness, as time goes on, with similar shops in the penitentiary at Fort Madison, Iowa, and in the federal prison at Leavenworth, Kansas....
>
> The incomplete state of the prison plant is reflected in the incomplete program of the institution. Its educational work, medical work, and industries all need attention and fuller development. It is doubtful whether this is likely to be effective under the present defective prison organization in the state.[540]

Instead of moving forward with the remaining four panopticon cellhouses, a more economical design was developed by the architects and the Department of Construction in order to hold as many inmates as possible for the least amount of money. This new cellhouse was rectangular, about 500 feet long and 40 feet wide. A massive Auburn plan cellhouse (Cellhouse B) was planned with 5 tiers, for a total number of 580 cells, making quarters with 2 per cell for 1,160 inmates. In 1929 funding was approved for construction of this type of cellhouse, with one each at Stateville, Menard, and Pontiac. The total cost for the three new cellblocks was $1,650,000. Also in that year, a dormitory building (Farm Dormitory MSU) was constructed at the Honor Farm to accommodate 100 inmates at a cost of $50,000.[541]

Construction of Cellhouse B was begun in 1930, and by January 1931 the exterior walls were nearly complete.[542] By May 1931, the steel roof trusses were in place and construction of the interior block of cells begun; by August the concrete for the third of the five tiers was being placed. Cellhouse B was opened in February 1932. Problems with overcrowding were not

[540] Paul W. Garrett and Austin H. MacCormick, ed., *Handbook of American Prisons and Reformatories* (New York: National Society of Penal Information, Inc., 1929), 273-5.

[541] *State of Illinois Department of Public Welfare, Thirteenth Annual Report, July 1, 1929 to June 30, 1930*, 23. "The men are governed by a different sort of discipline than that prevailing in the main prison. They are not obliged to go to their rooms until thirty minutes before dark; they are permitted the use of the grounds surrounding the dormitory at any time of the day or evening when they are not working. They are also allowed to have their visitors meet with them at the farm dormitory; they are permitted to write once a week." (Illinois Prison Inquiry Commission, 143.)

[542] Inmates contributed to the construction of this cellhouse as well: "One of my cell partners was Joe Rogalski, a Polish lad of twenty-eight. Joe worked in the surveyor's office, handling the transit, and one day he came into the cell bursting with news of the day's work. They were about to begin construction of cellhouse B, which was to be a huge rectangular building, and it had been his task to locate the stakes for the corners of the new building. There was a brass marker embedded in the concrete of the circular corridor around the dining room, which served as an orientation point. Joe had sighted his thodolite along the direction line engraved in the market and measured his distance in the direction with the surveyor's chair." (Leopold, *Life Plus 99 Years*, 177.)

eliminated with the construction of Cellhouse B, and doubling and tripling of inmates in cells continued in the round cellhouses.

Despite the large central cellblock configuration, within a few years it was reported that there was an attempt to impose segregation by different inmate classifications. The number and classification of prisoners per cell varied according to gallery level. For instance, at the first gallery on the main floor, one side was devoted to mentally ill patients (those not transferred to Chester State Hospital), who were housed one man to a cell. Cells did not have individual radiators in the cells as in the round cellhouses, but instead a duct and blower system supplied both hot air heating in winter or unheated ventilation in summer.[543] Beds in Cellhouse B contained metal spring slats supporting a single straw filled mattress. Cells in Cellhouse B were typically not painted, although by 1936 some had been painted the same light green as those in the round cellhouses.[544]

In 1931, yard guard towers were constructed for the north and south yards. The reinforced concrete structures, square in plan, were clad with brick. The observation level of each tower was from a turret that could be raised when in use. Each of the towers was connected to the tunnel system that served the guard towers in the panopticon cellhouses.[545] Additional wall towers were constructed in the early 1930s. These were similar to the reinforced concrete towers at the four corners of the yard, except that these additional tower were not octagonal in plan but truncated octagons, with flat walls adjoining the yard wall.[546]

Also in 1931, the Gatehouse Building was constructed in front of the Administration Building, where the warden's offices were moved during the 1932 fiscal year. Visitors to Stateville were required to pass through the building, which was equipped with an "electric eye." This was a metal detecting device used to search visitors to prevent weapons from being smuggled in to the prisoners. The building also had two search rooms – one for men and one for women. Since its opening in the 1920s, the public was allowed to visit the prison. Because so many visitors came to Stateville during the 1933-1934 Century of Progress Exposition in Chicago (as many as 800 per day), the Department of Public Welfare instituted a policy that limited visiting to blood relatives of inmates or their legal counsel, effective 1 May 1934.[547]

[543] The center cellblock extended to the underside of the roof trusses. It was soon reported that lack of air space between the top tier and the roof led to great discomfort in both the winter heating season and in summer. (Illinois Prison Inquiry Commission, 135.)

[544] Ibid., 138.

[545] C. Herrick Hammond, Supervising Architect, State of Illinois Department of Purchases and Construction, Division of Architecture and Engineering, Illinois State Penitentiary, Two Yard Guard Towers #43 & #44, Stateville, Illinois, sheet 1, 23 June 1931.

[546] C. Herrick Hammond, Supervising Architect, State of Illinois Department of Purchases and Construction, Division of Architecture and Engineering, Illinois State Penitentiary, North, West, and South Wall Towers, Stateville, Illinois, sheet 1, 23 June 1931.

[547] *State of Illinois Department of Public Welfare, Fifteenth, Sixteenth, Seventeenth, and Eighteenth Annual Reports, June 30, 1935*, 305 and 307. Visitors were from all parts of the United States and from many foreign countries. Many university students studying sociology visited the institution as well.

In 1933 and 1934, a wedged shaped addition was constructed to the Dining Room building to house a vegetable preparation room, waiters' locker room, and toilet facilities. The addition flanked the corridor leading to Cellhouse C and had a basement. Modifications were also made to the existing kitchen rooms, including a loading platform and revised location for six ranges.[548]

Also in 1934, the **Hospital Building (IL HABS No. WI-1997-1-A)** and the Operating Room Wing were constructed. The Hospital was designed to have a capacity of 130 beds in 22 ward rooms. The hospital was equipped with an X-ray laboratory and fluoroscope. After its first year in operation, a total of 42,240 medical examinations were performed. The Hospital also contained a dental department, which performed 24,536 examinations in its first year of operation.[549] Plans were announced to construct an electric generating plant at Stateville so that electric power would not have to be purchased from outside utilities.[550]

The Hospital was connected to the north end of the Detention Building by a corridor that served as space for an inmate waiting line. The Operating Room was constructed as a separate building connected to the west elevation of the Detention Building by a short corridor. Like many of the buildings at Stateville, the Hospital and Operating Room were constructed as a reinforced concrete structure with brick masonry cladding. The interior floor plan of the Hospital followed the predominant organization schemes of hospital architecture of the time. The kitchen and other service functions were located in the basement level. The first floor housed the physicians' examining rooms, laboratories, pharmacy, and dental laboratory. The northeast corner of each floor had a stair, elevator, and dumb waiter. Smaller wards (with three to four beds each) were present on the north wall of the building; larger wards (five beds or more) were laid out on the south side of the building. The patient wards, like most of the interior spaces, had large windows with operable window sashes.[551] (A description of activities in the Hospital is given below in the section **1936 and 1937: Illinois Prison Inquiry Commission**.)

The Operating Room was constructed as a multi-room operating suite, with doctors' preparation rooms (including cleanup, locker, toilet/shower rooms, and scrub room); a eye, ear, nose, and throat operating/examining room; a sterilizing room; and an operating room. Separation of the Operating Room building from the Hospital was in accordance with recommendations from hospital design standards.[552] The two operating rooms were located on the north side of the building and had large windows equipped with lightproof shades for situations requiring

[548] C. Herrick Hammond, Supervising Architect, State of Illinois Department of Purchases and Construction, Division of Architecture and Engineering, Illinois State Penitentiary, Addition to Main Kitchen, Stateville, Illinois, Sheet 1, 29 April 1932.
[549] *State of Illinois Department of Public Welfare, Fifteenth, Sixteenth, Seventeenth, and Eighteenth Annual Reports, June 30, 1935*, 304-5.
[550] Ibid., 306. This plan was not implemented.
[551] C. Herrick Hammond, Supervising Architect, State of Illinois Department of Purchases and Construction, Division of Architecture and Engineering, Illinois State Penitentiary, Hospital Addition and Alterations to Detention Building, Stateville, Illinois, Sheets 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7A, 8A, 10, S-1, S-2, S-3, M-1, M-2, M-3, M-4, M-5, and M-6, revised 17 October 1932.
[552] See Edward F. Stevens, *The American Hospital of the Twentieth Century*, 2nd rev. ed. (New York: F.W. Dodge Corporation, 1928), and John Allan Hornsby and Richard E. Schmidt, *The Modern Hospital* (Philadelphia: W.B. Saunders Company, 1913).

artificial lighting. The Operating Room building also had a basement containing storage and an autopsy room.[553]

In the early 1930s, the possibility of abandoning the old prison in Joliet was still being discussed. In July 1933 the legislature enacted a penal reclassification law that included the formation of the Illinois Penitentiary System and establishing Diagnostic Depots in the northern and southern portions of the state, with the northern Diagnostic Depot established in the former Women's Prison at the old Joliet Prison.[554] However, it was recommended that "it would be a waste to invest any money except that which is needed for essential repairs" and that "within the next few years, [the state should] arrange to abandon this institution."[555] In 1936 the Division of Prisons was to reduce the population at Joliet to approximately 900 inmates, leaving one prisoner per cell. Limited renovations were planned, including remodeling the guards' living quarters and the hospital. Work in the hospital was to allow the facility to be used as a clinic and dispensary, although bedridden patients continued to be transferred to Stateville.[556]

With the completion of Cellhouse B and the Hospital, the major period of construction at Stateville was concluded. At that time a bronze plaque was placed at the entrance of the Administration Building. The plaque, as viewed at the time of the preparation of this documentation (1997) outlines the background history of the institution:

[553] C. Herrick Hammond, Supervising Architect, State of Illinois Department of Purchases and Construction, Division of Architecture and Engineering, Illinois State Penitentiary, Operating Wing Addition to Detention Building, Stateville, Illinois, Sheets 11, 12, [and two additional sheets], revised 29 October 1933.
[554] *State of Illinois Department of Public Welfare, Fifteenth, Sixteenth, Seventeenth, and Eighteenth Annual Reports, June 30, 1935*, 303. The Women's Prison was consolidated with the new prison in Dwight in 1933.
[555] Ibid., 305.
[556] *State of Illinois Department of Public Welfare, Nineteenth Annual Report, June 30, 1936*, 28.

ALTON JOLIET
AND STATEVILLE
PENITENTIARIES

CHRONOLOGY
THE FIRST INMATE AT ALTON WAS ADMITTED
FROM GREEN COUNTY, AUGUST 29, 1833

JULY 1860 THE LAST GROUP OF INMATES
WAS REMOVED FROM ALTON TO JOLIET, AND
FROM THAT TIME ON, THE ESTABLISHMENT
AT ALTON CEASED TO BE USED AS A PRISON

THE FIRST INMATE ARRIVED AT OLD PRISON
JOLIET, MAY 22, 1858. FIFTY THREE WERE
BROUGHT FROM THE OLD PRISON AT ALTON

THE FIRST 982 INMATES WERE RECEIVED
AT STATEVILLE MARCH 11, 1925

ALTON PENITENTIARY WARDENS

J.C. BRUEN	1833	1837
BEN S. ENLOW	1837	1840
ISAAC GREATHOUSE	1840	1842
N. BUCKMASTER	1842	1846
SAMUEL A. BUCKMASTER	1846	1860

JOLIET AND STATEVILLE PENITENTIARY WARDENS

A.W. EDWARDS	1872	H.C. HILL	1929-1932
JACK SMITH	1873	F.D. WHIPP	1932-1935
J.W. WHAM	1874	J.E. RAGEN	1935-1941
R. MCCLAUGHRY	1874-1888	E.M. STUBBEFIELD	1941-1942
A. GARVIN	1888-1889	T.P. SULLIVAN	1942
A. BERGGREN	1889-1891	J.E. RAGEN	1942-1961
H. DEMENT	1891-1893	F.J. PATE	1961-1970
R.S. ALLEN	1893-1897	J. TWOMEY	1970-1973
R. MCCLAUGHRY	1897-1899	D. BRIERTON	1974-1977
E.J. MURPHY	1899-1913	E.E. MORRIS	1977-1978
E.M. ALLEN	1913-1915	L. RYAN	1915-1917
L.V. BREWER	1978-1979	M. REED	1979-1980
E.J. MURPHY	1917-1922	R. DEROBERTIS	1980-1983
J. WHITTMAN	1922-1926	M. O'LEARY	1983-1990
E.J. GREEN	1926-1929	T.P. ROTH	1990-1991

A second plaque credits the executives in place at the time of the prison's completion. Significantly, the architect whose original design was abandoned before the institution was completed, W. Carbys Zimmerman, is not listed:

ILLINOIS
STATE PENITENTIARY
STATEVILLE

COMPLETED 1932

LOUIS L. EMMERSON
GOVERNOR

RODNEY H. BRANDON
DIRECTOR DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC WELFARE

FRANK D. WHIPP
SUPERINTENDENT OF PRISONS

HENRY C. HILL
WARDEN
TOTAL POPULATION JAN. 1 1932 – 4576

C. HERRICK HAMMOND
SUPERVISING ARCHITECT

JAMES OLIVER HOGG, JR.
SUPERINTENDENT OF CONSTRUCTION

"LET THOSE WHO CONTROL THE LIVES OF THE MEN WHO ENTER HERE EVER BEAR IN MIND THAT THE PATH TO BETTER THINGS LIES UPWARD ALWAYS AND IS STEEP AND THAT GOD'S CHOICEST BLESSINGS COME TO THOSE WHO HELP THE WEARY CLIMBER."
BRANDON

Life inside the Wall: Late 1920s and Early 1930s

The next four years, from 1932 to 1936, were, in many ways, the best I have known in prison.[557]

Newly arrived inmates were first brought through the Administration Building (then still under construction and not completed until circa 1930) into the Detention Building a few feet inside the wall.[558] They were taken to the records clerk where a prisoner number was assigned, and money

[557] Leopold, *Life Plus 99 Years*, 219.

[558] In 1933, the new classification system established Diagnostic Depots for the northern and southern portions of the state. The northern depot was established at the old Joliet prison building formerly used as the Women's Prison. New inmates underwent a series of examinations by the various members of the classification board made up of psychiatrists, sociologists, and psychologists, as well as a physical examination given by the regular institutional physician. The classification board made up a report of their findings in each case, which was submitted to the Superintendent of Prisons, in which they made their recommendation of where they believed the inmate would best adjust himself while serving his sentence. Those persons of the "improvable type" and first offenders were classified for the Pontiac institution; first or second offenders of the "improvable type" for the Old Prison at Joliet and Stateville; and the "mental," borderline, and non-improvable cases for the Menard institution.
In a description from the late 1940s, a new inmate describes his arrival at the Joliet Diagnostic Depot (Paul Warren, *Next Time is for Life* (New York: Dell Publishing Company, Inc., 1953), 41-43):
High above the ground, on top of walls of stone, uniformed men walked with rifles slung over their

and other valuables were turned over until the prisoner's discharge. The new inmates were then turned over to the receiving and discharging officer, and taken by him to the Bertillion room, where photographs were taken in street attire and prison clothing (physical characteristics were recorded later). This was located in the first floor of the north wing of the Detention Building, which besides the Bertillion room and the photograph gallery held the dentist's office. On the second floor were cells used for the detention and observation of new inmates.

Inmates remained in the detention ward for a week or more, during which they were examined by the prison physician and subjected to a thorough psychological, social, and psychiatric examination. The chaplains, Catholic and Protestant, held interviews with the new inmates. The Bertillion officer examined the inmates next, recording their Bertillion measurements and taking their fingerprints. In reading the rules governing the prison, the deputy warden delivered a lecture with the assistance of the psychiatrist. At this time the deputy warden learned something about the occupational history of each new inmate, with a view to work duty assignment.[559]

Inmates were then lectured on the Progressive Merit System, making an effort to explain the advantages and to give examples of the penalties for infractions, meritorious actions leading to sentence reductions by weeks and months, inmate grade levels, and the workings of the Parole Board. Inmates were also admonished to keep "one's mind clean and thoughts about sex repressed";[560] advised about the privilege of requesting an interview with an officer; and warned about the importance not only of behavior but of attitude. Rule infractions were reported by the

shoulder. Our truck drove under them and through the open gates of thick steel. I turned to get one more glimpse of the outside world but the gates had been shut and all I could see were the studs in the gray metal. Among the forty prisoners I knew that I was alone and that they were, each one of them, alone too.
We were led from the truck, stumbling in our chains, and searched. All around were the state troopers with their guns. Into a long, high, brick cellhouse we were marched and our cuffs were unlocked. We listened to a short, stubby guard who shouted out the rules. From time to time he took off his black felt hat and wiped his forehead. He swung a heavy, lead-tipped cane.
"You may have thought you were tough on the outside but you better forget about that in here. We'll break you down."
His voice echoed all around the huge barn-like building. Above I could see tiers of galleries with barred cell doors. Behind these men looked down at us, sizing us up.
In a large room our clothes were taken away and we washed in a shower. We were given an outfit of brown khaki, white cotton socks and underwear and a pair of black brogans. We were shaved, face and head, then photographed and fingerprinted. Then we were locked up.
In the month that I was in the diagnostic depot I was questioned by a doctor, a sociologist, a psychiatrist, a psychologist and a criminologist. I was given tests, shots in the arm and vaccinations. Blood tests were taken. When we weren't being examined we were taken out in the yard and marched around in lock step; one hand had to touch the shoulder of the man in front of you.
Around and around in a square we marched. We had to try to look snappy in a military way. Sometimes I could almost forget that I was one of the marchers and could look at us all in an objective way and it all looked so silly. A line of men who hated the whole idea, weary and resentful and afraid, all marching and trying their best to look alert, knowing and almost feeling in anticipation the whack of the heavy cane that would crack their ankles if they missed a step.

[559] *State of Illinois Department of Public Welfare, Eighth Annual Report, July 1, 1924 to June 30, 1925*, 256-8.
[560] Bruce, et al., *The Workings of the Indeterminate-Sentence Law and the Parole System of Illinois*, 166.

guard on duty.[561] This report in itself constituted the entire evidence against an inmate. Prison staff then had the power to determine if immediate punishment was necessary or if the infraction was to go on the inmate's record.

Limited opportunities were available to inmates in the prison industries. Several mechanical shops for repair work in wood and metal were in operation, although these employed no more than half a dozen men each. Inmates were also employed in the construction of new buildings as well as cleaning and maintenance of the prison. Despite all of these activities, many of the inmates were idle while serving their sentences:

> Counting the idle time of those assigned to work and those totally without assignment, one can speak in round figures of the idleness of two thousand men at Joliet—two thousand men congregated in one spot and supported by the taxpayers. This support is necessarily increasingly expensive, not only due to the great increase of prison population but also due to the added expense per man. For the Parole Division it means not only that in most cases men are not being improved in preparation for freedom, but also that as workers they degenerate.[562]

Besides the lost time spent in prison, inmates who failed to learn a trade while incarcerated were more likely to commit crimes again:

> It is immediately obvious that an institution releasing five or six hundred men per year, with a population of around three thousand, must have a greater volume of work and a greater variety of trades and occupations than has Joliet if trade-learning is to be a factor in the life of an inmate. As it is, there is the difficulty of funneling this large number of men into the few existing industries. Nor do work operations in prison industries in Joliet prepare men for occupations in the outside world....In the administrative offices, which are also greatly over-manned with inmates, men of every type of training and intelligence can be found for all types of duty.[563]

Laws governing prison labor and earnings was the main obstacle to any plan of wage payment. The use of inmate labor dated back to the first state penitentiary at Alton, when inmates were sent outside the prison walls to work under a lease system. The old prison in Joliet was originally managed with the work brought into the prison, with inmates making 60¢ per day. During that time up to 90 percent of the inmate population was occupied with prison labor; however, if inmates failed to meet daily quotas, they were punished.[564] The rise of the labor unions in the early 1900s led to the demise of the contract labor system in state prisons, as the unions objected to cheap prison labor. However, in 1917 when construction of Stateville began, it was still anticipated that

[561] Guards were given extensive authority to determine and report violations. Some of the typical rule infractions reported by guards included the following: fighting on the gallery; assaulting an inmate with iron bar; signaling to another man in line, fighting in the shop with an inmate; talking in line; crime against nature; hollering; talking back to an officer; insolence to an officer; contemplating escape from the quarry (at the Joliet prison); escaping from the quarry; wasting food; laughing and talking to men in quarry line; fighting in cellhouse; talking in chapel on Sunday; and having contraband food. (Ibid.)
[562] Ibid., 155.
[563] Ibid., 156.
[564] "Pictorial History of Stateville-Joliet," *Time* 10, no. 9, September 1968, 19.

inmate labor was to be an important factor in effective prison management. If inmates were occupied, they were less likely to cause disputes, and also received training for employment after release.[565]

Recommendations by *The Workings of the Indeterminate-Sentence Law and the Parole System of Illinois* (the Clabaugh Commission report) of 1928 included a survey of the resources including manpower, skill, and training among convicts at Stateville, and the creation of committees in which employees, organized labor, employers, wholesale and retail merchants, and economists were represented.[566] The commission also reviewed the educational opportunities at Stateville. The school at Joliet was under the direction of a chaplain and attended voluntarily by inmates who had not passed the seventh grade level. The teachers were inmates as well, few if any of whom had any education background. Very little instruction was given beyond the fourth grade level. A school was initiated at Stateville in 1928, but the civilian instructor left after one term.[567] The commission recommended that an analytical approach be made to the problem of adult education, and suggested that a properly systematized school would have greater attendance.

Daily life for inmates was much less restrictive than depicted in the official reports. Inmate discipline was poor. At one point 83 shacks, many of them temporary buildings from original construction, studded the yards at Stateville and were used by inmates as clubhouses for various illicit practices including gambling, drinking (alcohol, known as "hooch," was supplied from numerous stills), and meetings of criminal organization members. Many of the shacks had "gardens with vegetables, and some of the less well kept gardens contained marijuana plants."[568] Pets were common; one cell had 200 canaries. Some cells had overstuffed furniture and curtains. Some inmates dressed in civilian clothes, and guards were not always in uniform.

In the early 1930s, the 24th Ward Democratic Club on the west side of Chicago helped inmates who were friends and cohorts to hold a dinner in the Dining Room at Stateville complete with vaudeville acts on the center platform. Permission was received from Warden Frank Whipp, and inmates were allowed to remain in the Dining Room until midnight. Guests were allowed into the institution for this purpose, and inmates were allowed to mingle with their friends from "the outside" without guard supervision.[569]

Violence and scandal also accompanied this era of permissiveness in the institution. In 1927, six inmates working in the Shoe Shop plotted an escape, during which the deputy warden, Peter Klein, was to escort them out the south gate. The plan failed and Deputy Klein was brutally murdered by the six. In examining Klein's personal effects after the murder, a small notebook was discovered containing information on trafficking in paroles in the institution. As a result of the scandal, the chairman of the Parole Board and the director of the Department of Public Welfare both resigned.[570]

[565] *State of Illinois Department of Public Welfare Annual Report, July 1, 1917 to June 30, 1918*, 244.
[566] Bruce, et al., *The Workings of the Indeterminate-Sentence Law and the Parole System of Illinois*, 158.
[567] Garrett and MacCormick, ed., *Handbook of American Prisons and Reformatories*, 272.
[568] Erickson, *Warden Ragen of Joliet*, 43.
[569] Leopold, *Life Plus 99 Years*, 115.
[570] Leopold, *Life Plus 99 Years*, 157-65.

A further result was the Clabaugh Commission, assembled to study the indeterminate sentence laws and the parole system, as well as the overall workings of the prison system in Illinois.

The economic effects of the Great Depression led legislators in Springfield to pass a bill in 1931 prohibiting the sale of prison-made goods on the open market. Under the State-use act, which went into effect 1 July 1931, sales of prison industry products was allowed only to State institutions and departments. Industrial activities at Illinois prisons were severely curtailed, and the limited number of inmates who had had an occupation were idle. Riots broke out first in the old prison in Joliet, and four days later (18 March 1931) in Stateville. Inmates first tried to burn the furniture shop, and failing in this, burned the shoe shop and wrecked its machinery. Much larger than the riot at Joliet, damages at Stateville amounted to $500,000 and one inmate was killed. The Illinois National Guard was brought in to restore order and seven months of lockdown followed.[571] One inmate reported:

> When we reached Stateville and entered the south gate, I was dumbfounded at the amount of damage the men had succeeded in doing. Our route led directly past the Shoe Shop, the southernmost point reached by the rioters, and we could see for ourselves how it had been wrecked. It didn't seem possible. Where there had been rows of machines and benches now lay what looked for a couple of tons of twisted scrap iron. I hadn't though that damage could be done to metal in a fireproof concrete building.
>
> The fellows had done a pretty thorough job, I learned later—upward of half a million dollar's damage. The Shoe Shop and the adjoining Fiber Shop had been completely wrecked. In the basement of the latter were stored hundreds of drums and naphtha and paint. These burned for days. A fire set in the Furniture Factory, only recently completed, had gone out without much damage; the clothing room was wrecked. The dining room was a shambles, and the men had set fire to the wooden stage that projected out over the dining room from the library. This meant that the library had, of course, gone up in flames....About the only major bet the men overlooked was the new cell house, cellhouse B.[572]

However, from the inmates' perspective life inside the wall after the riots and lockdown of 1931 entered a "Golden Age."[573] The commissary had been opened in 1930, and radios with headphones were installed in cells in 1931. The informal atmosphere allowed inmates to pursue hobbies without restrictions. Inmates could congregate in their yard shacks without interference from guards. Rules requiring inmates to form lines and keep silent while filing into the Dining Room were not enforced. One judge from the Criminal Court of Chicago termed the institution the "Stateville Country Club." There was a nine hole golf course on the lawn in front of the Administration Building. Not only the staff but some of the inmates played golf on it.

Since no formal process existed for inmates to register requests or grievances, complaints were usually forwarded to the administration through a feudal system. Rank was based on an inmate's offense. Murderers and robbers were at the top of this system; sex offenders were at the bottom.

[571] Jacobs, *Stateville: The Penitentiary in Mass Society*, 25; Erickson, *Warden Ragen of Joliet*, 97; and Illinois Prison Inquiry Commission, 159.
[572] Leopold, *Life Plus 99 Years*, 208-9.
[573] Ibid., 219.

"Middle class" offenders, such as embezzlers and con men, ranked in the middle.[574] Preferential treatment was given to certain inmates, allowing some on the Honor Farm to "escape" to spend the night in town. Guards and inmates fraternized. Protection rackets collected money from other inmates for not beating them up. Food was hijacked in the prison yard from trucks taking it from the general store to the kitchen.

The inmate population of the two prisons continued to rise, from 4,790 in 1932 to 5,782 in 1935.[575] Of the inmates at Stateville, 11 were incarcerated for one year sentences, 414 were in for life sentences, and 2,038 were in for one year to life sentences.[576]

Although many remained idle after the curtailment of industry production, the industries maintained steady, if reduced, operation in the years after the riots of 1931, even showing a slight expansion. At the two prisons, eleven separate industries were in operation, providing employment for up to 866 men. The total sales for the year 1934 amounted to $360,808.69. The approximate pay per day per man was in the neighborhood of 12 cents.[577]

More education programs were instituted with a correspondence school that allowed inmates to pursue studies while in their cells.[578] The correspondence school was officially started on 1 January 1933, and had an enrollment of 203 men on 30 June 1934. The curriculum included 26 courses, including English composition and English literature; elementary algebra and plane geometry; American, ancient, and world history; and Latin, French, German, and Spanish. A civilian principal supervised the work of the school and instruction was given by inmate tutors using high school textbooks.[579] The office for the school was located in Cell 112 on One Gallery in C House. The library destroyed in the 1931 riots was reconstituted with $100 a month made available from the Inmates' Amusement Fund for the purchase of new books.[580]

After a year of operation, 100 inmates participated in the correspondence school. Materials for the school were forwarded to Menard Penitentiary in Chester, where Warden Joseph E. Ragen, soon to be become warden of Stateville, requested that the program be expanded. A far smaller proportion of the men at Menard were equipped to handle high school work than at Stateville, but as many as 40 Menard students participated.[581] (When Ragen became Stateville's warden, he

[574] Jacobs, *Stateville: The Penitentiary in Mass Society*, 22.
[575] *State of Illinois Department of Public Welfare, Fifteenth, Sixteenth, Seventeenth, and Eighteenth Annual Reports, June 30, 1935*, 303.
[576] Ibid., 309.
[577] *State of Illinois Department of Public Welfare, Fifteenth, Sixteenth, Seventeenth, and Eighteenth Annual Reports, June 30, 1935*, n.p.
[578] The program was managed by Nathan Leopold and Richard Loeb with the assistance of other inmates, including Edward "Toddy" Dillon (known as the "society bandit," who taught English literature), Joseph Pursifull (former attorney, schoolteacher, and kidnapper, who taught Latin), and Mark Oettinger (forger, who taught mathematics). (Higdon, *The Crime of the Century: The Leopold and Loeb Case*, 289.)
[579] *State of Illinois Department of Public Welfare, Fifteenth, Sixteenth, Seventeenth, and Eighteenth Annual Reports, June 30, 1935*, 304.
[580] Leopold, *Life Plus 99 Years*, 216.
[581] Ibid., 231.

relocated the officers' kitchen and dining room to the Hospital Building basement and allocated the former space in the Dining Room building to the school.)

October 1935: The Ragen Era Begins

> *"Punishment for punishment's sake alone is a discredited theory...The basic objective of a correctional system is to prepare the inmate properly for his ultimate return to society."*[582]

On October 1935 Joseph E. Ragen, warden of Menard Penitentiary since 1933 and Superintendent of Prison since 1935, was appointed acting warden of Illinois State Penitentiary at Joliet-Stateville.[583] Ragen's influence on the operation of Stateville, and later the operation of all state prisons, would continue until 1970. Ragen brought organization and discipline, introducing a series of reforms, regulations, and actions to take control to the institution. To occupy inmates' time, he expanded the vocational and industrial trades, had the grounds landscaped within the wall, and promoted educational programs. He also took control of the inmate economy by limiting the amount of currency each inmate could hold.

Ragen did not come to Stateville with a fully developed program. He developed his operation of the prison over the first six years of his wardenship. After a brief hiatus in federal government service at the start of World War II, he returned to institute a rigid system that was successful in maintaining control until its inflexible bureaucracy was unable to cope with the "prisoner rights" movement and competition from academically trained corrections officials. (Appendix A contains a biographical sketch of Joseph Ragen.)

Ragen was appointed to Joliet-Stateville in the wake of the first of two well publicized security problems at the prisons. In August 1935, one of the most notorious prisoners in the old Joliet prison, Henry J. Fernekes, escaped by assuming a civilian disguise and walking past the guards at the gates. In February 1936, James Day murdered fellow inmate Richard Loeb. These events created a sensation in the newspapers, eliciting widespread criticism for Illinois prisons. These two events were only part of the challenge that Ragen faced upon becoming warden. Charges were circulated that the discipline in the Joliet prisons had been lax and that prisoners had been permitted privileges and liberties to which they had not been entitled. The Division of Prison reported that "both the new and the old prison at Joliet are today seriously overcrowded and the amount of idleness is shocking, giving rise to discontent, conspiracies and bad conduct among the prisoners themselves."[584]

Henry J. Fernekes, known as the "the midget," was in the tenth year of his sentence in Joliet Prison for armed robbery when he escaped. Fernekes had been a known hit man, but a lack of evidence had prevented his conviction for those crimes. The parole board had refused to consider his request for release. On the day of his escape, Fernekes removed his standard prison clothing,

[582] Wright & Manly, n.p. Quote from Joseph Ragen.
[583] "Ragen was also Superintendent of Prisons for the State of Illinois when he was warden of Menard. The governor [Henry Horner], to reduce costs for the state appointed Ragen to the position with no extra pay. Ragen was required to tour prisons in the state every four weeks." (Erickson, *Warden Ragen of Joliet*, 29.)
[584] *State of Illinois Department of Public Welfare, Nineteenth Annual Report, June 30, 1936*, 476.

beneath which he wore a set of altered prison clothes. Officers stationed in four separate locations recalled a civilian in white trousers and shirt, white cap, and black glasses who had walked into the visitors' room, then out and up the steps into the center building of the prison and out through two sets of gates into the open. No one had questioned him. Officers stationed opposite the doors in front of the prison saw him but paid no heed, believing he was an afternoon visitor. Twelve weeks after his escape, Fernekes was arrested in Chicago. The following morning he was found on his cell floor, dying after taking poison concealed in his trousers. After the escape, security at the old prison was revised. Visitors were made to register as they entered and exited, a routine that was not in force at the time of this escape.[585]

On 28 January 1936 at 12:30 in the afternoon, three months after Ragen became warden, inmate Richard Loeb was murdered in a toilet room adjoining the Dining Room. Loeb and his assailant, James Day, had been working on the conversion of the Officers' Dining Room into a classroom. The two had known each other for several years in Stateville. Day was tried for the murder but acquitted.[586] Both the crime and the subsequent trial made for sensationalistic newspaper reports.

The Ferneckes escape and Loeb murder prompted Governor Henry Horner to conduct an impartial investigation of the prison system in Illinois. The result was *The Prison System in Illinois*, A Report to the Governor of Illinois, issued in 1937 by the Illinois Prison Inquiry Commission.[587]

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[585] Ibid., 487-90.

[586] The Fernekes escape and Loeb murder were events of historical importance not only for Stateville and the prison system in Illinois. But the Loeb murder revealed a number of other issues. Many felt that in being murdered, Loeb had belatedly received just punishment for the murder of Bobbie Franks, committed with Nathan Leopold in 1924. However, the veiled focus of several of the newspaper accounts and even the official Department of Public Welfare reports was Loeb's sexuality.
In Gladys Erickson's biography of Joseph Ragen (*Warden Ragen of Joliet*), it was reported that Loeb had decided to take a shower after lunch in the toilet room shower adjacent to the schoolroom and the dining room. James Day, a former cellmate of Loeb's, was passed a razor by another inmate and slipped away from a group being marched from the dining room. Day knew that Loeb was in the shower room, and began stabbing him, inflicting 57 wounds. Day claimed that Loeb had lured him to the shower room for "immoral purposes," and that the razor belonged to Loeb.
When brought to trial in June 1937, Day repeated his story of Loeb's advances. Day was found not guilty by a jury that had deliberated for 15 minutes. One of the jurors was later quoted, "Nobody liked a queer [...] so it was a good thing to get rid of such people." (Higdon, *The Crime of the Century: The Leopold and Loeb Case,* 302.) After the verdict, Warden Ragen cancelled Day's good behavior time and he was forced to serve his entire sentence. He was released in 1942.
Further investigation, not known fully until years after the murder, revealed that Day had once been Loeb's cellmate, and that he had been receiving cigarettes and food from Loeb. When changes in the inmate economy limited the amount of money inmates could spend, as well as preventing inmates from holding currency, Loeb curtailed his sharing with Day.
Day later told several different versions of his story. At the time of the murder, he claimed that Loeb had been making sexual advances to him (an accusation later refuted by Nathan Leopold and Father Eligius Weir, chaplain at Stateville). In 1960, Day claimed that Loeb was planning a prison break. (Ibid., 300-1) After intermittent exposure in interviews and news reports through 1965, Day disappeared into obscurity.

[587] Illinois Prison Inquiry Commission, *The Prison System in Illinois, A Report to the Governor of Illinois,* 1937.

1936 and 1937: Illinois Prison Inquiry Commission

The Illinois Prison Inquiry Commission consisted of Joseph H. Schlarman, Chairman, and Robert L. Kern, John Prystalski, Emmet Moynihan, Roy West, Preston Bradley, James J. Barbour, Henry Barrett Chamberlin, and Milton Hugh Summers. The commission's recommendations on the overall operation of the Division of Prisons of the Department of Public Welfare included changes in its overall management structure. They studied each prison institution and made recommendations to improve its operation or to replace it entirely. For Stateville, the commission recognized that the plan to abandon the old Joliet Prison had failed. The penal population had increased to such an extent that the old prison was still required, despite an inmate population in Stateville twice the size of that for which it was originally intended. Nonetheless, it was not recommended to add more cellhouses at Stateville. More could be accommodated in its 64 acre walled site, but to increase the population would add difficulties in discipline and operation. Although officially the cellhouses at Stateville were not segregated by race, it was noted that non-white inmates were not celled with white inmates.

The commission reported extensively on the activities at the prison hospital, viewed at one of the significant assets to the institution. The medical staff consisted of two young doctors who devoted only part of the day, arriving about 7:00 a.m. and leaving some time between 10:00 a.m. and 12:00 noon, depending upon the volume of work. If a postoperative case was in the hospital or if the occasion demanded it, one of the doctors returned for observation. There were also inmate assistants for operating room procedures, sick line registration, and nursing assistance. The two doctors then on staff were Dr. McSweeney, who had been at the hospital for only a few months, and Dr. Duffy, who had been providing service since February 1934. There was also Dr. Lennon, an eye, ear, nose and throat specialist and a part-time employee devoting one day a week at Stateville. One registered pharmacist had charge of the drug room for filling simple prescriptions. The pharmacist had one inmate assistant without experience as a pharmacist. On file in the doctor's office was a record of every inmate, with condensed information taken from the report of the physical examination of the inmate while at the Diagnostic Depot.

There were two inmate nurses and two orderlies on each floor both day and night, for a total of sixteen inmate staff on duty in the hospital at any given time. Inmate nurses were selected by the doctors after the inmate requested an assignment to perform this type of work. Dr. Duffy called the inmate for an interview and inquired into his qualifications; and blood tests were made to determine if the inmate was free from disease (such as syphilis). The doctor advised that he was more interested in whether the man had a good record in the institution than that if he had educational or experience qualifications. Under the tutelage of the older inmates and the doctors, the new inmate was instructed in his duties.

The dental department at Stateville was under the direction of Dr. Nathan H. Altenberg, D.D.S., who worked full-time at the institution. The dental clinic was open Monday, Tuesday, Thursday, and Friday. It was housed in a room about 12 foot square in the northwest corner of the first floor and equipped with three chairs, two of which were dental units and the third "a very old chair without proper dental fittings." All laboratory and denture work was sent to Chicago. Lighting over the chairs was adequate, but an additional lamp for close oral surgery work was needed. There was no gas machine and all extractions were done with a local nerve block, despite the fact that this was not being the approved method for certain kinds of extractions. Equipment was

reported to be antiquated and many of the instruments had broken and were repaired. The unit was equipped with a dental X-ray machine and sterilizer. The staff dentist was assisted by three inmates whom he had trained to attend the chairs and make minor examinations.

There was a tubercular ward in a corner of the top floor with space for fourteen or fifteen tubercular patients. A pneumothorax machine was needed for proper treatment. There was a hospital kitchen in the basement, which also prepared special diets for tubercular patients. The hospital kitchen also prepared the food for the officer's meals.

The sick line was held each morning between 7:00 and 7:30 a.m. (except Thursday and Sunday for medical treatment). All men who made requests to enter the sick-line were required to go without breakfast that morning. The sick line was formed in a first floor anteroom of the hospital, with the doctor at one end of the room assisted by an inmate assistant. Those cases complaining of pains or other bodily conditions were passed to the doctor who made a brief stethoscope examination of the chest, heart, back, and examinations of the mouth and throat. If treatment could be prescribed for an ailment that was easily diagnosed by this cursory examination, it was given, and if not, the man was given a ticket to enter the examination room adjoining the doctor's office for a more detailed and thorough examination. Inmates who were passed for special examination formed another line outside of the doctor's office, also on the first floor of the hospital building.

Adjoining the doctor's office was an examination room twice the size of his office, containing an examination table, wash basins, and first aid kits, used for the performance of minor surgical cases and emergency first aid. When prescriptions were necessary they were given to the assistant who made notes, of the medication prescribed for the hospital records. The inmate then crossed the corridor to a drug room where he presented the prescription order and obtained the medicine.

The eye, ear, nose, and throat clinic was housed within the hospital building in a room down the corridor from the doctor's office. A venereal clinic was housed in the main examination room. The facilities of St. Joseph's Hospital in Joliet were also available for cases that required additional consultation. Occasionally a doctor from St. Joseph's Hospital visited the prison for consultation. Sometimes the Illinois Research Hospital in Chicago was used for certain types of cases. A doctor also went through the solitary cells each morning to observe signs of ill effects from the disciplinary treatment. A small number of inmates showing symptoms of mental breakdown were referred to the psychiatrist, who was a part-time employee.

Based on the observations summarized above, the inquiry commissioners recommended that two full time physicians be employed at the hospital, allowing for additional time to perform regular inmate examinations. They also recommended that an inmate nurse with a medical degree who was allowed to carry out some examinations be restricted to nursing work. A full-time civilian registered male nurse was needed to supervise the inmate nurses. Additional supplies were necessary for the drug room, allowing the pharmacist to formulate medications that he otherwise would purchase, thus saving hospital funds for other purposes. A full-time psychiatrist was needed take care of psychiatric work.

The commission also reported on the industries present at Stateville at the time: the Honor Farm, furniture factory, soap plant, license plate factory, fabrication shop, and dehydrating plant. The inmates assigned to the industries and other work assignments were engaged for approximately six hours per day for five and a half days per week. Compensation for inmates ranged from an average per man of 89¢ per month in the furniture department to an average per man of $2.71 per month in the mattress division. The farm, license plate factory, fabrication shop, and dehydrating plant did not pay inmates any compensation. The commission noted that the license plate plant was permitted to sit idle for two years since license plates were not required to be replaced annually. At the time of their study, the commission observed that of the 3,260 inmates in Stateville, only about 2,000 were employed. Even with this level of "under employment" of prisoner labor, many of the shops and offices were overmanned with inmate help.

Studies of Stateville Inmates

The Clabaugh Commission and Illinois Prison Inquiry Commission were not the only studies conducted of Stateville. The prison's architecture was designed around unique social concepts that, along with its proximity to the metropolitan Chicago region, attracted the attention of many academics and professionals. Studies of the inmate population dated back to the 1920s. In 1920, a psychiatrist was assigned to Joliet and Stateville by the Division of the Criminologist, whose responsibilities included studies, investigations, and surveys of the inmate population.[588] In 1923, a statistical study of the population at Joliet and Stateville was performed, showing comparisons between the total inmate population and individual groups serving prison sentences for murder, burglary and larceny, fraud, and sex crimes.[589] The 1928 Clabaugh Commission reported:

> It is the province of the Division of Criminology to study the individual inmate, ascertain, as far as possible, the contributing elements to the offense charged, as well as his anthropological, sociological, neurological, and psychopathic conditions; to ascertain, by the application of well established psychological tests his mental rating and, based upon these investigations, furnish a psychiatric diagnosis.[590]

Interest in Stateville continued in the 1930s, when during the 1933 Chicago Century of Progress exhibition, visitors from all parts of the United States and from many foreign countries came to the prison. There were as many as 800 visitors a day, including students of sociology classes of colleges and universities.[591] Nineteen-thirty-three was also the year that the Office of the Sociologist-Actuary was created, a result of the participation in 1928 of Professors Burgess and Sutherland in the Clabaugh Commission, when they evaluated sentencing and parole policy.

In 1937, the Illinois Prison Inquiry Commission report included a study of the leisure time activities of the inmates at Stateville: "A Short Study of the Leisure-Time Problem of the State Penitentiary at Stateville, Illinois," by Eugene T. Lies, Special Representative from the National Recreation Association.[592] The study noted that "if a large prison population like that of Stateville

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[588] *State of Illinois Department of Public Welfare, Thirteenth Annual Report, July 1, 1929 to June 30, 1930*, 34.
[589] *State of Illinois Department of Public Welfare, Seventh Annual Report, July 1, 1923 to June 30, 1924*, 58.
[590] Bruce, et al., *The Workings of the Indeterminate-Sentence Law and the Parole System of Illinois*, .
[591] *State of Illinois Department of Public Welfare, Fifteenth, Sixteenth, Seventeenth, and Eighteenth Annual Reports, June 30, 1935*, 307.
[592] *State of Illinois Department of Public Welfare, Twentieth Annual Report, June 30, 1937*, 598. Lies performed his

is kept busy during daylight and early evening hours, both with meaningful labor and leisure-time activities, the whole problem of discipline is made easier."[593] The warden (Joseph Ragen) estimated that about 2,000 inmates (or 66 percent) were idle at any particular time and that funding for leisure time activities was not a waste of taxpayer's money because is aided in maintaining order in prisons.[594]

The study gave approximate population figures per cellhouse (500, 550, 600, and 650 in the panopticon cellhouses; and 900 in Cellhouse B). In most cells of the panopticon cellhouses, at least two inmates were held; "double" cells meant for two to four inmates held as many as six. In examining inmate education, the holding of classes in the circular open court of the panopticon cellhouses was criticized because of the difficulty inmates had concentrating. The inadequacy of the library was another problem, since the original library destroyed in the 1931 riot was being reconstituted.

Inmate exercise space included a semi-basement room, "about 25 x 40 feet, entirely inadequate for general gym use. Indeed, it is used only for boxing. Two rings are set up, one for whites, the other for colored boxers."[595] The athletic field was a full-sized field adequate for regulation baseball and football. Each cellhouse had its own baseball team. Other sports included softball, basketball, volleyball, horseshoe pitching, and handball. During the winter months, football was the dominant sport.

Some inmates performed their own data collection at Stateville, such as that performed by Nathan Leopold. In his informal study of inmates released from the institution between 1933 and 1940 (the first seven years of the Stateville Correspondence School), a total of 4,517 had been paroled. Of these, 187 had been students of the school. The rate of parole violators was lower (16.04 percent) in the correspondence school group, while among those without exposure to the school (31.18 percent) violated parole.[596]

1936 to 1942: Ragen Remakes Stateville

> *Constructive prison management can never rest content with the maintenance of existing conditions; it must look constantly to the improvement of plant and of organization. The present administration has introduced 532 changes in the management of the Joliet-Stateville institutions in the past five years.*[597]

At Stateville, Ragen began a program featuring reform of the guard staff by eliminating political hiring and initiating proper training; developing inmate discipline; putting inmates to work; treating all inmates equally; and most significantly, placing emphasis on security and safety,

study during a series of interviews with various officials of the institution together with some inmates in the presence of officials.

[593] Ibid., 600.

[594] Ibid., 604. Prisoners were reported to spend their free time reading, crocheting, knitting, raising canaries, drawing, painting, talking with cellmates, and playing table games.

[595] Ibid., 602.

[596] Leopold, *Life Plus 99 Years*, 234.

[597] *State of Illinois Department of Public Welfare, Twenty-third Annual Report, June 30, 1940*, 827.

with secondary emphasis on rehabilitation.[598] One of Ragen's first acts was to clear out the shacks that studded the prison yard. A shakedown of the inmates and their cells revealed hundreds of manufactured and makeshift weapons. Gangs were split up, transferring some inmates to other prisons in the state. He had trees planted in the fairways of the golf course in front of the Administration Building.

Although reform efforts in Illinois prisons had been implemented since the establishment of Stateville, they could not keep up with the rapid changes occurring in the institution.[599] Also, the prison system in Illinois, including Stateville, remained an instrument of the state political system. Wardens and prison staff owed their positions to political appointments and patronage. It was a regular occurrence for politicians in the state, particularly those from southern Illinois, to recommend young men to Ragen and other wardens for employment. Wardens rarely could turn down these recommendations. Wardenships often were rewards in the political spoils system, regardless of experience or qualifications. Guards were also underpaid and worked long shifts – 12 to 16 hours were not uncommon. Because of the prison overpopulation, more guards were necessary than dormitory space allowed for, leading to guards of alternating shifts sleeping in the same beds. Other positions in the prison, such as clerical and maintenance staff, utilized inmate workers.

The inmate population at the end of the 1936 fiscal year was 5,221 at Joliet-Stateville. A vocational school was established in that year for idle inmates, including instruction in carpentry, plumbing, sheet metal, electrical trades, metal fabricating, and hand weaving. A 40 chair barber shop was set up in the furniture shop building. This eliminated the need for inmates to keep razors in their cells. An additional 600 inmates were occupied in covering the prison yard with gravel and fertile soil, using small buckets or wheel barrows to move the gravel. The yard work and vocational training was intended to use manual labor techniques instead of machines, allowing more inmates to be involved and kept busy.[600]

The Hospital received 44,487 inmate visits, typically in the daily morning sick line, with 19,744 medical cases and 21,545 minor surgical cases. An additional 4,395 anti-syphilitic treatments were provided. The Operating Room was used for 151 surgeries. The dental department received 19,688 inmate visits, with 5,479 extractions, 4,446 general treatments, and approximately 9,000 fillings.[601]

Over the radios installed in the cells in 1931, inmate broadcasts of the "Big House Revue" were initiated. These one hour broadcasts of inmate talent took place on Sunday afternoon at 1:00 p.m.[602] Other recreational activities included the library, enlarged in 1936 and moved to larger

[598] Erickson, *Warden Ragen of Joliet*, 50-51.

[599] These reforms had consisted of the Office of the State Criminologist, opened in 1917; the Progressive Merit System, initiated in 1920; and creation of the position of the sociologist-actuary, recommended by the 1928 Clabaugh Commission.

[600] *State of Illinois Department of Public Welfare, Nineteenth Annual Report, June 30, 1936*, 433-5.

[601] Ibid., 434.

[602] A publication on Stateville from the late 1930s or early 1940s states that radio broadcasts of commercial stations ran from 7:00 to 10:00 p.m. each day. The only programs that were censored were ones involving crime stories and murder mysteries. (*Illinois State Penitentiary* (Joliet, Illinois: Illinois State Penitentiary, N.d. [circa 1940], 21.)

space on the main floor of the Dining Room building. In the Dining Room, a policy of "all you can eat but no waste" was inaugurated, allowing a substantial cost savings from reduced food waste. Silence and strict discipline was once again enforced in the dining room.

Ragen began his reform of the guard staff in August 1936 with the initiation of an eight hour work day. All guards were required to wear uniforms while on duty. As reported at the end of fiscal year 1937, inmates were required to wear uniforms as well.[603] Control of inmate communications was expanded by limiting the number of letters inmates could write to only the first and third Sunday of each month. Inmates could receive as many letters as their relatives and friends wanted to send. However, all incoming and outgoing mail was subject to inspection and censoring.[604]

New construction at Stateville in 1936 and 1937 included a chapel and recreation building. The library was to be installed in the new building. This was one of three similar buildings constructed at state prisons; the other two were located at Menard and Pontiac. A dining room and kitchen (later the Training Center) was constructed adjacent to the south gate for inmates working on the farm. A new deep well was constructed outside the wall to provide additional water supply. A new Dormitory Building (Unit G), "constructed in line with modern ideas of penology," was nearly complete at the southwest corner of the yard. Projected to house 480 men, the dormitory was for some of the inmates working in the expanding vocational training program. (The building later contained the book bindery and grade school.) Security was improved with the introduction of a two-way radio system for communication between the Administration Building and the guard towers. The inmate population on 30 June 1937 was 5,377 at Joliet-Stateville.[605]

Remodeling of the hospital at the old Joliet prison was undertaken in fiscal year 1937, including the purchase of x-ray equipment, laboratory equipment, and new surgical instruments. At Stateville, a potential influenza epidemic was prevented through "extraordinary precautions... taken to forestall the spread of the disease..."[606] An entire gallery of Cellhouse F was used by the

[603] The uniform consisted of a blue and white striped shirt, blue denim trousers, cadet grey woolen trousers, cadet grey woolen cap, and a cadet grey woolen coat with a heavy lining. The denim trousers and striped shirt were worn in the summer months, and the cadet grey woolen outfit was worn in the winter months. Inmates assigned to a work detail were furnished with work clothes. By 1939, guards and inmates of the Honor Farm were required to wear appropriate uniforms or regulation work clothes as well. (Illinois Prison Inquiry Commission, 161-2; *State of Illinois Department of Public Welfare, Twenty-third Annual Report, June 30, 1940*, 840.)

[604] *State of Illinois Department of Public Welfare, Twentieth Annual Report, June 30, 1937*, 585-6.

[605] Ibid., 587-9.

[606] Ibid., 591. It should be remembered that the 1918 "Spanish influenza" pandemic had occurred less than two decades earlier, and health authorities were extremely cautious of any new outbreak of influenza. Originating at Fort Riley, Kansas, in early 1918 (where it claimed a high percentage of normally healthy young men), the pandemic later attributed to the influenza virus did not reach its full force until the fall of 1918. By that time it had traveled to Europe with American troops sent to fight in World War I, and throughout the world. An estimated 21,000,000 people worldwide fell victim to it. The influenza was unusual because it claimed people in the prime of life – between 15 and 40 years of age – while the young and elderly experienced relatively low mortality rates. Peaking in October and November 1918, the epidemic tapered off and ended as quickly as it had begun. The exact nature of the influenza virus remains to the present unknown. Recently, samples were removed from the frozen remains of Norwegian sailors buried in the Arctic in 1918, which may possibly lead to the identification of the strain of virus responsible for this influenza.

hospital staff for this purpose. In that year, a record 84,197 inmate examinations were accommodated in the Hospital. During the year 1,544 patients received a total of 4,226 x-rays. Venereal disease, particularly in new inmates, was treated at a Stateville clinic that served the Joliet Prison and the Diagnostic Depot as well. Inmates found upon admission to have venereal disease were segregated in cellhouses apart from other inmates during treatment. These inmates were not permitted to serve food, and other quarantine procedures were also maintained.

Changes in the educational system at Stateville included issuance of diplomas to graduates "similar in every respect to those issued to the eighth grade graduates of the Will County public schools."[607] The correspondence school continued to expand their course catalog, with 81 courses grouped under five departments: history, English, foreign languages, mathematics, and bookkeeping. A total of 1,043 inmates completed 319 courses.

The vocational school made more progress, with the basement of the Dining Room used because of lack of a proper space. A new building for these activities (Vocational Shops, adjacent to the Auto License Plate Plant) was under construction and nearly complete. The enrollment of the Vocational Training School increased to 102 inmates. A drafting class with 36 inmates used tables and stools built in the wood shop. The machine shop taught engine repair and lathe work. The Veteran's Service Office conducted 18 classes a week in the Veterans' Correspondence School, with instruction given in accountancy, advertising, air conditioning, electrical engineering, poultry husbandry, printing estimates, radio repair, and salesmanship. The print shop at the prison produced the monthly "Joliet-Stateville Time," with a circulation of approximately 3,200.

Prison industries at Joliet and Stateville included a blanket and woolen mill (Joliet); a concrete product shop (Joliet); fiber furniture department (Stateville); garment shop (Stateville); soap department (Stateville); stone department (Joliet); fabrication department (Joliet); and tin shop (Joliet). At the end of the 1937 fiscal year, industrial operations in the textile, concrete, and furniture departments showed sales of $217,283.62. In the textile department, where blankets, suits, overcoats, blue denim, towels, and mop heads were made annual production was 15,781 blankets, 17,576 towels, and 19,605 yards of suits. The value of sales in this department alone was $101,029.91. Concrete products, which were in demand for the building operations at the various State welfare institutions, included more than two million concrete brick, 264,000 haydite brick, 83,281 granite faced and sand faced blocks of all sizes, and numerous other products (such as headstones) totaling in value $48,793.34. The furniture department, which made wooden furniture of practically every kind, including office, dining room, and bedroom furniture had sales equaling $67,460.37.

Inmate amusements included the formation of a band, which gave concerts in the summer months. The inmate musicians were seated on the second floor landing of the Administration Building, the landing windows and first floor doors opened, the visiting public seated on the lawn in front of the building.

[607] Ibid., 592.

In the fiscal year 1938 report, the Chapel and Recreation Building and the Dormitory Building were complete and in operation. The buff-colored brick Chapel and Recreation Building was built with interior walls faced with hydrostone, a "smooth, white, and highly polished synthetic material," and windows with synite glass. The ceiling was covered with "Nu-wood," another imitation product similar to fiberboard or Masonite. The floor sloped down to a center stage flanked by two small alcoves. The alcove to the left, used for Catholic services, contained a marble altar[608] and the one to the right, used for Episcopalian services, contained an altar of solid walnut. The backdrop of the stage was formed by a full length mural, the work of an inmate artist. The auditorium was designed to accommodate 1,560 men; 160 more could be seated in the balcony.

Landscaping work in the yard continued. A large portion of the yard surrounding the new chapel, which was formerly a dirt field, was landscaped with grass and flower beds. A circular pool and fountain was constructed in the yard between the Chapel, Hospital, and Cellhouse F, along with flagstone walks and more flower beds. The annual report for the 1938 fiscal year stated that "mere words cannot describe the improvement this has made in the general appearance of the Stateville grounds. The flower beds, which bloomed profusely this year, and smoothly kept terraces added much to the appearance of the yards."[609] Stateville already had had a greenhouse

[608] The marble for the Catholic altar was salvaged from an area undergoing renovation in the Stock Exchange building, designed by the firm of Adler and Sullivan. It is not known where in the building this marble came from, although it is likely given the appearance of the altar at Stateville that it was from stone panels used in an office corridor wainscoting.

[609] *State of Illinois Department of Public Welfare, Twenty-first Annual Report, June 30, 1938*, 588. The gardens at Stateville were awarded many prizes, including one from the National Council of State Garden Clubs. A 1950s publication on the Stateville and Joliet prisons gives the following description of the landscaping that was eventually developed (*Illinois State Penitentiary* (Joliet, Illinois: Illinois State Penitentiary, N.d. [circa 1940], 17-19):

> ...stretching three hundred yards in each direction to the walls themselves, are two beautifully landscaped parks. The South Park, to our left, has an enormous central lawn, surrounded by an L-shaped terrace, 800 feet in length. The top of the terrace is planted with shrubbery, neatly trimmed and pruned. The sloping sides of the terrace are a riot of color—7,000 flowers of every hue and shade, arranged in artistic design, fill the flower beds which dot the slope. In the very center of the park is a fish pond, built of rocks, and approached from four directions by rustic walls, also of rock. At the eastern border of the lawn is a privet hedge, which runs the entire length of the park. Behind this hedge rise the two greenhouses in which the 150,000 annual plants required each year for Stateville, the Old Prison, the Honor Farm, and Diagnostic Depot are raised. Behind the greenhouses are thirteen glass-topped cold-frames, in which plants are started and hardened off, and a large nursery for shrubs and trees. The western background of the park is formed by the long, modernistic lines of a rectangular cell house, the brick walls of which are mellowed by clinging Boston ivy.
>
> But let us turn now to our right. Smooth, shrubbery-studded terraces flank the tunnel, hug the side of the dining-room, which lies just ahead, and roll away toward the ball park. On another sloping terrace, across the park, rises a rectangular, one-story building. It is the office of the Senior Captain. In this office are handled all inmate assignments, and it is here that all infractions of the rules are reported. Here too punishments are given for breaking the rules. On the sloping sides of the terrace are flower beds, laid out in half-moons within half-moons. In the center of the lawn is a sunken pond; two terraced, step-like levels surround it with a maze of flowers.

for many years, which assisted in the development of gardens in the prison yard. By 1939, the displays of flowers extended to the east of the institution at the highway entrance.[610]

The Vocational Shops building was completed in March 1938. Equipment in the new building's carpentry department included 14 carpenter benches, a wood press, a wood lathe, a band saw, and a power ripsaw. The machine shop had a bench lathe for use in precision work, two drill presses, a machine lathe, and a workbench where bench and vise work was done. Planning and design by state architects for a tailor shop progressed, and excavation work was initiated in May 1938. The work of the Stateville Correspondence School was accepted by the Chicago Public Schools as valid toward their high school graduation requirements. Three inmates had completed correspondence courses with the Extension Division of the University of Illinois.

The inmate population reached a high of 6,045 at Joliet and Stateville during the 1938 fiscal year.[611] The mortality rate at the two prisons was approximately one-half percent. Of the approximately 500 inmates assigned to work on the outside of the walls each day, only four persons escaped during the 1939 fiscal year. All were returned within a very short time, except for one who was killed while officers were attempting to apprehend him.[612]

A new visiting room (Old Visitor Room) was completed in late 1938, located between the Detention Building and the enclosing wall. The new building measured 50 by 120 feet. At either end was a raised platform with desks for guards to observe; in the center of the room was a 100 foot table, three feet wide, containing a glass partition eight inches high. Prisoners and visitors were permitted to kiss and embrace at the partition in front of the officer's desk as they entered the room, but no other contact was allowed.[613]

On 5 April 1939, another aspect of Ragen's reform efforts was initiated, when 60 men who had passed an examination by the Civil Service Commission reported to an experimental Training School for Officers. The 60 day curriculum was established to produce qualified officers to serve as guards in Illinois state prisons.[614]

The one story Tailor Shop was completed in fiscal year 1939, and the broom and mattress factory was moved to into this building as well. Other construction at the institution in 1939 included the addition of new bleachers at the baseball diamond north of Cellhouse F. More

[610] The crossroads of two busy sidewalks between the cellhouses, workshops, and schoolrooms was the first designated spot for a garden. These crossroads were marked by the signpost "State and Madison," after the "busiest intersection in the world" in downtown Chicago. One of these gardener's was Herbert Spring, later to become the "dean of prison horticulturists." Before working as a gardener, Spring had worked at a several of the industries at Joliet and Stateville, although he often was assigned to the "idle gang." Spring's own personal garden plot was located near the prison wall, calling it the "Garden of Hope." Spring would spend the winter months fabricating small concrete garden figures. He also painted murals of pastoral scenes on the prison wall to serve as a backdrop for his garden. He was paroled in 1954. (Erickson, *Warden Ragen of Joliet*, 144-8.)

[611] *State of Illinois Department of Public Welfare, Twenty-first Annual Report, June 30, 1938*, 584.

[612] Ibid., 587.

[613] The visiting room is featured in one scene of the 1948 Twentieth-Century Fox film *Call Northside 777*.

[614] *State of Illinois Department of Public Welfare, Twenty-second Annual Report, June 30, 1939*, 524.

landscaping was performed at the institution, with flower beds added to the exterior of the Solitary Building, the main east-west tunnel, and the recently completed Tailor Shop.

The inmate population on 30 June 1939 was 6,096 at Joliet and Stateville, which was noted to be "larger than many villages and towns."[615] The inmates' commissary, formerly housed in the General Store building, was relocated to a separate building. The cold storage room was partitioned to allow different temperatures in each section. In the soap factory, large vats were installed to store raw materials purchased in bulk. This resulted in a considerable cost savings, since materials were formerly purchased in barrels. Railroad tank cars could be brought directly into the yard to the factory to transfer the raw materials.

For the second time in two years, health authorities in the two prisons were battling "a siege of influenza and la grippe" between February 13 and March 20. Prompt action was taken to isolate all cases. There were no fatalities. The hospital reported 22,504 inmate examinations and 465 operations during the year.[616] A fire truck was purchased in early 1939. In the six year of its existence, the correspondence school had issued 891 certificates for course completions. Thirty courses were completed in 1933; 70 in 1934; 77 in 1935; 140 in 1936; 225 in 1937; and 349 in 1938.[617]

Security at Stateville was improved by changing the method of coal delivery. Instead of allowing railroad coal cars to enter the prison, and open the risk of escape by inmates hiding in the empty cars, inmates assigned to the outside work detail unloaded the cars with shovels, transferring their loaded wheelbarrows to inmates inside the wall. Inmates working on the transport of coal from the intake on the west wall to the Powerhouse moved the coal from pile to pile, eventually reaching its destination. This laborious procedure was also meant to occupy inmates' time, and to punish misbehaving inmates. One inmate described these duties as follows:

> In a line of men I had wheeled a wheelbarrow down a narrow strip of cement walk to a coal pile. When my barrow was filled I bent over, took hold of the steel handles and lifted. Christ, it weighed a ton! Straining with all my might, I managed to pick it up, turn around with it and start up the walk. A few steps and the wheelbarrow began to tip. I spread my legs and pulled at the lowering handle. It was too much. I let go and the load of coal spilled over the ground. "All right, you," I heard the guard shout. "Get that barrow back and loaded again." Completely humiliated I waited as the man loaded me again, hearing the snickering of other inmates as they passed, pushing their loaded barrows along easily....All morning I struggled with that wheelbarrow. I learned to stall when the guard wasn't looking. On the pretense of tying a shoelace, I rested a moment. I brushed my ace and felt the coal dust scratch. The dust and sweat had mixed to form a mud. Every step was painful; my sore muscles were stretched beyond endurance.[618]

Changes at the Honor Farm included the construction of a new horse barn. This new concrete brick building was T-shaped in plan and one story in height. The old horse barn was

[615] *State of Illinois Department of Public Welfare, Twenty-second Annual Report, June 30, 1939*, 529.
[616] Ibid., 531-2.
[617] Ibid., 532.
[618] Warren, *Next Time is for Life*, 130-1.

demolished.[619] An "unsightly" two story wood frame building, formerly used for the housing of thirty inmates, was torn down. A new slaughterhouse of concrete block was under construction. After a fire destroyed its roof, the dairy barn was reroofed with a low sloped roof.

One month before the fall election of 1940, Governor Henry Horner died. Horner was not running in the election, and his fellow Democrat Harry B. Hershey lost to the Republican candidate, Dwight H. Green, a former State's Attorney famous for the prosecution of Chicago mobsters. Although not officially asked to resign by the new governor, Ragen submitted his resignation, accepting a position as a special investigator with the Immigration Department of the U.S. Department of Justice in charge of "enemy aliens" in Chicago and Milwaukee. He stayed in that post only a short time, and on 9 October 1942 became superintendent of security at the Pressed Steel Car Company in Joliet.[620] Ragen was replaced as warden of Joliet-Stateville by first by E.M. Stubbefield, followed for a short period in 1942 by the director of the Division of Prisons, T.P. Sullivan. Also during this period, the Department of Public Safety, which included the Division of Prisons, was established on 1 July 1942 as a department separate from the Department of Public Welfare.

With the entry of the United States into World War II in December 1941, Governor Green offered the facilities of the prison industries of Illinois for war production. However, it was over a year before legal complications could be eliminated and this plan could proceed. In the meantime, industries were curtailed by reason of wartime priority rulings.[621] Publication of the inmate weekly news booklet, The "Joliet-Stateville Time," was discontinued. Recycling and salvage of metal cans, wood scrap, and other materials was performed.

On 1 July 1942, 5,108 inmates were incarcerated at Joliet-Stateville, with 503 staff (mostly guards). In 1941 and in 1942, over 800 inmates were paroled each year. The anticipation of war had brought a rise in commodity prices, leading to an inmate per capita increase from $266.75 per year to $336.68 per year. Approximately ten percent of the guard force resigned to work in more lucrative war industries; others had been drafted into the armed forces. The guard training program was suspended. New officers were trained on the job with more experienced officers. The growth of war industries in the Joliet region led to a cost increase for rental property, making it difficult for guards who remained to find lodging. It was anticipated that at the end of the war, "as a result of unfavorable economic conditions, Illinois prisons undoubtedly will have an abnormal influx of prisoners, which will increase materially the population of our institutions."[622]

At the request of the Federal Works Agency, the State Division of Architecture and Engineering compiled a list of planned improvements. The FWA requested that only the following essential projects be executed before the end of the war.[623]

[619] *State of Illinois Department of Public Welfare, Twenty-third Annual Report, June 30, 1940*, 841.
[620] Nathan Kantrowitz, *Close Control: Managing a Maximum Security Prison – The Story of Ragen's Stateville Penitentiary* (Guilderland, New York: Harrow and Heston, 1996), 21.
[621] *State of Illinois Department of Public Safety Annual Report, July 1, 1941 to June 30, 1942*, 52-53.
[622] Ibid., 51-57.
[623] Ibid., 54.

Reconstruction Buildings—Honor Farm	$150,000
Sewage Disposal System	$175,000
Root Cellar	$14,400
Improvements Electric Distribution System, Etc.	$50,000

Prior to the United States' entry in the war, a modern chlorinating plant was installed at Stateville, with the result that all water used was chlorinated before distribution. Modifications to improve the pumps, wells, and water mains were performed. However, according to technical opinion furnished by the Illinois State Water Survey Division, the region around Stateville faced a possible water shortage in the near future unless steps were taken to pipe water from Lake Michigan.

A School Building with eight rooms was to be completed by September 1942. An addition to the Tailor Shop was constructed.[624] Cellhouse roofs were repaired. Guard towers located in the yard were renovated and raised in order to provide a better view.[625] A new loading platform was constructed just outside of the south gate at Stateville to facilitate handling of incoming and outgoing freight. On the Honor Farm, the dairy barn was remodeled and a new root cellar constructed.[626]

Fifty-six students completed grammar school in the first half of 1942. The Correspondence School's present enrollment was 480. Aside from state funding for the School Building construction and civilian staff salaries, school expenditures were financed by the Inmate Amusement Fund.

The prison health service reported no abnormal epidemics during the year, but inmates with tuberculosis, heretofore treated in the Hospital at Stateville, were now to be transferred to the Tuberculosis Hospital at Pontiac.

Although material shortages limited the training in the vocational shops and industrial division, the inmate barber shop was given state accreditation as a school of barber instruction. Thirteen hundred and eighty inmates were employed in the units of the industrial division, with sales totaling $682,883.89. Certain ingredients used in the manufacture of soap products were no longer obtainable, but substitutes were used. Laboratory studies by the U.S. Government Bureau of Standards determined that these products were equal to products sold on the open market.

[624] C. Herrick Hammond, Supervising Architect, State of Illinois Department of Public Works and Buildings, Division of Architecture and Engineering, Illinois State Penitentiary, Addition to Tailor Shop, Stateville, Illinois, Sheet A-1, revised 17 October 1940. The addition, like the original building, was a one story utilitarian brick masonry structure with a low sloped roof.
[625] C. Herrick Hammond, Supervising Architect, State of Illinois Department of Public Works and Buildings, Division of Architecture and Engineering, Illinois State Penitentiary, Alterations to Yard Guard Towers Nos. 43 & 44, Stateville, Illinois, Sheet AS-1, revised 22 September 1941.
[626] C. Herrick Hammond, Supervising Architect, State of Illinois Department of Public Works and Buildings, Division of Architecture and Engineering, Root Cellar for Illinois State Penitentiary, Stateville Branch, Sheet A-1, 20 May 1942. The root cellar was constructed with concrete brick walls and wood frame roof.

1942 to 1961: The Apex of the Ragen Era

> *This is Stateville prison...It is ruled by Joseph E. Ragen, who has made prison surveys for 12 other states at the request of their governors and recently was acclaimed by Governor Herter of Massachusetts as the leading prison administrator in the United States.*[627]

On 9 October 1942, one of Stateville's most notorious inmates, Roger Touhy,[628] escaped with six accomplices. The sensational newspapers reports voiced concern about security problems at Stateville. With the resignation of Warden E.M. Stubblefield, Ragen was given the opportunity to return to Stateville, when he was chosen by Governor Green over two other candidates. Touhy was recaptured a few weeks later.

It has been suggested that Ragen was given the task of keeping Touhy not just incarcerated, but "under wraps" and away from the public eye.[629] In return for maintaining Touhy's "invisibility," Ragen was given greater latitude in running Stateville than wardens in the state normally had.[630] Others have proposed that Ragen's control of Stateville was aided by World War II. With the attention paid to the war effort, he had to contend less with the political patronage system that forced him to hire certain guard and staff members. After the war, Ragen only had to contend with the politically-appointed superintendent of prison industries. However, in 1957 he was able to influence the appointment of his own candidate for that position.[631]

The escape of Roger Touhy was significant not only in bringing Ragen back as warden but also shows the relative success that he had over security (because the escape had occurred under Warden Stubblefield). Between 1929 and 1935, an average of 10 escapes occurred each year, many from the Honor Farm, and most were quickly apprehended. Once Ragen took over in late 1935, this average dropped to 6 escapes per year. When he returned in 1942, and until he officially left

[627] George Wright and Chesly Manly, "Inside Stateville – World of Its Own," *Chicago Daily Tribune*, 2 July 1955.
[628] Roger Touhy was born 18 September 1898. The son of a patrolman and one of eight children, he served in the navy and ran a used car business before joining Matt Kolb in northwest Cook County as a bootlegger. Eventually he formed a gang, which led to more serious criminal activity (for a summary of Touhy's career, see Kantrowitz, *Close Control: Managing a Maximum Security Prison*, 24-31). Touhy was convicted for the kidnapping of John "Jake the Barber" Factor and imprisoned at Stateville in 1933. (Factor was a confidence man who, it has been suggested, lied about the kidnapping to escape extradition to Great Britain where he faced fraud charges. According to Touhy, as well as his defenders, the kidnapping was a hoax designed to remove Touhy as a competitor in the Chicago crime business. It also served to drum up sympathy for Factor, who never was extradited to Great Britain.) Apprehended eight days after his escape, Touhy served the remainder of his term until paroled in 1959. Touhy is reported as saying on seeing Ragen at his recapture in 1942, "Well, warden, I got your job back for you." With newspaper reporter Ray Brennan, Touhy wrote *The Stolen Years* (Cleveland: Pennington Press, 1959) during his last years in prison, in which he tells how he was allegedly framed for the Factor kidnapping. Touhy was shot on the doorstep of his sister's house on 16 December 1959, 23 days after being released from Stateville. No one was ever arrested for his murder. (Erickson, *Warden Ragen of Joliet*, 155-159, 172; Kantrowitz, *Close Control: Managing a Maximum Security Prison*, 31.)
[629] The archives at Stateville contain correspondence between Warden Ragen and FBI director J. Edgar Hoover, with Ragen's request to have some of Touhy's somewhat unusual looking letters analyzed for possible code words or illicit substances.
[630] Kantrowitz, *Close Control: Managing a Maximum Security Prison*, 22.
[631] Jacobs, *Stateville: The Penitentiary in Mass Society*, 28-32.

Stateville in 1961, an average of only 1 or 2 escapes occurred each year. It was not until the 1970s that escapes were more frequent.[632] A further measure of Ragen's success at maintaining control was the relatively small number of cells (32 total, in the Segregation Building constructed in the late 1940s) for violent or misbehaved inmates in a prison with a population averaging 3,500.

During World War II, the inmate population at Joliet-Stateville fell when convicted criminals, depending on circumstances, were given the option of service in the armed forces rather than a prison term. On 30 September 1943, only 4,654 inmates were incarcerated in the two institutions, alleviating overcrowding.[633] Inmate labor across the country contributed to the war effort: in 1942, it was reported that 160,000 inmates in 450 workshops nationwide were ready to provide their labor.[634] Once restrictions were cleared for the production of war supplies, Stateville and other Illinois prisons provided significant contributions to the war effort.[635]

Ragen reported that "these items represented nearly fourteen million production units valued at more than one and one-half million dollars; all products of prison labor and of prison shops under an industrial program that rapidly expanded as the government's needs became more urgent."[636]

War work done by prison industries between 1 July 1944 and 30 June 1945 amounted to $515,960.49. War work for that fiscal year involved 136 inmates employed by the textile department; 417 by the garment department; 351 by the army repair department; 191 by the

[632] Ibid., 232.
[633] Edward J. Hughes, Secretary of State, ed. *Blue Book of the State of Illinois, 1943-44*, 304.
[634] John R. Ellingston, "Is The Youth Authority Idea Really Paying Off?" In *Proceedings of the Eightieth Annual Congress of the American Prison Association* (New York: American Prison Association, 1950), 206. General information on prisons in the United States in wartime is in Paul W. Keve, *Prisons and the American Conscience: A History of U.S. Federal Corrections* (Carbondale, Illinois: Southern Illinois University Press, 1991), 203-9.
[635] Illinois prisons contributed the following (*The American Prison: From the Beginning – A Pictorial History* (College Park, Maryland: American Correctional Association, 1983), 185.):

- 30,000 Maritime Commission Blankets
- 10,000 Treasury Department "Lend-Lease" Blankets
- 99,327 Yards of Treasury Department "Lend-Lease" Suiting
- 40,482 Army Ordinance Department Shell Pallets
- 22,095 Army Ordinance Department Fuse Gauges for Shells
- 74,979 Treasury Department "Lend-Lease" Overalls
- 24,248 Army Shirts – "Bush"
- 49,534 Navy Shirts – "Sea-bee"
- 25,493 Army "Sun Tan" Jackets
- 26,451 Army "Sun Tan" Trousers
- 74,168 Treasury Department "Lend-Lease" Wool Trousers
- 439,738 Navy Shirts – Blue Chambray
- 10,270 Army Khaki Trousers
- 78,024 Treasury Department "Lend-Lease" Denim Dungarees
- 104,190 Treasury Department "Lend-Lease" Work Shirts
- 6,008 Treasury Department "Lend-Lease" Denim Jackets
- 819,862 Army Clothing, Canvas and Equipage items repaired and returned to Army stocks
- 5,214,100 Pounds of "Rough Dry" Army Laundry
- 5,113,273 Army Clothing Canvas and Equipage items segregated, classified, and returned to Army stocks
- 1,395,423 Pounds of Army Laundry

[636] Joseph Ragen, "Aggressive Prisoner," *Prison World* (May-June 1947), 5.

furniture department; and 136 employed in various departments on war work. The Division of Prisons had one Navy Department contract; two with the U.S. Treasury Department, Lend-Lease Division; and three Army contracts supervised by the Sixth Service Command.[637]

Construction at Stateville did not entirely cease during the war. Permanent improvements amounting to approximately $352,000 were made in Illinois prisons. At Joliet-Stateville, they included a new pasteurizing plant and additional to the storeroom; construction of new guard towers; replacement of buildings at the Honor Farm destroyed by a summer storm; and a new farm service building and hog house. The largest building to be constructed during the war was the new Guards' Dormitory, an addition to the Administration Building.[638]

The Guards' Dormitory was a brick masonry faced bearing wall structure with reinforced concrete floors and interior columns. Each of the four floors had a large square room for dormitory or locker room functions and an adjacent room with toilet and shower facilities. The building had a row of punched window openings with steel framed casement windows on each elevation. An addition constructed on the roof of the rear of the Administration Building also served as guard dormitory space.[639]

One of the most important projects carried out at Stateville during the war was the development of a malaria vaccine. Medical experiments had been performed with increasing frequency in the United States for over a decade.[640] Many of these experiments were initiated by large drug companies to test new medications, but with the coming of war the United States sought means to test solutions to medical problems encountered in combat situations.

By 1944, U.S. Army casualties in the South Pacific due to malaria were nearly as high as battle fatalities. Elimination of mosquito breeding grounds (the method discovered and implemented during the construction of the Panama Canal) was not a practical solution in the thick jungles of the region. A program was initiated to find successful treatments, involving the Army, the U.S. Public Health Service, and the University of Chicago.[641]

[637] Edward Barrett, Secretary of State, ed. *Blue Book of the State of Illinois, 1945-46*, 528.
[638] This is perhaps an example of the political power that Ragen had in Illinois, because he was able to obtain funding for these projects during the war.
[639] C. Herrick Hammond, Supervising Architect, State of Illinois Department of Public Works and Buildings, Division of Architecture and Engineering, Guards Dormitory and Addition to Administration Building, Illinois State Penitentiary, Stateville Branch, Stateville, Illinois, Sheets A-1, A-2, A-3, and A-4, 6 March 1943.
[640] "The use of prisoners for medical experiments is a phase of American prison history that tells us as much about the society's attitudes toward prisoners as it does about prisoners' willingness to take part in any activity that might hold some type of reward, regardless of the danger…It has been reported that as many as forty-two institutions participated in continuing major research efforts." (Marilyn d. McShane, "Medical Experiments," *Encyclopedia of American Prisons*, 318.) Although initially there were no regulations governing prisoner medical research, the Food and Drug Administration later instituted guidelines. Prisoners were usually given special privileges, improved living conditions, and some financial compensation in return for their cooperation. Some prison systems rewarded inmate volunteers with time credits to their sentence. Experiments continued after World War II and included exposure to radioactive substances. The era of prisoner medical research ended in the late 1960s and early 1970s due to the prisoner rights movement, societal attitude changes, and legal liability problems.
[641] For background information on the United States' efforts to control malaria during World War II, see John Boyd Coates, Jr., ed., *Preventive Medicine in World War II*, Volume VI, *Communicable Diseases: Malaria* (Washington,

Beginning in September 1944, Dr. Alf S. Alving of the University of Chicago conducted experiments with inmate volunteers exposed to malaria-carrying mosquitoes.[642] Under the direction of the Board for Coordination of Malarial Studies, a bureau of the federal government, this program was originally also set up at Manteno State Hospital for the Insane, and the subjects were the insane patients confined there. The working conditions at Stateville were better, and eventually the entire project was moved there. The third floor of the hospital was turned over to Dr. Alving for the exclusive use of the project.[643]

Experimental drugs were tested to determine human tolerance for their toxicity. Soon it was decided to enlarge the original scope of the project and actually to infect volunteers with malaria and then test the antimalarial drugs on them. At first mosquitoes raised by the Department of Parasitology at the University of Chicago were transported to Stateville. Later mosquitoes used in the malaria experiments were raised in cages in the Hospital. One inmate reported at the beginning of the program:

> I asked Dr. Alving how many volunteers he contemplated using, and he answered that he might need as many as two hundred. Two weeks later an announcement was read over the institutional radio, asking for volunteers. The men were instructed to turn their names in to the cell-house keepers. That first day 487 men volunteered.[644]

Inmate volunteers were carefully selected, signing contracts absolving the Board for Coordination of Malarial Studies, the university, and the members of the program staff from all responsibility. Each inmate was paid one hundred dollars. Life magazine was allowed to photograph portions of the experiments.[645]

After the war, construction at Stateville included the addition of a new Segregation Building, which also had a wing to house the electric chair and the "death house," where condemned criminals were to be housed during their last days. This building replaced the facility previously in use at the Joliet prison and was completed at the beginning of 1947.[646] Other construction at Stateville included a modern sanitary sewage treatment plant and enlargement of both the sanitary and storm sewers and a cost of $273,000.

The new Segregation Building was constructed adjacent to the existing Special Cellhouse on the north side of the prison yard. The brick masonry structure consisted of several parts: the

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D.C.: Office of the Surgeon General, Department of the Army, 1962).

[642] Joseph E. Ragen and Charles Finston, *Inside the World's Toughest Prison* (Springfield, Illinois: Charles C. Thomas, Publisher, 1962), 391-2.

[643] Leopold, *Life Plus 99 Years*, 306.

[644] Ibid., 305.

[645] The malaria program continued after the war until the early 1970s. As of the mid-1950s, $7,000,000 in federal funds had been spent on the malaria program with the participation of 3,000 inmates and involving the testing of 50 types of drugs. Other medical testing was performed at Stateville. In 1948, 500 inmates designated the use of their eyes in an organ donor program. Research was also performed on finding a cure for the common cold. (Erickson, *Warden Ragen of Joliet*, 206-8.)

[646] *Joliet Herald-News*, 31 March 1946.

segregation cellhouse, with 16 cells on each of two floors and five more cells in a separate second floor area; a walled exercise yard; a small dining room and kitchen; the execution chamber; and a witness room. The main portion of the building was two stories tall; the execution chamber and witness rooms were one story tall.[647]

During this period, approximately 700 inmates were confined at the old Joliet Prison. No substantial renovations had been performed in several decades. Cells still lacked adequate lighting, ventilation, and sanitary facilities. Despite continued hope of abandoning this institution, approximately $1,000,000 was spent on necessary remodeling work. Renovations to the cells included installation of tiled walls and plumbing fixtures. Enlargement of the cell window openings to allow more natural light was performed. The dining room was remodeled and the hospital renovated. Eight structures were torn down. Industries at the old prison included the textile mill, manufacturing blankets, towels, blue denim, and hickory cloth.

Life Inside the Wall in the Ragen Era

Stateville was Joseph Ragen's answer to Walden Two.[648]

> *Stateville has many natural advantages. Situated, as it is in the country, miles from the nearest city, the air is fresh and pure. In Stateville there is no trace of that peculiar metallic odor which is so characteristic of most prisons. Its water, too, is as clear and fine as any in the country. It is pumped from Artesian wells sunk hundreds of feet below the surface of the ground.*[649]

> *Stateville was at first a surprise. From the time I saw the expansive grounds, well kept lawns, fir trees and clusters of flowers to the time I was finally locked up I had the feeling that it was more like a college, a home for old folks in the country, a national park.*[650]

Turning off the highway, the visitor would pass large floral beds trimming large concrete letters forming the name "Stateville." After passing a small gatehouse, the long and gently sloped approach drive was bordered by more floral beds. At the end of the drive was the main entrance gatehouse with the Administration Building behind. All visitors passed through this space, registering their name, address, the name of the person to be visited, and the time of day. The visitor was then searched and proceeded through "electric eye," which detected any metal object. The door leading to the yard in front of the Administration Building was opened by an electric release operated by the officer in charge, who was located in a bulletproof enclosure.

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[647] C. Herrick Hammond, Supervising Architect, State of Illinois Department of Public Works and Buildings, Division of Architecture and Engineering, Segregation Building, Illinois State Penitentiary, Stateville Branch, Joliet, Illinois, Sheets A-2, A-3, and A-5, revised 11 December 1945.

[648] Jacobs, *Stateville: The Penitentiary in Mass Society*, 31

[649] *Illinois State Penitentiary*, 12. Stateville's water actually has relatively high levels of radium, as discussed below in regard to testing conducted in 1953.

[650] Warren, *Next Time is for Life*, 128.

After crossing the yard to the Administration Building entrance, visitors would see two large bronze plaques describing the background and history of the institution and the state officials responsible for its "completion" in 1932 (the statements on these plaques are transcribed on pages 148 and 149). Inside the Administration Building, two stairways either side of a central hall led to the second floor, containing the warden's office and other administrative offices. Upon entering the prison, one new inmate stated:

> The inside of the administration building was a little different, more businesslike. Then further on were halls of polished concrete, offices, the visiting room, the officers' barbershop, the hospital. The sounds of voices, our clanking chains, the slam of gates echoed and re-echoed as in a vault. Everything looked new, clean and coldly impersonal.[651]

The third floor contained more administrative offices and the twelve room apartment for the warden, occupied by Ragen during his tenure. The fourth floor contained the original guard dormitory and officer quarters. During the 1950s approximately 600 civilian employees, including 500 custodial officers and 100 professional and clerical personnel, worked at the prison.

Directly ahead of the second floor stair landing was the gate leading to the prison armory and three additional gates that led to the Detention Building, "tunnel," and prison yard. Off the corridor after the first gate was the armory.[652] After the second gate the corridor continues, off of which was the Visitors Room and the Detention Building functions, including the guard hall, parole office, mail office, records office, telephone switchboard, and corridor to the hospital. After the third gate was the tunnel leading to the prison yard and cellhouses. Originally constructed as a roofed structure with open sides, the tunnel was later enclosed with concrete block and glass block. The tunnel lies over the actual service tunnel that contains the steam and utility lines that extend throughout the facility.

In the mail office, all incoming and outgoing mail was censored before forwarding to the addressee. All newspapers, magazines, and periodicals were carefully examined "to see that they are of a type proper to be allowed in the institution." Since each of more than six thousand inmates (the mail office served the old prison at Joliet as well as the Stateville Branch) was allowed to write two letters a month, and since there was no restriction on the amount of mail which any inmate was allowed to receive, the task which confronted the censors was not a small one. Careful records were kept of the name and address of every person to whom an inmate wrote or from whom he received mail.

It was reported that the hospital provided annual health checkups, including:

[651] Ibid., 129. New inmates were warned upon entry to the prison: "Do not allow yourself to become associated with any clique or group in prison. You must have acquaintances and must talk to someone, but do not make the mistake of becoming too closely associated with any group. Cliques in prison are not tolerated." (Ragen and Finston, *Inside the World's Toughest Prison*, 46.)
[652] For a description of the gates at Stateville, see Kantrowitz, *Close Control: Managing a Maximum Security Prison*, 96-98.

> Annual chest x-rays are taken on all inmates; inmates having a history of arrested pulmonary tuberculosis, syphilis, or infectious hepatitis are routinely barred from food handling....Formal sick call is held...three days a week....Practically all of the unusual medical cases are sent to Stateville from the other branch prisons....On many occasions, outstanding doctors from our universities are called to examine and perform surgery on inmates....Considerable plastic surgery has been done by one of Chicago's top plastic surgeons. Included among his cases were removal of unsightly facial scars, and plastic repair of facial defects....Statistics prove that plastic repair of this type has tremendous value.[653]

A department of the hospital was the Detention Hospital within the Detention Building, where care was given to mentally disturbed inmates. The Detention Hospital had 32 cells used for the housing of "insane and neurotic prisoners."[654] It was equipped for hydrotherapy and had cells stripped of any potentially dangerous items.

The landscaping was maintained by a crew of 100 inmates working under the supervision of the guard staff. Each year, 500,000 plantings were grown in the greenhouse near the Administration Building. Sometime during the day each prisoner received one hour for recreation. Each cellhouse had its own field for baseball and other field games. The north end of the prison yard had a baseball park with stands for 3,500, where regular games were held with outside semi-pro teams on Saturdays.

Originally the Dining Room accommodated 1,984 inmates in one sitting, with terrazzo topped tables and wooded seats on steel frames. The tables were arranged in 16 wedge shaped sections around a steel guard tower in the center of the Dining Room. Three armed guards were on duty in the tower at meal times. At the base of the tower was a sign in large letters: "All you can eat; but no waste." On the perimeter of the seating sections there were eight long service tables where inmates served other inmates. Each inmate had his own metal cup attached to his belt, and received a tray, knife, fork, and spoon as he entered the dining room. Guards observed inmates to make sure they returned all utensils when leaving the Dining Room. One inmate described his first impression of the Dining Room and cellhouses:

> The cellhouses I saw were circular and built around another gigantic circular building, the dining-room. Inside this we were marched. High above steel girders crisscrossed, supporting a dome-like roof. Rows and rows of marbleized-top tables all converged to the center where a tubular tower reached up to the roof. Convicts hustled around with buckets and mops. The clatter of metal plates and the echoing shouts of the men as they worked accentuated the rather strange silence....We were given our new clothes, photographed and fingerprinted, lectured.[655]

Off the dining room were the kitchen and bakery. In the 1950s, the kitchen prepared 10,000 meals per day. The elaborate kitchen equipment included 11 aluminum steam-jacketed kettles of 100 and 200 gallon capacity, 12 huge ranges, a lengthy gas griddle for frying, and a rotary gas

[653] Ragen and Finston, *Inside the World's Toughest Prison*, 185. Rules for operation of health care services at Stateville are contained on pages 510 to 525 of *Inside the World's Toughest Prison*, a copy of which is contained in Appendix B.
[654] Ibid., 187.
[655] Warren, *Next Time is for Life*, 129.

oven with a capacity of 56 pans, each of which held 40 to 50 pounds of food. Approximately 13,500 pounds of food were prepared daily, the bulk of which reportedly came from the prison farms. In the bakery 900 3-pound loaves of bread were baked daily. The huge electric ovens turned out 240 loaves at a time, and the slicing machine accommodated 500 loaves an hour. When sweet rolls or doughnuts were served, it requires the making of 750 dozen. Thirty-two inmates were employed here under the direction of a civilian baker. The vegetable room prepared more than two million pounds of fresh vegetables per year, the major portion of which was raised on the prison farm.

Adjacent to the Dining Room was the prison library, which contained 16,000 volumes. It was reported that the prisoners read an average of five books each per month, "probably five times as many as the population outside."[656] Chadman's *Cyclopedia of Law* was one of the most requested books; many of the inmates were self-taught law students.[657] Besides the main library at Stateville, four other libraries were located in the Stateville High School and at the Diagnostic Depot, the Honor Farm, and the Joliet Branch. The libraries at Joliet and Stateville had collections of books on philosophy and religion. The vocational school at Stateville had an art book collection. Each cellhouse also had a collection of fiction books.

On the south wall was the south gate, where materials and supplies were brought in and finished goods shipped out. Other than the main entrance to the prison, it provided the only opening in the huge walled enclosure. The south gate also led to the Honor Farm work assignments. Immediately outside the south gate was the Loading Platform, where items for the General Store were unloaded. The basement of the General Store was used for storage of bulk items, including sugar, flour, vegetables, and cleaning compounds.

The prison industry buildings west of the Dining Room and cellhouses included the furniture factory, which employed 285 inmates, covered 82,000 square feet, and was Stateville's largest industrial establishment. The furniture factory covered 82,000 square feet of area, and supplied furniture and mattresses for state institutions, offices, schools, and other tax supported bodies of Illinois. Inmates in the factory also produced reproductions of eighteenth century English and French provincial designs in mahogany, walnut, cherry, maple, oak, and other woods. There was also a book bindery where repair work was performed on the books in the library and for other state institutions and public schools.

Other industries included the canning plant, where enough excess produce from the farm was available to perform canning with the aid of a giant 1,000 gallon pressure cooker. In the late 1950s, $40,000 was spent on new machinery and equipment for the canning operation at Stateville, reportedly making it one of the finest plants for that purpose in the state. The largest output in any one day was 10,000 cans, with inmates working from 7:00 a.m. to midnight.

[656] George Wright and Chesly Manly, "Best Read Work is Encyclopedia of Law as Inmates Study to Fight Release," *Chicago Daily Tribune*, 4 July 1955.
[657] Between 1943 and 1954, a total of 27,890 motions and petitions for writs were mailed to state and federal courts. Approximately 1,000 inmates owned their own law books, and 400 inmates had typewriters for "writ writing." (George Wright and Chesly Manly, "Best Read Work is Encyclopedia of Law as Inmates Study to Fight Release," *Chicago Daily Tribune*, 4 July 1955.)

Canned vegetables, stored in the basement of one of the panopticon cellhouses, were often traded with other prisons in the state, such as tobacco with Menard or other vegetables with Vandalia.[658]

Annually, the soap factory produced four million pounds of soap, offered in 26 different products. The book bindery rehabilitated 300 books from schools and other institutions every day. The tailor shop employed 300 men, making uniforms for the Stateville guards and other state institutions. The profits from the commissary were used to purchase textbooks for the education program, equipment for the athletic and recreation programs, and films for inmate entertainment. It was reported in the 1950s that the prison work day was seven hours long, although it has been stated by others that the actual work day was much shorter, due to the shortage of prison industry jobs.[659]

In the 1950s, inmates could earn $10 to $12 per month and could only spend $5 per week in the prison commissary. Each inmate had an individual account book at the commissary, and the value of anything he brought was deducted from his credit balance. Inmates could buy candy bars, toilet articles, writing paper, and other items. Most inmates bought cigarettes, although chewing and smoking tobacco, made in the state penitentiary at Menard, were supplied free. Smoking was permitted on most jobs.

Inmate life in the cellhouses continued much as it had since their construction. Most cells contained more than one inmate, since the prison still accommodated more than its design capacity. Warden Ragen warned inmates in their rule book that:

> You are housed in a cell [that] is modern. It is equipped with toilet, lavatory and all facilities necessary for your comfort. You are expected to keep this equipment in perfect condition....Water is of great value and must not be wasted. Leaking faucets and toilets are to be reported to your cellhouse Keeper, and toilets flushed only when necessary.[660]

Cellhouse B was termed the "punishment house." Minor infractions of rules, such as talking in lineup for the Dining Room or misbuttoning a shirt were enforced more stringently than other cellhouses. New guards were often assigned to this cellhouse, both as punishment to the inmates and to break in the guards.[661]

Besides the four panopticon cellhouses and large Auburn Plan Cellhouse B, Stateville's Segregation Unit was reserved for prisoners who would not abide by prison rules. There was no limit on their segregation; they could stay there for the extent of their sentence unless they convinced the warden that they would conform to prison rules. Segregation cells had cots and the same plumbing facilities as those in the main cellhouses. Adjacent to the Segregation Unit was the Isolation Units for prisoners who were not chronic trouble makers but had committed serious

[658] Ragen and Finston, *Inside the World's Toughest Prison*, 364. Kantrowitz, in *Close Control: Managing a Maximum Security Prison,* reported that lack of warehousing space for finished goods prevented the prison industries from achieving optimum efficiency. This meant that goods had to be shipped off site more frequently, a task that was slowed down by the extensive security procedures necessary.
[659] Erickson, *Warden Ragen of Joliet*, 184-5. See also Kantrowitz, *Close Control: Managing a Maximum Security Prison*.
[660] Ragen and Finston, *Inside the World's Toughest Prison*, 63.
[661] Kantrowitz, *Close Control: Managing a Maximum Security Prison*, 125.

offenses against the rules. They were punished by confinement in isolation cells for a maximum of 15 days.

Prisoners serving indeterminate sentences were categorized or graded according to the Progressive Merit System into grades A, B, C, D, and E. Upon entering the prison they were graded a neutral C grade, and after three months of satisfactory behavior they were advanced to B grade. B grade entitled prisoners to five days of good time for every month they maintained good behavior. After a further three months they passed to A grade, in which they could earn 10 days a month. A prisoner was required to have remained in A grade at least three months and to have served his minimum sentence, less credit for good time, before eligibility for a parole board hearing. In cases of misconduct, prisoners were demoted to lower grades. In grade D, inmates lost five days a month (five days added to their sentence each month). Inmates in grade E lost 10 days each month. Each prisoner's name and number were shown on a card over his cell door. Red cards denoted escape risks. Blue cards showed that the prisoner was "out of grade," that is, in D or E. White cards were used for grades A, B, and C.[662]

Inmate education at this time consisted of elementary through the eighth grade, upon which inmates received diplomas from the Will County Superintendent of Schools. High School graduates were accredited by the Lockport Township High School. The correspondence school continued to be successful, with "more inmates...enrolled in correspondence courses than in the three other departments of the academic schools combined. At one time or another in his prison career, inmates take at least one high school course by correspondence."[663] Among the classes in which inmates participated was an art class taught by an outside artist who visited the prison once a week. Walls of the elementary and high schools were decorated with inmates' artwork.[664] In the fall of 1956, Chicago City Junior College began an experiment for college courses by open circuit television to the City of Chicago. After two years of negotiations, the college offered televised college credit courses in a television classroom in the basement of one of the panopticon cellhouses.[665]

[662] Men imprisoned for "sex offenses" and known homosexuals had yellow cards on their cell doors. By the mid-1950s, this practice was stopped since it was discovered that "they enjoyed the advertising" (Erickson, *Warden Ragen of Joliet*, 130).
Warden Ragen stated in *Inside the World's Toughest Prison,* "The practice of perverted or unnatural sex activities is so disgusting and repulsive if would seem unnecessary to warn anyone against it...Sex perversion of every description is strictly prohibited. Anyone found practicing such acts or caught in a compromising position, or in bed with another inmate, will be disciplined by isolation, demotion in grade, statutory time revoked and subjected to prosecution in the local courts." (Ragen and Finston, *Inside the World's Toughest Prison*, 54.)
Ragen included a discussion of homosexuality in one section of his book. He provided a classification of the "types" of homosexual, the interaction of these individuals in prison society, and the prison administration's efforts to repress these individuals and their actions. While his discussion reflects the general moral attitudes of society and opinions of psychological practice of the time, his openly frank discussion of this issue was somewhat unique for the times. Furthermore, his analysis of the implications of this issue for prison security was insightful. See Ragen and Finston, *Inside the World's Toughest Prison*, 379-85, and Kantrowitz, *Close Control: Managing a Maximum Security Prison,* 167.
[663] Ragen and Finston, *Inside the World's Toughest Prison*, 194.
[664] Inmate art fairs conducted in the yard in front of the Administration Building were an annual occurrence during the later 1950s and 1960s.
[665] Ragen and Finston, *Inside the World's Toughest Prison*, 195-6.

Vocational classes included sign and display painting, welding, radio and television repair, body and fender repair, carpentry, masonry, refrigeration, and many others, totaling more than 42 in all. The shortest vocational course was for welders (six months) and the longest was for printers (six years). Pupils enrolled in the printing course published the monthly magazine called "Time." The auto shop had $20,000 worth of equipment, including cutaway engines donated by Ford Motor Company. Prison employees could have work performed on their cars, paying only for necessary materials. Profits from the prison commissary were used to purchase textbooks and equipment for the vocational and academic schools, as well as athletic equipment, movies, and other amusements.

It was reported that 63 percent of the Stateville and Joliet inmates attended religious services. Protestant, Roman Catholic, Episcopal; Christian Scientist, Lutheran, Baptist State Convention of Illinois, Orthodox Christian, and Jewish services were held. Two chaplains were active at Stateville – one Protestant and one Roman Catholic. Six part-time clergy were also active.

The Honor Farm fields were laid out in 80 square acre sections. About 200 acres were used for buildings, yards, and roads. A total of 1,700 acres was used for tillable land. Garden crops were planted in 350 of the 1,700 acres, the produce from which provided an annual supply for the inmate and staff population. A five year rotation was used in the fields: two years of corn, one of oats, and two years of hay. The use of lime from the Joliet Prison quarry, phosphate, manure, and the growth of leguminous hay improved the soil, so that the produce was improved from 30 to 35 bushels of corn per acre in the 1930s to 80 bushels of corn per acre in the 1950s.[666] Livestock on the farm included litters of 2,400 pigs every six months and approximately 300 head of cattle. Milk cows produced 5,000 gallons per month. In one year in the 1950s, the farm produced $420,734 worth of produce. Besides contemporary farm machinery, teams of horses and mules were also still in use in the 1950s.[667]

Work on the farm detail was a coveted assignment, and inmates were carefully screened before assignment to one of the 175 permanent jobs on the farm. Inmates were first assigned to the Farm Detail, which could include as many as 150 inmates. These inmates lived within the walls at night and worked on the farm and grounds during the day. Following a period of good conduct on Farm Detail, inmates were allowed to live on the farm in the Honor Dormitory. Only inmates with the highest conduct rating were allowed into the program.

[666] The Honor Farm fields had been farmed for at least 50 years before the state obtained the property.
[667] Ibid., 357-9.

Security and the Guards of Stateville

> *Security means many things – trying to escape, inciting riots, sex relationships, starting fires...and other more common violations of the rules such as, pilfering, conniving, and agitating. Inmates who have been caught in the most serious of these violations will have been placed in grades and denied some of the privileges enjoyed by other inmates.*[668]

> *It was boasted that Illinois had one of the most modern prison systems, with an excellent method of classifying criminals and a staff of competent criminologists, sociologists, psychologists, etc., who made an attempt to understand the inmates in their care. And it does seem that, with all that professional skill, there should have been real progress in rehabilitation....But there were so few specialists and so many inmates and so little time. And above all so little co-operation from the real authorities, the guards. What did they really know about criminals? The guards were just like policemen, with the same viewpoint. We were all bad and had to be punished. People could talk all they wanted to about reform and rehabilitation, but we knew by the way we were treated how the guards felt. The psychologists and the sociologists also knew and were defeated by it.*[669]

Such activities as counting of inmates, lining up and serving meals, and movement to work assignments and recreation yards required strict adherence to time schedules and maintenance of security. The schedule was rigidly controlled, but also had to allow for activities not part of a daily routine, such as inmate meetings with visitors, doctor and dentist visits, and attendance at special prison programs. One example of the magnitude of daily prison activity was that 3,500 inmates were fed in two sittings within a one hour time period, three times a day.[670]

Control of the inmates' economy was another method that Ragen used to maintain order at Stateville. This was done by banning possession of currency and limiting the amount inmates could spend (in credit) at the inmate commissary. After Ragen became Director of Public Safety in Springfield, his successor as warden Frank Pate successfully limited the amount inmates could spend per week at the commissary.

The system of inmate regulations, as developed by Warden Ragen, was codified in the late 1950s. It warned inmates that:

> ...if at any time a mass assault is started and you have no desire to participate you are to go to your cell in an orderly manner and remain there, which will indicate that you have no desire to become a part of such mass disturbance. We must inform those who do participate in such conduct that the institution is authorized and has a trained, heavily armed riot squad which can and will move in immediately with the intention of taking action even by the use of firearms, and those who take part or encourage conduct of this type, will find themselves dealt with severely, with perhaps loss of life as the final result. We will not comprise or accede to any demands. If you have any complaint, you will be given an individual hearing. Groups or committees will not be recognized at any time.[671]

[668] Statement written by Warden Joseph Ragen in guard training literature, quoted in Kantrowitz, *Close Control: Managing a Maximum Security Prison*, 81.
[669] Warren, *Next Time is for Life*, 201.
[670] Kantrowitz, *Close Control: Managing a Maximum Security Prison*, 65. Chapter 4 of this book details the complex daily routine of inmates during the period of the author's employment at Stateville (1957 to 1963).

Ragen utilized inmate informants, known as the "executive club," to provide information on the prison population to himself, the assistant wardens, and guard captains.[672] But much of Ragen's control of the inmate population was based on punishment. It began with reports of guards on rule violations by inmates. Loss of privileges (defined by Ragen as everything other than the necessities of food, clothing, and shelter) would result for even minor infractions. More significant problems with inmates would lead to temporary relocation to the isolation unit for one to fifteen days. Each of the 20 isolation cells could house several inmates at a time. Inmates were limited to a blanket for sleeping on the floor, fed once a day, and not allowed out of the cell except for showers once a week or visits to the prison doctor or dentist. The next step was the Segregation Unit, where inmates were kept in one of the 32 one-man cells, where they were fed three times a day, but only allowed one hour out of the cells each day in a separate recreation yard.[673]

The use of physical force was a violation of inmates' civil rights, although not recognized as such at the time. Ordinary guards and inmate "goons" (inmates used by the prison administration to control other inmates) were not allowed to use physical force.[674] Only a select group of guards, usually lieutenants, was allowed to use violence. Another means of limitation was only allowing force and violence on inmates in portions of the prison, such as the Isolation and Segregation Units, where it was outside the view of the general population. Violence was also generally limited to inmates who had taken physical action against a guard.[675] The key to this entire system was control of the guard force. Without this, guards would have been more likely to take action against inmates wherever and whenever they deemed appropriate, with the potential of spreading violence throughout the prison population.

New guards were trained in the officer's school, which consisted of 480 hours of work, eight hours a day, over 60 days. Guards worked eight hours a day, six days a week, and were often made to work extra hours without compensation. For perceived or actual infractions of the numerous rules, guards were required to work one or more days without pay.[676] Ragen also charged his guard force with responsibilities for the maintenance of the institution. Guards were to look for and report such conditions as roof leaks, peeling paint, or other potential evidence of moisture movement through masonry walls.[677]

Guards were forbidden to fraternize with inmates; even conversation was not allowed. Searches were conducted by guards of other guards' lockers for alcohol or other contraband. The personal

[671] Ragen and Finston, *Inside the World's Toughest Prison*, 95.
[672] Kantrowitz, *Close Control: Managing a Maximum Security Prison*, 126.
[673] Ibid., 127.
[674] An exception to this rule was the inmate staff at the Detention Hospital, where mentally ill inmates were held. The use of physical force against other inmates in this instance was solely in self defense. See Kantrowitz, *Close Control: Managing a Maximum Security Prison*, 143.
[675] It has been reported that these guards "...were skilled: I never heard of their doing any permanent damage." (Kantrowitz, *Close Control: Managing a Maximum Security Prison*, 136.)
[676] Chapter 10 of Ragen and Finston's *Inside the World's Toughest Prison* contains "Rules for Prison Employees."
[677] Ragen and Finston, *Inside the World's Toughest Prison*, 420.

lives of guards were required to be above reproach. Informants were cultivated in the guard force to observe forbidden activities, such as gambling, or plans among the guards to organize a union.[678] Order and cleanliness in the guard staff areas were enforced by Ragen by threats to cut off water or electricity to the guard barracks.[679]

Although early on Ragen was forced for political reasons to take young men from southern Illinois as guards, he ultimately hired most of the guard force from that region for the remainder of his term as warden. These individuals were often more loyal and accepted a lower wage than those hired from northern Illinois. However, turnover was high in the guard force. Many left to work in more lucrative industries in the region, especially during and after World War II.

Due to limitations in appropriations from the state legislature, guard pay was low for the standard of living in northern Illinois. Guards in the lowest bracket received only $280 a month plus their meals while on duty, uniforms, and bus transportation. A sergeant received $300 a month, a lieutenant $335, a captain $387 plus his home and groceries, and an assistant wardens $484 each plus a home and full maintenance.[680] There was a considerable turnover in the lower brackets. Between one-quarter and one-third of the guards lived in the barracks constructed in 1943.[681] Also, guards could obtain many services for free, such as automobile, radio, and television repair from inmates in the prison.[682]

During the Ragen era, Stateville, like many prisons in the United States, was a relatively secure and stable institution. Following Ragen's departure, numerous changes occurred in the inmate population at Stateville, changes that paralleled trends found throughout the country's prison system. The administration and guard staff at Stateville were unable or unwilling to respond to these changes, resulting in increased security requirements to maintain order. Under Warden Ragen, five guards supervised 500 to 700 inmates; by 1991, 11 guards supervised 240 inmates.[683]

Stateville, Celebrity, and Popular Culture

Stateville attracted the attention of not only sociology students, academics, and ordinary tourists, but celebrities including, in its early years, Zazu Pitts and Rocky Marciano. Soprano Mary Garden visited in 1930, singing "Annie Laurie," "Coming Through the Rye," and the "Habanera" from Bizet's *Carmen* to her own accompaniment on a piano in the circular dining room.[684] Other celebrities who have made films in the prison have included James Cagney, James Earl Jones, Arnold Schwarzeneger, Sean Penn, John Belushi, Dan Aykroyd, LeVar Burton, Robert Conrad, Nick Nolte, Robert Downey, Jr., Woody Harrelson, Tommy Lee Jones, and Rodney Dangerfield.

[678] It was only after Joseph Ragen left Stateville that the guard force unionized. This movement began in the early 1960s, with an underground guards' association. In 1967 the guards voted to join the American Federation of State, County, and Municipal Employees (AFSCME).
[679] Jacobs, *Stateville: The Penitentiary in Mass Society*, 39 and 56.
[680] Several houses are located on the perimeter of the site. See sheet 2 of 7 of the archival drawing documentation.
[681] Wright & Manly.
[682] Jacobs, *Stateville: The Penitentiary in Mass Society*, 46.
[683] Kantrowitz, *Close Control: Managing a Maximum Security Prison*, 117.
[684] Erickson, *Warden Ragen of Joliet*, 227; "Garden Sings for Convicts," *Chicago Herald and Examiner*, 29 January 1930.

Stateville, with its unique panopticon cellhouses, has figured prominently in American culture as an iconic image of a prison. The prison has been used as a filming location since the James Stewart film *Call Northside 777* was made in the early 1950s. The film tells the account of Joseph Majczek, wrongly convicted for the December 9, 1932, murder of Chicago Police Officer William Lundy. While he was imprisoned in Stateville, his mother saved money for 11 years scrubbing floors, saving $5,000 and advertising for information on the real killers. Reporter James P. McGuire, played by Stewart, of the *Chicago Times* investigated the case, uncovering evidence that exonerated Majczek. The film, co-starring Richard Conte, Lee J. Cobb, and Helen Walker, with E.G. Marshall in a small supporting role, was filmed on location in Chicago as well as at Stateville.[685]

Over the ensuing decades, numerous other films and television programs used Stateville for location shots. These have included the films *White Heat*, *The Blues Brothers*, *Bad Boys*, *Natural Born Killers*; the television film *Will*, based on the memoirs of G. Gordon Liddy; the television series *Gabriel's Fire* and *Quantum Leap*; and an MTV music video. Often producers found the prison to be too clean, paid to make it "grittier," and paid again to refurbish it. When producers were barred from using certain areas, a replica would be constructed in a film studio.

Producers who wanted to film at Stateville first contacted the Director of the Illinois Film Office in Chicago. Next, the script was submitted to the Illinois Department of Corrections for approval. If the prison warden agreed to the shoot, a chain of command was set up to insure the security of the prison and the film crew. In compensation, film companies would provide needed equipment or repairs to the existing facility. To compensate prison staff for their services, donations were often made to the employee benefit fund or training equipment supplied. Any additional usage fees went the state's general revenue fund.[686]

During the filming of the Nick Nolte film *Weeds* in 1987, 250 inmates were included as extras; it was reported that they followed direction better than "civilian" extras from the outside. However, sequences such as staged murder in one of the prison's tunnels and a large scale riot in the prison yard, which also included some of Stateville's guards, presented a challenge to the overall security to the institution.[687]

[685] Location shots in Stateville included the exterior of the "Electric Eye" building (at the end of the film), the second floor corridor of the Administration Building, the warden's office (which may have been a replica on a film sound stage), the Hospital, and one of the panopticon cellhouses. One scene in the film portrays two inmates in one of the cells of the panopticon cellhouses, which of course were originally designed for only one inmate, reflecting the reality of overcrowded conditions.
[686] Loretta Pyrdek, "Stateville Stardom," *Chicago Tribune* (Southwest edition), 7 November 1993, sec. 18, p. 1.
[687] Lynn Emmerman, "Hollywood Does Time in Stateville," *Chicago Tribune*, 24 February 1987, sec. 5, p. 1.

Stateville in the 1950s

> *It would be well to remember that under the law, men confined in the prisons of the State are to be clothed, fed, housed and given medical care only. All other concessions are privileges granted by the officials of the institution and the Department of Public Safety, and these will be granted only if your conduct warrants them.*[688]

In July 1952, ground was broken for a trailer camp for prison guards southeast of the prison. Because of the low wages the guards received, they often could not afford to rent or buy housing in the Joliet area. The trailer camp was meant to solve this problem, by allowing guards to purchase or rent more affordable trailer housing. The site included a central wash house with toilet and bathing facilities. By 1953, there were 27 trailers on the site.[689]

During the Korean War, testing continued on the malaria research program, when work at the prison included soaking soldiers' clothing in insecticides and mite repellents.. Prior to the war, 54 anti-malarial drugs were tested, resulting in the formulation of the drug Primaquine, which was used on troops in Korea. Additional testing studied the toxicity of Primaquine, which could damage blood cells in certain African and Mediterranean ethnic groups. This contributed to other studies outside of the prison program, as it was reported that information was used in a study on the migration of peoples such as the Polynesians.[690]

With renovation of the cellblocks and dining facilities having been performed at the old Joliet prison several years before, it now was unlikely that the older institution would be abandoned. In 1952 the sheet metal and tin shops were moved from Stateville back to the old prison, where more room was available. The room formerly occupied by the sheet metal shop at Stateville was reconditioned and the upholstery room moved down from the second floor. The space formerly used for the upholstery room was made into a storage room for the soap factory.[691] Additional construction work at Stateville included a separate outside coal track and storm shelter for the inmates, constructed west of the wall. Construction of an oil house and paint room was accomplished by the building of an addition to the north well house. Work was performed on the institution's water supply.[692]

[688] Ragen and Finston, *Inside the World's Toughest Prison*, 61.
[689] *State of Illinois Department of Public Safety Annual Report, July 1, 1952 to June 30, 1953*, 43. Drawings from 1967 called for the expansion of the trailer court; however, this expansion was not implemented. (Lorentz A. Johanson, Supervising Architect, State of Illinois Department of Public Works and Buildings, Division of Architecture and Engineering, New Trailer Court at Illinois State Penitentiary, Stateville Branch, Joliet, Illinois, Sheet A-1. 16 June 1967 [scheme without park]; Lorentz A. Johanson, Supervising Architect, State of Illinois Department of Public Works and Buildings, Division of Architecture and Engineering, New Trailer Court at Illinois State Penitentiary, Stateville Branch, Joliet, Illinois, Sheet A-1. 16 June 1967 [scheme with park].)
[690] Ragen and Finston, *Inside the World's Toughest Prison*, 393-5. Governors Dwight Green and Adlai Stevenson had rewarded some of the inmate volunteers imprisoned for lesser crimes with commuted sentences.
[691] *State of Illinois Department of Public Safety Annual Report, July 1, 1952 to June 30, 1953*, 44.
[692] This work consisted of the following (Ibid., 14):

On 10 April 1953, a fire in the basement of the furniture factory destroyed more than $100,000 worth of materials along with the wiring leading to each machine on the first floor. Two inmates died from smoke inhalation. After the fire, the basement was equipped with fire walls with the ability to separate each space by closing fire doors. Later in the year a windstorm destroyed a building used as an industrial warehouse, outside of the enclosure at the southeast corner of the wall. Crop loss and roof damage were suffered all over the farm. The inmate population at Joliet-Stateville was 4,259 on 1 July 1953, with 576 guards employed.

By 1955, building repair work on the farm included the installation of new water lines, installation of a cooling system at the slaughterhouse, and new boilers at the hog house. Crop rotation, liming and phosphating, and laying of manure were helping restore the fertility of the soil. Work inside the wall included overhaul of three boilers at the Powerhouse, maintenance of the coal conveyor, and installation of new floodlights on the Powerhouse roof. Repointing of the masonry was performed on the Powerhouse. The Bakery was remodeled with new equipment installed. The Master Mechanic's Shop was remodeled with equipment laid out for improved supervision. Drainage in the prison yard was renovated, with the installation of new storm sewers.[693]

The medical facilities were reported to be providing "needed medical treatment since many inmates had not ever received proper care before they went to prison who because of negligence or inability to obtain medical assistance before" and that in all probability would return to society better equipped physically than they were upon admission."[694] Medical testing using inmate volunteers was continuing in cooperation with the U.S. Army, Navy, and Public Health Service.

Additional testing was performed in the hospital in 1953, involving personnel from Argonne National Laboratory. The testing involved the measurement of radon gas expelled from an inmate's breath due to the accumulation of radium in their bodies.[695] Stateville was selected because of the higher amounts of radium in the groundwater in the region than Chicago. By selecting inmates who were originally from the Chicago area, and knowing the length of their confinement, the scientists and physicians running the program could determine how much radium had been absorbed versus the amount of radon gas expelled by breathing. The testing was reported to be performed to determine the amount of radiation that is expelled after the ingestion

Turbine Deep Well Pump	$16,291.17
Rehabilitation of Well No. 4	7,119.86
Water Softening System	40,487.09
Repairs for Center Well	2,185.46
Outside Well, South Gate	13,207.81
Rehabilitation and Modernizing Heating Plant In Dormitory	18,492.62
Rehabilitation of North Well	5,163.06
Repairs to Well No. 3	17,956.78

[693] *State of Illinois Department of Public Safety Annual Report, July 1, 1954 to June 30, 1955*, 41-43.
[694] Ibid., 44.
[695] For additional information on human radiation experiments in America during this period, see Eileen Welsome, *The Plutonium Files: America's Secret Medical Experiments in the Cold War* (New York: Dial Press, 1999).

of radioactive substances.[696] In a letter to Warden Joseph Ragen, Argonne National Laboratory group leader Andrew F. Stehney and director John E. Rose described the intent of the experiments:

> The research at Stateville is part of an investigation into the toxicity of radium, which is being carried on by the Argonne National Laboratory under the direction of Messrs. John E. Rose and Leonidas D. Marinelli, physicists of the Radiological Physics Division, Dr. Austin M. Bruce of the Division of Biological and Medical Research, and Dr. Robert J. Hasterlik of the Argonne Cancer Research Hospital. This program is concerned with the assessment of the amount of radium which can be deposited in the human body without deleterious effects during an individual's lifetime. Aside from its direct value, this information is important to the Atomic Energy Commission as one of the means of accurately determining safe levels of many radioactive elements for which information on humans is not available. This, in turn, may conceivably lead to substantial savings in operation of nuclear installations by eliminating unnecessary precautions without fear of injury to the public.[697]

During the testing, the 50 inmates who participated in the tests were required to wear a full face mask breathing purified air for 16 to 18 hours in order to remove atmospheric radon gas from their bodies. The inmates could not eat or drink during this period.[698] The program directors summarized the results of the testing:

1. The concentration of radium in Stateville water is approximately 4 micromicrocuries per liter. Concentration 10 times greater than this are considered safe by the Subcommittee on Permissible Internal Dose of the National Committee on Radiation Protection. Water from several communities – Aurora, Elmhurst, Lemont, Lockport, and Joliet – which also have deep wells, contains radium of a concentration similar to that at Stateville.
2. The largest amount of radium found in any Stateville inmate is 0.5 millimicrocuries; body contents 200 times greater than this are considered safe by the Subcommittee on Permissible Internal Dose of the National Committee on Radiation Protection (see National Bureau of Standards Handbook 52).
3. The amount of radium in inmates at Stateville is increasing at about one-half of the rate expected on the basis of other work (a very important finding).
4. After 15 years at Stateville, inmates have only about 5 times as much radium as Chicago residents who receive only one-hundredth as much radium in their water. The explanation is that both groups get some radium in their food. The total ingestion per person of radium in food and water was determined by analysis of excreta and found to be only 5 to 10 times greater for Stateville inmates than for Chicago residents.[699]

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[696] "Radioactivity Tests Take Convicts Breath Away," *Chicago Sun-Times,* 21 July 1953.
[697] Andrew F. Stehney, Group Leader, and John E. Rose, Director, Argonne National Laboratory, to Joseph E. Ragen, 17 November 1954.
[698] Ibid. In Appendix C are reproductions of historic photographs (80 and 81) that show inmates during the radon gas testing.
[699] Ibid. In an interview 20 years after the testing program, former Argonne National Laboratory director John E. Rose described the work that he and Andrew F. Stehney performed (Lauriston S. Taylor, "[Interview with] John E. Rose," *Vignettes of Early Radiation Workers,* Lauriston S. Taylor and Kelly G. Sauer, ed. (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 1984, 256.):

> Well, we discovered that the deep water wells which supply almost all of the water supply to the State of Illinois below Chicago, below Lake Michigan, were radioactive. We found wells with radium contents as high as forty microcuries per liter, which is many, many times the present permissible dose for radium. By measuring prisoners at Stateville and measuring teeth, we got so we could look at a tooth, for instance, measure a tooth, and measure how long – if you told us the town – we could tell roughly how long you lived in the town, drinking this water.

In the mid-1950s, Joliet-Stateville held more than half of the state prison population of Illinois. One figure from the period listed 4,457 inmates, of whom 3,063 were in Stateville, 1,066 in Joliet, 159 on the farm, and 169 in the Diagnostic Depot (the former Joliet Women's Prison). Of these, 3,329 were sentenced from Cook County, with slightly more than half African American. There were 129 barbers, 259 cooks, 140 interior decorators and painters, 617 laborers, 112 machine operators, 1000 machinists, 159 auto mechanics, 107 porters, 110 restaurant workers, and 240 truck drivers. It was reported that the inmate population also included 2 "newsmen," clergymen, lawyers, physicians; 7 artists, 36 bartenders, 8 brokers, 7 businessmen, 10 contractors, 30 electricians, 36 engineers, 45 farmers, 2 gardeners, 4 hatters, 8 "horsemen," 56 musicians, 11 male nurses, 32 plumbers, 89 salesmen, 5 policemen, 91 tailors, 75 welders, and 91 who listed no occupation.[700]

Inmate population at the end of fiscal year 1959 was 4,727 at Joliet-Stateville.[701] From an inventory value of less than $1,000,000, employing 6 percent of the inmate population, the program had expanded by 1959 to a multiple trade program valued at more than $6,000,000 utilizing approximately 30 percent of the inmate body. The garment department of the tailor shop was expanded with the construction of a new wing 8,100 square feet in size. A new re-weaving program was inaugurated to enable inmates to learn the art of repairing hole-damage caused by cigarettes, acid burns, and tears. This department employed approximately 400 men. The bookbindery was enlarged with a large stockroom added. Bookbinding employed approximately 100 workers. The furniture factory had 270 inmates employed. However, the mattress shop was moved to the Joliet prison. This space occupied by the mattress shop was to be utilized by the sheet metal shop, which was in the process of being moved once again from the Joliet prison to Stateville.

At the vocational school, a new machine shop program was inaugurated in addition to the existing radio and television repair, sign painting, welding, refrigeration, printing, typewriter repair, automobile repair, body and fender repair, and janitorial service programs. Approximately 200 inmates were involved in vocational activities.

Approximately 1,035 inmates were enrolled in the academic program, and of this total 820 received passing grades. More than 100 separate courses were listed in the correspondence course catalog, ranging from introductory algebra to integral calculus; beginning grammar to college rhetoric; and a choice of nine foreign languages. Inmates still made up most of the teaching staff.

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[700] George Wright and Chesly Manly, "How Ragen Routed Big Shot Rule at Stateville," *Chicago Daily Tribune,* 10 July 1955.
[701] *State of Illinois Department of Public Safety Annual Report, July 1, 1957 to June 30, 1959*, 40.

Wright Junior College of Chicago offered courses for credit via open-circuit television, beginning in 1958 to a pilot group of 12 inmates.[702]

Extensive repairing and re-roofing of Cellhouses C, D, E, and F, the Dining Room, General Store buildings, furniture factory, and tailor shop were being undertaken. Numerous smaller renovation projects were also in progress along with the larger re-roofing projects, such as replacement of the south gate ($12,560); roof and sheeting replacement on one of the barns ($5,800); a new milk cooler ($9,230); and roof repairs to the Administration Building ($4,180).[703]

Programs at the hospital included a blood bank, the ongoing malaria program, hepatitis research, and a Northwestern University study to determine psychological reactions after administering certain common drugs, in which 264 volunteers participated.

It was reported in the early 1960s that the water table in the area was dropping about ten feet per year, requiring that the water pumps be set deeper. For this reason, regulations were in effect for the conservation of water.[704]

1961 to 1970: The Beginning of Change

> *...one cannot hope to understand the goals, strains, and conflicts in the Illinois prison system without assessing the Ragen legacy.*[705]

In 1961, Ragen was named the director of the Department of Public Safety. His deputy at Stateville, Frank Pate, became the new warden of the institution. Pate had begun at Stateville as a guard in 1939, rising to the positions of chief guard and assistant warden. With Ragen serving as director, "Ragenism" spread to other prisons in the state as senior officers and staff at Stateville were named by the new director as wardens of Pontiac, Vandalia, and Vienna.

Ragen still had a significant influence on the daily operations at Stateville. He continued to spend a significant amount of time at the institution. Ragen lived in Joliet and commuted to Springfield to conduct operations of the Department of Public Safety. However, he retired in 1965 and was replaced as director with his rival, Warden Ross Randolph from Menard.[706] Over the next few years, Ragen's influence at Stateville and at the other state prisons began to wane.

Between 1965 and 1970, numerous conflicts arose within the walls of Stateville, the result of changes in the inmate population that had been occurring in the 1950s and 1960s. Inmates sentenced in the 1940s and 1950s served longer sentences than in the ensuing decades. Inmate turnover was lower, with approximately 1,000 new inmates annually contributing to the inmate

[702] "Alumnus Directs Education at Illinois Prison." *Time* 3, no. 2, February 1961, 9.
[703] *State of Illinois Department of Public Safety Annual Report, July 1, 1957 to June 30, 1959*, 15.
[704] Ragen and Finston, *Inside the World's Toughest Prison*, 418.
[705] Jacobs, *Stateville: The Penitentiary in Mass Society*, 31.
[706] Ross Randolph was a college graduate with professional experience in education, including Director of Education at Illinois State Penitentiary, Pontiac Branch, and 11 years with the Federal Bureau of Investigation before returning to Illinois in 1952 to serve as assistant to newly elected Governor William Stratton. Subsequently he was appointed warden at Pontiac followed by Menard.

population, as opposed to about 2,400 new inmates annually in the early 1970s.[707] In 1962, changes in the Illinois criminal code led to an increased number of paroles, resulting in the loss of many inmates who had been in supervisory positions in the prison industries.[708]

The state's prison industries were declining over the same period. In 1950, the approximate sales of the prison industry system totaled $1,300,000; in 1955, $1,550,000; in 1960, $2,350,000; in 1965, $2,700,000; in 1970, $2,300,000; in 1971, $2,100,000; and in 1972, $1,600,000.[709] Considering the effects of inflation, it is clear that the demand for prison made goods was declining rapidly. By the 1960s, only 30 percent of the inmate population were employed in prison industries, and the decline in production led to even fewer jobs for inmates.[710]

Between 1953 and 1974, the proportion of inmates who were African American increased from 47 percent to 75 percent.[711] Over nearly the same period, over 80 percent of the inmates at Stateville were from the Chicago metropolitan region of Cook County.[712] By the late 1960s, many of the new inmates were former members of street gangs in Chicago.[713] Social changes at Stateville were exemplified by the struggle of the Black Muslims in the institution to gain recognition as a religious group. Before the 1960s, many of the racial inequalities of mainstream society were present in Stateville. African American inmates were rarely given jobs of authority or responsibility. During this same period, the number of African American guards appointed at Stateville increased from approximately 30 guards in the 1940s to 200 in 1973, although much of this increase occurred in the late 1960s and early 1970s and the majority of the guards were whites from down state.[714]

In the 1960s, religious services at Stateville included Roman Catholic, Christian Science, Lutheran, Episcopal, Jewish, Baptist, and Greek Orthodox. Informal meetings of Black Muslims began in the early 1960s, and in June 1964 a group of Black Muslims held in segregation presented a list of written demands to the administration, the first in the prison's history. Foremost of their demands was the use of the Chapel for religious services. Warden Pate and Director Ragen were eventually forced to answer their argument in court for not recognizing the Black Muslims. The historic case was *Cooper v. Pate*, a significant early case in the prisoner rights movement of the 1960s. Although the Black Muslims won only a partial victory, it was the

[707] Jacobs, *Stateville: The Penitentiary in Mass Society*, 48-49.
[708] Ibid., 57.
[709] Ibid., 233.
[710] "Pictorial History of Stateville-Joliet," 19.
[711] Jacobs, *Stateville: The Penitentiary in Mass Society*, 235. Jacobs provides the following figures for Joliet-Stateville; it should be noted that his source listed Hispanic American inmates as "white":

Year	Percent "White"	Percent African American
1953	53	47
1955	48	52
1960	42	58
1965	40	60
1970	39	61
1974	25	75

[712] Ibid., 242.
[713] Ibid., 173.
[714] Ibid., 244.

beginning of a series of social changes in the institution. It was also the beginning of the increase of violence at the prison, as the old order of Ragenism began to break down but was not replaced by another effective system.[715]

By 1961, the inmate population at Joliet-Stateville (which was still operated as one institution with two branches) was 5,214.[716] School drop outs comprised nearly 80 percent of the inmate population.[717] In the 1961 Department of Public Safety report, it was reported that more than 900 inmates were enrolled in the prison's academic programs, with 221 in grade school, 132 in high school, 48 in the television college, and 458 taking correspondence courses. Twenty-four graduated from grade school, sixteen from high school, and eight from the television college. Also in 1961, the vocational school was relocated to a larger building; the additional space allowed for 48 inmates to repair and renovate toys for the Marine Corps "Toys for Tots" program. Other projects at the institution included installation of air conditioning units in the operating room and pharmacy of the Hospital. Finally, new hog houses were constructed with corrugated aluminum roofing, concrete flooring, and concrete masonry unit walls. The new structures included heaters, aiding in maintenance of the proper temperature for newly born piglets.[718]

Two years later, the average daily population at Joliet-Stateville was 4,871 inmates. The industrial shops at the prison completed a 317 page catalog of the goods available at Joliet-Stateville, Menard, Pontiac, and the State Reformatory for Women at Dwight.[719]

The inmate news magazine "Time" reported on a number of issues in the mid-1960s. The furniture factory was responsible for designing many special items, including overstuffed domestic furniture and custom office desks. The vocational school included departments of carpentry, brick masonry, plumbing, electrical wiring, radio and television repair, auto mechanics, welding, small motor repair, typewriter repair, and printing.[720]

The Hospital at Stateville contained more than a hundred beds; consultation and examining rooms; two modern operating rooms (in the adjacent Operating Room building); a pathology laboratory; an X-ray department; a large Permanent Ward for long term patients; a first-aid room with staff on duty 24 hours daily; a pharmacy and dispensary; and a fully staffed kitchen. Inmate medical files were:

[715] Ibid., 59-65.
[716] *State of Illinois Department of Public Safety Annual Report*, 1961, 25.
[717] Paul Powell, Secretary of State, ed., *Blue Book of the State of Illinois, 1965-66*, 706.
[718] *State of Illinois Department of Public Safety Annual Report*, 1961, 25-28.
[719] Ibid., 36-40.
[720] "Eyes / Mind / Open??" *Time* 7, no. 1, January 1965, 4 – 6, 25.

> …kept up to date so that the doctor can review their medical history to properly diagnose their illnesses and prescribe medication and treatment best suited to them as individuals. Any change in a person's health is immediately noted and remedial care is prescribed. All inmates and personnel are required to have yearly chest x-rays, preventative shots, and those handling food, barbers and other working where infections may spread, are periodically given thorough physical examinations.[721]

The hospital facility at Stateville was still considered one of the most modern in the Illinois prison system, and was used for the care of seriously ill inmates from Joliet, Pontiac, and other prisons in the state. The only exceptions to this policy were cases of tuberculosis, although many cases of tuberculosis were referred to the Stateville Hospital due to its superior facilities. Among the new medical equipment was a "brain wave machine." In the early 1960s, testing carried out under the malaria program involved the ingestion of tryptophan, a naturally occurring amino acid, and kynurenine. Inmates received a fee of $20 for participation in the program.[722]

A 1965 issue of the inmate publication "Time" stated that 3,000 acres of land were worked by the Honor Farm: 2,200 acres from state owned lands and 800 acres leased from private land owners. The main crops were alfalfa, hay, corn, and oats, used primarily for hog and cattle feed. In 1964, 75,446 tons of alfalfa and 43,395 bushels of corn were reaped from the farm. Cattle and hog production on the farm yielded 276,988 pounds of pork, 448,475 pounds of beef, 294 pounds of geese, and 78 pounds of duck. Dairy cows were milked twice a day for a period of about 305 days a year.[723]

Work on the malaria research at the Stateville Branch Army Project continued. On 24 May 1965, a meeting was held at the hospital between six national medical figures and four staff physicians. Some of latest developments discussed included studies in Parasite Chemotherapy. In 1965, 100 inmates were involved in the program as volunteers, with about a quarter of the volunteers "laying-in" as patients at any given time. Besides the malaria project at Stateville, there were two other prison programs: one at the Federal Penitentiary at Atlanta and another at the county jail in Kansas City, Missouri.[724]

By the mid-1960s, a staff member from Silver Cross Hospital in Joliet, Dr. Hoffman, cared for patients at Joliet-Stateville. His specialty was abdominal surgery, and he was reported to perform operations at the Hospital at Stateville nearly every Tuesday.[725] The dental laboratory was under the direction of Dr. Kelly, who "moves from chair to chair, mouth to mouth, tooth to tooth with surprising speed and skill."[726]

Work on the prison industries in the mid-1960s included the cannery, which packaged the produce of the Honor Farm; textile and clothing department; shoe factory, and soap factory,

[721] S. Jackson, "A Day with Our Surgeon," *Time* 7, no. 2, February 1965, 16.
[722] Documents relating to this testing are contained in the electronic archives of the Human Radiation Experiments Information Management System, search query "Stateville" (http://search.dis.anl.gov).
[723] Glen Marsh and A. Dean Hill, "Honor Farm Keeps in Step," *Time* 7, no. 4, April 1965, 25-26.
[724] "Army Malaria Project Studied as Stateville," *Time* 7, no. 7, July 1965, 4.
[725] Edward Sieg, "Accent on Health," *Time* 7, no. 8, August 1965, 14.
[726] Ibid., 15.

which produced three primary products, including an ammonia sanitizer; plain, perfumed, and medicated liquid soaps; and coconut oil shampoo. Other shops for inmate labor included the book bindery, sheet metal shops, and furniture factory.

The average daily population at Joliet and Stateville was 4,039 in 1967, a decrease of nearly 10 percent from the year before (4,417 in 1966).[727] Approximately 2,600 prisoners had been received from Illinois courts and 3,100 released after serving their full sentence or being paroled. Of the total population of the two prisons, only 900 were employed in the industries.[728] The per inmate cost in 1967 was $1,575.86 per year, an increase over $1,339.06 per inmate in 1966. It was also reported in fiscal year 1967 that a program of remodeling and repair was in progress. At Stateville, a water treatment and softening system was installed at the Powerhouse; new sidewalks constructed from Cellhouse E to Cellhouse F; new 80,000 pound capacity boilers were put in service on 9 December 1966;[729] a new refrigeration plant was installed in the General Store; and new heating coils were installed in Cellhouse B.

Projects at the Hospital included new facilities for use as doctors' offices, a sleeping dormitory for inmate nurses, and a central service room. Additional projects for the medical facilities at Stateville included a library for inmate patients; a new electric autoclave and new blackout curtains in the operating room; and a new microscope for the pathology laboratory.

In 1969, the education programs at Stateville awarded 21 grade school diplomas, 132 G.E.D. certificates, and 14 college level Associates' degrees. Other education programs awarded certificates, including a Private Enterprise and Government (PEG) program which awarded certificates to 22 inmates in drafting and 11 in electronics. Sixty-five inmates completed courses in the TV college. Special classes were also offered in "Positive Mental Attitude for Better Living" with 25 inmate students participating; a "Spanish-Amercian" class with 35 inmate students; and a special English class with 22 inmate students. The "Cell Correspondence Courses" had 300 inmates participating, with an additional 43 taking correspondence courses offered by institutions outside the prison. Finally, 55 inmates passed Apprentice Barber Tests and 10 passed Registered Barber Tests.[730] Many of these education programs were directed at preparing inmates for a profession upon release. The basic grade level courses placed a special emphasis on literacy. Additional learning fundamentals such as English, mathematics, and science were developed in the high school level courses. The college level courses included accounting, data processing, and business law.

During the fall of 1968, approximately 2,500 pictures were displayed at the inmate art fair, with 965 art works sold for total receipts of $17,311. The following spring, 2,700 pictures were displayed, and 1,002 were sold, for total receipts of $18,892. Inmates received all but 10 percent of the proceeds, which was used to defray the costs of the shows.[731]

[727] *State of Illinois Department of Public Safety Annual Report*, 1969, 6. By 1969, the inmate population at the two prisons dropped even further, to 3,873 inmates. (Ibid., 8.)
[728] Ibid., 33.
[729] The old boilers at Stateville had capacities of 25,000 and 30,000 pounds per hour. ("Boiler Installaion Nears Completion in Power House," *Time* 8, no. 10, October 1966, 13.)
[730] *State of Illinois Department of Public Safety Annual Report*, 1969, 55.
[731] Ibid., 56.

The vocational program added a new course in Volkswagen repair in August 1968. A paint booth was added to the Body and Fender Shop. The water softening system of the textile department was rehabilitated, and Shops "A," "B," and 'c' were partially re-roofed. An average of 140 inmates were employed in the textile department during fiscal year 1969. Glass block windows were installed in other industrial buildings. In the shoe department, where an average of 69 inmates were employed, 22,115 pairs of regular shoes, 364 pairs of orthopedic shoes, and 1,938 pairs of gloves were produced in fiscal year 1969.[732]

The soap department, employing an average of 57 inmates, produced improved formulas of scouring powder and dishwashing compound with a de-stainer. Approximately $18,000 of new equipment was added. Total production for fiscal year 1969, included 2,154,607 pounds of soap products, 147,759 gallons of soap products, and 73,434 dozen bars of soap products.[733]

The book bindery department began to use a new locally made textbook cloth. An average of 84 inmates were employed in the department during the fiscal year. Production for the year was 92,000 books, along with various cartons, boxes, pads, and assorted post-binders and ring-binders.

The sheet metal department, employing an average of 122 inmates, was in the process of pouring a new concrete floor in the old bending room, formerly used by the Furniture Factory. After the floor was finished and light fixtures were installed, the intention was to equip this room with the tin ware machinery from the Joliet branch. With the completion of this transfer, the entire Sheet Metal Department was to be under one roof.

Approximately 4,500 pounds of laundry were washed and finished each week for the Diagnostic Depot, while approximately 22,500 pounds of laundry were washed and finished each week for Stateville itself. Laundry washed and finished for the Sunny Hill Nursing Home and the Sunny Hill Sanatorium amounted to approximately 5,500 pounds per month. The laundry employed an average of 23 inmates in fiscal year 1969.

In the garment department, employing as many as 326 inmates, two-thirds of the electrical power system was changed over from 110 volt capacity to 220 volt capacity. Repairs to the roof on the annex of the Department were performed. New products being manufactured in the Garment Department this past year included sheets and pillowcases made out of Indianhead material in an assortment of colors. These were being produced especially for prisons in the state penitentiary system, so that each cellhouse could easily identify their sheets by the color.[734] The Formica section was enlarged in the furniture department to handle the demand for new laminated plastic furniture. At one point or another, 1,108 inmates were involved in the production, packaging, and shipping for the furniture department.[735]

[732] Ibid., 57.
[733] Ibid., 58.
[734] Ibid., 59.
[735] Ibid., 60.

The medical department of the prison had approximately 130 visits by consultants specializing in various medical and surgical fields. During fiscal year 1969, 175 surgeries were performed, 335 electrocardiograms were given, and 5,775 X-rays were taken. The dental section provided 11,490 dental examinations or procedures, with approximately 600 full dental plates and 400 partial dental plates fitted. Seven hundred and twenty-five new pairs of glasses were provided, with 800 pairs of glasses repaired, in the eye, ear, nose and throat section. The pathology section performed approximately 19,000 blood, urine, and other chemistry tests. There were approximately 34,000 sick calls, with approximately 60,000 prescriptions written.[736]

1970 to the Present

Illinois, never doing things by halves, wanted to startle the world with its conception of the perfect penological structure, [when] it planned a prison of eight panopticons...the most awful receptacles of gloom which were ever devised and put together with good stone and brick and mortar.[737]

The scale of the institution is mammoth. Its projected architectural image is one of a storage facility. The institution is an enigma in that it is so totally different in character and capability from the balance of the Department's institutions.[738]

I'd love to meet the dude who thought up shit like this – he must've come from Mars.[739]

Architecture tends to dominate much of the texture of life in prison.[740]

Change continued to occur at Stateville in the early 1970s. Administrative changes for Illinois prisons included the establishment of the Department of Corrections under Director Peter Bensinger, which included many college and post-graduate educated administrators. At Stateville, one of the first changes was the retirement of Warden Frank Pate. In 1970, John J. Twomey was the first of several wardens in the 1970s following the Pate's retirement to bring reform to Stateville as "Ragenism" continued to decline.[741]

Twomey, the youngest warden ever appointed at Stateville, had a background at Menard Correctional Center as a prison sociologist. He had formerly been the administrator of the Adult Division's Office of Program Services. Twomey began liberalized programs that included relaxation of the inmate rules and regulations. Inmate staff in the Administrative Building and

[736] Ibid.
[737] Hopkins, *Prisons and Prison Building*, 43.
[738] National Clearinghouse for Criminal Justice Planning and Architecture, *Illinois Corrections Master Plan: Adult Division* (Urbana, Illinois: Board of Trustees of the University of Illinois, 1977), 201.
[739] Quote taken from an inmate at New York State's Sing Sing Penitentiary describing the concept of the maximum security prison, in the television documentary *The Big House*, The History Channel, 1997.
[740] An inmate at Stateville, quote in Norval Morris, "The Contemporary Prison: 1965-Present," in *The Oxford History of the Prison*, Norval Morris and David J. Rothman, ed. (New York: Oxford University Press, 1995), 239.
[741] "...the last twenty years have seen a variety of managerial styles, ranging from the 'human relations' model of the mid 1970s, through 'crisis' management of the 1980s, to current-day 'unit' management. This prolonged drift acutely parallels the alarming turnover in the job [of warden] itself." (Hogan, "Stateville," *Encyclopedia of American Prisons,* 452.)

other portions of the prison were replaced with civilian workers.[742] Professional counseling staff joined the prison as well.[743] The Isolation Unit at the prison was shut down as a system of punishment. Further changes included reorganization of the education system, with development of a separate school district for prisons in the state.[744]

In October 1970 the department's microfilm service was located at Stateville, and was available to other corrections institutions. It served as a central information source for inquiries concerning discharged offender records and active juvenile records. In addition, the service provided microfilming and microfiche storage of departmental offender discharge folders. The prison also housed the Central Services Unit, which answered requests from the Research Division, "drawing upon any and all of its several data bases, and maintains and updates the department's centralized, specialized records system."[745]

The rated inmate capacity at Stateville in 1971 was 2,000; the actual population was slightly more than that. Paroles for the year numbered 838, "conditional releases" 661, and completion of sentences 195. The "Honor Farm" was redesignated the Minimum Security Unit. The farm operations continued as before, but now only as one phase of several different operations under the jurisdiction of the unit's superintendent. Activities initiated at the unit included a cement finisher's apprenticeship program. An umpire school, operated by civilian umpires, became operational at Stateville in March 1971. Inmates who completed the course were registered as certified umpires and/or scorers with the National Association of Umpires.

Also in 1971, a project was initiated to segregate the most violent inmates in a "maximum treatment – maximum security" environment. Called the Special Unit Program, it was developed in cooperation with academic staff from the University of Chicago. A cellhouse in Joliet was converted using state-of-the-art security technology. However, the program failed when inmates increased their violence and vandalized the unit. The constitutionality of the program was also questioned, leading to legal action in *Armstrong v. Bensinger* filed in 1972. Although the federal district court subsequently ruled that the program was not "cruel and unusual punishment," it also restricted administrators in placing inmates in it solely as "therapy."[746]

In March 1972, the Department of Corrections announced that the Diagnostic Depot at Joliet, housed in the former Women's Prison, would be closed.[747] It was later decided to abandon this plan.

In the years following administrative changes at Stateville and other state penal institutions, inmate violence increased across the state.[748] A guard had not been killed at Stateville or an

[742] Jacobs, *Stateville: The Penitentiary in Mass Society*, 93, states that eliminating inmate administrative positions cut a line of communication between inmates and the prison administration. It also made dozens of inmates idle who would otherwise be employed.
[743] For further information on the activities of counselors at Stateville, see Jacobs, *Stateville: The Penitentiary in Mass Society*, 99.
[744] Ibid., 92.
[745] *Annual Report of the Department of Corrections*, 1971, N.p.
[746] Hogan, "Stateville," *Encyclopedia of American Prisons,* 452.
[747] " 'Archaic Gateway' to be Closed," *Chicago Tribune,* 9 March 1972, sec. 1, p. 3.

escape successful since the 1940s,[749] and hostages had not been taken since the 1920s. Gang activity increased as well. It has been noted that the "irony of the Bensinger-Twomey triumph at Stateville is that the rehabilitative ideal – which was supposed to redefine the inmate's status – resulted in more violence, worse general living conditions, and fewer programmatic opportunities."[750] Racial divisions in the prison also increased: in 1972, 70 percent of the inmate population at Stateville was African American, 20 percent Caucasian, and 10 percent Hispanic American.[751]

On 11 January 1973, an inmate fatally stabbed guard James Zeiger in an attack on the third tier of Cellhouse B. Although this was the fifth slaying of an Illinois prison guard since 1966, it was the first at Stateville since 1944. Other than as an act of violence, no motive could be determined for the attack.[752] A few weeks later, the guards at Stateville rebelled. Approximately 75 percent of the guards were relieved of duty when they refused to work unless the prisoners were put on lockdown in their cells. With most of the guard force missing, the prison administration was forced to put the prison on lockdown, with prisoners fed in their cells.[753] In April, a brawl in the prison yard led to a long term inmate lockdown.

In mid-1973, the complex formerly comprising Joliet-Stateville was decentralized into individual facilities, creating the Joliet and Stateville Correctional Centers. The reception and classification process was integrated into the Joliet Correctional Center's facilities.[754]

On 7 September 1973 disturbances at Stateville included inmates taking over Cellhouse B, with 10 guards taken hostages for nine hours.[755] Fifteen inmates held a press conference where they voiced their disagreements in the visiting room of the prison, where for an hour and forty-five minutes impassioned and sometimes irrational pleas were voiced to Department of Corrections director Allyn Sielaff.[756] The following day the hostages were released. After the resolution of months of disturbances that had led to lockdown at the prison, Warden Twomey resigned in the fall of 1973. Newspaper reports from November 1973 stated that, "The peace that now exists inside Stateville seems like the peace in the Middle East. It is never really peace. It seems ready to explode at any time."[757]

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[748] See Jacobs, *Stateville: The Penitentiary in Mass Society*, 243, for discussion of the increases in inmate violence. Jacobs experiences in Stateville date from his early 1970s study of the rise of gangs in the prison. See James B. Jabobs, "Street Gangs Behind Bars," University of Chicago, 1972, Photocopy.

[749] Jacobs, *Stateville: The Penitentiary in Mass Society*, 232. Escapes from Stateville in 1929 numbered 14; 1930, 8; 1931, 6; 1932, 12; 1933, 12; 1934, 11; 1935, 18; 1936, 6; 1937, 9; 1938, 5; 1939, 4; 1940, 3; 1942, 7; 1946, 3, 1947, 4; 1950, 1; 1951, 2; 1953, 1; 1969, 7; 1973, 3; 1974, 5; and 1975, 2. Most escapees were recaptured within a few hours.

[750] Jacobs, *Stateville: The Penitentiary in Mass Society*, 85.

[751] James B. Jabobs, "Street Gangs Behind Bars," 6.

[752] "Stateville Prisoner Slays Guard," *Chicago Tribune,* 12 January 1973, sec. 1A, p. 10.

[753] "Guards Rebel at Stateville," *Chicago Tribune,* 27 January 1973, sec. 1, p. 1.

[754] *Illinois Department of Corrections Annual Report 1973-1974*, 6.

[755] William Juneau, "No Amnesty at Stateville: Walker," *Chicago Tribune,* 8 September 1973, sec. 1, p. 1.

[756] James Eisener, " 'Troublesome' Cons Give Vent to Bitter Emotions," *Chicago Tribune,* 7 September 1973, sec. 1, p. 11.

[757] James Eisener, "Stateville Penitentiary – Watched Pot about to Boil," *Chicago Tribune,* sec. 3A, p. 1. The article also includes an evocative photograph of the interior of one of the panopticon cellhouse interiors.

Twomey was followed by Joseph Cannon, who had a background in social work and had been special assistant to the director to the Minnesota Department of Corrections. Cannon remained until December 1974, when David Brierton was appointed warden. Brierton's career began as a corrections officer at Cook County Jail. After joining the Illinois Department of Public Safety and receiving a college degree in corrections, Brierton was one of the new generation of degreed corrections staff in Illinois.

The malaria research project was still in progress at Stateville in 1973 under the direction of Professor P.E. Carson of Chicago's Rush-Presbyterian St. Luke's Medical Center. It was reported that the 25 inmate volunteers, who received $50 a month, entered the program for a variety of reasons: some for the money, some for the opportunity to avoid yard work, but others with a genuine interest to contribute to the program. Since the program was established in 1944, approximately 4,000 inmates had participated.[758] However, in August 1974 Department of Corrections director Allyn Sielaff announced that the program was to be phased out – many other states had ended their medical research programs in prisons by this time. The program, financed by the Walter Reed Army Institute of Research, the Naval Medical Research Institute, and the Agency for International Development of the State Department, was in the process of focusing on drug-resistant bacteria.[759]

By 1974, the inmate population at Stateville had dropped to 1,425, with an additional 210 inmates at the Minimum Security Unit (formerly the Honor Farm).[760] Stateville received an appropriation of $74,945 to convert the Dining Room building to a multi-purpose recreational facility.[761] To replace the main dining room, individual dining rooms were subsequently constructed in each cellhouse.[762] Despite the continued threat of disturbances, Stateville's inmates continued to receive the benefits of educational and vocational programs, as well as organizations such as Alcoholics Anonymous and the Jaycees. In the Department of Corrections' school district, which served the Adult Division of the department, "learning laboratories" were established in six adult correctional centers, including Stateville. The medical services in 1973-1974 added a Chief of Dental Services to upgrade the quality of dental care.

Nineteen seventy-four was also the year that the cemetery used to inter inmates was closed. The initial cemetery one-quarter mile south of the wall, established in 1925, had reached capacity in 1937, and a second cemetery was opened further south of the prison wall along Caton Farm Road, adjacent to the railroad spur. Across Caton Farm Road a public cemetery was established at about the same time. A total of 437 inmates were buried in the prison cemetery, where grave markers fabricated of concrete noted the inmates' names. The markers also had a number and a letter indicating race: W for white, C for "colored," and I for "Indian." Only one woman was buried in the cemetery; she had died at the Women's Prison in Joliet in 1930.[763]

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[758] Alan Merridew, "Stateville Inmates Join Malaria War," *Chicago Tribune,* 17 March 1973, sec. 2, p. 16.

[759] Paul E. Carson, "A Lethal Blow to Malaria Research," *Chicago Tribune,* 24 August 1974.

[760] Michael J. Howlett, Secretary of State, ed., *Blue Book of the State of Illinois, 1973-74*, 315.

[761] *Illinois Department of Corrections Annual Report 1973-1974*, 4.

[762] *Illinois Department of Corrections Annual Report 1976*, 2.

[763] Don Babwin, "Forgotten in Death," *Chicago Tribune,* 24 August 1997, sec. 17, p. 4 - 6. In the center of the

On 15 October 1975, a full service state garage facility opened at Stateville's Minimum Security Unit.[764] The annual budget for Stateville in fiscal year 1976 was $12,227,700.[765]

In a Department of Corrections master plan prepared by staff based at the University of Illinois in 1976 and 1977, it was reported that Cellhouse B, used for protective custody, administrative segregation, and maximum security, was being renovated into four sections to improve security.[766] Modifications in the round cellhouses included opening an area in the center floor to the basement, allowing observation of the dining and shower rooms on that level. Stateville was reported to be one of the few prisons in the state with a full-time physician. Inmates continued to provide nursing services, and paramedic services were provided as well. Long-term medical care or surgery was contracted out with local community hospitals. The hospital had a 40 bed capacity. Inmates from Joliet Correctional Center were treated at Stateville.

At the time of the master plan, the circular Dining Room had been converted into a recreation center, with space for movies (one-quarter of the interior space) and gymnasiums (the remaining three-quarters of the space). The old Education Building had been abandoned. Two of the industry buildings were in the process of renovation as facilities for vocational training and academic schooling. Covered walkways, similar to those already in existence on the east half of the yard, were being constructed to link the cellhouses, the recreation center, and the vocational education buildings.

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second cemetery is a monument of red colored concrete, as shown in photographs IL HABS No. WI-1997-1-A.9 and –A.10, with the following inscription:

I.S.P.
CEMETERY
ESTABLISHED
NOV. 1, 1937
HENRY HORNER
GOVERNOR
A.L. BOWEN
DIRECTOR OF
PUBLIC WELFARE
JOS. E. RAGEN
SUPT. OF PRISONS

THEY PAID THEIR DEBT
TO SOCIETY
MAY GOD REMIT
THEIR DEBT TO HIM

CHAPLAINS
FR. ELIGIUS WEIR, O.F.M.
E. GREY WININGER, D.D.
ARTHUR C. KOHR, C.S.
REV. E.A. BRAUER, LUTH.
REV. J.S. MINNIS, EPISC.
RABBI I.M. MELAMUD

[764] *Corrections in Illinois* 2, no. 9, October 1975, n.p.
[765] *Corrections in Illinois* 2, no. 7, August 1975, n.p.
[766] National Clearinghouse for Criminal Justice Planning and Architecture, *Illinois Corrections Master Plan: Adult Division*, Draft (Urbana, Illinois: Board of Trustees of the University of Illinois, 1976), 106-11.

During the time of the master plan, the inmate population grew from 2,000 to 2,600. The institution had 1,388 cells and 30 dormitories, with 1,460 inmate assignments available. An analysis of the cellhouses at the facility determined that none were compliant with standards set forth in the master plan, which were based on the *Report on Corrections* (National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards, 1973) and the *Guidelines for the Planning and Design of Regional and Community Correctional Centers for Adults* (University of Illinois, 1971). These standards included a maximum adult institutional capacity (per unit) of 400 inmates; a maximum residential unit size of 24; single inmate cell occupancy with direct exterior exposure; cell space with a minimum of 70 square feet per inmate; a minimum of 40 square feet per inmate in common areas, exclusive of circulation space; as well as placement of the facility near the community that its' population is derived.[767] The average size of cells at Stateville was measured to be between 59 and 63 square feet, below the standard of 70 square feet per cell. The overall capacity of the facility was 1,418 inmates, but the actual capacity was 2,631.

The master plan made several immediate recommendations, including construction of a new visiting room since the existing room was too small to accommodate more than one visit per inmate every 14 days. However, the long term recommendation for the facility was to either divide the prison into a number of separate functional units or to abandon the facility. On the subject of Auburn style cellhouses, the master plan stated:

> Various states have responded differently to the realities of the obsolete, insecure, and generally inappropriate old cellhouses. The most condemning criticism of the facilities has been their inability to insure safety for inmates and staff. The solution implemented by some states has been the abandonment and demolition of the structures. Most generally, however, they have simply been continued in use in all of their original features...[768]

Several options were presented for the division of the Auburn style Cellhouse B. One "short-term option" was to subdivide the tiers longitudinally, horizontally, and transversely into eight sections. A "long-term option" was to completely renovate the interior, placing the cells at the perimeter and extending the floors the full width of the building. Further, in plan the cellhouse would be divided in thirds to create smaller sized units. Additional options were briefly presented, including construction of a new cellhouse on the perimeter of the existing Auburn-style cellhouse, followed by removal of the old cells, creating large central activity areas.[769]

The study recommend that ideally Stateville should be abandoned and sold.[770] Recognizing the reality of retaining the facility (which had an estimated replacement cost of $23,820,375), the study went on to recommend the reduction of Stateville's population. However, given the impracticality of reducing the population to 400 with the existing facilities, demolition of some of the existing cellhouses to allow population reductions approaching 400 were recommended.

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[767] National Clearinghouse for Criminal Justice Planning and Architecture, *Illinois Corrections Master Plan: Adult Division* (Urbana, Illinois: Board of Trustees of the University of Illinois, 1977), 153.
[768] Ibid., 163.
[769] Ibid., 164-5.
[770] Ibid., 203.

Among the buildings recommended to be demolished was the four panopticon cellhouses. Despite renovation work conducted in the 1970s, many of the buildings' systems were reaching the end of their respective service lives. It was reported that the hydraulic oil locking system dating from the 1920s could be bypassed by the inmates, allowing them to leave their cells at will. Replacement would cost at least $3.4 million for a modern electrical locking system.[771]

Replacement of the aging cellhouses at Stateville began with the planning of four new "K-plan" cellhouses in 1978. This was to increase the rated capacity of the prison from 2,610 to 3,067. The new cellhouses, or "living units" as they were called, were designed to limit inmate groups to 25 prisoners or less.

Inmate disturbances and troubles with the guard force continued in the late 1970s, including the fatal stabbing of Lt. Peter Beckett Burd, a guard at the facility. On the same day (10 January 1977) another guard was stabbed but recovered.[772] Only two weeks later, inmates at the prison filed a suit in U.S. District Court charging that they had been denied access to recreation privileges, work activities, and the law library, laundry, and commissary.[773] As in 1973, guards at Stateville refused to work, staging a "sick in" in May that put the prison into a lockdown. However, only 14 guards were involved in this dispute.[774] Later in the year, 12 guards were dismissed as a result of their refusal to work unless the administration met their demands for working conditions.[775] Another walkout occurred in November 1977, when 50 guards called in sick for the morning shift and an additional 46 called in sick for the afternoon shift.[776] Forty-four of the guards were fired later in the month because of this protest.[777]

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[771] Bob Wiedrich, "Convicts Slip Out and Knives Slip In," *Chicago Tribune,* 17 November 1978.
[772] David Axelrod and Henry Wood, "Stateville Guard is Stabbed to Death," *Chicago Tribune,* 11 January 1977, sec. 1, p. 3.
[773] Lee Strobel, "Stateville Inmates Sue for Privileges," *Chicago Tribune,* 26 January 1977, sec. 3, p. 10.
[774] "Top Stateville Guards 'Sick'; Cons Locked In," *Chicago Tribune,* 25 May 1977, sec. 3, p. 3.
[775] Robert Unger, "Warden Begins Firing Dissident Prison Guards," *Chicago Tribune,* 6 November 1977, sec. 2, p. 27. It was also reported that the guards' walkout was not supported by their union, the American Federation of State, County, and Municipal Employees (AFSCME).
[776] "Prison Staff Fills in after Guard Walkout," *Chicago Tribune,* 4 November 1977, sec. 4, p. 6.
[777] "44 Guards are Fired in Stateville Protest," *Chicago Tribune,* 1 December 1977, sec. 2, p. 1. A *Chicago Tribune* editorial in 1978 described the conditions the guards were forced to deal with (Bob Wiedrich, "Whooping it up in Cellhouse D," *Chicago Tribune,* 28 December 1978, sec. 3, p. 4.):

> It's a lazy afternoon in Cellhouse D at Stateville Prison.
> The boys are lounging around the flag area – a paved section between the center core guard area and the cell galleries – smoking pot, drinking bootleg hooch, and passing around their homosexual playmates.
> There are guards on duty. And the convicted felons residing there are supposed to be locked up in their cells at this hour unless they are on a work assignment.
> However, the 3 to 11 p.m. shift is on duty. That means the street gang members and their consorts can whoop it up until just a few minutes before the more hard nosed 11 p.m. to 7 a.m. shift reports.
> So the inmates play cards and share the marijuana that visitors and guards dealing in contraband have brought them.

Soon after this report, Governor James Thompson fired Department of Corrections director Charles Rowe, who was replaced by Thompson's corrections advisor Gayle Franzen.

During fiscal year 1979, the unit management system was instituted at Stateville Correctional Center. Under this decentralized operation, unit managers acted as liaisons between the warden and the residents, thereby strengthening staff/inmate interaction. This enabled the unit leader to better evaluate inmate concerns in order to make decisions quickly. More importantly, such a mechanism allowed the warden to devote more time to concentrate on overall prison operations. At the same time, the inmate population was reclassified and redistributed, with the goal of reducing gang influence and opportunities for aggressive inmates to victimize others. Triple-celling of inmates in one-man cells ceased. Job assignments and other activities were increased 18 percent. The number of inmates asking for protective custody dropped.[778] On 30 June 1979, the inmate population at Stateville was 2,072.[779]

A report by a court appointed panel in 1979 reported that the health care system at Stateville was "seriously substandard" some 18 months after prison officials had signed a court order agreeing to improve medical care to a proper standard.[780] The report was the culmination of a 3-1/2 year class action suit by inmates charging that in denying access to medical service the prison administration was inflicting cruel and unusual punishment. The report recommended some 71 separate improvements.

In June 1979, Stateville warden Lou Brewer was dismissed after less than 10 months in the position. Almost one year later, Brewer's replacement, Marvin Reed, was dismissed among charges of arranging the sale of stolen luxury automobiles.[781] During this period the television documentary *Hard Time* premiered, featuring Stateville penitentiary as "just another human zoo – a nest of antisocial behavior in which security, not rehabilitation, is the No. 1 goal of keepers and kept alike."[782]

The buildings in use circa 1980 included 12 cellhouse and residential buildings, 1 officers' dormitory, 5 administration, 1 recreation, 1 bakery, 1 kitchen, 1 laundry, 6 storage, 3 factories, 13 maintenance, 1 vocational, 1 clothing room, and 1 education facility. Many of the buildings had changed uses due to renovations between 1978 and 1980:

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[778] "Stateville Revisited," *Chicago Tribune,* 28 February 1980, sec. 3, p. 8.
[779] *Illinois Department of Corrections Annual Report 1979*, 25; and Phillip J. O'Connor, "$5.4 Million Renovation of Stateville Planned," *Chicago Sun-Times,* 18 January 1979, p. 10.
[780] Jay Branegan, "Stateville Care Called Substandard," *Chicago Tribune,* 7 June 1979, sec. 3, p. 10.
[781] Rudolf Unger, "Stateville Warden is Dismissed," *Chicago Tribune,* 26 June 1979, sec. 1, p. 1; and Bill Grady, "State Aides Tied to Auto Theft Ring," *Chicago Tribune,* 25 June 1980, sec. 1, p. 1.
[782] Ron Alridge, " 'Hard Time': Prison Documentary is Fine, But it's Weak on a Few Counts," *Chicago Tribune,* 12 June 1980, sec. 2, p. 14.

Previous Use	Use After Remodeling
School Building	Inmate Commissary
License Plate Shop	Master Mechanic Shop
Steel Fabrication and Shoe Shop	Vocational School
Vegetable Preparation	General Storage
Tailor Shop/Clothing Room	Tailor Shop/Law Library and School
Oil Storage	Detail House
Dining Room and Kitchen	Detail House
Garage	Material Storage
Garage	Material Storage

In addition, over $3,000,000 was planned to be spent on renovation of the four round cellhouses. An additional $2,400,000 expenditure was planned for 26,000 square foot multipurpose building to include a gymnasium. It was also planned to reconvert part of the former Dining Room building back to dining room use. This reconversion included plans for three dining room sections rather than one large circular room. These three section comprised slightly more than half of the former large dining hall area. The remainder of the floor plan consisted of preparation, kitchen, and cleanup areas.[783] Other renovations included installation of stainless steel sinks in the cells of cellhouse 'b' ($500,000); installation of a mechanical system and other renovations to the 15 guard towers ($200,000); and remodeling of the 200-inmate Minimum Security Unit dormitory.[784]

In June 1980, the U.S. Court of Appeals allowed the transfer of 21 "death row" inmates from Stateville to Menard. This had become necessary since the condemned unit at Stateville was becoming overcrowded.[785]

By 1981, the state had committed more than $30 million in improvements. An additional $8 million was allocated to rehabilitate the electrical system. Construction had begun on two of the three story "K" cellhouses, each budgeted at approximately $11.5 million; they were scheduled for completion in early 1983. Cellhouse F had been "completely gutted and...modernized at a cost of $4,060,000, $960,000 of which is for a new escape-proof locking and security system."[786] Construction of a new multi-purpose building was budgeted at approximately $2.5 million.[787]

By 1983, the prison was operating the state's only prisoner theater group, the "Con-Artists." By that date they had produced "Mr. Roberts," "Twelve Angry Men," "One Flew over the Cuckoo's Nest," and an adaptation of the television film based on G. Gordon Liddy's autobiography, "Will."[788] Inmate art shows were still being held, with two scheduled for fiscal year 1983.

[783] The Balsamo/Olson Group, Inc., Kitchen/Dining Rehabilitation, Stateville Correctional Center, Sheets A-1, A-2, A-3, A-4, and A-9, 2 May 1983.
[784] Phillip J. O'Connor, "$5.4 million Renovation of Stateville Planned," *Chicago Sun-Times*, 18 January 1979, p. 10.
[785] "U.S. Court OKs Death Row Transfer," *Chicago Tribune,* 10 June 1980, sec. 3, p. 5.
[786] Bob Wiedrich, "Brightening up Stateville," *Chicago Tribune,* 21 May 1981, sec. 1, p. 18.
[787] *Illinois Human Services Data Report, Part 1: Fiscal years 1982-1984*, 168.
[788] *Illinois Department of Correction Annual Report 1983*, 33.

In July 1983, a fire damaged the furniture factory. The fire was believed to be deliberately set by inmates because of controversy over the early release of some inmates.[789]

In 1984, the rated capacity of the institution was 2,250 inmates, including 170 in the Minimum Security Unit dormitory.[790] With the addition of the two "K" inmate cellblocks, one of the panopticon cellhouses (Cellhouse D) had been demolished and a second one (Cellhouse C) was scheduled for demolition. The $12.4 million reconversion of the Dining Room building was nearly complete in late 1985.[791] Correctional Industries operations manufactured furniture, inmate clothing, and soap. The institution also passed an accreditation audit in 1984 and was to be fully accredited in January 1985. It was reported that "this achievement negates Stateville's reputation as an unmanageable facility with one of the toughest prison populations in the nation."[792]

The new K-plan cellhouses at Stateville (named Units "H" and "I") were designed to have the tightest degree of security. Inmates were lodged in individual cells in each of the eight wings. Each wing held only 12 to 13 inmates. Each floor had two control centers, from which correctional officers monitored inmate conduct and security measures. Unlike the older cell houses, the units had smoke and fire alarm systems, sprinklers, and forced air ventilation. Unit "H" was opened in June 1983; Unit "I" received its first inmates from the segregation unit in January 1985.[793]

In a report from 1984, the facility had six wells in place, three of which were non-producing and were planned to be capped and abandoned.[794] Two of the three remaining wells served the 1.5 million gallon reservoir, and only one fed directly into the water distribution system. All water was chlorinated. The City of Joliet treated the sewage from the facility.

In fiscal year 1985, the average daily population at Stateville was 2,043, with an average yearly cost per inmate of $15,401.[795] The annual report for fiscal year 1986 of the Department of Corrections stated that:

[789] Daniel Egler and Bill Grady, " Governor Asks Counties to Keep Inmates," *Chicago Tribune,* 16 July 1983, sec. 1, p. 5.
[790] The inmate population at Stateville, which had risen to over 2,900 in 1976, remained steady for some years. The inmate population in 1975 was 2,111; 1976, 2,980; 1977, 2,677; 1978, 2,216; 1979, 2,230; 1980, 2,165; 1981, 2,242; 1982, 2,238; and 1983, 2,236. (*Illinois Human Services Data Report, Part 1: Fiscal years 1983-1985,* Table 2-1.)
[791] *Illinois Department of Correction Annual Report 1983*, 15. The renovated Dining Room building housed approximately 200 inmates in each subdivided section. The 1950s all-inmate kitchen staff of 100 to 200 persons had been replaced by the early 1990s with a staff of 40 civilians and 160 inmate. (Kantrowitz, *Close Control: Managing a Maximum Security Prison*, 119.)
[792] Ibid.
[793] Bob Wiedrich, "New Stateville Cellblocks put Violence under Lock," *Chicago Tribune,* 12 May 1985.
[794] *Survey Report, Stateville Correctional Center*, 14 August 1984, 1-2.
[795] *Illinois Department of Correction Annual Report 1985*, 28.

> Historically renowned round cellhouses, a cellhouse known as the world's largest rectangular cellhouse and the newer double K-design buildings, so named because an aerial view resembles a double "K," are all visible comparisons of different correctional housing philosophies within a 33 foot walled compound.[796]

The report also noted that Unit G, formerly the Dormitory Building or Honor Dormitory, was for long-term inmates who did not qualify for reduced-security facilities. The facility had a continuing renovation program, which had included a new recreation yard. Plans for a new health care unit were being developed at this time.

A ruling by a federal judge determined that inmates at Stateville had been "denied constitutional rights" while being held in protective custody, where they were kept in their cells for 23 hours a day.[797] They charged that they were denied the opportunity to participate in education programs and other activities. Since protective custody was voluntary, prison officials had denied the charges of the inmates. However, the court had determined that the prison was required to allow protective custody inmates access to the same programs as the rest of the population.

In fiscal year 1988, Cellhouse E was demolished, leaving Cellhouse F as the only remaining panopticon cellhouse. The facility was reaccredited by the American Correctional Association on 12 January 1988. Unit X, housed in the former Segregation Building, was opened in August 1988 to help relieve crowding of protective custody inmates in Stateville's main protective custody unit. Unit X's 52 inmates were all level four protective custody. In fiscal year 1989, new handball courts were completed at the new South Yard and Minimum Security Unit.[798]

A Department of Corrections report for 1990 described the facility as follows:

> The Stateville Correctional Center is a 2,250 bed maximum security corrections facility with an adjacent minimum security unit on the grounds. There are more than 60 buildings in the main complex with a gross area of over 1,000,000 sq. ft. More than 100 additional structures are included in the perimeter support, farm, and minimum security unit complexes. The oldest structures date from 1914 [sic] and the newest was completed in 1983.

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[796] *Illinois Department of Correction Annual Report 1986*, 30. The department later reported that, "The newer double-K designed buildings provides an incentive for positive inmate behavior by placing positively motivated inmates first into a dormitory setting and allowing for eventual placement outside the compound on the 200-man minimum security unit." ("Illinois Department of Corrections Annual Report 1991," *Insight into Corrections*, January 1992, 37.)

[797] Dave Schneidman, "Judge Orders Stateville Prison to Liberalize Protective Custody," *Chicago Tribune*, sec. 2, p. 6.

[798] *Illinois Department of Correction Annual Report 1989*, 40.

In 1990, the powerhouse at Stateville was reported to have two combination gas/oil high pressure steam boilers that distributed high pressure steam through a network of tunnels. Steam pressure reducing stations were located in the tunnels at the various buildings to reduce steam pressures to appropriate levels. There were approximately 7,000 feet of steam mains ranging from 2 to 12 inches in diameter. Hot water for the cellhouses and adjacent buildings was provided by a central water heating installation in the basement of the Dining Room building.[799]

By the 1990s, women made up a significant amount of the guard force, with 88 female corrections officers out of 591.[800] The rated adult capacity in 1991 was 1,800 inmates, down from 2,175 in 1978; the average daily population was 2,102 in fiscal year 1991. The inmate population in 1993 was 75 percent African American, 14 percent "white," and 11 percent Hispanic American.[801] Cellhouse B had been split down the middle in the late 1970s, making B East and B West. Inmate disturbances continued, with stabbings, beatings, and other problems, including violence tied to Chicago area gangs.[802]

Stateville's library services included three separate, but jointly functioning, library facilities. The main library served all inmates including inmates in the segregation unit; the staff library served the Stateville staff; and the Minimum Security Unit library served inmates assigned there. The library staff was composed of civilian staff and inmates. The leisure time services department operated in the newly completed multi-purpose building and a renovated "cultural arts center" where programs were conducted.

It was reported that Stateville was administered under the Unit Management System, with seven living units supervised by unit managers responsible for their daily operation. These units were generally operated independently of each other. Construction of a modern Health Care Unit was completed in December 1989. The unit, staffed by three full time physicians and several part time specialists, was composed of a 22 bed infirmary with 24 hour health care services, seven days a week. Surgical procedures were provided by health care facilities in the region. Approximately 200 patients were examined daily. Upon completion, the Health Care Unit was accredited by the Joint Commission on Accreditation of Healthcare Organizations, the first maximum security health care facility to receive this accreditation.[803] With the completion of the Health Care Unit, Human Immunodeficiency Virus (HIV) was becoming the leading cause of death among the inmate population.[804]

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[799] *Financial and Compliance Audit for the Two Years Ended June 30, 1990*, 2-3.

[800] Susan DeGrane, "The Women of Stateville," *Chicago Tribune*, 30 September 1990.

[801] Ibid., 115.

[802] Edmund S. Tijerina and Rob Karwath, "Gang Tied to Violence at Stateville," *Chicago Tribune*, 16 July 1991, sec. 2, p. 2.

[803] *Perspectives: Illinois Department of Corrections Employee News* 16, no. 10 (October 1993), 42.

[804] *Perspectives: Illinois Department of Corrections Employee News* 18, no. 11 (November 1995), 9. A contemporary report stated that "it is often difficult to attract competent medical staff to work in prisons; salaries tend to be lower, and inmates tend to be difficult and litigious patients. Three prison medical problems of serious concern have recently emerged: HIV positivity and AIDS; a strain of treatment-resistant tuberculosis; and an increase in the number of geriatric and terminally ill patients." (Morris, "The Contemporary Prison: 1965-Present," 250.)

During fiscal year 1993, Correctional Industries employed 160 inmates at Stateville, with total sales of $3,830,800. The inmate population at the correctional center in fiscal year 1994 was 2,349; design capacity was 1,506.[805] State appropriations for the prison in fiscal year 1996 were $45,529,868; the average number of employees at the prison was 902.[806] Inmates from Stateville's Minimum Security Unit were working on the preservation of a prairie landscape to its pre-settlement appearance. Initiated in 1990, the prairie restoration project has resulted in more than 25 acres being cleared.

Although the correctional center still operated the farm, not all of the land was needed for crops. In 1995, Lockport Township Park District purchased 237 acres of land at the northeast corner of the prison property for construction of a 27 hole golf course. Located approximately three-quarters of a mile from the prison walls, the township purchased the land for $700,000. It was reported that the state was to utilize the funds for a new dormitory and programs at the facility.[807]

In 1995, the *Chicago Tribune* reported that 95 percent of Stateville inmates belonged to one of six gangs (primarily Chicago street gangs). Forty-four percent were incarcerated for murder and thirty-five percent for Class X felonies. Almost two out of three inmates were double-celled. During lockdowns, inmates left their cells escorted only for medical emergencies. They received meals in their cells. Every eighth day they were allowed a shower. At any given time, 500 or more inmates were in extremely secure units, not allowed to move out of their cells without an escort.[808]

In response to inmate disturbances, Warden Salvador Godinez wrote a 27-point plan for restoring order, telling inmates, "Anything is negotiable, except this: Don't lay a hand on my people." The importance of communication was stressed by Godinez, who stated, "All the studies of riots tell you lack of communication is the biggest factor. I communicate with them in clear, concise messages. I send these guys memos. I walk back there and talk to them."[809]

In late 1997, it was reported that the execution chamber at Stateville was to be replaced when the new "super max" Tamms Correction Center was completed in 1998.[810]

In fiscal year 1999, the Department of Corrections was seeking proposals from architecture and engineering firms for the design of a new 1,200 bed adult reception and classification center (with an appropriation of $44,000,000) and a 200 bed minimum security unit. These were planned to be located on the grounds of Stateville.[811] By mid-1999, the reception and classification center project had been expanded to 1,800 beds and a total cost of $53 million.[812]

[805] *Perspectives: Illinois Department of Corrections Employee News* 18, no. 11 (November 1995), 41.
[806] William G. Holland, Auditor General, *Report Digest: Stateville Correctional Center – Compliance Audit for the Two Years Ended: June 30, 1996*, 26 March 1997, 2.
[807] Teresa Puente, "Lockport Area Golf Course is about a Chip Shot Away," *Chicago Tribune,* 8 July 1995, sec. 1, p. 5.
[808] Leslie Lindeman, "Between Bars," *Chicago Tribune.* 22 January 1995, sec. 10, p. 19 and 21.
[809] Ibid.
[810] Cornella Grumann, "Executions Could be Last at Joliet," *Chicago Tribune,* 20 November 1997, sec. 1, p. 6.
[811] Illinois Capital Development Board, *Professional Services Bulletin* 45, July 1998.
[812] "In the News," *Correctional News* 5, no. 5 (July/August 1999), p. 1.

Additional planned projects included electrical and mechanical upgrades, water tower rehabilitation, and storm and sewer system modifications.

In fiscal year 2000, projects planned for Stateville included the replacement of windows on Cellhouse B with an estimated appropriation of $3,000,000. Also included was construction of a 52,000 square foot warehouse for food storage, offices, and high-bay storage, an 18,700 square foot vehicle maintenance building, and an 11,500 square foot facility maintenance building, for a total appropriation of $10,000,000.[813] Finally, the bar fronts of the cells in Cellhouse F were to be replaced with security mesh fronts for a projected cost of $1,000,000.[814]

[813] Illinois Capital Development Board, *Professional Services Bulletin* 55, July 1999. The window replacement work on Cellhouse B was required to be reviewed with the Illinois Historic Preservation Agency because of the growing recognition of the historical importance of the facility.
[814] Illinois Capital Development Board, *Professional Services Bulletin* 55, August 1999.

PART II: ARCHITECTURAL INFORMATION

Site – Stateville Correctional Center

Stateville Correctional Center is located at the edge of a ridge that bisects the 2,000 acre property. To the west of the prison, the landscape is relatively flat prairie land with occasional lines of trees as windbreaks. The east side of the center's property slopes gradually downward to State Route 53 with the bluffs of the Des Plaines River valley beyond. The landscape between State Route 53 and the prison wall is neatly trimmed lawn with clumps of trees. The south boundary of the site is formed by Canton Farm Road; the north boundary is formed by Renwick Road. The northeast corner of the site borders an abandoned quarry. Subsequent to performing the field work phase of this documentation, a municipal golf course was laid out at the northeast corner of the site on land sold by the state. The west boundary of the site is formed by Weber Road and adjacent private properties.

The east, main approach to the correctional center passes through a gateway formed by flanking red brick walls and a central red brick guard booth, up a broad, formal two lane roadway divided by a grassy median intermittently planted with flower beds, arriving at a large paved area flanked by automobile parking. As viewers face west, the first structures that visitors approach are the brick masonry "Electric Eye" building centered on axis with the Administration Building behind, and the new Visitors' Center to the left. To the right (north) of the paved parking area is a concrete helicopter landing pad and a three story brick masonry building for prison guard housing. An iron fence with brick masonry posts surrounds the yard in front of the four story brick masonry Administration Building. Behind the Administration Building is the Guard's Dormitory dating from 1943 and the 33 foot tall reinforced concrete prison wall. At the northeast and southeast corners of the prison wall are guard towers.

Within the prison wall, encompassing 64 acres, are the primary detention buildings of the facility on a relatively flat grade. The level of the yard within the wall is several feet higher than the ground level outside the wall. The arrangement of buildings within the wall is similar to the original arrangement at construction in the 1920s and 1930s. To the north of the Detention Building (housing inmate administrative functions), on axis with the Administration Building, is the Old Hospital Building. An enclosed east-west corridor connects the Detention Building with the circular Dining Room building. Radiating out from the Dining Room building are corridors leading to the panopticon Cellhouse F and the Auburn plan Cellhouse B. To the north and south of the Dining Room building in the prison yard are Cellhouses H and I.

Extending west of the Dining Room building is another enclosed corridor leading to the Powerhouse, with a north-south enclosed corridor connecting the educational, vocational, and industrial buildings. At the southwest corner of the site is Unit G, a dormitory style detention building. The prison yard between the buildings is divided into numerous secure exercise yards for the cellhouses and other prison buildings.

Old Hospital – Illinois HABS No. WI-1997-1-A

A. General Statement

1. Architectural Character

The Old Hospital building is a utilitarian institutional structure with a singular block-like massing. It is clad with buff colored brick laid in a Flemish bond coursing, with pilasters articulating the structural bays. Cut stone coping units at the east and west elevation parapets and at all window sills further delineate the massing. Rectangular window openings are typically present on all elevations, with larger window openings at the top floor of the building (which was originally planned as the tuberculosis ward for the facility).[815]

Despite its utilitarian nature, the Old Hospital is a fine example of the work of the Division of Architecture and Engineering under the direction of State of Illinois Supervising Architect C. Herrick Hammond, F.A.I.A. The building was constructed at about the same time as the Old Hospital addition of 1934 at Menard Correctional Center in Chester, Illinois, and shares many of the same floor plan concepts and interior details.[816] Both structures were planned using concepts of rational hospital design developed in the first decades of the twentieth century. This is reflected in the use of small patient wards with only a few beds; interior borrowed lights to allow greater observation of patients; and separation of functions to limit the spread of contagion, such as placing tuberculosis patients on the top floor and the surgical operating room in a separate building.

2. Condition of Fabric

At the time of documentation, the Old Hospital was in fair to poor condition. Most of the observed distress was due to lack of proper maintenance. Large areas of brick masonry have deteriorated mortar joints, with isolated areas of cracked and displaced face brick. Steel shelf angles and window lintels are corroded, leading to cracked and displaced areas of masonry. The building's roofing system, while not accessible for close up inspection, was observed from the guard tower on top of the Administration Building to be in poor condition, with plant growth visible as well as cracked and deteriorated built up roofing membrane.

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[815] Access to light and fresh air was considered primary elements of the care of tuberculosis patients.
[816] See Menard Correctional Center, Illinois HABS No. R-1997-1-B.

B. Description of Exterior

1. Overall Dimensions

The building measures 98'-7 3/4" along the north and south elevations and 50'-2" on the east and west elevations. The passageway which leads from Old Hospital to the adjacent building (Detention Building) on the east, measures 35'-10" from east to west by 14'-11" north to south.

2. Foundations

A discussion of the building's foundation is included in the structural system description below.

3. Walls

a. West Elevation

The west elevation is faced with buff brick (manufactured by Darlington Manufacturing, as evidenced by embossed labels on masonry units that had fallen from the building), laid in a Flemish bond coursing with a painted concrete foundation course (peach) at the base and crowned with a cut stone coping at the parapet. Two 2'-1" wide brick pilasters that line up with the east-west structural grid, crowned with a 5 inch coping stone and spaced 7'-3" apart, divide this face into three bays. There are also brick pilasters with a 5 inch stone coping at each corner. Within the northernmost bay are eight rectilinear window openings with 5 inch stone sills, two on each floor. Three emergency exit doors are centered with the middle bay. The second and third floor doors are serviced by an attached steel fire escape. The first floor exit door has an adjacent steel ladder anchored to the masonry wall to the south of center. Five window openings with 5 inch cut stone sills are located within the southernmost bay: two on the basement floor and one on each of the upper floors. There are also two small rectilinear openings at the attic level above the third floor, with one in the northernmost bay and one in the southernmost bay.

The fire escape has two wide flange steel posts supporting landings between the basement and first and first and second floor levels. The landings are positioned to the south of center. The treads and landings have grates with parallel steel bars. The lowest section of stair run is a balanced section that descends when pushed down from above.

b. East Elevation

The east elevation is faced with buff brick, laid in a Flemish bond coursing with a concrete foundation course at the base and crowned with a cut stone coping at the parapet. Two 2'-1" wide brick pilasters that line up with the east-west

structural grid, crowned with a 5 inch coping stone and spaced 7'-3" apart, divide this elevation into three bays. There are also brick pilasters with a 5 inch stone coping at each corner. Within the northernmost bay are two rectilinear window openings with 5 inch cut stone sills: one on the second floor and one in the elevator tower (roof level). One rectilinear window opening is centered within the central bay at the second floor level. Four rectilinear window openings with 5 inch cut stone sills are extant in the southernmost bay, with two on the first floor and two on the second floor. There are also two small rectilinear openings at the attic level above the third floor, with one in the northernmost bay and one in the southernmost bay. Attached to east elevation is a brick masonry clad vestibule with a sloping roof over stairs that lead to the basement level. The entrance to the vestibule has a barred gate.

c. South Elevation

The south elevation is faced with buff brick laid in a Flemish bond coursing with a painted concrete foundation course (peach). Five 2'-1" wide brick pilasters, each crowned with a 5 inch stone coping, divide this facade into six four-story bays. The pilasters stop short of the top of the wall, where a sheet metal gutter runs the length of the building from the west wall parapet to the east wall parapet. There are also brick pilasters with a 5 inch stone coping at each corner; the pilasters also stop short of the top of the wall. The bay at the west corner contains seven rectilinear window openings, with one on the third floor and two each on the second, first, and basement floors. The next bay to the east contains five rectilinear window openings, with one on the third floor and two each on the second and first floors; former window openings at the basement level have been infilled with matching brick masonry. The center two bays contain six rectilinear window openings, with one on the third floor, two each on the second and first floors, and one on the first floor. Also in the bay immediately to the west of center is a painted personnel door (peach) leading to the basement with the ghosting of a gabled roof vestibule. The second bay from the east corner contains five rectilinear window openings, with one on the third floor and two each on the second and first floors. The eastern-most bay contains six rectilinear window openings, with one on the third floor, two each on the second and first floors, and one on the basement floor. A second personnel door, also painted peach, is located in the easternmost bay. There are also two small rectilinear openings at the attic level above the third floor, with one in the second bay from the east corner and one in the fourth bay from the east corner.

The south face of the rooftop elevator tower contains a personnel doorway with a painted flush metal door (gray).

d. North Elevation

The north elevation is similar to the south elevation, with the exception of the basement level elevation and the elevation containing the stairwell. The

basement level has two openings infilled with glass block at the westernmost five bays. Each of the window openings has a shallow brick masonry light well with a concrete foundation and concrete coping. The stairwell has one opening at each of the landings between the basement and first, first and second, and second and third floors. There is also a window opening at the rooftop elevator tower. There are also three small rectilinear openings at the attic level above the third floor, with one in the second bay from the east corner, one in the fourth bay from the east corner, and one in the westernmost bay.

4. Structural System

The original drawings for the building show that the building has a reinforced concrete frame with an exterior masonry curtain wall (although the masonry wall bears loads from the first floor). It was constructed with continuous spread footings under the exterior wall with piers beneath the exterior concrete columns. Two rows of columns that delineate the interior corridor are set on piers with individual footings. The basic structural grid is approximately 18'-9" north-south and 14'-6" east-west.

The basement level has a slab on grade. The first floor has an interior grid of reinforced concrete beams with reinforced concrete slabs typically 5 inches thick. These slabs bear on the exterior walls at the perimeter. The second and third floors are framed with an interior grid of beams with perimeter spandrel beams, and 5 inch thick concrete floor slabs. Most of the concrete floor slabs at the first, second, and third floors are designed as two-way slabs, with a few smaller span slabs around the elevator and stairwell tower designed as one-way slabs.

Above the third floor is an attic space for mechanical equipment with an interior height of 5-6". The attic level is framed in a manner similar to the second and third floors, with 4-1/2 inch thick concrete two-way slabs. The roof slab (a 3 inch gypsum concrete slab) is supported with steel beams running east-west and steel struts running north-south.

5. Porches, Stoops, Balconies, and Bulkheads

A discussion of the steel fire escape on the west elevation is provided above.

6. Chimneys

The building does not have any chimneys, although there are four circular sheet metal ventilators on the roof.

7. Openings

a. Doorways and Doors

1. North Elevation

Three emergency exit doors are centered in the middle bay of the west elevation with an attached steel fire escape. The doors are steel with two vertical recessed panels in the lower half and three wire glass lights in the upper half. Above each door is a wire glass and metal framed transom, with 5 lights over 2.

2. East Elevation

There are no exterior doors on this elevation.

3. South Elevation

Two personnel doorways are extant on the south elevation. One is west of center on the basement floor of the first bay at the east end of the building. The other is west of center on the basement floor within the fourth bay from the east end. The doors for each are flush painted metal (peach) with one square light in the upper half that has been boarded over.

4. North Elevation

There are no doors on this elevation.

b. Windows

1. West Elevation

There are thirteen windows on this elevation. The windows on the first, second, and third floors on this elevation (nine total) are steel framed units, each with 64 true lights in an 8 over 8 configuration, glazed with wire glass in the center section only. Above and below the fixed section are open bars with operable sections on the interior. The windows on the basement floor (four total) are steel framed units, each with 48 true lights in an 8 over 6 configuration, glazed with wire glass in the center section only. Above and below the fixed section are open bars with operable sections on the interior. Some of the areas with operable sections on the interior have metal mesh screens on the exterior face.

Descriptions of each operable interior window are included in the interior room descriptions below.

2. East Elevation

There are ten windows on this elevation. The windows on the first, second, and third floors in the two outside bays on this elevation (six total) are steel framed units, each with 64 true lights in an 8 over 8 configuration, glazed with wire glass in the center section only. Above and below the fixed section are open bars with operable sections on the interior. The windows within the center bay above the passageway (one) and in the fourth floor elevator tower (one) are steel framed units, each with 32 true lights in an 8 over 4 configuration. Some of the areas with operable sections on the interior have metal mesh screens on the exterior face.

Descriptions of each operable interior window are included in the interior room descriptions below.

3. South Elevation

There are forty-five windows on this elevation. The windows on the basement floor (five total) are steel framed units, each with 48 true lights in an 8 over 6 configuration, glazed with wire glass in the center section only. Above and below the fixed section are open bars with operable sections on the interior. Each unit contains one bottom hinged inward swinging unit. The windows on the first and second floors on this elevation (24 total) are steel framed units, each with 64 true lights in an 8 over 8 configuration, glazed with wire glass in the center section only. Above and below the fixed section are open bars with operable sections on the interior. Double window units fill openings on each of the outside bays and triple inserts fill the four inner openings on the third floor. All are steel framed units, each with 64 true lights in an 8 over 8 configuration, glazed with wire glass in the center section only. Above and below the fixed section are open bars with operable sections on the interior. Some of the areas with operable sections on the interior have metal mesh screens on the exterior face.

Descriptions of each operable interior window are included in the interior room descriptions below.

4. North Elevation

There are 50 windows on the north elevation of this building. The windows on the east end of the building within the second story passageway (six total) and on the fourth story of the elevator tower (one) are steel framed units, each with 32 true lights in an 8 over 4 configuration. The windows within the tower portion of the this elevation (three total) are steel framed units, each with 48 true lights in an 8 over 6 configuration, glazed with wire glass in the center section only. Above and below the fixed section are open bars with operable sections on the interior. The ten window openings on the basement floor have been infilled with glass block. The windows on the first, second, and third floors of the main building (thirty total) are steel framed units, each with 64 true lights in an 8 over 8 configuration, glazed with wire glass in the center section only. Above and below the fixed section are open bars with operable sections on the interior. Some of the areas with operable sections on the interior have metal mesh screens on the exterior face.

Descriptions of each operable interior window are included in the interior room descriptions below.

6. Roof

a. Roof Shape and Covering

The building roof was not accessible at the time of documentation. However, observations made from a nearby guard tower include the presence of a built-up roofing membrane with gutters on the north and south elevation. The original drawings show the low sloped roof to be pitched toward the north and south faces of the building with a ridge running down the center. The low sloped roof over the elevator tower is pitched to a sheet metal gutter along its' south face.

7. Lighting Fixtures

Several security lights are located approximately 10 feet above grade on three of the elevations, with three on the south, two on the west, and three on the north. There are also projecting pole standards at the end of the west parapet, although the glass globes for these are no longer extant.

D. Description of Interior

1. Floor Plans

In plan the basement consists of a large open kitchen space with smaller rooms opening off around it such as a refrigerator machinery room, bakery, receiving room, dishwashing room, helps dining room and main toilet. An elevator and stairwell are located in the northeastern corner of the building. In plan the first, second, and third floors consist of fourteen rooms opening off a double-loaded corridor running east and west. An elevator and stairwell are located in the northeastern corner of the building.

2. Interior Spaces and Finishes

The interior finishes in the corridor on the ground floor (001) include white painted masonry walls laid in a running bond with a banding of color (peach) extending up 14 inches from the floor. The floor is finished in red clay tile laid in a herringbone pattern. The ceiling height measures 10'-5 1/2" form the floor; the concrete ceiling is painted white. Exposed plumbing pipes running east and west are suspended from the ceiling. Door trim is painted peach.

The interior finishes of the drug supply room (002) include painted masonry walls laid in a running bond (peach extending up 5'-1" from the floor and white from there up to the ceiling). The ceiling height measures 10'-4 1/2" with drop beams measuring 10 inches by 16 inches running east and west One window opening is located on the east end of the south wall. The opening has glass block glazing with 35 blocks with a 5 over 7 configuration. The steel entry door, located on the west end of the south wall measures 60 inches wide and has an interior double panel screen door. A raised concrete rectangular platform, measuring 4'-8" by 11'-0", with four steps is extant in the southwest corner of the room. A single fluorescent tube ceiling fixture is extant, running east to west. Suspended plumbing pipes hang from the ceiling.

The interior finishes in room 003, which serves as the vestibule for rooms 004, 005, and 006, include painted brick walls laid in a running bond (light green extending up from the floor 13 courses and white from there to the ceiling). The ceiling height measures 10'-4 1/2" with drop beams measuring 10" by 16", running east and west. The ceiling and crop beams are painted white. The floor is covered with red clay tile laid in a running bond. Suspended plumbing pipes hang from the ceiling. The four doorways in this room open into rooms 004, 005, 006, and the main corridor have wood doors with recessed panels filled with mesh screen.

The interior finishes of the refrigerator/machinery room (004) include painted masonry walls laid in a running bond (dark red, extending 2 1/2 courses from the floor; red extending up from the top of the dark red banding 11 courses and white from there to the ceiling). The painted ceiling (beige) measures 10'-5 1/2" from the floor. One fluorescent light is extant on the ceiling. The floor is covered with clay tile laid in a running bond. The window opening on the south wall has 35 glass blocks, with a 5 over 7 configuration. A 8-1/2 inch raised concrete platform is extant on the west wall measuring 2'-2 1/2" by 11'-5".

The interior finishes of room 005 include glazed brick walls laid in a running bond (yellow/beige), painted concrete ceiling (white), and clay tile floor laid in running bond. The ceiling height measures 10'-4 3/4". A 6 inch thick stainless steel refrigerator door is extant in the west half of the north wall. One electrical junction box is extant on the ceiling in the center of the room.

The interior finishes in the receiving room (006) consisted of painted masonry walls (brown 12 courses up from the floor and white from there to the ceiling), painted

concrete ceiling (white), and red clay tile floor laid in running bond. The window opening in the east half of the south wall is infilled with an exhaust fan and the door opening on the west half of the south wall contains a two panel steel door. One two-tube fluorescent ceiling fixture is extant. A radiator is mounted at the ceiling level adjacent to the west wall. The interior steel door located between rooms 003 and 006 is painted white with green trim.

The interior finishes in the kitchen (007) include painted masonry block laid in a running bond (8 inches by 16 inches) on the north wall (beige), painted glazed tile on the south and west walls (peach extending up 14 inches from the floor and white from there to the ceiling), and unpainted glazed brick (yellow/beige) on the east with a large window opening infilled with 90 glass blocks in a 9 over 10 configuration. The ceiling is painted concrete (beige) with pipes running in all directions suspended from the ceiling. Red clay tile flooring laid in a running bond. Six window openings on the north wall are infilled with glass block, 7 over 6 configuration. The two square columns are painted peach at the base and white from there to the ceiling. Six ceiling mounted fluorescent lights are mounted on the ceiling. Two electrical panels are mounted on the south wall west of the door to room 003. A three bowl stainless steel sink is extant on the north half of the east wall. A double oven unit is extant on the west wall. Along the north wall are two rectangular stainless steel exhaust hoods, each with four incandescent lights, two large stainless steel steam kettles, a four-tier stainless steel broiler, and a four-tier stainless steel oven.

The interior of the stainless steel walk-in cooler (008) is illuminated by a single wall mounted incandescent light west of the door. A triple blower unit is extant on the east wall. The ceiling height measures 6'-9 1/2".

The interior finishes in the main toilet (009) include painted masonry walls laid in a running bond (green), painted concrete ceiling (green), and red clay tile flooring laid in running bond. Two window openings are on the south wall and one on the west. The openings are infilled with glass block which has been boarded over with plywood, painted green except for the lowest coursing of block on the westernmost window which has been left open; an exhaust fan has also been inserted into this opening. One three-tube fluorescent light is mounted on the ceiling. The wood veneer flush entry door has one horizontal light cut into it. The extant plumbing fixtures include a wall mounted porcelain sink on the south wall, one porcelain toilet in the southwest corner, and a metal T partition on the west wall articulating the toilet stalls.

Room 010 (shower) was inaccessible.

The interior finishes in the toilet (011) include painted masonry walls laid in a running bond (white) with a painted concrete ceiling (white) and red clay tile flooring laid in running bond. One incandescent ceiling light is extant. The metal entry door is 1-1/2 inches thick with two panels, three lights in the top panel and a 1 foot high grate in the bottom. A ceiling mounted radiator is extant.

The interior finishes in the guards toilet (012) include painted masonry walls laid in a running bond (black, extending up 14 inches from the floor; brown for 7 courses of masonry; and white from there to the ceiling), painted concrete ceiling (white), and red clay tile flooring laid in running bond. A wood banner board is extant on the interior walls. One incandescent light is mounted to the ceiling. The wood entry door has two panels with glazing in the upper panel. A radiator is mounted to the south wall. Extant plumbing fixtures include a painted metal shower stall with sliding door, porcelain toilet, and wall mounted porcelain sink.

The interior finishes of room 013 include painted glazed masonry laid in a running bond (black extending up 14 inches from the floor and white from there to the ceiling), painted concrete ceiling (gray) and red clay tile flooring laid in running bond. One three-tube fluorescent light is mounted to the ceiling. Two window openings are located in the north wall and two on the west. The windows in the westernmost opening on the north wall and the northernmost opening on the west wall are infilled with 35 glass blocks in a 5 over 7 configuration. The easternmost opening on the north wall is infilled with an operable metal awning style casement window and the southernmost opening on the west wall is infilled with an operable metal awning style casement window with mesh screen.

The interior finishes of the dishwashing room (014) include a 4 inch red vinyl baseboard, 3' -3" of mauve 1 foot square octagonal tile, and painted white plaster from there to the ceiling The window opening on the north wall has a double hung operable sash with a 6 over 6 configuration. The floor is covered with 12 inch square vinyl tiles. The white painted frame of the drop ceiling is extant. One fluorescent ceiling light is extant along with a ceiling mounted radiator. The 5-panel wood entry door is glazed in the top two panels with wire glass.

Rooms 015 and 019 are dumbwaiters with single shafts, counterweights, pulleys, and flush wood doors. One incandescent light is extant in each.

The interior finishes in the dishwashing room (016) include a painted band of color (mauve) extending up 14 inches from the floor and white from there to the ceiling, painted concrete ceiling (white), and red clay tile flooring laid in a herring bone pattern. The window opening on the north wall is infilled with glass block in a 6 over 7 configuration. A two tube fluorescent ceiling light is extant. A two bowl stainless steel sink is extant on the north wall.

The interior finishes in the stairwell (017) include painted masonry walls laid in a running bond (with a band of color (brown) extending up 14 inches from the floor, and white from there to the ceiling), painted concrete ceiling (white), and concrete stairs with steel toe plates and painted risers (brown). A painted steel balustrade with a repeating pattern of three square spindles (brown) and mounted handrail were joined at each landing with a painted square newel posts (white shaft with brown cap). The painted flush metal entry door (white with peach trim an frame) has 16 true lights inserted into the top half in a 4 over 4 configuration. A fixed transom surmounts the door with 12

lights in a 6 over 2 configuration. Four fluorescent ceiling mounted fixtures are extant in this space.

The elevator shaft (018) was inaccessible at the time of documentation.

The interior finishes of the first floor corridor (101) include painted masonry walls laid in a running bond (gray extending up 21 courses up from the floor and white up to the drop beam), a painted concrete drop beam extending out 1 inch from the wall plane and 18 inches down from the ceiling, painted concrete ceiling (white), and concrete floor with 9 inch vinyl tiles. Fourteen steel sash windows with painted frames (gray) and muntins (white) and stone sills, are extant on the north and south sides of the corridor, two at each of six wards and the stairwell (rooms 106, 107, 108, 109 112, 113, and 117). Nineteen 2 panel steel doors open into this corridor, each with glazing in the upper half in a 3 over 3 configuration. Four fluorescent ceiling lights with pebble finish plastic covers are extant.

The interior finishes in room 102 include painted masonry walls laid in a running bond (yellow from the floor extending up to the concrete drop beam and white from there to the ceiling), painted concrete ceiling (light blue), and 12 inch vinyl tiles (white) laid over concrete. The ghosting of a wall dividing the space into two rooms is evidenced on the south wall. Four window openings, two on the east and two on the south, are glazed and divided into thirds by horizontal mullions. The middle sash is fixed with 16 true divided lights in a 2 over 8 configuration; the bottom sash is a hopper type with three true divided lights: and the top sash is a hopper type operable sash with three divided lights. Two 2 panel, painted metal entry doors (white) are glazed in the upper half with 6 lights in a 3 over 2 configuration. Four 4 tube fluorescent ceiling lights and a wall mounted radiator (under the window on the south wall) are extant. Exposed conduit is extant on all walls.

The interior finishes in room 104 (ward) include painted masonry walls laid in a running bond (gray extending up 14 inches from the floor, pink from there up to the concrete 12 inch drop beam and blue from the base of the drop beam to the ceiling, painted concrete ceiling (blue), and 12 inch vinyl tiles (white) laid over concrete. The two window openings on the south are glazed and divided into thirds by horizontal mullions. The middle sash is fixed with 16 true divided lights in a 2 over 8 configuration; the bottom sash is a hopper type with three true divided lights; and the top sash is a hopper type operable sash with three divided lights. The interior wall on the north is glazed with two steel fixed sash with 25 divided lights in a 5 over 5 configuration surmounting a 6 course masonry knee wall. The two panel, painted metal entry door (white) is glazed in the upper half with 9 lights in a 3 over 3 configuration with a metal plate and lock infill in the lower right hand pane. A six light transom surmounts the door. Four 4 tube fluorescent ceiling lights and a wall mounted radiator (under the window on the south wall) are extant. Exposed conduit is extant on all walls.

The interior finishes in room 105 (ward) include painted masonry walls laid in a running bond (light blue from the floor up to the concrete drop beam and mint green from the

drop beam to the ceiling, painted concrete ceiling (blue), and 9 inch vinyl tiles (white) laid over concrete. The two window openings on the south are glazed and divided into thirds by horizontal mullions. The middle sash is fixed with 16 true divided lights in a 2 over 8 configuration; the bottom sash is a hopper type with three true divided lights (infilled with painted plywood) and the top sash is a hopper type operable sash with three divided lights. The interior wall on the north is glazed with two steel fixed sash with 25 divided lights in a 5 over 5 configuration surmounting a 6 course masonry knee wall. The two panel, painted metal entry door (white) is glazed in the upper half with 9 lights in a 3 over 3 configuration with a metal plate and lock infill in the lower right hand pane. A six light transom surmounts the door. One radiator is mounted below the southeast window.

The interior finishes in room 106 (ward) include painted masonry walls laid in a running bond (dark gray extending up 14 inches from the floor, light gray from there to the concrete drop beam and mint green from the drop beam to the ceiling), painted concrete ceiling (blue), and 9 inch vinyl tiles (white) laid over concrete. The ceiling height measures 10'-11" from the floor. The two window openings on the south are glazed and divided into thirds by horizontal mullions. The middle sash is fixed with 16 true divided lights in a 2 over 8 configuration; the bottom sash is a hopper type with three true divided lights; and the top sash is a hopper type operable sash with three divided lights. The interior wall on the north is glazed with two steel fixed sash with 25 divided lights in a 5 over 5 configuration surmounting a 6 course masonry knee wall. The two panel, painted metal entry door (white) is glazed in the upper half with 9 lights in a 3 over 3 configuration with a metal plate and lock infill in the lower right hand pane. A six light transom surmounts the door. Two ceiling fluorescent lights are extant. One radiator is mounted below the southeast window.

The interior finishes in room 107 (ward) include painted masonry walls laid in a running bond (pink/purple from the floor to the concrete drop beam and mint green from the drop beam to the ceiling), painted concrete ceiling (green), and 9 inch vinyl tiles (white) laid over concrete. The ceiling height measures 10'-11" from the floor. The two window openings on the south are glazed and divided into thirds by horizontal mullions. The middle sash is fixed with 16 true divided lights in a 2 over 8 configuration; the bottom sash is a hopper type with three true divided lights; and the top sash is a hopper type operable sash with three divided lights. The interior wall on the north is glazed with two steel fixed sash with 25 divided lights in a 5 over 5 configuration surmounting a 6 course masonry knee wall. The two panel, painted metal entry door (white) is glazed in the upper half with 9 lights in a 3 over 3 configuration with a metal plate and lock infill in the lower right hand pane. A six light transom surmounts the door. Three ceiling fluorescent lights are extant. One radiator is mounted below the southeast window.

The interior finishes in room 108 include painted masonry walls laid in a running bond (dark gray 14 inches from the floor, white up from there to the ceiling), painted concrete ceiling (white), and 9 inch vinyl tiles (beige/green marble pattern) laid over concrete. The three window openings, two on the south and one on the west, are glazed and divided into thirds by horizontal mullions. The middle sash is fixed with 16 true divided

lights in a 2 over 8 configuration; the bottom sash is a hopper type with three true divided lights; and the top sash is a hopper type operable sash with three divided lights.

The interior finishes in room 109 include painted masonry walls laid in a running bond (pink/purple extending from the floor up to the 12 inch drop beam, white from there to the ceiling), painted concrete ceiling (white), and 9 inch vinyl tiles (white) laid over concrete. The north interior partition wall is painted concrete block (dark gray extending up two courses from the floor, light pink up 14 courses from there and white to the ceiling). Two ceiling fluorescent lights are extant. One radiator is mounted below the southeast window.

The interior finishes in room 110 include painted masonry walls laid in a running bond (dark gray extending up 14 inches from the floor, light gray from there to the drop beam, and light blue from the drop beam to the ceiling), painted concrete ceiling (white), and 9 inch vinyl tiles (beige/green marble pattern) laid over concrete. One two tube fluorescent ceiling light is extant. Two interior doors, one on the east wall and one of the west wall, are extant. The door leading into room 101 is a Dutch-style wooden door, painted white. The door leading to the outside is painted steel (dark gray) with 3 glazing lights in the upper half.

The interior finishes in room 111 (ward) include painted wood paneled walls laid in a running bond (light gray), drop ceiling measuring 7'-11" from the floor (ceiling panels are gone, only frame is extant), and 9 inch vinyl tiles (white) laid over concrete. The four window openings, two on the north and two on the west, are glazed and divided into thirds by horizontal mullions. The middle sash is fixed with 16 true divided lights in a 2 over 8 configuration; the bottom sash is a hopper type with three true divided lights (infilled with painted plywood) and the top sash is a hopper type operable sash with three divided lights. The lower two-thirds of the glazing of the window on the southwest in infilled with wood paneling. The two panel, painted metal entry door (white) is glazed in the upper half with 9 lights in a 3 over 3 configuration with a metal plate and lock infill in the lower right hand pane. There is no door extant in the opening leading into room 112. One air conditioner unit is mounted below the northeast window. A stainless steel sink measuring 8'-9" in length is extant on the south wall. A dental chair and dental equipment is extant in northeast corner along the east wall.

The interior finishes in room 112 (ward) include painted wood paneled walls laid in a running bond (light gray), drop ceiling measuring 7'-11" from the floor (ceiling panels are gone, only frame is extant), and 9 inch vinyl tiles (white) laid over concrete. The two window openings on the north are glazed and divided into thirds by horizontal mullions. The middle sash is fixed with 16 true divided lights in a 2 over 8 configuration; the bottom sash is a hopper type with three true divided lights; and the top sash is a hopper type operable sash with three divided lights. The interior wall on the south is glazed with two steel fixed sash with 25 divided lights in a 5 over 5 configuration surmounting a 6 course masonry knee wall. The two panel, painted metal entry door on the south wall (white) is glazed in the upper half with 9 lights in a 3 over 3 configuration with a metal plate and lock infill in the lower right hand pane. A six light transom (3 over 2)

surmounts the door. Four fluorescent ceiling lights are extant. One porcelain sink is centered on the exterior wall between the windows. One air conditioner is mounted below the northeast window.

The interior finishes in room 113 (ward) include painted masonry walls laid in a running bond (dark gray from the floor to the concrete drop beam and white from the drop beam to the ceiling), painted concrete ceiling (white), and 9 inch vinyl tiles (white) laid over concrete. The ceiling height measures 10'-11" from the floor. The two window openings on the north are glazed and divided into thirds by horizontal mullions. The middle sash is fixed with 16 true divided lights in a 2 over 8 configuration; the bottom sash is a hopper type with three true divided lights; and the top sash is a hopper type operable sash with three divided lights. The interior wall on the south is glazed with two steel fixed sash with 25 divided lights in a 5 over 5 configuration surmounting a 6 course masonry knee wall. The two panel, painted metal entry door on the south wall (white) is glazed in the upper half with 9 lights in a 3 over 3 configuration with a metal plate and lock infill in the lower right hand pane. A six light transom surmounts the door. One radiator is mounted below the northeast window.

The interior finishes in room 114 include painted masonry walls laid in a running bond (dark gray from the floor to the concrete drop beam and white from the drop beam to the ceiling), painted concrete ceiling (white), and 12 inch vinyl tiles (white) laid over concrete. The window opening on the south is glazed and divided into thirds by horizontal mullions. The middle sash is fixed with 16 true divided lights in a 2 over 8 configuration; the bottom sash is a hopper type with three true divided lights; and the top sash is a hopper type operable sash with three divided lights. Two fluorescent ceiling lights are extant.

The interior finishes in room 115 include painted masonry walls laid in a running bond (dark gray from the floor extending up 14 inches, light gray from there up 9 courses and white from there to the ceiling), painted concrete ceiling (white), and 9 inch vinyl tiles (white) laid over concrete. One painted porcelain sink (gray) is mounted to the north wall. One incandescent ceiling light is extant. The two-panel steel entry door is painted gray with louvers in the top panel.

The interior finishes in room 116 include painted masonry walls laid in a running bond (black extending up 14 inches from the floor, white from there to the concrete drop beam and blue from the drop beam to the ceiling), painted concrete ceiling (white), and 12 inch vinyl tiles (white) laid over concrete. The window opening on the north is glazed and divided into thirds by horizontal mullions. The middle sash is fixed with 16 true divided lights in a 2 over 8 configuration; the bottom sash is a hopper type with three true divided lights; and the top sash is a hopper type operable sash with three divided lights. Two florescent ceiling lights are extant. One wall mounted porcelain sink and two T stalls with toilets and assistance rails are extant. Projecting plumbing pipes are extant on the east wall. One radiator is mounted under the window.

Room 117 is the dumbwaiter extending from the basement up to the third floor. The frame and door are painted steel (brown).

The interior finishes of room 118 (diet kitchen) include painted masonry walls laid in a running bond (dark brown extending up 14 inches from the floor beige from there to the painted concrete drop beam and white from the drop beam to the ceiling), painted concrete ceiling (white), and 12 inch vinyl tiles (white) laid over concrete. A drop beam runs east to west in the room. The window opening on the north is glazed and divided into thirds by horizontal mullions. The middle sash is fixed with 16 true divided lights in a 2 over 8 configuration; the bottom sash is a hopper type with three true divided lights; and the top sash is a hopper type operable sash with three divided lights. Two florescent ceiling fixtures are extant in the room. Projecting plumbing pipes are extant on the east wall.

The interior finishes of room 119 (bath room) include painted masonry walls laid in a running bond (a band of dark gray extending up 14 inches from the floor, beige from there up 13 courses, and white above to the ceiling), painted concrete ceiling (white), and 9 inch vinyl tiles (white) laid over concrete. The window opening on the north is glazed and divided into thirds by horizontal mullions. The middle sash is fixed with 16 true divided lights in a 2 over 8 configuration; the bottom sash is a hopper type with three true divided lights; and the top sash is a hopper type operable sash with three divided lights. Two florescent ceiling fixtures are extant in the room. One porcelain bathtub with assistance rail and built-in brick shower stall are extant on the west wall. One radiator is mounted under the window.

The interior finishes in room 120 (stairwell) include a painted masonry band of color (gray) extending up 14 inches, unpainted glazed masonry from there to the drop beam, and white from there to the ceiling, painted concrete ceiling (white) and concrete stairs with steel toe plates and painted risers (brown). A painted steel balustrade with a repeating pattern of three square spindles (brown) and mounted handrail were joined at each landing with a painted square newel posts (white shaft with brown cap). A painted wall mounted handrail (white) is extant on the outside stair wall. The flush painted double metal entry door (white with peach trim and frame) has 16 true lights inserted into the top half in a 4 over 4 configuration. A fixed transom surmounts the door with 12 lights in a 6 over 2 configuration. One window opening on the east wall and one on the north (at landing) are glazed and divided into thirds by horizontal mullions. The middle sash is fixed with 16 true divided lights in a 2 over 8 configuration; the bottom sash is a hopper type with three true divided lights; and the top sash is a hopper type operable sash with three divided lights. Emergency lights are mounted west of the window on the north wall. An electrical panel is mounted on the west wall. Three fluorescent lights are extant: two on the ceiling of the first floor and one on the ceiling on the landing.

Room 121 is the elevator. The car was located at this level at the time of documentation. The interior walls were wood paneled. The elevator doors were painted metal (white).

The interior finishes in the corridor on the second floor (201) include painted masonry walls laid in a running bond (white with a banding of color (gray) extending up 14 inches, light gray from the base up 11 courses, white from there to the ceiling), painted concrete ceiling (light gray), and concrete floor with 9 inch vinyl tiles. The window opening on the east wall is glazed and divided into thirds by horizontal mullions. The middle sash is fixed with 16 true divided lights in a 2 over 8 configuration; the bottom sash is a hopper type with three true divided lights; and the top sash is a hopper type operable sash with three divided lights. The south and north walls are glazed with steel fixed sash (16), each with 25 divided lights in a 5 over 5 configuration surmounting a 6 course masonry knee wall. 14 two panel steel doors open into this corridor, each with glazing in the upper half in a 3 over 3 configuration, single door units. One double door unit leads into the stairwell. The ceiling height measures 10'-10 1/2" from the floor. Four fluorescent lights are extant on the ceiling. One wall mounted porcelain sink is hanging on the north wall between doorways to rooms number 214 and 216. Projecting plumbing pipes are extant on the south wall between door openings to room 202 and 203. Three radiators are extant on the south wall.

The interior finishes in room 202 (ward) include painted masonry walls laid in a running bond pattern (brown extending up 14 inches from the floor, beige from there up 11 courses and white from there to the ceiling), painted concrete ceiling (light blue), and 9 inch vinyl tiles (white) laid over concrete. A drop beam runs from east to west in the middle of the room. The four window openings, two on the south and two on the east, are glazed and divided into thirds by horizontal mullions. The middle sash is fixed with 16 true divided lights in a 2 over 8 configuration; the bottom sash is a hopper type with three true divided lights; and the top sash is a hopper type operable sash with three divided lights. The interior wall on the north is glazed with two steel fixed sash with 25 divided lights in a 5 over 5 configuration surmounting a 6 course masonry knee wall. The two panel, painted metal entry door (white) is glazed in the upper half with 9 lights in a 3 over 3 configuration with a metal plate and lock infill in the lower right hand pane. A six light transom surmounts the door. Two fluorescent ceiling lights are extant.

The interior finishes in room 203 (ward) include painted masonry walls laid in a running bond (brown extending up 14 inches from the floor, beige from there up 11 courses and white from there to the ceiling), painted concrete ceiling (light blue), and 9 inch vinyl tiles (white) laid over concrete. The two window openings on the south are glazed and divided into thirds by horizontal mullions. The middle sash is fixed with 16 true divided lights in a 2 over 8 configuration; the bottom sash is a hopper type with three true divided lights; and the top sash is a hopper type operable sash with three divided lights. The interior wall on the north is glazed with two steel fixed sash with 25 divided lights in a 5 over 5 configuration surmounting a 6 course masonry knee wall. The two panel, painted metal entry door (white) is glazed in the upper half with 9 lights in a 3 over 3 configuration with a metal plate and lock infill in the lower right hand pane. A six light transom surmounts the door. Two fluorescent ceiling lights are extant.

The interior finishes in room 204 (ward) include painted masonry walls laid in a running bond (brown extending up 14 inches from the floor, beige from there up 11 courses and

white from there to the ceiling), painted concrete ceiling (light blue), and 9 inch vinyl tiles (white) laid over concrete. The two window openings on the south are glazed and divided into thirds by horizontal mullions. The middle sash is fixed with 16 true divided lights in a 2 over 8 configuration; the bottom sash is a hopper type with three true divided lights; and the top sash is a hopper type operable sash with three divided lights. The interior wall on the north is glazed with two steel fixed sash with 25 divided lights in a 5 over 5 configuration surmounting a 6 course masonry knee wall. The two panel, painted metal entry door (white) is glazed in the upper half with 9 lights in a 3 over 3 configuration with a metal plate and lock infill in the lower right hand pane. A six light transom surmounts the door. Two fluorescent ceiling lights are extant.

The interior finishes in room 205 (ward) include painted masonry walls laid in a running bond (brown extending up 14 inches from the floor, beige from there up 11 courses and white from there to the ceiling), painted concrete ceiling (light blue), and 9 inch vinyl tiles (white) laid over concrete. The two window openings on the south are glazed and divided into thirds by horizontal mullions. The middle sash is fixed with 16 true divided lights in a 2 over 8 configuration; the bottom sash is a hopper type with three true divided lights; and the top sash is a hopper type operable sash with three divided lights. The interior wall on the north is glazed with two steel fixed sash with 25 divided lights in a 5 over 5 configuration surmounting a 6 course masonry knee wall. The two panel, painted metal entry door (white) is glazed in the upper half with 9 lights in a 3 over 3 configuration with a metal plate and lock infill in the lower right hand pane. A six light transom surmounts the door. Two fluorescent ceiling lights are extant.

The interior finishes in room 206 (ward) include painted masonry walls laid in a running bond (brown extending up 14 inches from the floor, beige from there up 11 courses and white from there to the ceiling), painted concrete ceiling (light blue), and 9 inch vinyl tiles (white) laid over concrete. The two window openings on the south are glazed and divided into thirds by horizontal mullions. The middle sash is fixed with 16 true divided lights in a 2 over 8 configuration; the bottom sash is a hopper type with three true divided lights; and the top sash is a hopper type operable sash with three divided lights. The interior wall on the north is glazed with two steel fixed sash with 25 divided lights in a 5 over 5 configuration surmounting a 6 course masonry knee wall. The two panel, painted metal entry door (white) is glazed in the upper half with 9 lights in a 3 over 3 configuration with a metal plate and lock infill in the lower right hand pane. A six light transom surmounts the door. Two fluorescent ceiling lights are extant.

The interior finishes in room 207 (ward) include painted masonry walls laid in a running bond (brown extending up 14 inches from the floor, beige from there up 11 courses and white from there to the ceiling), painted concrete ceiling (light blue), and 9 inch vinyl tiles (white) laid over concrete. A drop beam runs from east to west in the middle of the room. The four window openings, two on the south and the two on the west, are glazed and divided into thirds by horizontal mullions. The middle sash is fixed with 16 true divided lights in a 2 over 8 configuration; the bottom sash is a hopper type with three true divided lights; and the top sash is a hopper type operable sash with three divided lights. The interior wall on the north is glazed with two steel fixed sash with 25 divided

lights in a 5 over 5 configuration surmounting a 6 course masonry knee wall. The two panel, painted metal entry door (white) is glazed in the upper half with 9 lights in a 3 over 3 configuration with a metal plate and lock infill in the lower right hand pane. A six light transom surmounts the door. Two fluorescent ceiling lights are extant.

The interior finishes in room 208 include painted masonry walls laid in a running bond (brown extending up 14 inches from the floor, beige from there up to the ceiling), painted concrete ceiling (white), and 9 inch vinyl tiles (white) laid over concrete. The door leading to the outside is painted steel (dark gray) with 3 glazing lights in the upper half. A ten light transom surmounts the door. The door trim is painted brown. One ceiling florescent light is extant.

The interior finishes in room 209 (ward) include painted masonry walls laid in a running bond (brown extending up 14 inches from the floor, beige from there up 11 courses and white from there to the ceiling), painted concrete ceiling (light blue), and 9 inch vinyl tiles (white) laid over concrete. The four window openings, two on the north and the two on the west, are glazed and divided into thirds by horizontal mullions. The middle sash is fixed with 16 true divided lights in a 2 over 8 configuration; the bottom sash is a hopper type with three true divided lights; and the top sash is a hopper type operable sash with three divided lights. The interior wall on the south is glazed with two steel fixed sash with 25 divided lights in a 5 over 5 configuration surmounting a 6 course masonry knee wall. The two panel, painted metal entry door (white) is glazed in the upper half with 9 lights in a 3 over 3 configuration with a metal plate and lock infill in the lower right hand pane. A six light transom surmounts the door. Two fluorescent ceiling lights are extant. One radiator is extant on the north wall in the northeast corner.

The interior finishes in room 210 (ward) include painted masonry walls laid in a running bond (brown extending up 14 inches from the floor, beige from there up 11 courses and white from there to the ceiling, painted concrete ceiling (light blue), and 9 inch vinyl tiles (white) laid over concrete). The four window openings, two on the north and the two on the west, are glazed and divided into thirds by horizontal mullions. The middle sash is fixed with 16 true divided lights in a 2 over 8 configuration; the bottom sash is a hopper type with three true divided lights; and the top sash is a hopper type operable sash with three divided lights. The interior wall on the south is glazed with two steel fixed sash with 25 divided lights in a 5 over 5 configuration surmounting a 6 course masonry knee wall. The two panel, painted metal entry door (white) is glazed in the upper half with 9 lights in a 3 over 3 configuration with a metal plate and lock infill in the lower right hand pane. A six light transom surmounts the door. Two fluorescent ceiling lights are extant. One radiator is extant on the north wall in the northeast corner.

The interior finishes in room 211 (ward) include painted masonry walls laid in a running bond (brown extending up 14 inches from the floor, beige from there up 11 courses and white from there to the ceiling), painted concrete ceiling (light blue), and 9 inch vinyl tiles (white) laid over concrete. The two window openings on the north and the two on the west are glazed and divided into thirds by horizontal mullions. The middle sash is fixed with 16 true divided lights in a 2 over 8 configuration; the bottom sash is a hopper

type with three true divided lights; and the top sash is a hopper type operable sash with three divided lights. The interior wall on the south is glazed with two steel fixed sash with 25 divided lights in a 5 over 5 configuration surmounting a 6 course masonry knee wall. The two panel, painted metal entry door (white) is glazed in the upper half with 9 lights in a 3 over 3 configuration with a metal plate and lock infill in the lower right hand pane. A six light transom surmounts the door. Two fluorescent ceiling lights are extant. One radiator is extant on the north wall in the northeast corner.

The interior finishes in room 212 (ward) include painted masonry walls laid in a running bond (brown extending up 6 inches from the floor, beige from there up 11 courses and white from there to the ceiling), painted concrete ceiling (light blue), and 9 inch vinyl tiles (white) laid over concrete. The window opening on the north is glazed and divided into thirds by horizontal mullions. The middle sash is fixed with 16 true divided lights in a 2 over 8 configuration; the bottom sash is a hopper type with three true divided lights; and the top sash is a hopper type operable sash with three divided lights. Two fluorescent ceiling lights are extant. One radiator is extant on the north wall in the northeast corner.

The interior finishes in room 213 include painted masonry walls laid in a running bond (dark gray from the floor extending up 14 inches, light gray from there up 9 courses and white from there to the ceiling), painted concrete ceiling (white), and 9 inch vinyl tiles (white) laid over concrete. One painted porcelain sink (gray) is mounted to the north wall. One incandescent ceiling light is extant. The two-panel steel entry door is painted gray with louvers in the top panel.

The interior finishes in room 214 include painted masonry walls laid in a running bond (dark gray extending up 6 inches from the floor, light gray from there to the concrete drop beam and white from the drop beam to the ceiling), painted concrete ceiling (white), and 9 inch vinyl tiles (white) laid over concrete. The window opening on the north is glazed and divided into thirds by horizontal mullions. The middle sash is fixed with 16 true divided lights in a 2 over 8 configuration; the bottom sash is a hopper type with three true divided lights; and the top sash is a hopper type operable sash with three divided lights. Two wall mounted porcelain sink, three toilet stalls with wood partitions are extant on the east wall. One radiator is mounted under the window.

The interior finishes in room 215 include painted masonry walls laid in a running bond (black extending up 6 inches from the floor, white from there to the ceiling), painted concrete ceiling (white), and 9 inch vinyl tiles (white) laid over concrete. The window opening on the north is glazed and divided into thirds by horizontal mullions. The middle sash is fixed with 16 true divided lights in a 2 over 8 configuration; the bottom sash is a hopper type with three true divided lights; and the top sash is a hopper type operable sash with three divided lights. A plywood hood surround has been infilled in the lower third. One wall mounted stainless steel sink is extant on the east wall. One radiator is mounted under the window.

Room 216 is the dumbwaiter extending from the basement up to the third floor. The frame and door are unpainted steel.

The interior finishes of room 217 (bath room) include painted masonry walls laid in a running bond (a band of dark gray extending up 6 inches from the floor, light gray from there up 11 courses and white above up to 5 course band of light gray and a white drop beam), painted concrete ceiling (white), and 9 inch vinyl tiles (white) laid over concrete. The window opening on the north is glazed and divided into thirds by horizontal mullions. The middle sash is fixed with 16 true divided lights in a 2 over 8 configuration; the bottom sash is a hopper type with three true divided lights; and the top sash is a hopper type operable sash with three divided lights. One porcelain bathtub with assistance rail and built-in brick shower stall are extant on the west wall. One radiator is mounted on the east wall.

The interior finishes in room 218 (stairwell) include a painted masonry band of color (gray extending up 14 inches, unpainted glazed masonry from there to the drop beam, and white from there to the ceiling), painted concrete ceiling (white) and concrete stairs with steel toe plates and painted risers (brown). A painted steel balustrade with a repeating pattern of three square spindles (brown) and mounted handrail were joined at each landing with a painted square newel posts (white shaft with brown cap). A painted wall mounted handrail (white) is extant on the outside stair wall. The painted double metal entry door is flush with 16 true lights inserted into the top half in a 4 over 4 configuration (white with peach trim and frame). A fixed transom surmounts the door with 12 lights in a 6 over 2 configuration. One window opening on the east wall and one on the north (at landing) are glazed and divided into thirds by horizontal mullions. The middle sash is fixed with 16 true divided lights in a 2 over 8 configuration; the bottom sash is a hopper type with three true divided lights; and the top sash is a hopper type operable sash with three divided lights. Four fluorescent ceiling fixtures are extant in this space. Emergency lights are mounted west of the window on the north wall. An electrical panel is mounted on the west wall. Three fluorescent lights are extant, two on the ceiling of the first floor and one on the ceiling on the landing.

Room 219 is the elevator shaft. The elevator doors were painted metal (white).

The interior finishes in the corridor on the third floor (301) include painted masonry walls laid in a running bond with a banding of color (brown extending up 14 inches and white from there up to the ceiling), painted concrete ceiling (white), and concrete floor with 9 inch vinyl tiles. The south and north walls are glazed with steel fixed sash (16), each with 25 divided lights in a 5 over 5 configuration surmounting a 6 course masonry knee wall. Twelve 2 panel steel doors open into this corridor, each with glazing in the upper half in a 3 over 3 configuration. One double door unit leads into the stairwell. The ceiling height measures 10'-10 1/2" from the floor. Three fluorescent lights are extant on the ceiling.

The interior finishes in room 302 (ward) include painted masonry walls laid in a running bond (white), painted concrete ceiling (white), and 9 inch vinyl tiles (white) laid over concrete. A drop beam runs from east to west in the middle of the room. The two window openings on the south are glazed and divided into thirds by horizontal mullions.

The middle sash is fixed with 16 true divided lights in a 2 over 8 configuration; the bottom sash is a hopper type with three true divided lights; and the top sash is a hopper type operable sash with three divided lights. The two panel, painted metal entry door (white) is glazed in the upper half with 9 lights in a 3 over 3 configuration with a metal plate and lock infill in the lower right hand pane. A six light transom (3 over 2) surmounts the door. Six fluorescent ceiling lights are extant.

The interior finishes in room 303 include painted masonry walls laid in a running bond (a band of black extending up 6 inches from the floor, light blue from there up to the drop beam, and white from there to the ceiling), painted concrete ceiling (white), and 9 inch vinyl tiles (white) laid over concrete. The interior wall on the south is glazed with two steel fixed sash with 25 divided lights in a 5 over 5 configuration surmounting a 6 course masonry knee wall. Projecting plumbing pipes are extant on the east wall. Two fluorescent ceiling lights are extant.

The interior finishes in room 304 include painted masonry walls laid in a running bond. The east wall has a band of black extending up 14 inches from the floor and light blue from there up to the ceiling. The north wall has a band of black extending up 6 inches from the floor and white from there up to the ceiling. The south wall has a band of black extending up 6 inches from the floor, turquoise from there up to the drop beam and green from there up to the ceiling. The west wall has a band of black extending up 6 inches from the floor, turquoise from there up to the drop beam and white from there up to the ceiling. A large opening was cut into the original west wall of this space. This opening consists of a short wall on the south and a drop beam running north and south. The opening is framed with painted wood (turquoise). The six window openings on the south are glazed and divided into thirds by horizontal mullions. The middle sash is fixed with 16 true divided lights in a 2 over 8 configuration; the bottom sash is a hopper type with three true divided lights; and the top sash is a hopper type operable sash with three divided lights. Four fluorescent ceiling light are extant. One radiator is mounted under the center window on the south wall.

The interior finishes in room 305 include painted masonry walls laid in a running bond (a band of black extending up 6 inches from the floor, light blue from there up to the drop beam, and white from there to the ceiling), painted concrete ceiling (white), and 9 inch vinyl tiles (white) laid over concrete. The interior wall on the south is glazed with two steel fixed sash with 25 divided lights in a 5 over 5 configuration surmounting a 6 course masonry knee wall. Projecting plumbing pipes are extant on the east wall. Access openings to the plumbing chase are located in the east and west walls. A painted wood shelf (white) is mounted on the west wall 14 courses above the floor. Two fluorescent ceiling lights and one radiator are extant.

The interior finishes in room 306 include painted masonry walls laid in a running bond (a band of black extending up 6 inches from the floor, light blue from there up to the drop beam, and white from there to the ceiling), painted concrete ceiling (white), and 9 inch vinyl tiles (white) laid over concrete. The interior wall on the south is glazed with two steel fixed sash with 25 divided lights in a 5 over 5 configuration surmounting a 6

course masonry knee wall. Projecting plumbing pipes are extant on the east wall. Two fluorescent ceiling lights are extant.

The interior finishes in room 307 include painted masonry walls laid in a running bond (a band of black extending up 6 inches from the floor, yellow from there up to the drop beam, and white from there to the ceiling), painted concrete ceiling (white), and concrete floor. The eastern half of the north wall is glazed with two steel fixed sash with 25 divided lights in a 5 over 5 configuration surmounting a 6 course masonry knee wall. 5 doors open into this room, each with glazing in the upper half in a 3 over 3 configuration. One fluorescent ceiling light is extant.

Rooms 308, 309, and 310 were inaccessible.

The interior finishes in room 311 include painted masonry walls laid in a running bond (a band of black extending up 6 inches from the floor, dark sienna from there up 11 courses, white from there up to the ceiling), painted concrete ceiling (white), and concrete floor. The door leading to the outside is painted steel (dark sienna) with 3 glazing lights in the upper half. A ten light transom surmounts the door. One ceiling florescent light is extant.

Room 312 was inaccessible.

The interior finishes in room 313 (ward) include painted masonry walls laid in a running bond (black extending up 14 inches from the floor, yellow from there up to the drop beam and white from there to the ceiling), painted concrete ceiling (light yellow), and 12 inch vinyl tiles (white) laid over concrete. The two window openings on the north are glazed and divided into thirds by horizontal mullions. The middle sash is fixed with 16 true divided lights in a 2 over 8 configuration; the bottom sash is a hopper type with three true divided lights; and the top sash is a hopper type operable sash with three divided lights. The interior wall on the south is glazed with two steel fixed sash with 25 divided lights in a 5 over 5 configuration surmounting a 6 course masonry knee wall. The two panel, painted metal entry door (white) is glazed in the upper half with 9 lights in a 3 over 3 configuration with a metal plate and lock infill in the lower right hand pane. A six light transom surmounts the door. Two fluorescent ceiling lights are extant. One radiator is extant on the north wall in the northeast corner.

Room 314 was inaccessible.

The interior finishes in room 315 include painted masonry walls laid in a running bond (pink), painted concrete ceiling (white), and concrete floor. Wall on south is partially glazed with wire glass. The two-panel metal entry door (white) is glazed in the upper half with three true divided lights. A glazed transom surmounts the door. One fluorescent ceiling light is extant. Two built-in metal cabinets with six shelves each are extant on the west wall.

The interior finishes in room 316 include painted masonry walls laid in a running bond (brown extending up 6 inches from the floor, beige from there up 11 courses, and white from there to the ceiling), painted concrete ceiling (white), and concrete floor. The window opening on the north is glazed and divided into thirds by horizontal mullions. The middle sash is fixed with 16 true divided lights in a 2 over 8 configuration; the bottom sash is a hopper type with three true divided lights; and the top sash is a hopper type operable sash with three divided lights. Four fluorescent ceiling lights are extant. One radiator is mounted under the window on the northeast side.

The interior finishes in room 317 include painted masonry walls laid in a running bond (black from the floor extending up 14 inches, yellow from there up 11 courses and white from there to the ceiling), painted concrete ceiling (white), and concrete floor. One porcelain sink is mounted to the north wall. Two light fixtures are extant: one incandescent ceiling fixture and one wall mounted incandescent fixture. The two-panel steel entry door is painted gray with louvers in the top panel.

The interior finishes in room 318 include painted masonry walls laid in a running bond (brown extending up 6 inches from the floor, yellow from there up 11 courses and white from there to the ceiling), painted concrete ceiling (white), and 9 inch vinyl tiles (white) laid over concrete. The window opening on the north is glazed and divided into thirds by horizontal mullions. The middle sash is fixed with 16 true divided lights in a 2 over 8 configuration; the bottom sash is a hopper type with three true divided lights; and the top sash is a hopper type operable sash with three divided lights. The two panel, painted metal entry door (white) is glazed in the upper half with 9 lights in a 3 over 3 configuration with a metal plate and lock infill in the lower right hand pane. Two wall mounted porcelain sinks, three toilet stalls with wood partitions are extant on the east wall. One radiator is mounted under the window.

The interior finishes in room 319 include painted masonry walls laid in a running bond (brown extending up 6 inches from the floor, beige from there up 11 courses and white from there to the ceiling), painted concrete ceiling (white), and 9 inch vinyl tiles (white) laid over concrete. The window opening on the north is glazed and divided into thirds by horizontal mullions. The middle sash is fixed with 16 true divided lights in a 2 over 8 configuration; the bottom sash is a hopper type with three true divided lights; and the top sash is a hopper type operable sash with three divided lights. A plywood hood surround has been infilled in the lower third. One wall mounted stainless steel sink is extant on the east wall. One radiator is mounted under the window.

Room 320 is the dumbwaiter extending from the basement up to the third floor. The frame and door are unpainted steel.

The interior finishes of room 321 (bath room) include painted masonry walls laid in a running bond (brown extending up 6 inches from the floor, yellow from there up 11 courses and white from there to the ceiling), painted concrete ceiling (white), and 9 inch vinyl tiles (white) laid over concrete. The window opening on the north is glazed and divided into thirds by horizontal mullions. The middle sash is fixed with 16 true divided

lights in a 2 over 8 configuration; the bottom sash is a hopper type with three true divided lights; and the top sash is a hopper type operable sash with three divided lights. One radiator is mounted on the east wall.

The interior finishes in room 322 (stairwell) include a painted masonry band of color (gray extending up 14 inches, unpainted glazed masonry from there to the drop beam, and white from there to the ceiling), painted concrete ceiling (white), and concrete stairs with steel toe plates and painted risers (brown). A painted steel balustrade with a repeating pattern of three square spindles (brown) and mounted handrail were joined at each landing with a painted square newel posts (white shaft with brown cap). A painted wall mounted handrail (white) is extant on the outside stair wall. The painted double metal entry door is flush with 16 true lights inserted into the top half in a 4 over 4 configuration (white with peach trim and frame). A fixed transom surmounts the door with 12 lights in a 6 over 2 configuration. One window opening on the east wall and one on the north (at landing) are glazed and divided into thirds by horizontal mullions. The middle sash is fixed with 16 true divided lights in a 2 over 8 configuration; the bottom sash is a hopper type with three true divided lights; and the top sash is a hopper type operable sash with three divided lights. Four fluorescent ceiling fixtures are extant in this space. Emergency lights are mounted west of the window on the north wall. An electrical panel is mounted on the west wall.

Room 322 is the elevator shaft. The elevator doors were painted metal (white).

3. **Mechanical/Electrical Equipment**

   a. **Heating, Air Conditioning, and Ventilation**

      The extant heat units are noted within each room description.

   b. **Electrical**

      The extant fixtures are noted within each room description.

   c. **Plumbing**

      The extant fixtures are noted within each room description.

D. **Site**

The Old Hospital is located south of the Chapel, northeast of the Gym/Dining room building, north of the Operating Room, and is connected to the Detention Building via a one and a half story passageway. The surrounding grounds are grass covered on the north and west, and concrete paved on the south and east.

PART III: SOURCES OF INFORMATION

A. Original Architectural Drawings

Original drawings for Stateville are contained in the archives of the Capital Development Board of the State of Illinois. The following drawings, listed in chronological order, were reviewed in developing the historical narrative. Copies of these drawings are included in the field record. Several of these drawings are reproduced in the Archival Photographic Record.

1. Zimmerman, W. Carbys, Architect. New Illinois State Penitentiary, Cell House Set. Title Sheet and Sheets 1, 3, 4, 5, 6, 8, 11, 14, and 16. N.d. [circa 1917]; Sheets 2, 3, and 12. Revised 21 November 1921. Basement and typical floor plans; wall and roof sections; plans, sections, and details of typical cells; conning tower details; structural plans and details; and building elevations and sections.

2. Zimmerman, W. Carbys, Architect. New Illinois State Penitentiary, Special Cell House Set, Sheet 1 and 2 [?]. 20 December 1919, and revised 5 February 1920. Floor plans, elevations, sections, and details.

3. Zimmerman, W. Carbys, Architect. New Illinois State Penitentiary, 5 Wall Towers. Sheet 1. Revised 5 February 1920. Floor plans, elevations, sections, and details.

4. Zimmerman, W. Carbys, Architect. New Illinois State Penitentiary, Wagon Lock and R.R. Gate. Sheet 1. Revised 15 March 1920. Plans, sections, elevations, and details.

5. Zimmerman, W. Carbys, Architect. New Illinois State Penitentiary, [Details of Wall Tower Walkways]. Sheet 2. Revised 16 August 1921. Plans, elevations, sections, and details.

6. Zimmerman, W. Carbys, Architect. New Illinois State Penitentiary, Dining Hall. Sheets 3, 11, [and ?]. Revised 29 December 1921 and 12 January 1922. Floor plan, partial building section, and interior details (including original bandstand and table details).

7. Zimmerman, Saxe & Zimmerman, Architects. New Illinois State Penitentiary, Plans and Details for Corridors. N.d. [sheet references 19 May 1922]. Floor plans, sections, and details of underground corridor system.

8. Zimmerman, Saxe & Zimmerman, Architects. New Illinois State Penitentiary, Detention Building. Sheet 1 [?] and 2. 13 November 1922. Floor plans, sections, elevations, and details.

9. Zimmerman, Saxe & Zimmerman, Architects. New Illinois State Penitentiary, Deputy Warden's & Guards Room. Sheet X. 10 October 1924. Floor plans, sections, elevations, and details.

10. Lindstrom, William J., Supervising Engineer, State of Illinois Department of Purchases and Construction, Division of Architecture and Engineering. Illinois State Penitentiary, Furniture Factory Unit 'A'; Furniture Factory Unit 'B'; and Furniture Factory Unit 'C'; Stateville, Illinois. Sheets 2, 3, 4, 6, 7 [?], 9, 11, 14, and 15. 7 June 1927. Floor plans, sections, elevations, and details.

11. Hammond, C. Herrick, Supervising Architect, State of Illinois Department of Purchases and Construction, Division of Architecture and Engineering. Illinois State Penitentiary, Gatehouse, Stateville, Illinois. Sheet '0.' 12 September 1930. Sanitary and storms sewers, steam, water supplies, and electric service.

12. Hammond, C. Herrick, Supervising Architect, State of Illinois Department of Purchases and Construction, Division of Architecture and Engineering. Illinois State Penitentiary, Two Yard Guard Towers #43 & #44, Stateville, Illinois. Sheet 1. 23 June 1931. Plot plan, floor plans, sections, and elevations.

13. Hammond, C. Herrick, Supervising Architect, State of Illinois Department of Purchases and Construction, Division of Architecture and Engineering. Illinois State Penitentiary, North, West, and South Wall Towers, Stateville, Illinois. Sheet 1. 23 June 1931. Plans, section, elevations, and details.

14. Hammond, C. Herrick, Supervising Architect, State of Illinois Department of Purchases and Construction, Division of Architecture and Engineering. Illinois State Penitentiary, Addition to Main Kitchen, Stateville, Illinois. Sheet 1. 29 April 1932. Floor plan, structural framing plan, and details.

15. Hammond, C. Herrick, Supervising Architect, State of Illinois Department of Purchases and Construction, Division of Architecture and Engineering. Illinois State Penitentiary, Plot Plan, Stateville, Illinois. Sheet 1. June 1932.

16. Hammond, C. Herrick, Supervising Architect, State of Illinois Department of Purchases and Construction, Division of Architecture and Engineering. Illinois State Penitentiary, Hospital Addition and Alterations to Detention Building, Stateville, Illinois. Sheets 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7A, 8A, 10, S-1, S-2, S-3, M-1, M-2, M-3, M-4, M-5, and M-6. Revised 17 October 1932. Floor plans, sections, and details.

17. Hammond, C. Herrick, Supervising Architect, State of Illinois Department of Purchases and Construction, Division of Architecture and Engineering. Illinois State Penitentiary, Operating Wing Addition to Detention Building, Stateville, Illinois. Sheets 11, 12, [and two additional sheets]. Revised 29 October 1933. Floor plans, elevations, sections, details, and mechanical systems.

18. Hammond, C. Herrick, Supervising Architect, State of Illinois Department of Public Works and Buildings, Division of Architecture and Engineering. Illinois State Penitentiary, Addition to Tailor Shop, Stateville, Illinois. Sheet A-1. Revised 17 October 1940. Floor plan, elevations, and building section.

19. Hammond, C. Herrick, Supervising Architect, State of Illinois Department of Public Works and Buildings, Division of Architecture and Engineering. Illinois State Penitentiary, Alterations to Yard Guard Towers Nos. 43 & 44. Stateville, Illinois. Sheet AS-1. Revised 22 September 1941. Floor plans, structural plans, and details.

20. Hammond, C. Herrick, Supervising Architect, State of Illinois Department of Public Works and Buildings, Division of Architecture and Engineering. Root Cellar for Illinois State Penitentiary, Stateville Branch. Sheet A-1. 20 May 1942. Plot plan, floor plan, sections, and elevations.

21. Hammond, C. Herrick, Supervising Architect, State of Illinois Department of Public Works and Buildings, Division of Architecture and Engineering. Guards' Dormitory and Addition to Administration Building, Illinois State Penitentiary, Stateville Branch, Stateville, Illinois. Sheets A-1, A-2, A-3, and A-4. 6 March 1943. Floor plans, elevations, and sections.

22. Hammond, C. Herrick, Supervising Architect, State of Illinois Department of Public Works and Buildings, Division of Architecture and Engineering. Segregation Building, Illinois State Penitentiary, Stateville Branch, Joliet, Illinois. Sheets A-2, A-3, and A-5. Revised 11 December 1945. Floor plans, elevations, sections, and details.

23. Johanson, Lorentz A., Supervising Architect, State of Illinois Department of Public Works and Buildings, Division of Architecture and Engineering. New Trailer Court at Illinois State Penitentiary, Stateville Branch, Joliet, Illinois. Sheet A-1. 16 June 1967. [Scheme without park.]

24. Johanson, Lorentz A., Supervising Architect, State of Illinois Department of Public Works and Buildings, Division of Architecture and Engineering. New Trailer Court at Illinois State Penitentiary, Stateville Branch, Joliet, Illinois. Sheet A-1. 16 June 1967. [Scheme with park.]

25. The Balsamo/Olson Group, Inc. Kitchen/Dining Rehabilitation, Stateville Correctional Center. Sheets A-1, A-2, A-3, A-4, and A-9. 2 May 1983. Floor plans, sections, and details.

B. Early Views

The Identification Department of Stateville Correctional Center has numerous historic photographs showing the facility at its original construction and subsequent development. Copies of some of these photographs are included in the Archival Photographic Record and/or in Appendix C.

C. Interviews

No extensive interviews were performed in the production of this documentation.

D. Bibliography

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E. Additional Sources Not Investigated

Two books were not reviewed in the preparation of this documentation:

Kalmer, Leo, and Eligius Weir. *Crime and Religion: A Study of Criminological Facts and Problems Based on Twenty Years of Observation.* Chicago: Franciscan Herald Press, 1936. [*Kalmer and Weir were chaplains at Joliet-Stateville; the book contains little directly related to operations at Stateville.*]

Rothman, David J. *Strangers at the Bedside: A History of How Law and Bioethics Transformed Medical Decision Making.* New York: Basic Books, 1991. [*The book contains a chapter with information on wartime medical experiments, including those at Stateville.*]

PART IV: METHODOLOGY OF RESEARCH

A. Research Strategy

Background material on prisons was obtained through the interlibrary loan system of public and university libraries. Drawings for each of the buildings to be documented were obtained from the archives of the Illinois Capital Development Board. The site was then visited to document the individual buildings and review available archival materials. Stateville Correctional Center has collections of newspaper clippings, historic photographs, miscellaneous site plan drawings, and other materials obtained for review through the warden's office. Historical information on Joliet, Illinois, was obtained from the Joliet Public Library. Finally, additional historical information on the Illinois Department of Corrections and Stateville Correctional Center was obtained from the State of Illinois Archives and Illinois State Historical Library, both in Springfield, Illinois.

B. Archives and Repositories Used

1. Public Libraries

a. Illinois State Historical Library, Springfield, Illinois

b. Joliet Public Library, Joliet, Illinois

c. University of Illinois Library, Champaign-Urbana, Illinois

Additional materials were obtained through the interlibrary loan system of public and university libraries

2. Public Archives

a. State of Illinois Archives, Springfield, Illinois

b. Illinois Capital Development Board Archives, Springfield, Illinois

3. Private Collections

a. Stateville Correctional Center, Crest Hill, Illinois

b. Illinois Department of Corrections, Springfield, Illinois

4. Additional Sources of Information

a. Internet website of the Illinois Department of Corrections, at www.idoc.state.il.us.

C. Research Staff

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Mr. Koerber and Ms. Dodge served as primary authors on the historical narrative and building descriptions. Ms. Dodge took field notes for descriptions, performed site and library research, and served as primary author of the building descriptions. Ms. Slaton consulted on the research efforts and edited the draft narratives and building descriptions. Mr. Aspin and Mr. Pipal performed field measurement and delineation of the measured drawings. Large format field photography was performed by Ms. Leslie Schwartz. Mr. Koerber provided site coordination, 35mm field photography, research, additional writing and editing, delineation, and coordination and editing of the entire documentation project.

PART V: PROJECT INFORMATION

In 1996, the State of Illinois initiated a program to demolish obsolete and unusable surplus buildings that constitute safety hazards at various facilities. The Illinois State Agency Historic Resources Preservation Act (20 ILCS 3420) require that historically significant buildings or buildings at historically significant sites under the management of state agencies be documented before demolition. Facilities of the Illinois Department of Mental Health (now a part of the Illinois Department of Human Services) and the Illinois Department of Corrections were chosen for documentation. These included: Choate Mental Health and Developmental Center in Anna (IL HABS No. U-1996-1); Lincoln Developmental Center in Lincoln (IL HABS No. LO-1996-1); Menard Correctional Center near Chester (IL HABS No. R-1997-1); and Stateville Correctional Center near Joliet (IL HABS No. WI-1997-1). Funding for the project came from the individual state agencies.

The project was administered by the Illinois Capital Development Board (CDB), with Mr. Kirk Fernandes as project manager. Review of all documentation was performed by Mr. Stephen Thompson, Resource Protection Manager and Illinois HABS Coordinator with the Illinois Historic Preservation Agency. Coordinators and contacts at each of the agencies included Ms. Judith Hollenberg of the Illinois Department of Human Services (who provided historical research material, including her personal manuscripts of the history of the department), and Mr. Bruce J. Bryan of the Capital Programs Units of the Illinois Department of Corrections (who acted at liaison at each of the corrections facilities). Further assistance at each of the institutions was provided by Mr. Don Tripp, Assistant Chief Engineer, at Choate; Mr. Bob Gebhart (who provided assistance with review of archival and historical information) and Mr. William Hughes, Assistant Chief Engineer, at Lincoln; Mr. Larry Hopkins at Menard; Warden George DeTella and Mr. Lou Miller at Stateville; and Dr. Peter Hsin at the Chester Mental Health Center (who provided a copy of his history of the Illinois Hospital for Insane Criminals).

The project began in May 1997, with field surveys of Menard and Stateville. The documentation of the two Department of Corrections sites was completed in October 1999.

PART VI: APPENDICES

A. A Biographical Sketch of Joseph Ragen

> *Warden Ragen is neither a bully nor tyrant. He is a muscular humanitarian.*[817]

> *Ragen's Stateville was an autonomous institution accountable neither to other public agencies nor to the public at large.*[818]

> *...it is astounding to consider that over his twenty-five year as acting warden, Ragen compiled a nearly flawless record: no riots, one escape, one inmate and two guards killed.*[819]

Joseph Ragen had a significant impact on Stateville – not on its architectural development, which was essentially complete at the time he became warden, but certainly through its management and influence on other prisons in the State of Illinois and the United States. The subject of one flattering biography during his lifetime (Gladys A. Erickson's *Warden Ragen of Joliet*), he is worthy of further research for a balanced overview of his career and influence on prison administration in the mid-twentieth century.

Joseph Ragen was born on 22 November 1897, in Trenton, Clinton County, Illinois. His parents were William and Molly (Rinesmith) Ragen. William Ragen was born in 1869. Molly Rinesmith was born in Carlyle, Clinton County; her father had been chief of police in Carlyle from 1883 to 1910. William was a school teacher until 1902, when he ran for sheriff of Clinton County. He first served from 1902 to 1906. Because sheriffs could not succeed themselves under the Illinois Constitution, he next served as deputy sheriff from 1906 to 1910, then again as sheriff after 1910. William Ragen also served from 1922 to 1926 as sheriff and 1926 to 1930 as deputy sheriff.[820]

Joseph Ragen was educated at public and parochial schools, but only attended through the ninth grade. He served in the Navy at the end of World War I (1918 and 1919), first at the Great Lakes Naval Training Station in North Chicago and then on the ships USS New Mexico and USS Adirondack. After leaving the Navy, he lived in Texas from 1920 to 1922. Ragen returned to Carlyle to run as a Democrat for deputy sheriff, serving under his father from 1922 to 1926; he served as sheriff from 1926 to 1930. Ragen married Loretta Hayer of Breese, Illinois, in 1926, and later had two children. Ragen had a reputation of catching bootleggers during the Prohibition Era 1920s. For his term of 1926 to 1930, Ragen was elected by the largest majority ever given a candidate for sheriff in Clinton County. His final elected office in Clinton County was as county treasurer, from 1930 to 1932.[821]

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[817] Gladys A. Erickson, *Warden Ragen of Joliet* (New York: E.P. Dutton & Company, Inc., 1957), 17.
[818] James B. Jacobs, *Stateville: The Penitentiary in Mass Society* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1977), 36.
[819] Hogan, "Stateville," *Encyclopedia of American Prisons*, 453.
[820] Walter A. Townsend, *Illinois Democracy: A History of the Party and Its Representative Members Past and Present* (Springfield, Illinois: Democratic Historical Association, Inc., 1935), 205.
[821] Ibid.

On 5 February 1933, Ragen was appointed by Governor Henry Horner as warden of Southern Illinois Penitentiary at Menard in Chester, Illinois. Ragen received the position after a letter writing campaign by his constituency urged the governor to appoint him to the position. Although at the end of his career he was viewed as a strict authoritarian, he was considered a liberal and humanitarian during his years at Menard:

> Soon after taking office the warden gave evidence of possessing a humanitarian point of view. He allowed inmates who were assigned to indoor shops to have the freedom of the athletic field for an hour each noon. While he insisted on strict discipline, he demanded that brutal punishment be stopped, and in one case discharged a senior officer...for kicking an inmate. He stopped much needless waste and reduced operating costs. He initiated football and boxing. He cooperated with all employees, and for the first time gave some prestige to the Mental Health Staff. The new warden was a marked improvement over his predecessor and when one considers the confusing complexities of penal administration one can but wonder that prison officials operating in a society such as ours handle the situation as well as they do.[822]

Ragen was appointed the Superintendent of Prisons in 1935 concurrently with his appointment as warden of Joliet-Stateville.[823] In this position, Ragen further developed his penal philosophy and management style. As warden he believed in treating all inmates equally, placing emphasis on security and safety, issues perhaps reinforced by attention given the Fernekes escape and Loeb murder in his early days at Joliet-Stateville. Rehabilitation was a secondary emphasis. Ragen was seeking a new level of control over inmate activities. His program evolved over the next thirty years, interrupted only by a hiatus as warden from the two prisons in the early 1940s, when he resigned after the defeat of the democratic candidate for Governor.[824]

Ragen thought that a warden's position was very clear:

> To me, the law always has been very specific as to what the warden's job is. He is given a prisoner and told to keep him in confinement for the number of years and months specified in the sentence passed by the judge. Thus, according to the law, the security of his prison should be the warden's first consideration. Because he is dealing with human beings, his administration must be humane and tempered by justice, but he can never lose sight of the prime duty laid upon him.[825]

[822] Donald Clemmer, *The Prison Community* (1940, reprint, New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1966), 62.
[823] Some accounts discuss Ragen as being "acting" warden of Stateville.
[824] One month before the fall election of 1940, Governor Henry Horner died. Horner was not running in the election, and his fellow Democrat Harry B. Hershey lost to the Republican candidate, Dwight H. Green, a former State's Attorney famous for the prosecution of Chicago mobsters. Although not officially asked to resign by the new governor, Ragen submitted his resignation, accepting a position as a special investigator with the Immigration Department of the U.S. Department of Justice in charge of "enemy aliens" in Chicago and Milwaukee. He stayed in that post only a short time, and on 9 October 1942 became superintendent of security at the Pressed Steel Car Company in Joliet. Ragen regained the warden position in late 1942 in the wake of the Roger Touhy escape. (Kantrowitz, *Close Control: Managing a Maximum Security Prison,* 21.)
[825] Erickson, *Warden Ragen of Joliet*, 13, Joseph Ragen, writing in the Introduction.

Rewards for inmates of Ragen's Stateville mainly pertained to life inside the prison. Certain necessities, such as running water, food, clothing, and medical care, were extended to all inmates. But to those inmates who conformed to the rules, further rewards were possible: jobs with nominal pay but sufficient to purchase some comforts in the prison commissary;[826] assignment to quieter or safer cell houses; and the ultimate reward, assignment to the "honor farm," with improved living conditions and more "freedom" with such allowances as extended family visits or even allowing inmates to shave themselves. In an interview Ragen stated:

> "Essentially, correction should do more for the offender than was done by his community and its agencies and influences," Ragen wrote. "This presupposes a well planned program of treatment embodying every possible use of the sciences and techniques known to the field.
>
> "Punishment for punishment's sake alone is a discredited theory...The basic objective of a correctional system is to prepare the inmate properly for his ultimate return to society."
>
> The so-called deterrence theory, which holds that the chief purpose of punishing criminals in the effect it will have upon others, was almost universally accepted in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries and still has a considerable following. Ragen also rejects this theory....
>
> "Men who commit crimes are punished for two reason, and for two reasons only," Ragen wrote. "The first is the protection of society by the segregation of he lawbreakers...merely temporary protection is the second objective of punishment...Society can be most permanently and surely protected, of course, not be shutting up a criminal for there, or five or 20 years, but by changing once and for al the attitude of the man who has broken the law, so that he will cease to be dangerous, will cease to be a problem for society." Dr. Roy Barrick, state criminologist and director of the professional staff at the Joliet diagnostic depot, told this reporter that "criminals have only one common denominator – each man has committed some crime."[827]

Ragen recognized that allowing inmates access to currency, obtain extra food, and purchase other commodities could lead to conflict within the prison (this of course was before drugs became a common commodity in American prisons). He also recognized that alcohol presented a real problem – the first Alcoholics Anonymous program was organized at Stateville in 1948. Ragen took control of the inmate economy by limiting the amount of money inmates could spend at the commissary, prohibiting possession of currency by requiring all earnings or savings to be held in inmate bank accounts against which commissary items were charged.

He approached the issue of sexual relations between inmates not as a moral problem primarily but as a potential security problem, leading to conflict much as money or food could. He was not afraid of frankly discussing this issue in his reports. The article goes on to state that "the quartering of more than one man in a cell involves a sexual problem, which is the bane of every

[826] Approximately 20 percent of the inmates had jobs during Ragen's term as warden. See Kantrowitz, *Close Control: Managing a Maximum Security Prison,* 124.
[827] George Wright and Chesly Manly, "Holds Reform and Rehabilitation Chief Purposes of Imprisonment," *Chicago Daily Tribune,* 11 July 1955.

warden's existence." His solution was to round up "all sex offenders and men of homosexual tendencies and quartering them in a separate cellhouse, each in a cell by himself."[828]

Ragen micro-managed Stateville, believing that ordered details would lead to success with larger issues. He was able to learn most of the names of the inmate population. He personally inspected activities at Stateville and Joliet two or three times a week and many of them every day. Often on these tours he was accompanied by his dog.

Ragen was intolerant of challenges, not only from inmates but from guards and staff as well. He distrusted "outsiders," making civilian staff of the prison education system serve a six month probationary period as guards. Overall though, very few civilian staff worked in the administration of the prison. Other than the chaplains, doctors, and a few department heads and councilors, the remaining staff in Illinois prisons of the period consisted of inmates who had merited their jobs through their good behavior. Some of the unusual choices Ragen made for his clerks and other administrative staff included murderers for his personal clerks; "white collar" criminals for mail censors; and tough inmates for nurses and dental assistants, whom he gave "special treatment" with housing in separate quarters and food from the guard's kitchen.[829]

Ragen's control of the guard force was "feudal," with captains eager to seek favor of the warden, and in turn, the lieutenants serving the captains. Just as among the prison population, a system of informants was cultivated among the guard force. For actual or perceived infractions of their numerous rules, guards could be required to work one or more days without pay. Guards were vulnerable to "shakedowns" much as the inmates were. It was only in the decade after Ragen left Stateville that the guard force was sufficiently organized to form a union. Although early on Ragen was forced for political reasons to take young men from southern Illinois for his guard force, he ultimately hired most of his guard force from that part of the state for the remainder of his term as warden. These individuals were often loyal and accepted a lower wage than those hired from northern Illinois. But in other ways Ragen treated his guard staff fairly, emphasizing proper training so guards were prepared for their duties and rewarding good service. When he was president of the American Prison Association in 1951, Ragen addressed the annual congress of that body:

> Correctional personnel should not be ward politicians. We need career men in these jobs.
> Merited advancement should be made from the ranks.
> Salaries must be offered which will be an inducement to permanent employment.
> In the various departments, training courses, regional meetings, merit awards, and every other means should be used to improve and enthuse personnel.[830]

[828] "The reasons [Warden Ragen] wanted to control sexuality were undoubtedly complex, and I imagine Freudians would have a field day analyzing him. But he did need to control it to maintain his position. Not only could sexuality bring violence, but it was a volatile subject for the general public: any embarrassment would have allowed opponents such as political liberals or the embryonic guards' trade union an opportunity to attack him through adverse publicity." (Kantrowitz, *Close Control: Managing a Maximum Security Prison*, 167.)
[829] Jacobs, *Stateville: The Penitentiary in Mass Society*, 34-36.
[830] Joseph E. Ragen, "Presidential Address," *Proceedings of the Eighty-first Annual Congress of Correction of the American Prison Association* (New York: American Prison Association, 1951), 4

Ragen's control of the inmate population was based on punishment. It began with guard reports of inmate rule violations, leading to loss of privileges; more significant violations would lead to temporary relocation to the isolation unit for one to fifteen days. But punishment also meant violence, with the guards utilizing force on inmates in a limited but effective manner. Only a select group of guards, usually lieutenants, were allowed to use violence. Beatings did not take place in the view of other inmates. But the key to controlling this system was the control of the guard force.

Ragen's control extended to limiting the involvement of outside groups concerned about prison conditions, such as the John Howard Association (although he did receive an award from this organization). For the two prisons under his control, he instituted his own system of classification and discipline, often disregarding the recommendations of sociologists and psychologists on the staff at the Joliet Diagnostic Depot. It was also not necessary for Ragen to report to the director of the Illinois Department of Public Safety. He satisfied legislators in Springfield by maintaining strict discipline, limited escapes, and returned a portion of his budget to the state each year. Ragen turned down federal funding in order to prevent interference from that sector of government. He was warden before "inmate rights" became significant issues, and rarely faced allegations of abuse of power. Only after Ragen had become director of the Department of Pubic Safety did inmates and outside prisoner rights associations challenge his system of control.

Through his connection with Chicago newspapers, he was able to control the information published about the prison and allowed only stories he wanted written. The conservative *Chicago Tribune* appreciated his control and discipline in the management of the prison, and Ragen had friendships with reporter Gladys Erickson (his biographer) and her husband and fellow reporter Charles Finstone (co-author with Ragen of *Inside the World's Toughest Prison*). Both reporters worked for the *Chicago American*. Ragen and his wife would often entertain reporters in their apartment on the third floor of Stateville's Administration Building.[831] It has been reported that "the media and newspapers...simply printed what Warden Ragen told them. They printed stories which grossly underestimated reality and saved Warden Ragen from ridicule."[832]

Despite his relative success in maintaining control in an institution holding more than 3,000 inmates, Ragen felt that much smaller prisons were more appropriate for rehabilitating inmates. Warden Ragen was interviewed in 1947 by the *Chicago Tribune,* where he stated Stateville was too large to be optimally sized for rehabilitation:

> ...the vast majority of prison men that not more than 1,000 men should be kept together in a penal colony to be ideal. Illinois has need for several smaller prisons, he said, to enable more complete segregation of convicted men by age and type of crime. Four great circular cellhouses confine most of the inmates, plus one rectangular building of the customary type. These round structures are unique and have drawn some criticism from prison experts. The fact that none of the same type has been built since they were constructed in 1917 would indicate that prison designers do not approve of them....Perhaps the most serious defect of the arrangement is the crowding of three men in each cell. Most of them have triple decker bunks. This system is frowned upon all

[831] Jacobs, *Stateville: The Penitentiary in Mass Society*, 29-33.
[832] Kantrowitz, *Close Control: Managing a Maximum Security Prison*, 156.

> prison men, including Ragen, who says however, that it is better than putting two men in each cell. The ideal is for each man to have an individual cell.[833]

Ragen believed that there should be a separate unit for hopeless recidivist cases, one for borderline mental defectives, one for the criminal insane, one for sex offenders, and a number of small units for improbable convicts, who constituted the great majority. As related in Gladys Erickson's biography, Ragen believed that:

1. Several smaller prisons with maximum populations of 1,000 inmates each and classified according to degree of rehabilitation possible, was better than larger institutions like Stateville.
2. Inmates should be sentenced to one-year to life terms (inmates sentenced to less than one year are incarcerated at the prison farm at Vandalia). An inmate's chance for release would be dependent on the nature of the crime and criminal history, conduct in prison, the prison administration, and the parole board. He advocated a parole board made up of full-time staff instead of part-time as practiced in Illinois at the time.
3. Capital punishment was not, in his mind, a realistic deterrent to criminals, and should be abolished.[834]

Ragen was a Roman Catholic, but the reasons he gave for opposing the death penalty were not religious. He is quoted in Erickson's biography of him that "...nothing in [my] experience has shown...that capital punishment is really effective...."[835] Soon after he became warden at Joliet-Stateville, an execution was to take place at the old Joliet Prison. Hanging had been replaced by electrocution in Illinois in 1927. The warden of Joliet by tradition was supposed to "pull the switch," but from this execution on he deputized a guard to perform that responsibility. The guard would receive $100 from the State for the extra duty.[836]

Ragen became well known nationally as an able prison administrator. He served as a consultant to prison systems in other states, and was even consulted by prison administrators in other countries. In 1951, he was elected president of the American Prison Association (later the American Correctional Association). He was also an active leader of the conservative Warden's Association of the ACA. Ragen received the Silver Seal Award in 1954 from the National Council of State Garden Clubs; the John Howard Award in 1948 from the John Howard Association; and the Edward R. Cass Award in 1971 from the American Correctional Association. The Illinois House of Representatives recognized Ragen with a testimonial in 1953, followed by the Illinois Senate in 1957. He was named the "outstanding public welfare official" of 1958 from the Little Flower organization of Chicago; and in 1962 received a special commendation from the Illinois Medical Association for medical research into malaria and hepatitis at Stateville. On a local level, Ragen organized a chapter of the Hundred Club of Will County, which provided benefits to survivors of peace officers killed in the line of duty.

[833] Willard Edwards, "First Termer Gets a 'Break' at Stateville," *Chicago Tribune*, 25 January 1947, sec. 1, p. 1.
[834] Erickson, *Warden Ragen of Joliet*, 23.
[835] Joseph E. Ragen and Charles Finston, *Inside the World's Toughest Prison* (Springfield, Illinois: Charles C. Thomas, Publisher, 1962), 743.
[836] Erickson, *Warden Ragen of Joliet*, 40.

Ragen was eased out of office in 1965 after Governor Otto Kerner was re-elected. He was replaced as Director of the Department of Public Safety by his rival, Ross Randolph, warden of Menard. Following this Ragen suffered a nervous and physical breakdown and retired. Ragen died on 22 September 1971 in Joliet.

The legacy of Joseph Ragen has long since passed. However, some of his pronouncements are quite timely today (magnified by the affects of economic inflation). In one portion of his address to the American Prison Association in 1951, Ragen states the following:

> Looking at the prison from a hard-headed businessman's viewpoint – it costs about $800.00 a year to maintain a man in prison. It should not cost about 1/4 that amount to guide boys and girls through those years when they are most apt to fall into crime.
>
> Little though is given to the investment in prisons today, but I venture to say that the prison in Joliet could not be re-built today for 75 million dollars.
>
> All other states and the federal government have like amounts invested in prisons. The cost should convince any businessman that we should do more than rehabilitate confined criminals. We must take steps to stop the making of criminals, rather than spend great amounts of money for bigger and better prisons.[837]

[837] Ragen, "Presidential Address," 4.

B. 1. Hospital Facilities at American Prisons, circa 1928

The following table has been compiled from the *Handbook of American Prisons and Reformatories,* produced by the National Society of Penal Information based on research conducted in 1927 and 1928.[838] The handbook surveyed prisons and reformatories in the 48 states along with federal institutions. At each facility the buildings, administration, inmate population and demographics, rules regulations, health care, industries, education, religion, and other issues were examined. The research was performed at a time when the inmate population in the United States was rising, primarily due to increased criminality during Prohibition.

The categories listed below compare the relative level of health care provided on site at each institution: **Number of beds** gives a measure of the relative scale of the hospital services. **Surgery** lists whether the facility had its own operating room; many prisons that did not and utilized local public hospitals. **Laboratory** evaluates the relative sophistication of each hospital, with urinalysis and blood work being the standard for basic services provided. **Special equipment** is listed. Because tuberculosis was still a significant health issue in institutions in the late 1920s, **separate tuberculosis wards** are listed. **Psychological treatment** is named as well, with wide variations in level of health care present.

Hospital Facilities at American Prisons, Circa 1928

Jurisdiction	Institution	Number of Beds	Surgery	Laboratory	Special Equipment	Separate Tuberculosis Ward	Psychological Treatment
Federal Prisons	Alderson, West Virginia (111 female inmates)	32 beds	Yes	No	Not specified	No	Inmates with symptoms only
	Atlanta, Georgia (3,111 inmates)	60 beds	Yes	Not specified	X-ray and fluoroscope	32 beds in tents	No
	Leavenworth, Kansas (3,570 inmates)	160 beds	Yes	Yes	Hydro-therapy, X-ray and fluoroscope	Yes	30 bed ward
	McNeil Island, Washington (1,406 inmates)	42 beds	Not specified	Not specified	Fluoroscope	Not specified	No
U.S. Military Prisons	Alcatraz, California (384 inmates)	35 beds	Emergency only	Not specified	Portable X-ray and fluoroscope	No	General examination upon incarceration

[838] Paul W. Garrett and Austin H. MacCormick, ed., *Handbook of American Prisons and Reformatories* (New York: National Society of Penal Information, Inc., 1929). Apparent from the table was the discrepancy in the health care provided in male institutions compared to female institutions. Not listed in the table but apparent in the reports of the study was the racial segregation present in southern penal institutions.

Hospital Facilities at American Prisons, Circa 1928

Jurisdiction	Institution	Number of Beds	Surgery	Laboratory	Special Equipment	Separate Tuberculosis Ward	Psychological Treatment
U.S. Military Prisons	Fort Leavenworth, Kansas (1,084 inmates)	120 beds	Yes	Not specified	Not specified	Not specified	General examination upon incarceration
	Governor's Island, New York (582 inmates)	15 beds	No	No	No	No	No
U.S. Naval Prisons	Mare Island, California (270 inmates)	At adjacent naval hospital	No	No	No	No	No
	Parris Island, South Carolina (89 inmates)	25 to 30 beds	At adjacent naval hospital	No	No	No	No
	Portsmouth, New Hampshire (297 inmates)	8 beds	At adjacent naval hospital	At adjacent naval hospital	At adjacent naval hospital	No	No
Alabama	Kilby Prison, Montgomery (1,257 inmates)	68 beds	Yes	Yes	X-ray and fluoroscope	Cases transferred to Wetumpka	No
	State Tuberculosis Prison Camp (73 male and 3 female inmates)	Varied with case load	No	Not specified	Not specified	n/a	No
	Weutempka (194 male and 126 female inmates)	Not specified	No	No	No	No	No
Arizona	Arizona State Prison, Florence (543 inmates)	10 beds	Yes	No	No	No	No
Arkansas	Receiving station and three prison farms (1,356 inmates)	Not specified	Not specified	Not specified	Not specified	Not specified	Not specified
California	State Prison, Folsom (2,201 inmates)	42 beds	Yes	Yes	X-ray and fluoroscope	Serious cases transferred to San Quentin	No
	California State Prison, San Quentin (4,363 inmates)	30 beds	Yes	Yes	X-ray and fluoroscope	50 beds	Inmates with symptoms only
Colorado	Colorado State Reformatory, Buena Vista (182 inmates)	No	No	No	No	No	No

Hospital Facilities at American Prisons, Circa 1928

Jurisdiction	Institution	Number of Beds	Surgery	Laboratory	Special Equipment	Separate Tuberculosis Ward	Psychological Treatment
Colorado	Colorado State Penitentiary, Canon City (1,129 inmates)	24 beds	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No; first floor of hospital for insane inmates
Connecticut	Connecticut Reformatory, Cheshire (281 inmates)	27 beds	No	No	No	No	General examination upon incarceration
	State Farm for Women, East Lyme (165 inmates)	No	No	No	No	No	Monthly examinations
	State Prison, Wethersfield (552 inmates)	39 beds	No	No	No	5 beds	General examination upon incarceration
Delaware	New Castle County Workhouse, Wilmington (546 inmates)	5 beds	No	No	No	No	Inmates with symptoms only
Florida	Florida State Farm, Radford (1,432 inmates)	50 beds (men only)	Yes	No	No	30 beds	No
Georgia	State Farm, Midgeville (262 male inmates; 270 female inmates)	Not specified	No	No	No	Varied with case load (61 in 1928)	No
Idaho	Idaho State Penitentiary, Boise (419 inmates)	7 beds	No	No	No	No	No
Illinois	Illinois State Penitentiary, Joliet (1,414 inmates)	60 beds	Yes	No	No	Not specified	General examination upon incarceration
	Illinois State Penitentiary, Stateville (1,639 inmates)	15 beds	No	No	No	No	General examination upon incarceration
	Women's Prison, Joliet (116 inmates)	No	No	No	No	No	No
	Southern Illinois Penitentiary, Menard (1,974 inmates)	42 beds	Yes	No	No	12 beds	General examination upon incarceration

Hospital Facilities at American Prisons, Circa 1928

Jurisdiction	Institution	Number of Beds	Surgery	Laboratory	Special Equipment	Separate Tuberculosis Ward	Psychological Treatment
Illinois	State Reformatory, Pontiac (1,405 inmates)	26	Yes	No	No	Not specified	General examination upon incarceration
Indiana	Indiana Women's Prison, Indianapolis (197 inmates)	8 beds	No	No	No	No	No
	Indiana State Prison, Michigan City (1,999 inmates)	84 beds	Not specified	No	X-ray and fluoroscope	Not specified	Inmates with symptoms only
	Indiana Reformatory, Pendleton (1,852 inmates)	103 beds	Not specified	Yes	X-ray and fluoroscope	Yes	No
Iowa	Men's Reformatory, Anamosa (1,067 inmates)	36 beds	Yes	Yes	No	Not specified	No
	Iowa State Penitentiary, Fort Madison (1,129 inmates)	24 beds	Yes	No	No	Not specified	No
	Women's Reformatory, Rockwell City (105 inmates)	No	No	No	No	No	No
Kansas	Kansas State Industrial Reformatory, Hutchinson (891 inmates)	28 beds	Yes	No	No	14 beds	Treatment for inmates with symptoms; general examinations available
	Kansas State Penitentiary, Lansing (1,828 inmates)	Not specified	Yes	Yes	X-ray	Not specified	Treatment for inmates with symptoms; general examinations available
	State Industrial Farm for Women, Lansing (162 inmates)	No	No	No	No	No	No
Kentucky	Kentucky State Penitentiary, Eddyville (661 inmates)	40 beds	Yes	Limited	No	No	Inmates with symptoms only

Hospital Facilities at American Prisons, Circa 1928

Jurisdiction	Institution	Number of Beds	Surgery	Laboratory	Special Equipment	Separate Tuberculosis Ward	Psychological Treatment
Kentucky	Kentucky State Reformatory, Frankfort (1,649 inmates)	100 beds	Yes	Yes	X-ray	40 beds	No
Louisiana	Receiving station and two prison farms (1,687 inmates)	40 beds	Yes	Yes	X-ray and fluoroscope	Cases "transferred to the prison farm"	No
Maine	Reformatory for Women, Skowhegan	Not specified					
	State Reformatory for Men, South Windham (70 inmates)	Not specified					
	State Prison, Thomaston (201 inmates)	8 beds	Yes	No	No	No	No
Maryland	Maryland Penitentiary, Baltimore (1,072 inmates)	42 beds	Yes	Yes	Portable X-ray	Yes	No
Maryland	Maryland House of Correction, Jessup (1,060 inmates)	24 beds (men); 8 beds (women)	Yes	Yes	No	Not specified	Inmates with symptoms only
Massachusetts	Massachusetts State Prison, Charlestown (891 inmates)	40 beds	Yes	Limited	X-ray	Cases transferred to the prison farm hospital at Rutland	General examinations during incarceration
	Reformatory for Women, Framingham (316 inmate capacity)	63 beds	Yes	Yes	No	12 beds	General examinations during incarceration
	Massachusetts Reformatory, West Concord (799 inmates)	50 beds	Yes	Yes	No	Cases transferred to the prison farm hospital at Rutland	General examinations during incarceration
Michigan	Michigan Reformatory, Ionia, (1,853 inmates)	25 beds	Not specified	Not specified	Not specified	Cases transferred to a tuberculosis camp one mile from prison (30 bed capacity)	Inmates with symptoms or up for parole

Hospital Facilities at American Prisons, Circa 1928

Jurisdiction	Institution	Number of Beds	Surgery	Laboratory	Special Equipment	Separate Tuberculosis Ward	Psychological Treatment
Michigan	Michigan State Prison, Jackson (3,831 inmates)	30 beds (a new hospital was being planned)	Minor surgery only	Yes	X-ray and fluoroscope	No	Inmates with symptoms or up for parole
	State House of Correction, Marquette (866 inmates)	26 beds	Yes	Yes	X-ray	Not specified	Inmates with symptoms or up for parole
Minnesota	Minnesota State Reformatory, St. Cloud (840 inmates)	24 beds	Yes	Limited	No	Cases transferred to the state institution at Glen Lake	General examination upon incarceration
Minnesota	Minnesota State Reformatory for Women, Shakopee (77 inmates)	6 beds	No	No	No	No	General examination upon incarceration or on physician referral
	Minnesota State Prison, Stillwater (1,221 inmates)	34 beds	Yes	Yes	X-ray, heliotherapy lamp, and ultra-violet lamp	Yes	General examination upon incarceration
Mississippi	Four plantations	53 beds	Yes	Yes	X-ray and fluoroscope	19 beds	No
Missouri	Missouri State Prison, Jefferson City (3,785 inmates)	58 beds	Yes	Limited	Portable X-ray	Yes	No
Montana	Montana State Prison, Deer Lodge (462 inmates)	10 beds	Yes	No	Portable X-ray	No	No
Nebraska	State Penitentiary, Lincoln (698 inmates)	20 beds	Yes	Yes	No	6 beds	No
	Nebraska State Reformatory for Men, Lincoln (275 inmates)	12 beds	No	No	No	Yes	No
	State Reformatory for Women, York (55 inmates)	None	Yes	Limited	No	No	No

Hospital Facilities at American Prisons, Circa 1928

Jurisdiction	Institution	Number of Beds	Surgery	Laboratory	Special Equipment	Separate Tuberculosis Ward	Psychological Treatment
Nevada	Nevada State Penitentiary, Carson City	10 beds	Minor surgery only	No	No	No	No
New Hampshire	New Hampshire State Prison, Concord (119 inmates)	3 beds	Limited	No	No	Cases transferred to the prison farm hospital at Rutland, Massachusetts	No
New Jersey	Clinton Farms, New Jersey State Reformatory for Women, Clinton (162 inmates)	12 beds	Yes	Yes	X-ray	Cases transferred to the state sanatorium at Glen Gardner	General examination upon incarceration
	New Jersey State Reformatory, Rahway (745 inmates)	17 beds	Yes	Yes	X-ray	Not specified	General examination upon incarceration
	New Jersey State Prison, Trenton (1,643 inmates)	52 beds	Yes	Yes	X-ray	Yes	General examination upon incarceration
New Mexico	New Mexico State Penitentiary, Santa Fé (386 inmates)	32 beds	Yes	Yes	Not specified	Not specified	No
New York	State Prison, Auburn (1,528 inmates)	47 beds	Yes	Yes	X-ray	Cases transferred to Clinton Prison, Dannemora	General examination upon incarceration
	State Prison for Women, Auburn (124 inmates)	20 beds	No	Yes, at adjacent men's prison	No	Not specified	General examination upon incarceration
	New York State Reformatory for Women, Bedford Hills (317 inmates)	40 beds	Minor surgery	No	No	No	General examination upon incarceration
	Great Meadow Prison, Comstock (976 inmates)	20 beds	Yes	Not specified	No	Cases transferred to Clinton Prison, Dannemora	Inmates with symptoms only
	Clinton Prison, Dannemora (1,609 inmates)	80 beds	Yes	Yes	X-ray with fluoroscope	Separate facility adjoining the prison with a capacity of 175	Inmates with symptoms only

Hospital Facilities at American Prisons, Circa 1928

Jurisdiction	Institution	Number of Beds	Surgery	Laboratory	Special Equipment	Separate Tuberculosis Ward	Psychological Treatment
New York	New York State Reformatory, Elmira (1,211 inmates)	102 beds	Yes	Limited	No	Not specified	General examination upon incarceration
	Institute for Defective Delinquents, Napanoch (666 inmates)	43 beds	Yes	Limited	X-ray with fluoroscope	Not specified	Full time psychiatrist & psychologist on staff
	Sing Sing Prison, Ossining (1,713 inmates)	60 beds	Yes	Yes	X-ray with fluoroscope	Cases transferred to Clinton Prison, Dannemora	General examination of 100 inmates per month
North Carolina	Raleigh Prison, two prison farms, and numerous prison camps (1,795 inmates)	23 beds	Yes	No	No	Cases transferred to the state sanatorium at Sanatorium	No
North Dakota	North Dakota State Penitentiary, Bismarck (309 inmates)	10 beds	No	No	No	Yes	No
Ohio	Ohio Penitentiary, Columbus (4,345 inmates)	144 beds	Yes	Yes	X-ray with fluoroscope & physiotherapy equipment	Yes	Inmates with symptoms only
	London Prison Farm, London (507 inmates)	80 beds	Yes	Yes	No	Not specified	No
	Ohio State Reformatory, Mansfield (2,907 inmates)	62 beds	Yes	Yes	X-ray with fluoroscope	Yes	No
	Ohio Reformatory for Women, Marysville (475 inmates)	20 beds	Yes	Yes	No	4 beds	General examination upon incarceration
Oklahoma	Oklahoma State Reformatory, Granite (796 inmates)	10 beds	Yes	No	No	Yes	No
	Oklahoma State Penitentiary, McAlester (2,507 inmates)	40 beds (men); 8 beds (women)	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No
Oregon	Oregon State Penitentiary, Salem (712)	22 beds	Yes	Yes	No	No	No

Hospital Facilities at American Prisons, Circa 1928

Jurisdiction	Institution	Number of Beds	Surgery	Laboratory	Special Equipment	Separate Tuberculosis Ward	Psychological Treatment
Pennsylvania	Rockview Branch, Bellefonte (785 inmates)	20 beds	No	Yes	No	No	General examination upon incarceration
Pennsylvania	Pennsylvania Industrial Reformatory, Huntington (1,066 inmates)	17 beds	Yes	Not specified	X-ray	Cases paroled or transferred to a sanatorium	General examination upon incarceration
	State Industrial Home for Women, Muncy (113 inmates)	6 beds	No	Limited	No	No	General examination upon incarceration
	Eastern State Penitentiary, Philadelphia (1,552 inmates)	100 beds	Yes	Yes	X-ray	Yes	Inmates with symptoms only
	Western State Penitentiary, Pittsburgh (1,080 inmates)	25 beds	Yes	Yes	X-ray	Yes	General examination upon incarceration
Rhode Island	Rhode Island State Prison and Providence County Jail, Howard (526 inmates)	20 beds	Yes	Yes	X-ray and diathermy machine	No	Examination upon physician referral
	Rhode Island Reformatory for Women, Howard (110 state, federal, and county inmates)	21 beds	More extensive treatment provided at adjacent State Hospital for the Insane			No	Examination upon physician referral
South Carolina	South Carolina Penitentiary, Columbia (456 inmates)	30 beds	No	No	No	No	No
South Dakota	South Dakota Penitentiary, Sioux Falls (386 inmates)	7 beds	No	No	No	Cases transferred to the State Hospital for Tuberculosis	Examination upon physician referral
Tennessee	Tennessee State Penitentiary, Nashville (1,624 inmates)	30 beds	Yes	Yes	No	Cases transferred to adjacent 200 bed state hospital	No

Hospital Facilities at American Prisons, Circa 1928

Jurisdiction	Institution	Number of Beds	Surgery	Laboratory	Special Equipment	Separate Tuberculosis Ward	Psychological Treatment
Tennessee	Brushy Mountain Penitentiary, Petros (595 inmates)	21 beds	Yes	No	No	Cases transferred to state hospital in Nashville	No
Texas	Penitentiary, Huntsville, and 12 state prison farms (4,561 inmates)	36 beds	Yes	Yes	X-ray with fluoroscope	Cases transferred to camp farm - Huntsville	No
Utah	Utah State Prison, Salt Lake City (234 inmates)	6 beds	Emergency only	No	No	No	No
Vermont	Vermont State Prison, Windsor (332 inmates)	Limited to daily physician visits					
Virginia	State Penitentiary, Richmond (684 inmates)	Limited facilities available				Cases transferred to the sanitarium at the prison farm	General examination upon incarceration
	Virginia State Farm, State Farm (610 inmates)	Not specified					General examination upon incarceration
Washington	Washington State Reformatory, Monroe (597 inmates)	21 beds	Yes	Limited	No	No	Limited
	Washington State Penitentiary, Walla Walla (1,075 inmates)	33 beds	Yes	Limited	No	Yes	Limited
West Virginia	West Virginia Penitentiary, Moundsville (1,892 inmates)	26 beds	Yes	Limited	No	Yes	No
Wisconsin	Wisconsin State Reformatory, Green Bay (536 inmates)	28 beds	No	No	No	Cases transferred to the State Tuberculosis Sanitarium, Wales	General examination upon incarceration and inmates up for parole
	Wisconsin State Prison, Waupun (999 inmates)	34 beds	Yes	Yes	No	No	General examination upon incarceration
Wyoming	Wyoming State Penitentiary, Rawlins (292 inmates)	12 beds	Yes	No	No	No	No

2. **Chapter XV, "Medical Service in Correctional Institutions," *Handbook of Correctional Design and Construction* (United States Bureau of Prisons, 1949).**

Chapter XV

Medical Service in Correctional Institutions

I. JUSTIFICATION OF CORRECTIONAL MEDICAL SERVICE.

A natural expression of the American way of life is the maintenance, in correctional institutions, of reasonable medical safeguards for the protection of both the inmates and the institutional community. Society, in depriving a man of liberty, necessarily assumes certain responsibilities for his welfare. Food, clothing, and lodging are, of course, fundamental, but an enlightened modern program must go further than this and provide a fair prospect of rehabilitation. This involves not only education, vocational training, religious instruction, and social case work, but also physical and mental examinations, treatment of diseases, correction of remediable defects, and so on—all to the end that the prisoner will be enabled, upon release, to support himself and his dependents in a law-abiding manner and be as free as possible from physical and mental disabilities which may handicap his efforts.

National institutions should provide medical facilities in equipment, supplies, and staff which will be at least on a par with the average medical facilities throughout the United States; state institutions should have medical care on a level with the average medical facilities in the state; and city and county institutions should so provide to an extent equal to the facilities available in the local community.

It is not practicable or desirable, in most cases, to take prisoners to private or public hospitals for medical treatment. Although, with minimum-custody inmates, this can be done without great danger of escape or other undesirable incidents, the cost of transportation and custodial supervision prohibits such a practice. Medical care in the institution where the inmate is being held is much more satisfactory, even if on only a part-time basis.

II. PROBLEMS PECULIAR TO A CORRECTIONAL HOSPITAL.

Medical service in a correctional institution involves special phases and problems that are not usual in other areas of medical practice. In an institution with a well developed classification system, a well-organized work program to keep all able-bodied inmates busy, and a reasonably rigid schedule governing other inmate activities, the medical program will be accepted and encouraged by the administrative staff, or frowned upon as a nuisance and relegated to a position of minor importance, in direct proportion to the skill with which it is integrated with non-medical routines.

The function of a prison medical service, then, is to give a maximum of medical service with a minimum of disturbance to other functions of the institution. This explains the deviation, in many features of prison-hospital floor plan arrangement, from non-prison hospital design.

Sick Line. A good example of such special arrangements is found in the provision of a place where the inmate-patient may most readily contact the staff physician. This important function is ordinarily referred to as the "sick-line". The sick-line may be held one or more times a day, at one or more places about the institution, during either work or recreation hours, and with a greater or less degree of formality. The layout of an institution should provide for all of these variations, so that successive administrations will have available the physical facilities to adopt any of them. The types of sick-line and a fuller description of its relation to the hospital plan will be given later on in the chapter.

Custody. Both custody considerations and good medical practice require the division of the hospital into outpatient and inpatient departments. These should be placed close together to promote professional convenience and assure maximum supervision. Yet, custodially, they should be separated by the grilles or security doors needed to control inmate traffic between the two.

Custodial security is just as essential in the hospital as in any other part of the institution. Otherwise, the hospital staff will be under the constant apprehension that escape-minded prisoners, or those who plan some violation of institutional rules, will seek admission to the hospital for such purposes. The prison physician should not be plagued by unnecessary custodial responsibilities or handicaps. It is a basic principle of prison medical service that it is less possible to maintain a good therapeutic regime in a custodially weak hospital, where the medical staff is concerned with escapes, fights, intrigues, and so on, than it is in a custodially secure hospital.

It is well to emphasize that illness is no respector of custodial status; the hospital must care for the maximum-custody prisoner as well as for the trusty. A maximum-security building does not necessarily entail restrictive features of a shockingly repressive nature. Study of modern materials will clearly substantiate this. The stainless steel detention screen, tempered plate glass, and detention sash, to mention a few items, are great forward steps from the materials used in the past.

III. LOCATION OF THE HOSPITAL WITH RESPECT TO THE OTHER COMPONENTS OF THE INSTITUTION PLAN.

The hospital should be included as a part of, or adjacent to, the maximum-security area of an institution. In other words, it should be adjacent to or connected with the institution's special treatment section, receiving and admission units, segregation facilities, and the cell blocks. Under no circumstances should it be developed as a part of the less secure facilities of an institution, namely, the dormitories or honor rooms. Nor should it be placed in a "separate and isolated hospital building" at some point relatively distant from the maximum-custody buildings. Both of these latter locations require additional personnel and presuppose some custodial insecurity.

These conclusions have not been reached without due consideration for the sentiment of certain institution planners who wish both to dignify the medical service by providing "separate" facilities for the hospital, and to defend the dignity, ego, and status of medium- and minimum-custody prisoners. While agreeing with and respecting this sentiment, it is certain that unwise and unnecessary deference to it causes unfortunate incidents which bring discredit on the medical service, necessitate the employment of extra personnel, and appreciably reduce the caliber of the medical service.

IV. STAFF AND BED CAPACITY.

The floor plans discussed in this chapter can be neither fully understood nor properly appreciated unless the reader is familiar with the size and duties of the medical staff needed to discharge adequately the responsibilities of the medical service in a correctional institution. The basic responsibilities of the staff are three-fold:

(a) It must assume responsibility for an adequnte medical service, including physical and mental examinations, treatment, and research into the causes and cures of conduct disorders and delinquency, to the end that the incidence of crime may be reduced.

(b) It must take over certain custodial duties within the hospital. Actual experience has proved this plan to be workable and satisfactory if the hospital is in the proper security zone and if the medical staff is carefully selected and efficient.

(c) It must assume the responsibility for training inmates, assigned to the hospital as workers, in basic medical duties and techniques.

The following staff is recommended as desirable in an institution with a population of 500, to meet legal and custodial, as well as ethical, humanitarian, and social, responsibilities:

One Chief Medical Officer
One Assistant Medical Officer
(One or both to be trained in the fundamentals of psychiatry)
One full-time Psychologist
One full-time Dental Officer

Three to five Medical Technical Assistants, qualified in such medical techniques as nursing, pharmacy, x-ray, clinical laboratory, administrative assistant duties, and custodial supervision.

A sufficient number of inmates to carry on their part in such duties as ward attendant (practical nurse), porter, laborer, technician's helper (assistant and practical worker in various laboratories), operating room helper, food service worker, clerk, etc. The number required will depend upon their ability, energy, training, length of service in the hospital (if the turn-over rate is high, it will inevitably interfere with the training and efficiency of inmate helpers), and many other factors which are variable to a wide degree under different circumstances and at different institutions.

For each additional 500 to 1000 inmates, another assistant medical officer and medical technical assistant should be added. A dental officer should be added for each additional 1000 to 1500 inmates. In institutions housing from 1500 to 2000 inmates, there should be three trained nurses.

While many experts assert that the aforementioned staff is inadequate, the personnel problem must also be studied from the realistic angle of designing a hospital that will function with a minimum of civilian employees, for it must be assumed that many prison budgets will not support a staff as large as the one recommended. A prison medical service cannot expect to have available the same proportion of highly trained technologists that a civilian hospital of the same size would employ as a matter of course. Prisoners trained within the institution must be used to the greatest possible extent consistent with reasonable safety. This all adds up to the conclusion that night coverage will probably have to suffer at the expense of providing adequate day coverage. These facts have to be faced in developing plans to meet a difficult situation as efficiently as possible.

As noted repeatedly in this chapter, a hospital must be planned with due regard to the above-mentioned administrative considerations, as well as to purely clinical demands.

The physical plant should consist of outpatient facilities to accommodate a daily attendance—sick line, appointments, and emergencies—of approximately 10 to 20 per cent of the institution's population, and sufficient beds in the inpatient department to accommodate 3 to 5 per cent of the institution's population.

V. PLANNING THE HOSPITAL AND MEDICAL FACILITIES.

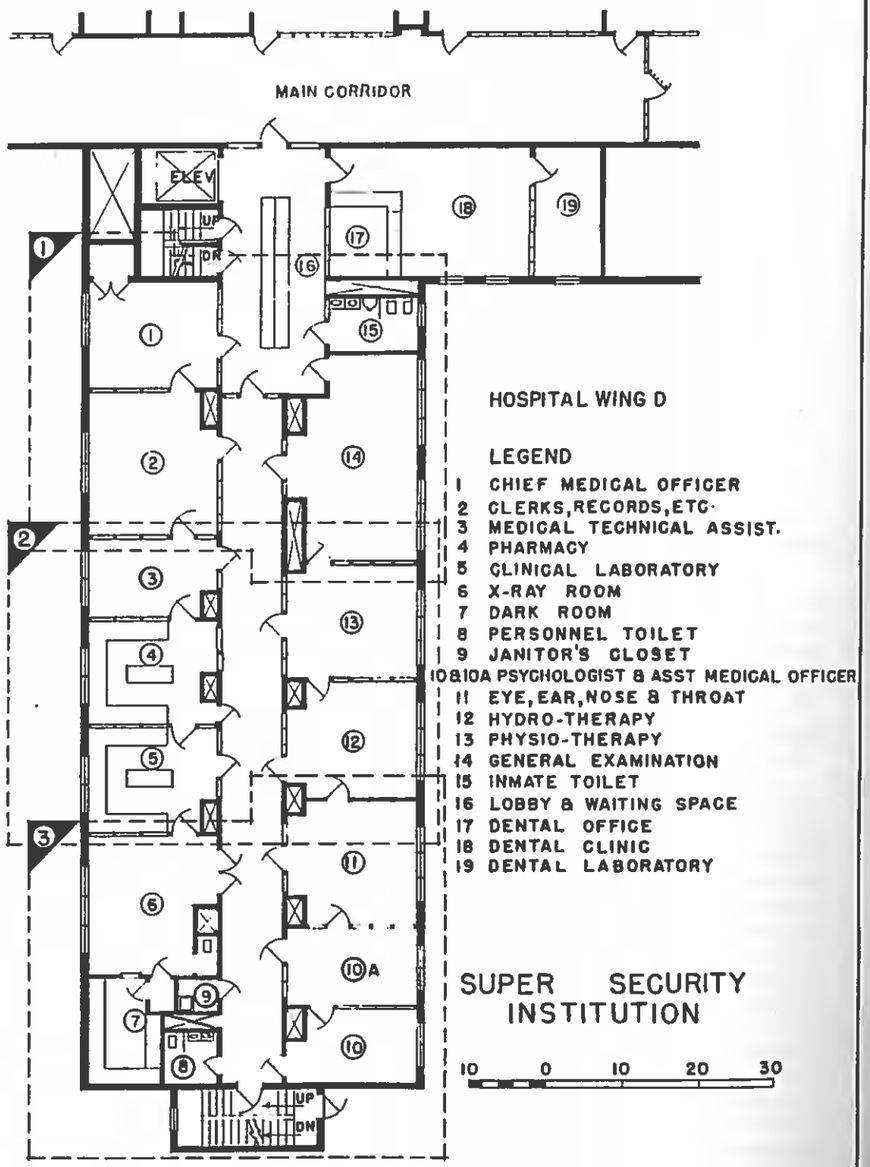
A prison hospital must be so planned as to centralize activities in order to attain maximum clinical efficiency and custodial supervision with a minimum civilian staff and the maximum utilization of prison-trained inmate assistance.

The arrangement of space in both the inpatient and outpatient departments must be dependent in part upon the basic consideration that there will be only a few trained civilian employees in the hospital and that these civilians must keep the prisoner patients and prisoners who work in the hospital under constant observation and control.

It is, therefore, necessary so to arrange the grouping of responsibilities that a minimum number of civilian employees will be able to carry on a maximum number of activities, during which they will have complete supervision and control of the inmates who are in the hospital either as workers or as patients.

VI. THE OUTPATIENT DEPARTMENT.

Outpatients fall into a number of categories: those attending sick-line in the hospital, those keeping special or routine appointments, and those undergoing examination with regard to administrative problems, parole, release, and so on.



FIRST FLOOR PLAN
OUTPATIENT DEPT.

DEPT. OF JUSTICE

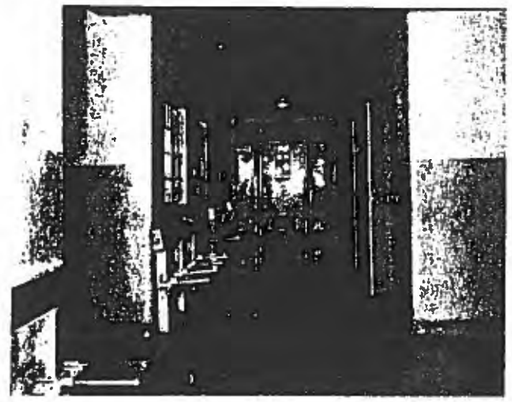
Sick Line. At its most casual, or emergency level, the sick-line constitutes a "drug-store" sort of relationship; or one comparable to that between the patient and the physician in general practice outside an institution, when some new symptom, the refilling of a prescription, or the necessity for an immediate examination, is discussed by them over the telephone. Rightly carried on in an institution, this is a useful kind of contact, being one which permits treatment of a maximum number of inmates with a minimum of administrative disturbance. It assures that a medical officer rather than a custodial officer or another prisoner, will classify patients who feel ill or who, for any other reason, seek medical advice. Some patients, at this point, are prescribed for on the spot. This is done, for example, in cases of minor ailments such as the common cold, or chronic conditions with which the physician is acquainted, and at the moment need only a refill of a simple prescription. Other patients, whose needs cannot be so simply met, are referred to the inpatient part of the hospital, to the specialists' rooms in the outpatient department for more exacting examination, or are scheduled for individual appointments at a later date.

Location of Rooms. It will readily be seen that the most frequently used rooms, those used by the largest number of people, and the areas through which most of the outpatient activities pass, should be nearest the main entrance to the outpatient department. This facilitates supervision by the hospital medical staff, by the hospital custodial officer, if one is on duty, and by the officer who brings groups of inmates to the outpatient department.

The most frequently used rooms are the waiting room, the general examination and treatment room, the dental clinic, and the office of the chief medical officer. The other rooms serve more specialized purposes, are less frequently used, and can, therefore, be further removed from the center of sick-line activities. It must be recognized that, unless all these considerations are carefully evaluated, the layout and arrangement of facilities may easily become exactly the reverse of what they should be.

Waiting Room. In the plan described herein, the hospital is located in a wing off the main traffic corridor of the institution and is a part of the maximum-custody or cell house area. Therefore, the waiting room of the outpatient department should be either in the main traffic corridor adjacent to the hospital (theater-type, or hinged seat, chairs being fastened to the walls for the convenience of the patients and to give the corridor at least the semblance of a waiting room), or just inside the entrance to the outpatient department. In addition, theater-type chairs should be placed in the far end of the outpatient department corridor for the convenience and orderly arrangement of patients waiting to keep appointments in the specialists' rooms.

Only fairly small groups of inmate patients should be brought to the outpatient department at one time, and approximately an equal number should be taken away as each new group arrives. If this practice is followed, a relatively small waiting area, so placed as to facilitate supervision and accessibility, will be sufficient.



Corridor—Waiting Room.

The appointments in the waiting room should be reasonably attractive, comfortable, and conducive to some degree of relaxation, to the end that when the patient finally enters an examination or treatment room, his attitude will be receptive. There is no need of subjecting prisoner-patients to unnecessary or thoughtless hardships or inconvenience, which can scarcely fail to aggravate whatever resistance or apprehension they may already feel.

Opening off the main waiting room should be the general examining room, the office of the chief medical officer, and the dental clinic.

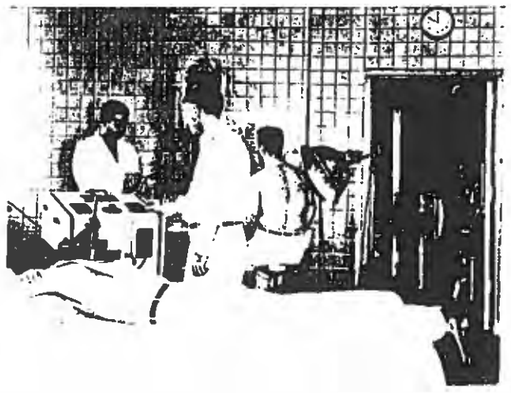
General Examination and Treatment. Hydrotherapy and Physiotherapy Rooms. The rooms for these activities together with the eye, ear, nose, and throat room, should be under the immediate supervision of a medical officer, and are therefore placed ensuite with the office of the assistant medical officer.

The general examination and treatment room serves many purposes. In it, the preliminary stages of the hospital sick-line are held, and from it patients are referred to special and treatment rooms. In it, also, admission, progress, and release examinations are in large part performed, and the various "lines" called in for treatment are processed—the "shot-line" for the treatment of venereal diseases, vaccination lines, blood test lines, and so on. Because it is the center of outpatient activities, it must be located as near as possible to both the hospital waiting room and the main traffic corridor, in order to prevent confusion, congestion, and unnecessary traffic in the remainder of the outpatient department.

This room should have two or three doors, as indicated in the sketch on page 284, to avoid congestion, and it should be near the office of the chief medical officer so that he will have access to it with the least possible inconvenience.

Sick-line rooms are sometimes planned with a sick-line window, through which common remedies, packaged for dispensing, are given to patients as they leave the hospital.

The therapeutic resources of the physiotherapy and hydrotherapy rooms are in such constant demand that they are rightly regarded as an integral part of the general examination and treatment room facilities. They should not be included as an actual part of that room, however, but should be placed in rooms connected with it.



Physiotheraphy room.

It is quite necessary to separate the physiotherapy from the hydrotherapy room, because the latter will have wet floors and water will inevitably be splashed around during treatments. This condition prohibits the use of electrical equipment in the hydrotherapy room. The physiotherapy room, on the other hand, is dry and contains electrical equipment. It should, therefore, be placed next to the general examination and treatment room, and should contain, among other things, diathermy, and ultraviolet and infrared lamps.

The hydrotherapy room should contain, as minimum equipment, a whirlpool arm bath, a whirlpool leg bath, a hydrotherapy shower (without scotch douche), and, optionally, a sitz bath and a tub (not a continuous flow tub, since this is not properly a part of outpatient facilities).

Some medical officers recommend that a toilet be placed in the hydrotherapy room as a convenience in giving enemas. An alternate plan, and the one recommended herein, is to give all enemas that may be indicated in outpatient practice, in the inmate toilet room which opens off the waiting room. The use of this as an ordinary toilet should be discouraged and limited to the times when prisoners are congregated in the waiting room.

Eye, Ear, Nose, and Throat Room. This room should be ensuite, directly or indirectly, with the general examining room. It should provide 15 to 18 feet of clear space for refractions, using a mirror or, preferably, a projection chart.

This entire room should be easily converted into a dark room for special forms of medical work. This can be accomplished by putting light-proof shades over all windows. The use of light-proof shades also permits glazing of the walls for ease in supervision. (See p. 288)

The room should be supplied with all the essential modern equipment. Probably the best place in a prison hospital for basal metabolic and electrocardiographic determinations is in this room. The equipment needed for such service should also be included, in addition to the E. E. N. T. equipment.

If both an assistant medical officer and a psychologist are on the staff and do not have separate offices, it may be expedient to combine eye treatment with x-ray activities in the x-ray room. Ear, nose, and throat treatments may be handled in the general examination and treatment room, thus releasing the E.E.N.T. room to the assistant medical officer. At several Bureau of Prison hospitals, eye treatment and x-ray activities have been combined in one room, and this has proved quite satisfactory, despite the fact that it is rather inconvenient and may sometimes slow up the treatment schedule. If this plan is followed, the x-ray room should be somewhat larger than would ordinarily be necessary for a single-purpose x-ray room.

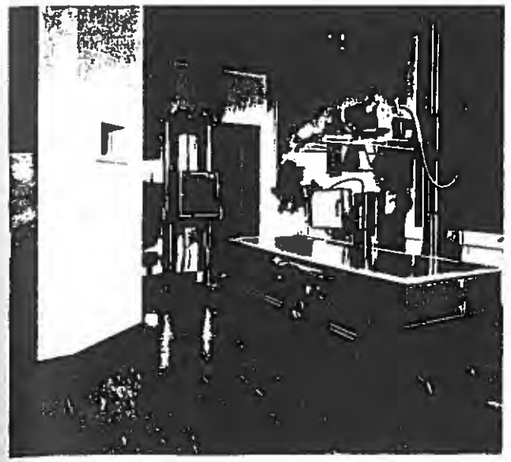
Assistant Medical Officer and Psychologist. Neither an assistant medical officer nor a psychologist can function properly without private offices. Since both are intimately concerned with the management and operation of the sick line and other general outpatient activities, their offices should be as closely connected as possible with the center of outpatient activities. Yet each requires privacy, since one will probably give psychiatric and the other psychological examinations and treatments. The location of the rooms proposed on the floor plan on page 274, admirably serves all these purposes.

X-ray Laboratory. In the prison hospital outpatient department, the x-ray laboratory falls into a natural room grouping with the clinical laboratory, pharmacy, medical technical assistant's office, and the room for the medical clerks and records. It is logical for the medical technical assistant to have both clinical and custodial supervision over these functions, and it is easier to maintain such supervision if the rooms are ensuite and maximum visibility is provided for by glazed partitions.

The x-ray room is in use only a comparatively small portion of the day, and this fact suggests that it should be planned as a double-purpose room—x-ray plus urology, or x-ray plus eye, or perhaps, in an emergency, x-ray plus urology plus eye. It should, of course, be understood that no open surgery will be performed in this room.

To serve best all of the demands that may be made on this room and to facilitate supervision, the walls separating it from the clinical laboratory should be glazed above wainscot height. A sufficient degree of darkness for fluoroscopy and eye and urological examination purposes can be attained by the use of opaque roller shades running in light-proof slots or grooves.

The dark room serves for developing both medical

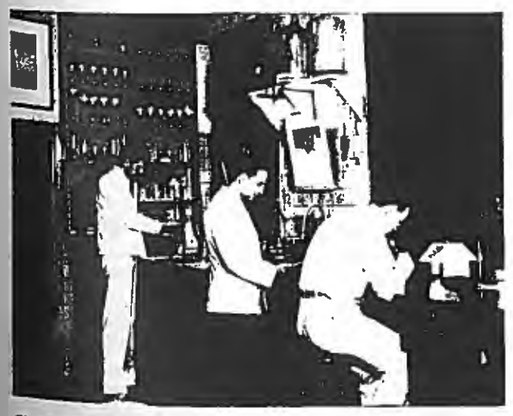


X-Ray room.

and dental films. If the climate is warm, it should have a refrigerated tank. It must exclude all light; indeed, it must be absolutely flat dark, which poses a problem in window covering and ventilation. This is best answered by purchasing commercially approved, baffled, light-tight ventilators, cassette transfer cabinet, and window covers. Opaque roller shades will not suffice here.

Clinical Laboratory and Pharmacy. The clinical laboratory is placed adjacent to the x-ray room as a matter of convenience to the examination "production line," and is ensuite with the pharmacy for economy in supervision and work routines.

As planned, both of these rooms are relatively small, and the equipment location is streamlined in keeping with modern trends in laboratory, kitchen, and other work-room planning, to promote convenience and save steps.



Clinical Laboratory.

Some medical officers recommend that the pharmacy should open off the general waiting room and be adjacent to the general examination room, but this would seriously disrupt more important relationships. Therefore, it is planned to carry a working stock of common remedies, packaged and ready for dispensing, in the general examining room, and to dispense other medicines, not so kept, by prescription from the pharmacy. In the latter case, medicines will be sent to the cell-house later in the day, to be distributed by the cell-house officer.

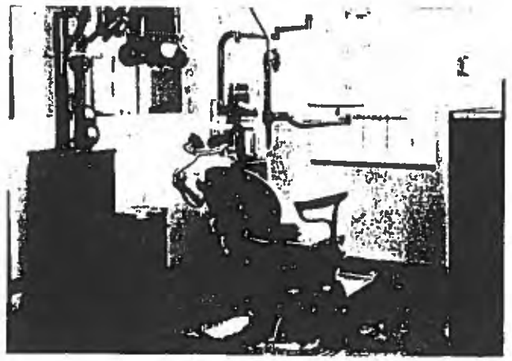
Provisions for Medical Technical Assistant, Medical Clerk, and Records. The duties of the medical technical assistants are many and diversified. Each M. T. A. should have professional proficiency in any two, three, or more of the following medical techniques: pharmacy, clinical laboratory, x-ray, certain physical examination procedures, administrative assistant duties, nursing, operating room, physical therapy, custodial, housekeeping, and so on. If three to five medical technical assistants are employed, they should be so selected that all the techniques listed above are represented among them.

The M. T. A. assigned to day duty in the outpatient department requires a separate office, rather than mere desk space in the clerical and record office, because he must have facilities for confidential work and space for the storage of confidential records that need special protection and must be inaccessible to inmates. The less confidential records kept in the adjacent record office should also be protected and inaccessible to any prisoners except those especially selected to work in the hospital clerical office.

Chief Medical Officer's Office. This office must be "up front" for ready accessibility to all of the medical and allied interests of the institution. It must be convenient to both clinical and administrative activities, and is, therefore, placed ensuite with the waiting room, adjacent to the general examination and treatment room, and ensuite with the clerical and record offices. It must provide for maximum visibility, so that the doctor may keep in touch with outpatient activities, and yet be assured of privacy for confidential examinations and interviews. Hence, its walls should be glazed above 4½ or 5 feet, and equipped with Venetian blinds or roller shades.

Dental Clinic. The dental clinic should open off the waiting room. It will be busy with appointments throughout the entire day. It should consist of three rooms: an office, an operating room, and a laboratory. Experience has proved that, in institutional practice, a dentist will function much more efficiently and economically if he has two chairs. Among other things, this permits a trained inmate helper to prepare the next patient for treatment.

An office is necessary for the proper maintenance of records, and a laboratory is essential either to fabricate dentures or to adjust dentures fabricated in another laboratory. One air compressor should serve the dental clinic, the pharmacy, E.E.N.T. room, clinical laboratory, and possibly the operating room.



Dental Clinic Room and Equipment.

Inmate Toilet. One inmate toilet room should serve both patients and workers. It should be located in the front part of the outpatient department, in order to prevent unnecessary traffic. Its use by patients should be discouraged; the door should be kept locked, especially during sick-line time; and it should be understood that only something of an emergency nature will justify its use by patients.

Medical Library. Whether or not a separate medical library room should be provided in a hospital of this size is a question about which there has been much controversy. While fully recognizing the necessity for a reference library, especially at a relatively isolated institution, it is not felt that a separate room for this purpose is justified in a hospital of this size. Pertinent reference books, in sufficient number to meet all the needs of the staff, can be kept on book shelves or in bookcases in the offices of the several staff members—the chief medical officer, the assistant medical officer, the psychologist, and the medical technical assistants—and in the doctor's room in the inpatient department.

Elevator. If the hospital occupies two floors, it is mandatory that they be connected by both elevator and stairs. Patients cannot be carried up or down hospital stairways in safety or comfort, and any unnecessary jiggling of a seriously injured or ill patient invites dangerous shock and is not acceptable in modern medical practice. An elevator is also necessary to move stretcher cases between the two floors. Its doors, therefore, should be wide enough to accommodate a wheel stretcher.

Prompt delivery of food to the inpatient department from the main kitchen cannot be accomplished without the use of an elevator. The serving of food three times a day entails a great deal of work and consumes much time, even under the best of circumstances. With an elevator, it is possible to bring an electrically heated food cart from the main kitchen to the hospital inpatient floor without waste of time, effort, or efficiency.

An elevator is important to other hospital functions. For instance, it will eliminate the need for the duplication of certain items of equipment on both floors, since bed patients can be brought to the first floor for examinations and treatments requiring special equipment located in the outpatient department.

If the hospital storeroom is in the basement or attic, the elevator should connect not only the first and second floors, but also the floor where the stores are located, in order to facilitate the movement of supplies and equipment.

VII. THE INPATIENT DEPARTMENT.

Sick Rooms. In a classified penal system, such as that of the Federal Bureau of Prisons and certain of the states, most inmates in a maximum-security institution will have been carefully screened at other institutions before transfer. Therefore, provision of inpatient beds is recommended for only about 3 per cent of the institution's population, whereas in other institutions the ratio must be from 3 to 10 per cent, depending upon such variable factors as type of institution, rate of turnover, etc. If at any time all of the hospital beds should be occupied, it will suffice to treat additional patients in their regular cells or to open an emergency hospital unit.

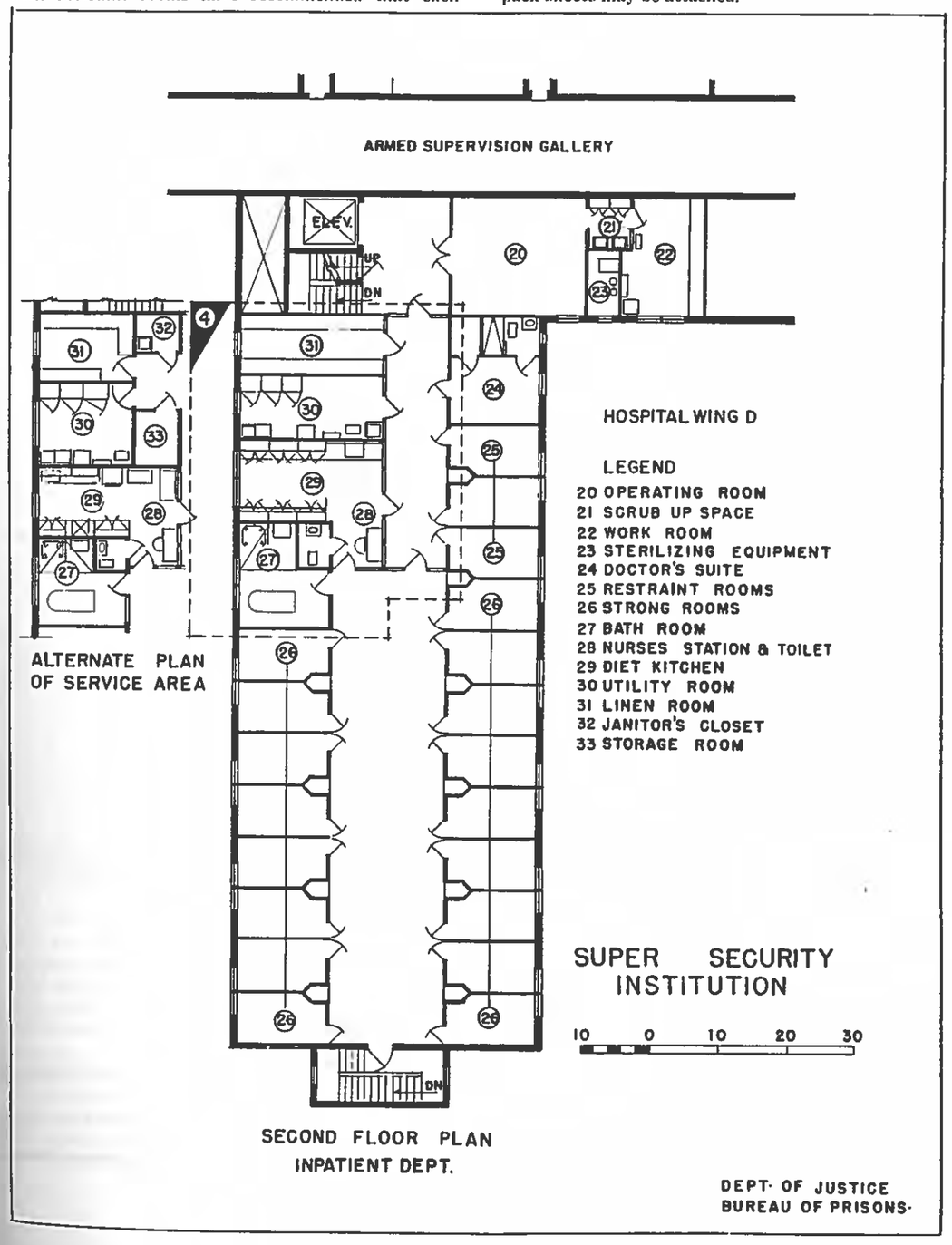
At times, the inpatient part of the hospital will be populated by only a few of the more tractable inmates, and, during such periods, it may be safe to leave the hospital without supervision by a full-time civilian employee at night. This offers opportunities for irregular practices by patients, especially when there are two or more in a room or ward. Therefore, the inpatient department should have a maximum number of individual rooms, and preferably there should be no multi-bed rooms or wards.

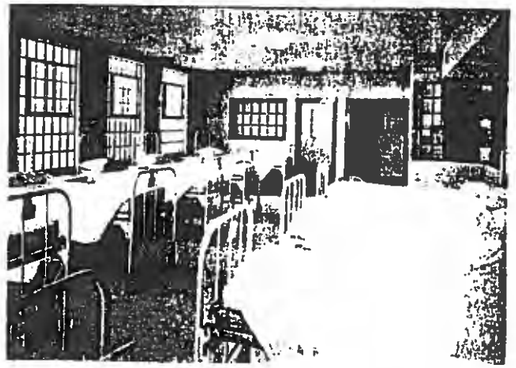
This recommendation is amply supported by both clinical and custodial considerations. Clinically, better classification is afforded by individual rooms. Custodially, the individual room offers less opportunity for irregularities, scuffling, homosexual practices, and so on.

In a maximum-security institution, all of the inpatient hospital rooms should be "strong rooms". Some of these may have additional features peculiar to the "restraint" room for housing specially disturbed patients and protecting them from self-inflicted injuries and the room from avoidable damage. While, in a less secure institution, such protective facilities are not so mandatory, it is desirable to have them if funds permit. In medium- and minimum-security institutions it is safe to use some wards, provided they are well supervised. The strong and restraint rooms are described in detail in Chapter XII, on "Correctional Institution Design."

All rooms except restraint rooms should be provided with a hospital bed (about 50 per cent should be Gatch type beds), a bedside table, a chair, and a stool or hassock. There should be about half as many over-bed tables as there are beds.

A main objection to a restraint room is its bareness. Little or no provision can be made for "refinements" or for the patient's comfort. Those who must be housed in these rooms are characteristically so destructive that it has not usually been possible to provide them with mattresses. It is believed that some of the new materials discovered during the war, are so tough that they will serve to provide a practically destruction-proof covering for a mattress and a hassock. Several medical officers who have had considerable experience with restraint rooms have recommended that each room be provided with a built-in bunk ("sleeping shelf")—a concrete or reinforced hollow tile block about 42 inches wide by 7 feet long, raised some 18 to 20 inches from the floor. It has also been recommended that fasteners be set into the wall to which restraint or pack sheets may be attached.





Hospital Ward.

Bathroom. One bathroom is sufficient to serve the inpatient population of a hospital of this size. It should contain two showers, a sitz bath, and a continuous flow tub. The showers are provided to serve ambulent patients. The sitz bath is a mandatory adjunct in the pre- and post-operative treatment of hemorrhoids, which constitute a very common complaint among prisoners. A tub is an extremely useful therapeutic agent in the treatment of neurotic or frankly psychotic cases and certain skin diseases. Inasmuch as a tub is to be provided, it may as well be a continuous flow tub. It should be placed far enough from the wall to enable an attendant to assist a patient from either side of the tub.

Diet Kitchen or Pantry. Experiment, study, and experience over many years with several kinds of food service in prison hospitals, indicate that the great bulk of hospital food should be prepared in the institution's main kitchen and transported to the hospital in pre-heated food carts. The great objection to preparing food in a hospital kitchen is that, because of inadequate personnel for supervision, considerable quantities of food are misused. Because of this, and the resulting high cost of operation, prison administrators have not been satisfied with this manner of preparing and serving hospital food.

The contention that the best way of controlling this situation is to place responsibility for the preparation of all foods in the institution's main kitchen, does not imply, however, that a diet kitchen-pantry should be omitted from the hospital. On the contrary, this facility is a mandatory part of the hospital.

The diet kitchen-pantry should contain a refrigerator, toaster, dishwasher, shelves and cupboards for the storage of dishes and other eating utensils, paper napkins, etc. It should also have a gas or electric hot plate or stove on which to prepare or re-heat cereal or gruel, and on which perishable foods, such as hot cakes, may be cooked and delivered fresh from the stove. It is expected that most of the food will be received from the main kitchen but occasionally special diets will have to be prepared in the diet kitchen.

The principal use of this kitchen, then, will be to store food for between-meals servings to those patients who must be fed more than four times a day (for instance, sippy diets) and for regular evening feeding (fourth meal). This fourth meal has proved desirable in most institution hospitals where food is served early in the afternoon (between 3 and 4:30 o'clock), and the interval until breakfast, at 7 to 8:30 the next morning, is too long for sick patients to go without food.

Hospital dishes or compartment trays should be kept in the hospital. They should be washed and sterilized in the hospital, especially those used by patients with communicable diseases.

An electrically-heated food cart or tray carrier, or both, should be available to bring food from the kitchen to the hospital diet kitchen-pantry, which is used as the hospital service kitchen. Provision should be made for storing the food cart in the pantry or other convenient place in the hospital. An electric convenience outlet of proper voltage should be provided for heating the food cart before it is taken to the main kitchen to be loaded with the hospital food.

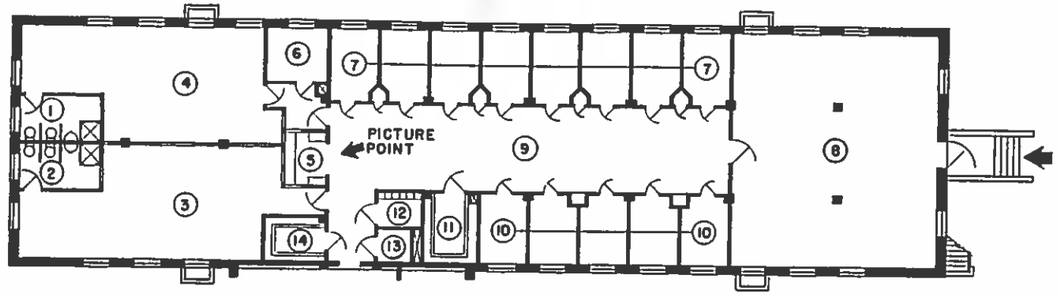
Doctor's Room. There should be, in the inpatient department, a doctor's office, equipped with the usual office furniture, and with provision for storing diagnostic instruments. It should also contain a "Pullman couch" or chair which may be converted into a bed, in case the doctor finds it necessary to remain in the hospital overnight to care for a seriously ill patient.

This office should serve as a dressing room for visiting consultant surgeons and should, therefore, have closet space and a toilet and shower. The suggestion that the doctor's dressing room be ensuite with the operating room is not mandatory; indeed, it might be as well for the doctor to walk across the hall and through the operating room before scrubbing up, to see that his instruments, etc., are being laid out in accordance with his wishes.

Female Nurse's Room. No room is provided in this hospital for the use of a female graduate nurse, because, probably, one will not be assigned to duty. If, however, it is anticipated that a female nurse will be on the staff, provision must be made for a dressing-retiring room for her.

Attendants' Room. No provision has been made in this hospital for a smoking room for inmate attendants; nor is a clothing locker or shower provided for them. The reason is two-fold: first, because of space limitation, and second, because the entire institution is under one roof and inmate attendants can come to the hospital from the cell house dressed for work, and should take their showers in the cell house after work. Where this is not the case, these facilities must be provided in the hospital.

Nurses' Office. A nurses' office should be strategically located so that there can be maximum supervision of patients' rooms. It should have a nurse's desk, a chart rack, adequate supply cabinets, and running water for diluting medicine and washing medicine glasses. It is anticipated that patients' charts, ordinary household medicinal preparations, and harmless special prescriptions will be kept in this room. All other drugs for daily use must be kept in a safe in the doctor's office, in the chief medical officer's safe, in the pharmacy, or on the person of a responsible civilian employee.



PLAN OF PSYCHIATRIC UNIT & NURSES' STATION·
U·S PENITENTIARY LEAVENWORTH, KANSAS·

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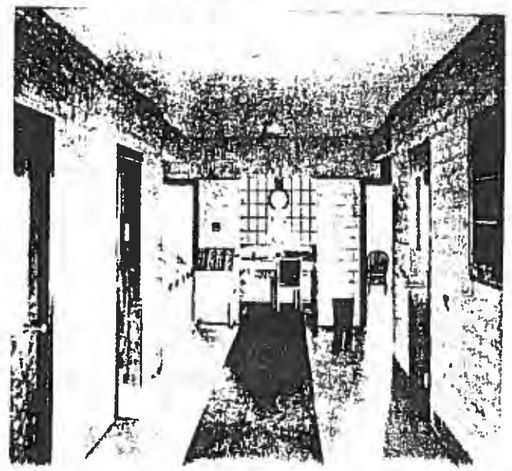
1 TOILET & SHOWER ROOM
2 TOILET & SHOWER ROOM
3 WARD
4 WARD
5 NURSES' STATION
6 UTILITY ROOM
7 STRONG ROOMS
8 OCCUPATIONAL THERAPY & RECREATION
9 DETENTION CORRIDOR
10 RESTRAINT ROOMS
11 LINEN ROOM
12 JANITOR'S CLOSET
13 PATIENTS' CLOTHES
14 LINEN ROOM



Nurses' Station. Taken at picture point in above plan.



Other types of Nurses' Stations.



Inpatient Examining Room. No provision has been made for a special doctor's examining room in the inpatient department, since the individual patients' rooms are adequate for daily general check examinations. If involved examinations are indicated, the patient can be taken to the outpatient department.

Utility Room. There should be a utility room containing the usual bedpan and urinal washer, utensil sterilizer, sink, drainboard, slop sink, and shelves and cupboards for the storage of floor polishing and cleaning materials and equipment, and so on.

Janitor's Closet. No special room has been provided for a janitor's closet, since adequate facilities for this purpose should be available in the utility room.

Clothing Storage for Patients. No specific room has been provided for this purpose because it is believed that in this institution, which is all under one roof, the patient's clothing should be removed from the hospital to the patient's regular cell immediately after he is admitted to the hospital.

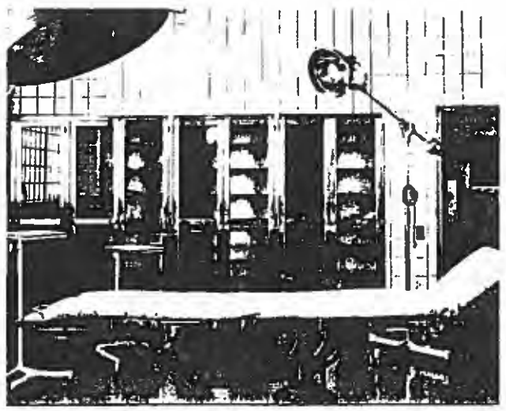
Clean Linen Storage. A specific room for this purpose may or may not be provided, depending upon available space. In a small hospital, it is believed that adequate storage facilities may be made available, with entire safety to operating room facilities, in the work-room of the operating room suite.

Dirty Linen Storage. It is important to provide adequate space for the collection of dirty linen, or for the storage of a wheeled hamper for soiled linen, to be collected in such a hamper until it is convenient for everyone concerned to transfer it to the laundry. This should be done once or twice a day.

Operating Room. Operating room facilities are a mandatory part of a correctional institution hospital, since ordinarily it will not be possible to remove prisoners from the institution to an outside general hospital. The requirements and equipment of an operating room are well established and need not be described in detail other than as noted.

The operating room should contain built-in instrument cabinets along the walls and a built-in x-ray view box.

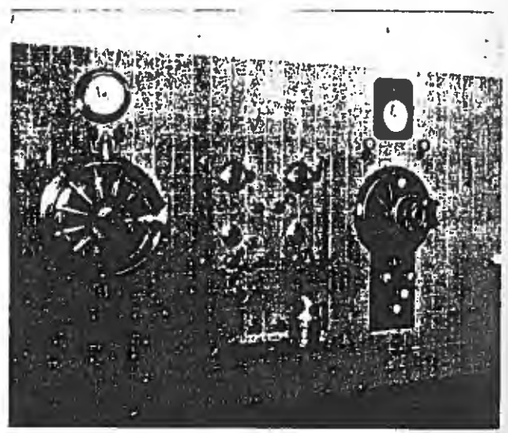
Operating Room, showing table, lights and built-in equipment.



Large windows facing the north are not so essential now as they once were, since most surgeons prefer a darkened operating room with controlled artificial illumination. Windows, therefore should be ordinary sized and provided with opaque roller shades.

The operating room should be adequately insulated, in case it should become necessary to use highly inflammable anesthetic gases which, in an improperly insulated area, might be ignited by a static spark. As a general rule, such dangerous gases should not be used in a prison hospital.

Sterilizer Room, Scrub-up Room, and Work Room. These facilities should be ensuite with the operating room. Generous cupboard, cabinet, and shelf space should be available in the work room for the storage of operating gowns, suits, linens, etc. There should be ample table space above the cupboards. The sterilizers should be built-in.



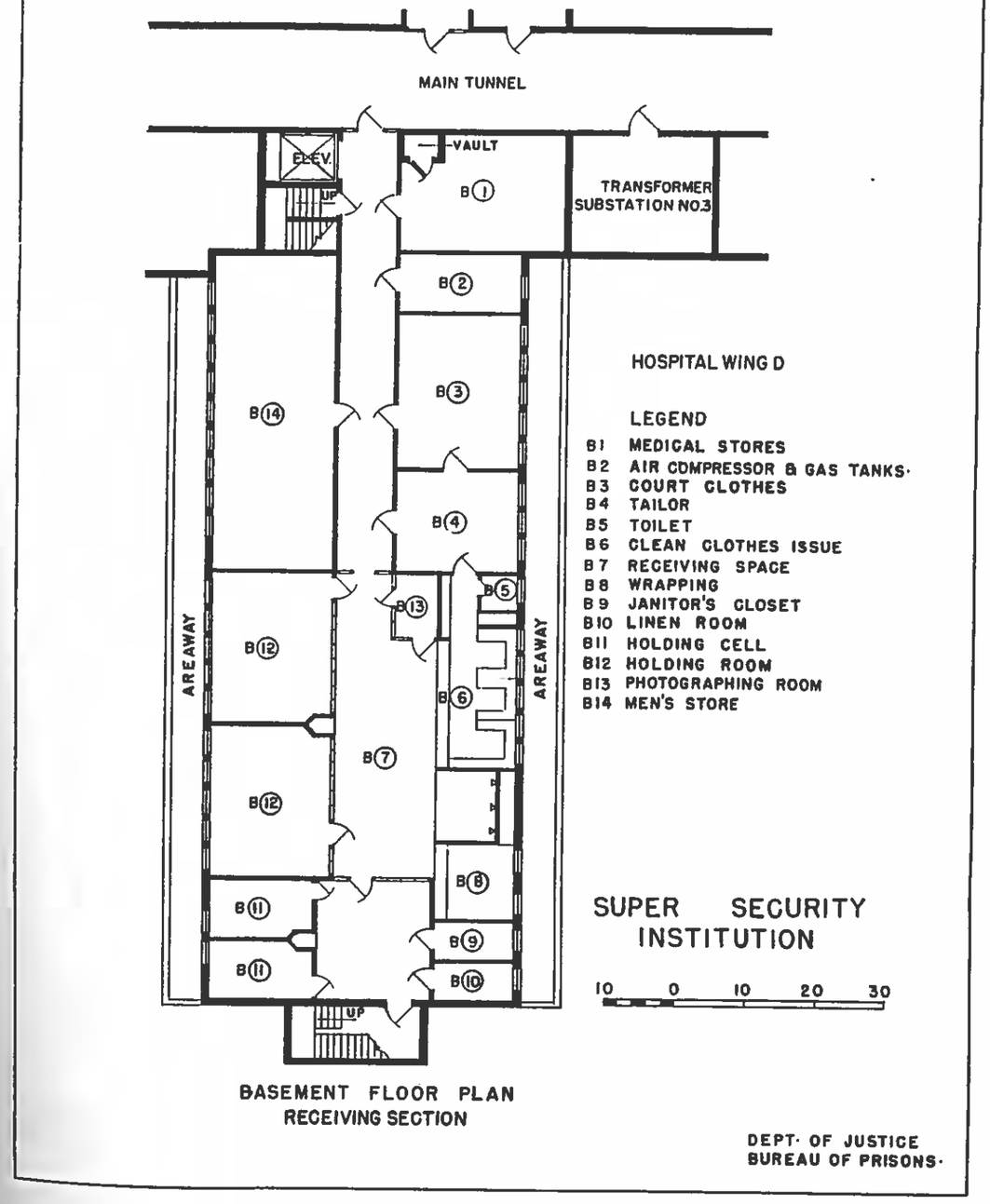
Built-in Sterilizers.

The scrub-up room should face the operating room, in order that the surgeon may watch activities there while he is scrubbing up. There should be enough space in this room to place two scrub-up sinks far enough apart to permit two operators to scrub-up at the same time without splashing each other.

General Storeroom. The medical storeroom should be adequate in size and inaccessible to inmates; inmate traffic in the area adjacent to the entrance should be discouraged.

The door to the storeroom should be of steel, with a modern combination lock. There should be a large modern "super-burglar-proof" vault for the bulk storage of alcohol, barbiturates, other sedatives, narcotics, and other dangerous or "hot" medicinal preparations and hospital supplies. Since hospital supplies, especially rubber goods and medicinal preparations, are perishable and subject to deterioration if improperly stored, especially if kept at too high a temperature, the room should have good ventilation, or be cooled.

Emergency Stairway. The emergency stairway at the outer end of the hospital wing is required to meet fire and other hazards, and is used only in emergencies.



HOSPITAL EQUIPMENT

The hospital furniture and equipment shown on detail plans Nos. 1, 2, 3, and 4, is described briefly on the following pages.

Furniture of all stainless steel construction is recommended. However, if funds do not permit purchasing it, tables, stands, stools, etc., made of aluminum alloy tubing with stainless steel or monel metal tops, shelves, and seats are recommended. If necessary, bonderized furniture steel finished in baked-on enamel may be used. Metal furniture should be of all welded construction and the thickness of the metal should be sufficient to insure substantial construction.

Hardware should be stainless steel or chrome plated over white bronze. Hinges should be recessed. Doors should have three-point locking device and should be equipped with pin tumbler locks, master keyed.

Casters, or wheels, should be rubber tired, ball bearing, swivel type. Two casters on beds and wheel litters should be equipped with a brake or wheel locking device.

Cabinets supporting a counter or work table top should be mounted on a recessed toe base. The base should be 4" high and recessed 3" from cabinet fronts. Where cabinets are metal the base should be faced with same metal.

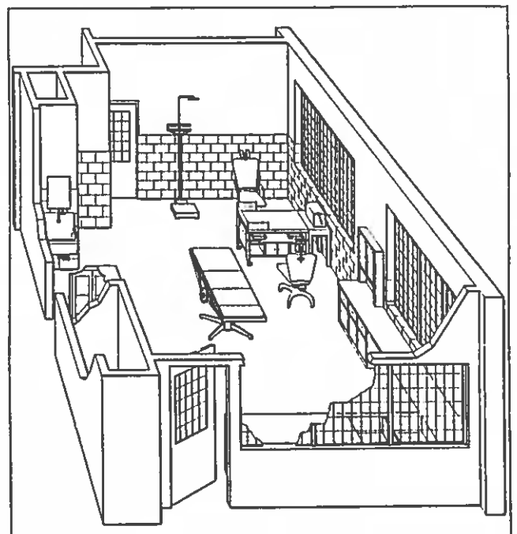
Cabinets may be all drawer or all cupboard or a combination of drawer-cupboard type. Room should be left between cabinets for knee space. Base cabinets should not be less than 24" front to back. Wall cabinets should be 8" front to back.

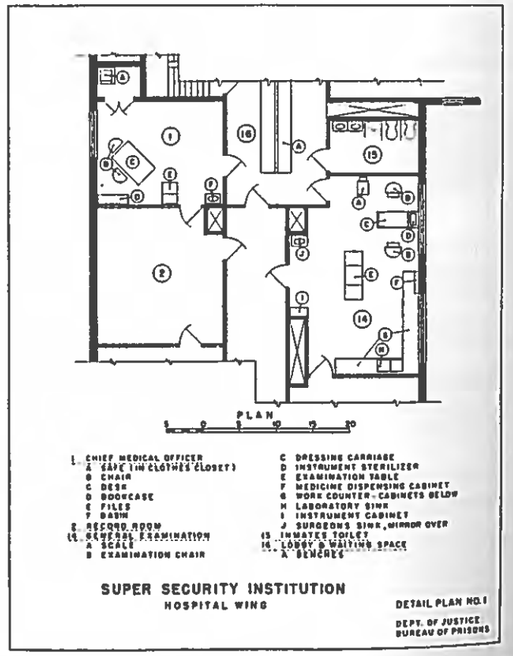
Counter tops made of metal should be constructed over ¾" seasoned plywood. Counter and work table tops used in laboratories should be made of wood. The top working surface should be given a carbonized, acid-resisting black finish in accordance with the approved formula of U. S. Bureau of Standards, or they should be covered with asbestos. Splasher back and a rim edge should be provided when necessary. The working surface of counters used by seated workers should be 30" from the floor and for standing workers 36". Counter above base cabinets should be 1" wider than the base cabinets.

Sinks and lavatories, not corrosion resisting metal, should be porcelain enameled iron.

Sterilizers should be corrosion resisting metal.

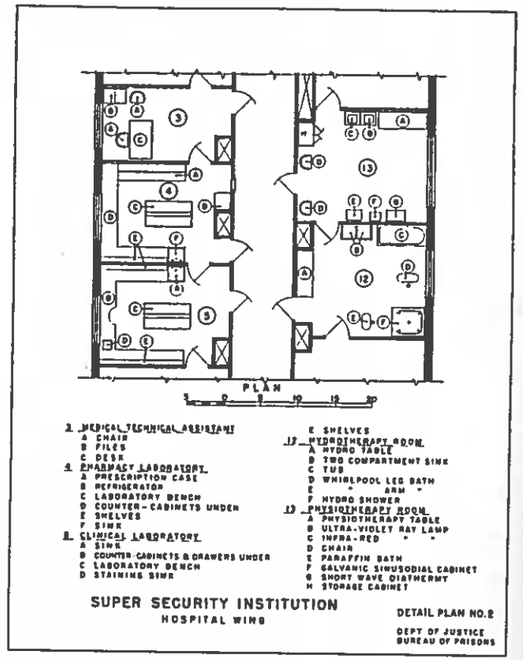
All water supply lines should be equipped with vacuum breakers.





DETAIL PLAN No. 1

	INSTITUTION INMATE CAPACITY 300	500-600	1000-1200	SERVICES	AREA
ROOM 1—CHIEF MEDICAL OFFICER					
A. SAFE:	1	1	1	–	2'-0"X 2'-0"
Should have a two hour fire resistance, equipped with a hand changeable combination type lock. Interior equipment should include a lock drawer and/or box. Outside dimensions, over-all, not less than 23" wide, 41" high and 24" deep.					
ROOM 14—GENERAL EXAMINATION					
A. SCALE:	1	1	1	–	1'-3" X 1'-6"
Platform type, capacity 300 lbs. Either beam type with weights attached or large vertical mounted dial type. Should have a measuring rod graduated from 30 to 78 inches. If dial type scale is used, it should be the springless or a spring lever type—a dial type scale is a time saver.					
B. EXAMINATION CHAIR:	2	2	2	–	2'-3" X 2'-3"
Tubular metal frame, straight leg or swivel base; sheet metal seat and back rest; with an adjustable head rest, an interchangeable arm and leg rest, and a basin.					
C. DRESSING CARRIAGE:	1	1	1	–	1'-6" X 3'-0"
Heavy tubular metal frame mounted on rubber tired ball bearing wheels. Should have two shelves both equipped with guard rails. There should be two 11" bowls mounted in swivel brackets attached to one side of the frame below the top shelf.					
D. INSTRUMENT STERILIZER:	1	1	1	Elec.	1'-4" X 1'-0"
Corrosion resisting metal, boiling type, electrically heated, automatic cut-off, manually reset. Size 16 X 8 X 6 inches, on tubular metal stand.					
E. EXAMINATION TABLE:	1	1	1	–	6'-6" X 2'-6"
Chair-table type, with a substantial tilt-proof base, with or without a hydraulic lift. Each section of the table top upholstered, or a hinged three-section cushion provided.					
F. MEDICINE DISPENSING CABINET:	1	1	1	–	3'-0" X 8"
Wall type with glass doors and shelves 30" high					
G. WORK COUNTER—CABINETS BELOW:	1	1	1	–	11'-0" X 2'-3"
Metal counter top with recessed sink of the same material as top, welded in					
H. LABORATORY SINK:	1	1	1	H. W.; C. W.; Waste	–
Approximately 23½" X 16" X 7½" deep provided with a combination goose-neck compression type hot and cold water faucet with metal indexed handles.					
I. INSTRUMENT CABINET:	1	1	1	–	3'-3" X 1'-9"
Metal, mounted on a floorline base. Sides, shelves and door made of glass.					
J. SURGEONS SINK (or lavatory)	1	1	1	H. W.; C. W.; Waste	2'-0" X 1'-9"
Stainless steel or vitreous china; equipped with combination goose-neck compression type hot and cold water faucets, knee action mixing valve and stirrup handles.					
ROOM 16—LOBBY & WAITING SPACE					
A. BENCHES:	–	–	–	–	–
Free-standing, with partitioned seats and with a solid high back. If benches are placed back to back, there should be a wide solid ledge connecting the tops of the benches so that any attempt at passing any article from one bench to the other would be difficult and hence noticeable. If space does not permit free-standing benches, wall hung individual hinged seats should be provided.					

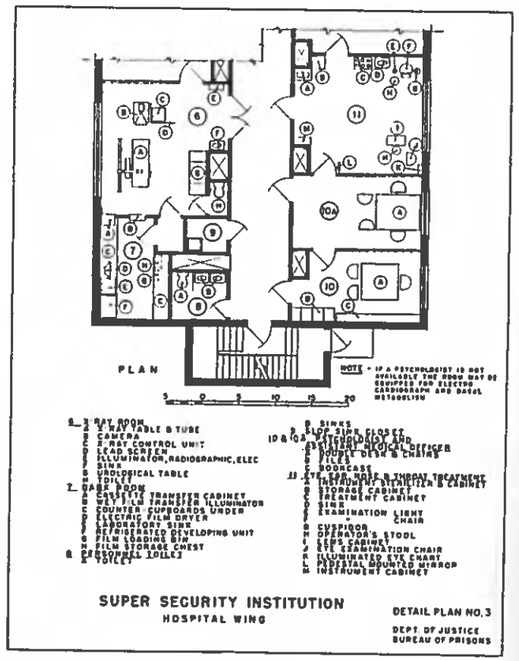


DETAIL PLAN No. 2

	INSTITUTION INMATE CAPACITY 300	500-600	1000-1200	SERVICES	AREA
ROOM 4—PHARMACY LABORATORY					
A. PRESCRIPTION CASE:	1	1	1	–	Varies
Wood, high type designed to set against the wall; composed of four, six, or eight sectional units of vertical swinging type drawers, fitted with racks for storage of various sizes of bottles and other containers, arranged above and below an acid resistant counter top. Ea. unit 1'-10¾" wide X 2'-6" deep.					
B. REFRIGERATOR:	1	1	1	Elec.	–
Electric, biological, not less than 6 cubic feet capacity. Storage compartment equipped with a standard biological unit instead of shelves. Refrigerator should be provided with a lock incorporated within the handle.					
C. LABORATORY BENCH:	1	1	1	–	6'-0" X 4'-6"
Chemistry table, wood, with a reagent shelf 8 inches wide along the center of the table, drawers and cabinets below working surface, cabinets mounted on recessed toe base.					
D. COUNTER—CABINETS UNDER:					
Continuous counter top, wood with acid resistant finish; projecting 1" beyond wooden cabinet units mounted on recessed toe base. Note: There should be outlets above the working surface for electricity, gas and compressed air.					
E. SHELVES:					
Metal, open back type.					
F. SINK:	1	1	1	H. W.; C. W.; Waste	–
Acid-proof stoneware; inside dimensions 18" X 14" X 10⅞" deep; equipped with combination goose-neck compression type hot and cold water faucet, with metal indexed handles.					
ROOM 5—CLINICAL LABORATORY					
A. SINK:	1	1	1	H. W.; C. W.; Waste	–
Acid-proof stoneware. Inside dimensions 18" X 14" X 10⅞" deep, equipped with combination hot and cold water compression type goose-neck faucet, with metal indexed handles.					
B. COUNTER—CABINETS & DRAWERS UNDER:					
Wood counter with acid resistant finish top and wood cabinets below. The section of counter paralleling outer wall and containing the staining sink may be only 30" high for workers using microscope, etc. Note: There should be outlets above the working surface for electricity, gas and compressed air.					
C. LABORATORY BENCH:	1	1	1	–	6'-0" X 4'-6"
Chemistry table with a reagent shelf 8 inches wide along the center of the table. Drawers and cabinets below working surface. Cabinets mounted on recessed toe base.					

DETAIL PLAN No. 2 (continued)

D. STAINING SINK:	1	1	1	H. W.; C. W.; Waste	–
Acid resistant stoneware, 14¼" X 10" X 5½" deep, equipped with combination hot and cold water compression type goose-neck faucet, with metal indexed handles.					
E. SHELVES:					
Metal, open back type.					
ROOM 12—HYDROTHERAPY ROOM					
A. HYDRO TABLE:	1	1	1	–	6'-6" X 3'-0"
Made of seasoned wood, substantially constructed, 2'-7" high.					
B. SINK:	1	1	1	H. W.; C. W.; Waste	2'-0" X 4'-0"
Stainless steel or enameled iron; two compartments, each 2'-0" X 2'-0" X 1'-3" deep. Equipped with combination hot and cold water swing type faucet, with metal indexed handles; one compartment equipped with a hinged drain board 2'-0" long X 2'-0" wide and a wringer for packs.					
C. TUB, BATH:	1	1	1	H. W.: C. W.: Waste	6'-0" X 2'-6"
Finished in acid resisting enamel, provided with overflow, vacuum breakers and combination hot and cold water faucet, with metal indexed handles.					
D. WHIRLPOOL LEG BATH: (with stool)	1	1	1	H. W.; C. W.; Waste	3'-0" X 2'-10"
Corrosion resiting metal, size 36" X 14" X 24" deep. Supplies should include a thermostatic mixing valve with capacity of 10 gallons per minute at 45 lbs. pressure, temperature of water 90 degrees to 115 degrees Fahrenheit; a dial thermometer; a vacuum breaker with rubber hose and aerator with adjustable rim clamp. All exposed brass fixtures should be chromium plated.					
E. ARM BATH: (with stool)	1	1	1	H. W.; C. W.; Waste	2'-2" X 2'-10"
Corrosion resisting metal, size 26" X 14" X 18" deep, mounted on a stainless steel pipe base. Supplies should include a thermostatic mixing valve with capacity of 10 gallons per minute at 45 lbs. pressure, temperature of water 90 degrees to 115 degrees Fahrenheit; a dial thermometer; a vacuum breaker with rubber hose and aerator with adjustable rim clamp. All exposed brass fixtures should be chromium plated.					
F. HYDRO SHOWER:	1	1	1	H. W.; C. W.; Waste	4'-0" X 4'-0"
Therapeutic shower consisting of 4 one inch IPS stainless steel uprights, height 8'-0", grouped centrally at top and connected together at crossing by 1" stainless steel pipe and escutcheon, to wall. Each upright should have 4 three inch sprays and an independently controlled 8" overhead shower. Control unit should be wall supported type and include a mixing valve with capacity of 40 gallons of water per minute at 45 lb. pressure, temperature of water 80 degrees to 115 degrees Fahrenheit.					
ROOM 13—PHYSIOTHERAPHY ROOM					
A. PHYSIOTHERAPY TABLE:	1	2	3	–	6'-0" X 2'-0"
Made of seasoned wood, substantially constructed and well braced, 2'-6" high. Top padded and covered with non-conductive material.					
B. ULTRAVIOLET RAY LAMP:	1	1	1	Elec.	2'-0" X 2'-0"
Quartz mercury arc type. Should provide a minimum perceptible erythema in 45 seconds at 30 inches. Mounted on a mobile heavy base; stand should telescope from approximately 40 to 60 inches.					
C. INFRARED LAMP:	1	2	3	Elec.	2'-0" X 2'-0"
500-600 watt capacity. Double wall reflector not less than 12 inches diameter, equipped with a screen. Mounted on a mobile heavy base; stand should telescope from approximately 40 to 60 inches.					
D. CHAIR:	2	3	5	–	2'-0" X 2'-0"
Wood, arm, straight leg					
E. PARAFFIN BATH:	1	1	1	Elec.	2'-0" X 1'-6"
Thermostatically controlled.					
F. GALVANIC SINUSODIAL CABINET:	–	1	1	Elec.	1'-3" X 1'-6"
Portable model, on a mobile stand.					
G. SHORT WAVE DIATHERMY:	1	1	1	Elec.	2'-6" X 1'-6"
Cabinet model, mobile; should have two oscilator tubes and should be provided with a drum applicator with arm and inductance treatment cable; two 7" X 9" pads; one 3" X 7" pad; one 4"X 16" cuff; one 4" X 13½" cuff.					
H. CABINET:	1	1	1	–	2'-0" X 3'-0"
Built-in or mobile, metal, with shelves for linens and small equipment, above a storage space for linen hamper.					



DETAIL PLAN No. 3

	INSTITUTION INMATE CAPACITY 300	500–600	1000–1200	SERVICE	AREA
ROOM 6 — X-RAY ROOM					
A. X-RAY TABLE & TUBE STAND:	1	1	1	Elec.	7′-6″ X 5′-0″
X-ray unit for radiography and fluoroscopy; shock-proof, with flat top-tilting table, tube stand, control stand, transformer, cables and all necessary accessories. The unit should be either 100 M. A. with a double focus tube or 200 M. A. with two tubes, one rotating anode and one stationary anode. The table may be either hand-rock counter balanced or motor driven, with or without a spot film device. (Transformer 3′-0″ X 3′-0″ installed in basement)					
B. CAMERA AND SCREEN STAND: (for photofluorography)	–	–	1	Elec.	3′-0″ X 2′-6″
Motor driven camera with a F:1.5 fluoride coated lens, focal length 111 mm. Should accommodate 70 mm. roll films in lengths up to 100 feet, have a magazine back for a single exposure. A camera carrying case should be furnished. Stand for camera and screen hood should be manually adjustable to permit the vertical adjustment of the fluoroscopic screen and assembly through approximately a 24 inch range. Elevating mechanism should be self-locking and supported in part by a Pullman sash balance or equal. Provide a radiation timer, a lead number marking system for patient identification. Screen hood should include a focused grid, and the fluorescent screen assembly should consist of $\frac{1}{32}$″ bakelite for screen protection, blue fluorescent screen and ¼″ lead glass, assembled in a non-warping metal frame, sealed against moisture. The viewing area should be not less than 14″ X 16″. Assembly should be easily attached or detached from the hood.					
C. X-RAY CONTROL STAND	1	1	1	Elec.	3′-0″ X 3′-0″
Stand should be full automatic, remote control type, all metal construction, containing a main switch, an auto-transformer having a kilovoltage selector switch, a technique selector switch, a high tension switch control, and overload circuit breaker, means for obtaining and indicating the desired kilovoltages; should have means for setting the kilovoltage circuit to accurately determine the kilovoltage, and all other controls and instruments for satisfactorily operating the generator. Control stand should be mounted behind a lead screen with lead glass observation windows, and it should be connected to the generator and the service line by high grade rubber covered stranded copper wire of ample gauge, drawn through a stationary metal duct having an approved bushing at each end. Conductors from the end of the metal duct to the control stand should have only sufficiert slack to allow moving the stand for cleaning and servicing and should be neatly taped and secured off the floor.					
D. LEAD SCREEN:	1	1	1	–	–
X-ray protective screen, should provide an area protected from X-rays, 77″ high X 34″ wide, with a 10″ X 12″ lead-glass observation window. Protection provided should be equivalent to 1.5 mm. of lead. The screen should be rigidly supported and mounted on a base equipped with easy rolling cushion-tred casters.					
E. ILLUMINATOR:	1	1	1	Elec.	2′-6″ X 1′-0″
Should consist of 4 or 8 illuminating units each accommodating a film size 14″ X 17″; units mounted on an all-metal base which attaches to wall by means of two cast-iron brackets. Group wiring entirely inclosed in metal conduit should be provided and individual switches to permit the use of any number of units.					
F. SINK:	1	1	1	H. W.; C. W.; Waste	2′-4″ X 1′-8″

DETAIL PLAN No. 3 (continued)

G. UROLOGICAL TABLE:	1	1	1	–	6′-0″ X 2′-6″
Table may be either a urological treatment table with base made of continous heavy metal tubing, and a three-section top, each section individually adjustable and top tilted by means of rack and pinion elevators and a large handwheel; or a urological X-ray table with built-in Bucky diaphragm, top adjustable by smooth positive working gear and rack mechanism controlled by large handwheel; table may or may not be provided with a telescoping type pedestal.					

(Note)
Items of equipment requiring floor space and which are not shown on the drawing are a urological cabinet with removable trays for storage of catheters and with a compartment for urological instruments and supplies; a mobile stand or a wheeled catheter tray; a portable examining light on floor stand; an irrigating stand and a kick-bucket. Space should be provided for X-ray film filing cabinet either in the X-ray room or in the Assistant Medical Officer's office.

ROOM 7—DARK ROOM H. W ; C. W.; Waste: Elec.

The dark room equipment listed and shown on drawing is standard. The refrigerated developing unit should have a water-cooled compressor. If the x-ray equipment includes photofluorographic unit, an x-ray developing unit for 70 mm. film in 100 foot lengths should be provided.

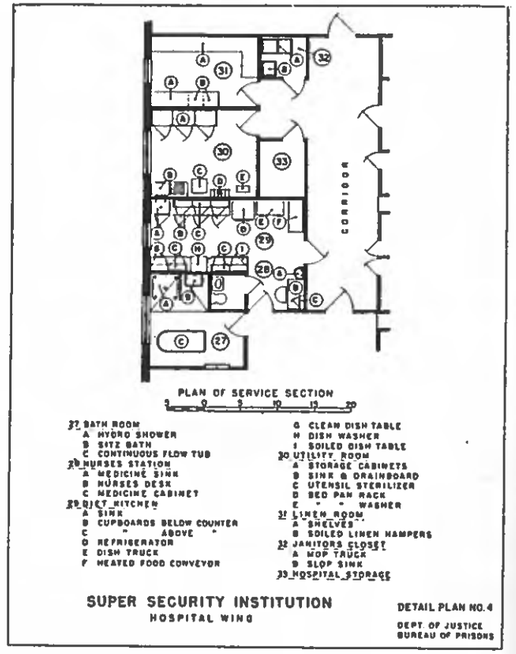
ROOM 10—ASSISTANT MEDICAL OFFICER'S OFFICE

The Assistant Medical Officer's office may be equipped as a private examining room. If it is, the chair-table shown in the general examination room may be replaced by a substantial flat top stainless steel examining table, and the chair-table used in the Assistant Medical Officer's office. An instrument and supply cabinet and an X-ray film viewer and X-ray film filing cabinets should also be provided.

ROOM 11—EYE, EAR, NOSE & THROAT TREATMENT

A. INSTRUMENT STERILIZER:	1	1	1	Elec.	1′-6″ X 1′-3″
Boiling type, corrosion resisting metal, electrically heated, automatic cut-off manually reset; operated by footpedal control, recessed in metal cabinet with a porcelain table top, 3′-5″ high.					
B. CABINET, INSTRUMENT AND SUPPLY:	1	1	1	–	3′-0″ X 1′-8″
Metal, with glass shelves and doors.					
C. CABINET, TREATMENT:	1	1	1	Elec.	3′-0″ X 1′-8″
Mobile; with air pressure and suction pump, ether bottle, supply bottles.					
D. SINK:	1	1	1	H. W.; C. W.; Waste	1′-6″ X 2′-0″
Porcelain enamel with a drain board or a surgeon's lavatory with recessed instrument tray on each side. Equipped with goose-neck type faucets and knee controls.					
E. EXAMINATION LIGHT:	1	1	1	Elec.	12″ dia.
(Movable) Goose-neck type, floor model.					
F. EXAMINATION CHAIR:	1	1	1	–	2′-3″ X 2′-3″
Metal, with adjustable arms and head-rest.					
G. CUSPIDOR:	1	1	1	C. W. Waste	1′-6″ X 1′-6″
Surgical, pedestal or bracket type (For use beside treatment chair)					
H. OPERATOR'S STOOL:	1	1	1	–	1′-6″ X 1′-6″
Metal, adjustable.					
I. CABINET, TRIAL LENS, STERILIZER STYLE:	1	1	1	–	2′-6″ X 1′-3″
(Mobile) Consisting of lens tray compartment with lock type roll top, sliding shelf, instrument drawer, and cupboard.					
J. EYE EXAMINATION CHAIR:	1	1	1	–	2′-3″ X 2′-3″
Metal, with adjustable head-rest.					
K. ILLUMINATED EYE CHART:	1	1	1	Elec.	–
For use with mirror. *					
L. MIRROR:	1	1	1	–	–
Pedestal mounted *					
M. CABINET, INSTRUMENT:	1	1	1	–	1′-3″ X 3′-0″
Metal, with glass doors and shelves.					

*A Project-O-Chart and a screen may be substituted for the illuminated eye chart and mirror. Two types of lens systems are used with the Project-O-Chart. When the available space is between 20 ft. and 15 ft. from patient's face to screen, "Series A" type should be ordered; and when for use where patient's face is between 14 ft. and 10 ft. from screen, "Series B" type should be used.



DETAIL PLAN No. 4

	INSTITUTIONAL INMATE CAPACITY 300	500-600	1000-1200	SERVICES	AREA
ROOM 27—BATHROOM					
A. HYDRO SHOWER:	1	1	1	H. W.; C. W.; Waste	3'-6" X 4'-0"
Composed of 4 tubular stainless steel or chrome plated standards on each of which should be mounted 4 needle spray showers and centered above the standards an overhead rain douche shower. The overhead and the needle spray showers should be operated independently by remote control. The control unit should be the wall-supported type and include a mixing valve with capacity of 40 gallons of water per minute at 45 lbs. pressure, at a temperature of approximately 80 to 115 degrees Fahrenheit.					
B. SITZ BATH:	1	1	1	H. W.; C. W.; Waste	2'-6" X 2'-6"
Controlled by individual supply fixture, may be either built-in or free-standing. Bath should be made of vitreous glazed china or equal, size approximately 30" X 28" front to back. Supply fixture should have either a built-in or an exposed mixing valve supplying not less than 5 gallons of water per minute at a pressure of 45 lbs. at a temperature of approximately 80-115 degrees Fahrenheit; loose key stop, supplies, dial thermometer, vacuum breaker.					
C. TUB:	1	1	1	H. W.; C. W; Waste	3'-0" X 7'-4"
Continuous flow, with remote manually operated control system. The tub shall be enameled iron complete with restraining sheet and canvas cradle, supply bell and waste. Control unit should include thermostatic mixing valve with capacity of 10 gallons per minute at 45 lbs. pressure, and other supplies mounted in recessed wall cabinet together with a recording unit. Tub should be installed 2'-6" minimum from walls to permit attendants to handle patient.					
ROOM 28—NURSES STATION					
A. MEDICINE SINK:	1	1	1	H. W.; C. W.; Waste	2'-6" X 1'-6"
Metal or vitreous china with drain board at one side; equipped with hot and cold water, plain nozzle goose-neck faucet with metal indexed handles.					
B. DESK:	1	1	1	–	4'-0" X 2'-0"
Base of stainless steel, or furniture steel finished in baked-on enamel, top approximately 48" X 20" made of stainless steel. A center drawer and either one or both pedestals provided with racks for conventional style chart files.					
C. MEDICINE CABINET:	1	1	1	Elec.	–
Metal, wall type, glass door with lock and containing an inner locked narcotic compartment and an inside light. The two locks should be different. Size of cabinet 30" wide, 68" deep, 24" high.					
ROOM 29—DIET KITCHEN					
A. SINK:	1	1	1	H. W.; C. W.; Waste	–
Preferably double compartment, 24" X 24" X 14" deep, recessed in stainless steel counter top, equipped with swinging type faucet and metal indexed handles.					

DETAIL PLAN NO. 4 (continued)

B. CUPBOARDS:	4	4	4	–	2'-0" X 10'-0"
Below-counter type with recessed toe base. A continuous top made of corrosion resisting metal cut to receive a recessed sink should be provided.					
C. CUPBOARDS:	3	3	3	Elec.	2'-0" X 10'-0"
Wall mounted type, with glass door. Equipped with locks. Electrical outlets should be provided on the wall between the counter top and the wall cupboards.					
D REFRIGERATOR:	1	1	1	Elec.	2'-6" X 2'-6"
Electric, household type, with lock. Capacity 6 or 8 cubic feet.					
E. DISH TRUCK: (or tray carrier)	1	1	1	–	2'-6" X 4'-6"
Mobile type, with 4 or 5 stainless steel shelves. Provided with rubber bumper equipment and with a push handle. Size of shelf approximately 19¾" X 43¾" or 23½" X 51½".					
F. FOOD CONVEYOR:	1	1	1	Elec.	2'-6" X 4'-0"
Electrically heated, indoor model, stainless steel with recessed utensils and meat tray and with a lower compartment provided with a removable rigid refrigerator type shelf. The conveyor should be equipped with rubber tired wheels, rubber bumper and a push handle. It should have full Underwriters' approval. (If the main kitchen where food is prepared is in a separate building, the food conveyor should be the outdoor model.)					
G. CLEAN DISH TABLE:	1	1	1	–	2'-6" X 5'-0"
Galvanized iron frame, stainless steel top and splasher back. Size and shape of table dependent upon building condititons.					
ROOM 30—UTILITY ROOM					
A. STORAGE CABINETS:	3	3	3	–	3'-0" X 1'-6"
The cabinets should provide storage space for utensils, cleaning supplies, and cleaning equipment. One cabinet should be equipped with 5 or 6 shelves, one with 2 or 3 shelves placed at the top of the cabinet and the other with only 1 or 2 shelves at the top. Each cabinet should be 3' 0"wide X 1'-6" deep X 6'-6" high, made of heavy steel, welded construction and doors should be locked at the top, center and bottom.					
B. SINK WITH DRAIN BOARD:	1	1	1	H. W.; C. W.; Waste	4'-0" X 1'-6"
Porcelain enamel, approximately 24" X 18" X 12" deep, with drain board 24" X 18".					
C. UTENSIL STERILIZER:	1	1	1	Steam; C. W.; Waste	2'-6" X 2'-0"
Boiling type, steam heated, 24" long X 20" wide X 20" deep.					
D. BED PAN RACK:	1	2	3	–	3'-3" X 8"
Wall mounted model with drip pan, to hold 6 bed pans and 12 urinals. Dimensions: 39" X 45" X 8" deep.					
E. BED PAN WASHER:	1	1	1	Steam, H. W.; Waste	2'-0" X 2'-0"
Steam flushing, wall or floor mounted, with foot operated vertical door. Not less than 10 lbs. steam pressure and 20 lbs. water pressure are required.					
ROOM 31—LINEN ROOM					
A. STEEL SHELVING:	–	–	–	–	–
B. SOILED LINEN HAMPERS:	2	3	6	–	–
Frame equipped with rubber tired casters with ball bearing swivels. Approximate dimensions of frame, outside diameter 24", over-all height 31¼". Each hamper to be furnished with three heavy duck bags, 24" inside diameter X 33" long. All seams double sewed hem around top and draw cord through hem.					
Note: A linen service truck with shelf space for clean linen and supplies and space for two bags of soiled linen is suggested for large institutions.					
ROOM 32—JANITORS CLOSET					
A. MOP TRUCK:	1	1	1	–	3'-3" X 2'-0"
Two 15-gallon tanks, one equipped with a wringer, mounted on a chassis with rubber bumper and rubber tired wheels. Over-all length of bumper 39", width 20".					
B. SLOP SINK:	1	1	1	H. W.; C. W.; Waste	2'-0" X 1'-8"
Acid-resisting enameled cast-iron mop sink.					

3. **Rules for the operation of the prison hospital, Joseph E. Ragen and Charles Finston, *Inside the World's Toughest Prison* (Springfield, Illinois: Charles C. Thomas, 1962), 510-25.**

supervision of an officer and as the physician prescribes. All inmates employed in the hospital must go to the inmate dining room with the line, regardless of whether they care to eat or not, except those who have authorization to eat in the officers' kitchen.

8. A record of all garbage weights—edible and inedible—is to be kept, and there is to be no food wasted at any time.

9. All cleansing agents, such as lye, sani-flush, etc., must be stored in a locker provided for that purpose and will be used only at the direction of the employee in charge. When it is necessary to use such agents, the officer is to see that they are properly distributed and not placed in foodstuffs.

10. A close check is to be kept of all tools and silver issued, and all must be accounted for.

11. Inmates delivering provisions and supplies to this assignment will be permitted in the officers' kitchen, and in every instance the vehicle carrying the supplies and every package and container on it must be closely inspected and thoroughly searched before it will be permitted to enter or leave.

12. No inmates, except those delivering provisions and supplies and otherwise authorized to be in the hospital and officers' kitchen, will be permitted to enter.

13. Extreme care must be exercised when taking the count of inmates on this assignment.

GENERAL HOSPITAL

1. The hospital, generally, shall be under the supervision of institution physicians and surgeons. Their orders prescribing treatment and medication shall be followed to the letter by all employees and inmates. The maintenance of discipline and enforcement of the rules of the institution, however, shall be the function of employees assigned to duty within the hospital. This rule shall be their first consideration at all times.

2. In many instances specialists or other outside physicians are called in to treat certain cases or to consult with staff physicians concerning treatment or surgery. Orders and recommendations of such consultants, upon approval by staff physicians, shall be

followed. Every courtesy must be extended to consulting physicians by all employees; however, institution rules shall be enforced at all times.

3. The hospital is small and all available space is needed to care for those inmates actually in need of hospitalization. It should be remembered there are inmates who will make an effort to gain admission to the hospital in an attempt to further their



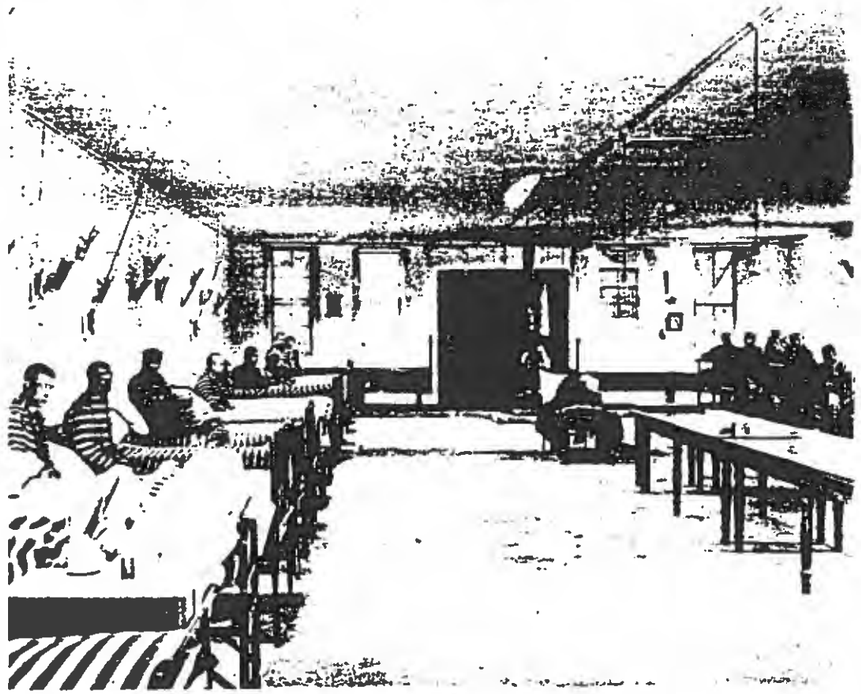
Modern hospital ward. Stateville Branch.

own personal aims, such as to obtain better food, to loaf, or to make an effort to escape. If an inmate known to be an escape risk or suspected of being a dangerous character should be admitted to the hospital, it shall be the duty of the employee to notify the warden or assistant warden immediately so that proper precautions may be taken and necessary supervision maintained.

4. Institution doctors and employees assigned to duty in the hospital unit will be expected to coöperate fully with each other

at all times. The doctors will make certain that employees are fully informed on all pertinent facts concerning each case in order that the employees can properly supervise the work of the nurses.

5. The sick line will be held in the room designated for that purpose by one of the institution physicians at the time specified by the warden. All examinations are to be held in the emergency



View of old hospital at Joliet Branch before remodeling.

dressing room unless prohibited by conditions. Contacts between inmate nurses and inmates in the sick line must be closely supervised.

6. Patients may be admitted to the hospital only after being properly checked in by the employees in charge or at the direction of the attending physician. In an emergency, any superior officer of the institution may direct that a patient be admitted temporarily, pending an examination. In such cases, the diet of the patient will be liquid only until ordered otherwise by the physician.

7. It is the duty of the state to take care of any employee injured in the line of duty. However, it is not the duty of the state to take care of an employee who may become ill or injured while off duty.

8. Upon admission to the hospital of any employee or inmate because of injury or sickness, the employee in charge of the hospital shall make certain that first-aid is administered without delay. He shall make a complete report in writing to the warden and assistant warden, giving all details of the incident, including the statement of the injured person.

9. Whenever an inmate is admitted to the hospital the employee in charge shall notify immediately, in writing, the cell-house keeper and/or the inmate's assignment, giving the date and time of admission. Similarly, upon the release of any inmate from the hospital, the employee in charge shall notify the cell-house and/or the assignment of the inmate.

10. The diet of the patient will be indicated on the check-in slip, one copy of which will be sent to the nurses' chart room, another to the hospital kitchen. Special diets will be given only when prescribed by the attending physician. Commissary foodstuffs, unless prescribed, are banned for hospital patients.

11. For no reason whatsoever, personal judgment or disciplinary action notwithstanding, shall any employee or inmate nurse alter the medications or diet prescribed by the attending physician as indicated on the hospital chart. Medications and diets prescribed by the physician are based on his skill, knowledge, and experience; hence, it is mandatory that his orders be executed precisely.

12. Whenever it is necessary for any doctor to be consulted over the outside telephone regarding a patient, the doctor will prescribe to the employee who will, in turn, transmit the doctor's instructions to the inmate nurse. The employee will always be governed by the doctor's recommendations.

13. Blood transfusions will be made only on the direct instruction of the attending physician. Blood will not be taken from any inmate without the approval of an institution physician and it

must be voluntary on the part of the donor.

14. No hospital patient shall be transferred to the detention ward except at the direction of the attending physician; but in the event an inmate or patient becomes violent, he may be transferred to the detention ward by a superior officer, pending an examination by a staff physician.

15. Hospital patients who have been transferred directly from another institution and are to be dismissed as patients will remain in the hospital until a proper transfer from the senior captain is received.

16. An isolation ward has been established for the treatment of those patients suffering from contagious or infectious disease. No one shall be permitted to enter such ward except under the direction of a staff physician. The doors and windows of such ward may be sealed when necessary to prevent the spread of disease. Supervision, however, must be maintained at all times.

17. A complete record of each case, employee or inmate, shall be kept in the hospital office file. This record shall contain detailed information regarding the patient's illness or injury and shall indicate medication prescribed, treatments and surgery. All clerical work of the hospital will be performed in the hospital office by the properly assigned personnel. A complete report of all hospital activities will be submitted daily to the warden or his assistant.

18. After every major surgical operation a report of same will be made to the record clerk who will, in turn, notify the next of kin regarding the operation. If any patient is seriously ill, a telegram is to be sent to the next of kin, using the form provided. A report of any surgery or serious illness will also be made to the assistant warden, senior captain and chaplain of the inmate's particiular faith.

19. When surgery is performed and results in scars of any description, or where plastic surgery alters an inmate's features in any way or leaves a scar of any description, the bureau of identification shall be furnished with a complete report of the case so that proper notations may be made on the records.

20. Every consideration will be given inmates in need of medical attention, but this should not be taken advantage of by inmates.

21. Inmates assigned to the 24-hour or outside detail should, whenever possible, be examined on a particular day specified by the warden.

22. Certain patients who are ambulatory, but of necessity hospitalized, may be given yard privileges at the direction of the attending physician and senior captain.

23. Hospital patients shall be under the constant supervision of an employee.

24. Inmate nurses must never be permitted to prescribe medication or perform any sort of operation, regardless of how minor it may be.

25. The employee in charge of the hospital shall generally supervise traffic throughout his assignment. Such traffic will be kept at a minimum, and assigned inmates will be permitted to enter rooms or wards only in performance of their duties.

26. No one, inmate or employee, will be permitted to enter the hospital without proper authority.

27. The employee in charge of the hospital unit must immediately familiarize himself with all keys used on his assignment, the locations of locks and light switches, and all other items pertinent to the assignment.

28. He shall maintain an accurate count of all tools, instruments, etc., used throughout the assignment.

29. At frequent intervals throughout the day inspections will be made of each bed, ward, corridor, bathroom, department and office.

30. Every part of the hospital must be immaculately clean at all times, beds properly made, etc.

31. Inmates assigned to one floor of the hospital will not be permitted to loiter or congregate on any other floor, nor will inmates not assigned to the hospital unit be permitted to enter the assignment except on sick call.

32. All laundry for the hospital (incoming and outgoing) will be inspected by the employee in charge.

33. The employee in charge shall make daily inspections of all outside walls, windows, and doors to make certain that no attempt is being made to escape. At no time shall any article of furniture such as a chest of drawers, a bed, a cabinet, etc., be placed in any position which obscures sight of the outside prison wall.

34. During the absence of the prison physician the employee in charge shall see that his orders are carried out so far as is possible; however, do not prescribe, or permit an inmate nurse to prescribe without consulting the prison physician. Make certain the rules covering the prison physician, drug and compounding room, and narcotics are carried out to the letter.

HOSPITAL REGULATIONS AFFECTING EMPLOYEES

1. Employees not on duty in the hospital shall not request medication or supplies from the inmates. All such requests will be made to the prison physician or the pharmacist (if the prison physician is not in the institution).

2. Employees must not enter the dispensary for the purpose of receiving non-emergency treatment, such as diathermy, foot clinic care, etc., without first contacting the employee in charge of the hospital unit. The man in charge of an assignment shall be advised of any activity within his department, regardless of its importance.

3. Employees under the care of physicians outside the institution shall not make requests for x-rays, prescriptions, or laboratory orders with the institution medical department.

4. Indicated treatment and examination will be instituted promptly by the prison physicians where illness or accidental injury occurs in the line of duty. A report in detail shall be sent to the warden.

5. All records concerning the medical history of employees and inmates must be kept in the hospital record office, except current charts of hospital patients. No employee other than the

resident prison physicians shall have access to these medical records, except in extreme emergency and then only through the employee in charge; nor shall any information concerning same be divulged except in the line of duty.

DENTAL OFFICE

1. Unless there is an emergency, inmates in need of dental work shall make their request to the dentist in the daily sick line.

2. After examination, if the inmate is in need of fillings or extractions, his number will be placed on the calendar and taken in turn until his work is completed.

3. If the inmate needs bridge work, inlays, crowns, full or partial dentures, his name will be placed on a list and called for this work when his name is reached. An inmate may be placed ahead on the list for the following reasons:

   a. If he is about to be discharged or paroled from the institution.
   b. By order of the prison physicians to safeguard his health.
   c. When it is an imate's desire to pay for work which requires material not furnished by the institution. The dentist is to have the inmate sign a money transfer for only the actual cost of the work done on the outside.

4. Where it is impossible to complete work of an unusual nature in our dental office and laboratory, the dentist is to consult the warden for authority to have the work done in an outside dental laboratory.

5. Tickets are issued to indicate the time the inmate is to appear at the dental office. Employees should have inmates report as close to scheduled time as possible.

6. A day specified by the warden will be set aside to take care of inmates on the farm and outside detail except, of course, in the event of an emergency.

7. Diet cards are issued to inmates when it is impossible for them to digest their food properly. These cards may cover a period of 7 to 30 days. They may be renewed if necessary.

8. All gold removed from an inmate's mouth is to be placed

in his personal property jacket.

9. There will be absolutely no dental services for employees at any time.

10. Haphazard work will not be tolerated.

11. Supplies must never be wasted.

12. The dentist is the supervisor and instructor of the dental laboratory and it is under his direct supervision. He is to request the number of inmates needed as aides and supervise their training as dental technicians.

PRISON PHYSICIANS

The institution is staffed with qualified resident physicians, as well as part time physicians. In addition to this group, we call upon specialists in the various fields of medicine from time to time when, in the opinion of the prison physicians, they are needed.

The general duties of the prison physicians are as follows:

1. *Sick Line:*

   a. Conduct sick line and prescribe necessary medical treatment. An inmate must never be permitted to diagnose a case or prescribe treatment for anyone. Sick line procedure consists of physical examinations of inmates, prescribing medications as indicated; referral of cases to the dentist; eye, ear, nose and throat doctor; foot clinic; dressing room; diathermy; x-ray and pathological laboratory; and mental health department, as the symptoms indicate.
   b. Extreme care should be taken when prescribing medication. Not more than two or three items should be deemed necessary at one time since sick line is held daily.
   c. Medication containing a sedative should be delivered to the cellhouse keeper with instructions regarding the administering of it. Such medicine must never be given directly to inmates.
   d. All prescriptions should bear the inmate's name and number on the container in which it is placed.
   e. Sick line for inmates on the farm and farm detail will be

held at a time specified by the warden.

f. Follow up cases requiring continued treatment or physiological relief of pathology.

g. Hospitalize inmates for observation and treatment if results of the examination so indicate.

h. Daily visits to inmates confined in isolation and segregation, and order their removal if their physical condition becomes impaired or if they are in need of medical care.

2. *Surgery:*

a. Perform surgery and assist all institution or visiting surgeons during operations.

b. Serve as anesthetist when required.

3. *Hospital:*

a. Medical service for hospitalized inmates.

b. Train inmates as nurses.

c. Advise the warden of the progress of seriously ill patients.

d. Quarantine any resident employee or inmate who has a contagious or infectious disease.

e. Daily visits to all patients in the general hospital and detention ward.

f. Issue required certificates in the event of a natural death by known causes.

g. Make certain that absolute sanitary conditions exist in and around the hospital, the kitchens, store, etc.

h. Report to the senior captain any inmate who violates a rule of the hospital or institution.

4. *Public Health:*

a. Inspect all assignments where food is handled, including kitchens, dining rooms, storerooms, dairy, etc. Make reports to the warden on anything that is unusual or not up to health standards.

b. Follow-up venereal disease control programs.

c. Screen inmates who are being considered for assignments where food is handled.

d. Immunization treatment for inmates according to public health regulations.

e. Physical examination of employee-applicants. Immunization treatment, and annual booster inoculations.

f. Coöperate with State Health Department and report anything of an unusual nature.

5. *Administrative:*

a. Written reports to the warden on cases where a special physical examination has been requested.

b. Make examinations and submit reports, when requested by the parole authorities.

6. *General:*

a. Administer treatment and prescribe medication for any employee injured on institution property, and perform surgery if necessary.

b. Make up, verify, and authorize all sedative and narcotic medications as directed by law. Never permit an inmate to handle narcotics at any time.

c. Generally supervise the hospital, and recommend necessary supplies, medications, and equipment.

d. Subject to 24-hour call.

7. *Diagnostic Depot:*

a. Complete physical examination, including blood and urine, of all newly admitted inmates.

b. Screen all incoming inmates for health class which governs work assignments as follows:

Class	A—Excellent	(Free from physical handicaps.)
"	B—Good	(Able to do moderate work.)
"	C—Fair	(Able to do light work only.)
"	D—Poor	(Not able to work at all.)

c. Screen all newly admitted inmates with a view to recommending treatment or surgery which will be helpful to them in serving their time and assisting in eventual rehabilitation.

d. Transfer inmates in need of treatment to the hospital.

DRUG AND COMPOUNDING ROOM

1. The pharmacist is in charge of the drug and compounding room, and of all drugs, medical, dental, and x-ray supplies received at the institution, as well as the dispensing of same.

2. He personally must attend to all compounding, and supervise milk tests and bacteria counts. The laboratory will be under his supervision.

3. He will prepare quarterly requisitions for supplies. Upon the receipt of any items a check must be made against the proper quarterly requisition or O.F.D., and the receiving ticket listing these items is to be made in triplicate, two copies of which are to be sent to the general storekeeper, and one copy retained for the pharmacist's file.

4. A perpetual inventory must be kept in balance with the stock and a record kept of all drugs received and dispensed.

5. All drugs and poisons are to be kept locked in the drug and compounding room. Insecticides stored in the vault at the greenhouse must be checked at intervals.

6. Drugs will be dispensed as needed upon the presentation of a requisition properly signed by a physician; they are to be issued only under the close supervision of an employee.

7. Inmates, except those assigned, are not permitted in the drug or compounding room. They must be kept under close supervision by the employee in charge. Each inmate must be searched thoroughly each time he leaves the room.

8. At regular intervals, phenobarbital tablets and sodium dilantin capsules prescribed by the physician for patients are to be put in suitable containers properly labeled with the date, the inmate's name and number, and the physician's instructions for the dispensing of same. These containers are to be sent to the employee in charge of the cellhouse who will sign for them in the book presented to him by the employee making delivery. The officer making the delivery is to witness the signature of each cellhouse officer in accordance with the instructions on the label. provided. The medicine shall be dispensed to the inmate by the cellhouse officer in accordance with the instruction on the label.

9. The mesh door of the compounding room shall be kept locked at all times. When the pharmacist leaves this room, he shall lock the main door, always checking to be sure he has locked it.

10. Tools which are kept in the compounding and dispensing rooms are to be checked, and a report sent to the assistant warden and the master mechanic at specified times.

NARCOTICS

1. The narcotic reserve stock is to be kept in a strong box especially provided for same. Any withdrawal from the stock must be by requisition which is to be signed by the prescribing physician. A continuous inventory must be kept in a ledger which is to remain in the box. Entries should show the dates on which withdrawals are made or stock added.

2. When narcotics are ordered, instructions should be given to the supplier to address them to the warden. When they are received at the institution they are to be delivered to the warden or his authorized assistant, who will notify the pharmacist. They are never to be delivered to the general store.

3. Never permit an inmate to have possession of any narcotics.

4. Narcotics are not to be administered to an inmate unless prescribed by a physician.

5. When a narcotic is to be administered to a patient, the employee in charge is to dissolve the tablet in a spoon, syphon it into a syringe, and then carry the syringe to the patient to whom the nurse is to administer the shot. The nurse must be watched very closely to make certain two syringes are not used or a switch made or the patient in need of the shot is given water or some other fluid instead of the narcotic.

6. The amount of narcotics which the officer in charge of the hospital is permitted to have on hand at all times is limited to the following quantities:

10 tablets ¼ gr.H. T. Morphine
" " ¼ gr. H. T. Codeine
" " ½ gr. T. T. Codeine
" " ⅛ gr. and ⅛ gr. H. T. Morphine (or equivalent)

POISONS

1. It must be remembered there are inmates in the institution

who would not hesitate to put poison in food or water, thus possibly causing the death of a large number of persons. Drugs containing poison, prescribed by the physician, are to be administered only under close supervision of the physician or an employee. Remember that it is possible for an inmate to hold a tablet under his tongue and remove it when supervision ceases. Thus over a period of time a sufficiently large quantity could be accumulated by an inmate to poison people or use it in some way to further his own interests.

2. A monthly inventory is to be sent to the pharmacist before the 5th of each month by department officers, listing names of all poisonous chemicals, liquids or compounds on hand, and their location.

DEATH

1. In the event of a death of an employee or inmate, whether it be in the hospital or elsewhere in the institution, the prison physician shall be notifiied so that he may examine the body and sign the death certificate, if he can properly do so. The supervising officer on duty should be nofified immediately of a death and after proper examination and fingerprints have been taken, the body shall be removed from the place of death to a room provided for that purpose until the undertaker receives the body and signs receipt for same. It is to be remembered, however, that in case of sudden or unusual death a coroner's inquest will be held and the body is not to be removed until permission is given by the coroner.

2. The next of kin is to be notified by wire regarding the death of an inmate, advising the name of the undertaker to whom the body is released.

3. If death occurs as a result of an accident or violence, a complete report should be made to the warden. Anyone who may have been a witness to the death or who has any knowledge of it, should be interviewed and statements taken. If inmates are involved, they are to be separated during the interrogation so there will be no possible chance of fixing a story.

DETENTION HOSPITAL

1. Detention hospital was set up for the purpose of taking care of inmates who become mentally disturbed during their stay in prison. Tact, firmness and good judgment are essential on this assignment, and close supervision must be maintained over the inmate-patients constantly.

2. At the time an inmate-patient is admitted to detention hospital a report covering his actions and apparent condition should be made by the officer most familiar with the situation. A copy of this report should be forwarded to the psychiatrists, senior captain, warden, and assistant warden.

3. Unless permission is granted by the warden or his authorized assistant, patients will not be permitted to leave the ward and they are never to be permitted out of their cells after the evening count without such permission. Inmate nurses will be locked in their cells at 7:00 P.M. when not on duty. Also, inmates not assigned to detention hospital will not be permitted to enter the ward; however, when it is necessary for inmates to enter or leave this assignment they are to be searched thoroughly.

4. Inmates regularly assigned to detention hospital are to have their regular recreation period, and a plan worked out so there is an inmate nurse on duty at all times.

5. All precautions must be taken to prevent attempted suicide by inmates or attempts to harm themselves or others.

6. If an inmate becomes physically ill, the prison physician is to be notified at once and his instructions followed. All instructions regarding treatment and medication will be made in writing by the physician or psychiatrist to the employee in charge of the hospital. This includes drugs and narcotics. A surplus quantity of these items is never to be kept in the ward at any time. The administration of medication and treatment will be carried out under the close supervision of the employee in charge of the assignment.

7. A report should be submitted to the senior captain, psychiatrist, record office, and warden's office whenever an inmate is received or released from detention hospital.

8. All keys must be under the supervision of the employee in charge at all times; inmates NEVER are to be given keys.

9. Instruments, tools, ropes, in fact anything which might be used in an escape or possible suicide attempt, will be kept out of the hands of inmate patients. Any article which might be used as a weapon must be kept under lock and key, and the employee in charge is to keep an accurate count of all tools and instruments at all times.

10. Excess food is not to be kept in detention hospital but is to be returned to the kitchen from which it came, after completion of the meal.

11. Complete records must be kept on all patients covering all treatments and doctors' orders.

12. Medication prescribed by the psychiatrist will be sent to the prison physician for his information and approval.

13. When patients are released from detention hospital all medication is to be returned to the pharmacist. This also shall be done if medications are changed.

OFFICERS' BARBER SHOP

The officers' barber shop has been established as a privilege. The fee charged for services is set by the warden to cover the necessary expenditures for equipment, supplies, etc. Employees are not to take advantage of inmates assigned to the barber shop, and the following rules and regulations must be obeyed or the privilege will be revoked:

1. Under no circumstances will any service be given unless the employee is in possession of a barber card, which must be punched for the correct amount after the work has been completed.

2. Extra service is not to be expected or given.

3. Employees are to take their turn as vacancies occur in the chairs.

4. Under no circumstances will work be done for any employee while on duty.

5. Only tonics and other barber supplies furnished by the institution are to be taken to the barber shop.

C. Xerographic Reproductions of Historic Photographs and Drawings

1. Rectangular Cell House: "Plan of Papal Prison of Saint Michael, Rome, 1704." [Designed by Carlo Fontana.] *Handbook of Correctional Institution Design and Construction.* United States Bureau of Prisons, 1949, 21. [Based on drawing included in John Howard, *The State of the Prisons,* 1777.]

2. "The Panopticon." *Handbook of Correctional Institution Design and Construction.* United States Bureau of Prisons, 1949, 19.

3. Auburn Plan Cell House: "Original Cell Blocks, Auburn Prison, 1825." *Handbook of Correctional Institution Design and Construction.* United States Bureau of Prisons, 1949, 30.

4. "Original Plan Eastern State Penitentiary." *Handbook of Correctional Institution Design and Construction.* United States Bureau of Prisons, 1949, 28.

5. Telephone Pole Plan: "Prison at Fresnes, France, 1898." *Handbook of Correctional Institution Design and Construction.* United States Bureau of Prisons, 1949, 35.

6. "New Eastern State Penitentiary, Graterford, Pennsylvania." [Zimmerman, Saxe and Zimmerman, Architects.] *Handbook of Correctional Institution Design and Construction.* United States Bureau of Prisons, 1949, 66.

7. "New Eastern State Penitentiary, Graterford, Pennsylvania." [Zimmerman, Saxe and Zimmerman, Architects.] *Handbook of Correctional Institution Design and Construction.* United States Bureau of Prisons, 1949, 67.

8. "Illinois State Penitentiary." [Joliet, Illinois.] *Combination Atlas Map of Will County.* Elgin, Illinois: Thompson Brothers & Burr, 1873.

9. "Plat Plan of the New Illinois State Penitentiary." John L. Whitman. *The Progressive Merit System of Prison Administration.* N.p., n.d.

10. Plan of Stateville, Illinois State Penitentiary. John Lambert, James A. Patten, and Ira A. Copley. *The New Illinois State Penitentiary, Stateville, Ill.* N.p., 1919.

11. "Index to Plat Plan of the New Illinois State Penitentiary." John Lambert, James A. Patten, and Ira A. Copley. *The New Illinois State Penitentiary, Stateville, Ill.* N.p., 1919.

12. Plan of Stateville. Illinois State Penitentiary. John Lambert, James A. Patten, and Ira A. Copley. *The New Illinois State Penitentiary, Stateville, Ill.* N.p., 1919.

13. Model of New Illinois State Penitentiary. John Lambert, James A. Patten, and Ira A. Copley. *The New Illinois State Penitentiary, Stateville, Ill.* N.p., 1919.

14. "Plat of New Illinois State Penitentiary, Stateville, Illinois." Rexford Newcomb, "The New Illinois State Penitentiary at Stateville." *The Western Architect* XXXI, no. 12 (December 1922).

15. Plot Plan. C. Herrick Hammond, Supervising Architect, State of Illinois Department of Purchases and Construction, Division of Architecture and Engineering. Illinois State Penitentiary, Stateville, Illinois. Sheet 1. June 1932.

16. Plan of Stateville. [Circa 1968.]

17. "Stateville Correctional Center." National Clearinghouse for Criminal Justice Planning and Architecture, *Illinois Corrections Master Plan: Adult Division.* Urbana, Illinois: Board of Trustees of the University of Illinois, 1977.

18. "Site Plan." [Circa 1980.]

19. "Utilization Plan, Component Deployment." [Circa 1980.]

20. Construction of enclosing wall at northeast tower, view to southwest, circa 1920. Stateville Correctional Center archives, Identification Department.

21. Cellhouses D (left) and E, view to northwest, circa early 1920s. Stateville Correctional Center archives, Identification Department.

22. Cellhouses E (left) and D flanking the construction of the service tunnel, view to east, circa early 1920s. Stateville Correctional Center archives, Identification Department.

23. Construction of the service tunnel, circa early 1920s. Stateville Correctional Center archives, Identification Department.

24. Cellhouses D (left) and E with the construction of the Dining Room building in the foreground, view to west, circa early 1920s. Stateville Correctional Center archives, Identification Department.

25. Demolition of the smokestack for the temporary boiler house with Cellhouse D in the background, view to east, 21 September 1927. Illinois State Historical Library, Springfield, Illinois.

26. Demolition of the smokestack for the temporary boiler house with factory buildings in the background, view to southwest, 21 September 1927. Illinois State Historical Library, Springfield, Illinois.

27. Construction of the Administration Building, view to southwest, 10 May 1929. Illinois State Historical Library, Springfield, Illinois.

28. Construction of the Administration Building, view to northwest, late 1929. Stateville Correctional Center archives, Identification Department.

29. Administration Building, view to west. Illinois State Historical Library, Springfield, Illinois.

30. Aerial photograph, circa 1930. Stateville Correctional Center archives, Identification Department.

31. "Furniture Factory Showing Unit 'B,' Form Work." 23 May 1928. Illinois State Historical Library, Springfield, Illinois.

32. "Furniture Factory 'A' Roofing." 27 June 1928. Illinois State Historical Library, Springfield, Illinois.

33. Interior of Furniture Factory, circa 1930. Stateville Correctional Center archives, Identification Department.

34. Interior of Fabricating Shop (License Plate Factory), circa 1930s. Stateville Correctional Center archives, Identification Department.

35. Interior of Furniture Factory, circa 1930s. Stateville Correctional Center archives, Identification Department.

36. Interior of Shoe Shop after 1931 riots. Illinois State Historical Library, Springfield, Illinois.

37. Interior of Furniture Factory after 1931 riots. Illinois State Historical Library, Springfield, Illinois.

38. "Fabricating Shop." 21 June 1930. Illinois State Historical Library, Springfield, Illinois.

39. "Looking South from Solitary Confinement Cell Floor, New Cell House B." 13 May 1931. Illinois State Historical Library, Springfield, Illinois.

40. "3rd Tier Gallery Poured – 100%, Erecting 4th Tier Cell Fronts, Cell House B." 3 August 1931. Illinois State Historical Library, Springfield, Illinois.

41. "New Cell House 'B' Looking S.W." 17 January 1931. Illinois State Historical Library, Springfield, Illinois.

42. Cellhouse B, circa spring 1931. Stateville Correctional Center archives, Identification Department.

43. Interior of Cellhouse B, circa 1932. Illinois State Historical Library, Springfield, Illinois.

44. Interior of Cellhouse B, date unknown. Stateville Correctional Center archives, Identification Department.

45. Construction of the Dormitory Building, with Powerhouse (left), vocational shops, and dehydration plant / cold storage building in background, view to northeast, circa 1937. Stateville Correctional Center archives, Identification Department.

46. Construction of the Gate House or "Electric Eye" Building, circa early 1931. Stateville Correctional Center archives, Identification Department.

47. "West Elevation, Gate House – New Prison." 18 July 1931. Illinois State Historical Library, Springfield, Illinois.

48. "Tower #5 – (Soap Plant)." Factory Unit 'a' and "B," view to north. Illinois State Historical Library, Springfield, Illinois.

49. School Building (Commissary), 13 October 1937. Stateville Correctional Center archives, Identification Department.

50. Chapel, 6 December 1937. Stateville Correctional Center archives, Identification Department.

51. Model of Stateville, circa 1940s. Stateville Correctional Center archives, Identification Department.

52. Aerial photograph of Stateville, circa 1950s. Stateville Correctional Center archives, Identification Department.

53. Aerial photograph of Stateville, circa 1950s. Stateville Correctional Center archives, Identification Department.

54. Aerial photograph of Stateville, circa 1950s. Stateville Correctional Center archives, Identification Department.

55. Aerial photograph of Stateville, circa 1950s. Stateville Correctional Center archives, Identification Department.

56. Aerial photograph of Stateville, circa 1950s. Stateville Correctional Center archives, Identification Department.

57. Plan drawing showing location of Richard Loeb's murder, circa late 1935. Stateville Correctional Center archives, Identification Department.

58. Typical horseman tower in Honor Farm field, circa 1940s. Stateville Correctional Center archives, Identification Department.

59. Typical corner guard tower, date unknown. Stateville Correctional Center archives, Identification Department.

60. View of northeast guard tower, view to south, with Administration Building (left), Detention Building, Hospital, and Chapel, circa 1950s. Stateville Correctional Center archives, Identification Department.

61. View from roof of Dining Hall building to Power House, view to west. Stateville Correctional Center archives, Identification Department.

62. Gardens at Stateville, with Cellhouse F and baseball field stands in background, view to northwest, circa 1950s. Stateville Correctional Center archives, Identification Department.

63. Gardens at Stateville, with Cellhouse F and baseball field stands in background, view to northwest, circa 1950s. Stateville Correctional Center archives, Identification Department.

64. Gardens at Stateville, with Cellhouses D, C, and B in background, view to east, circa 1950s. Stateville Correctional Center archives, Identification Department.

65. "State and Madison," view to southwest, circa 1950s. Stateville Correctional Center archives, Identification Department.

66. Gardens at Stateville, with Special Cellhouse in background, view to northwest, circa 1950s. Stateville Correctional Center archives, Identification Department.

67. Gardens at Stateville, with Hospital in background, view to east/southeast, circa 1950s. Stateville Correctional Center archives, Identification Department.

68. Gardens at Stateville, with Kitchen (left), tunnel, Chapel, and Hospital in background, view to northeast, circa 1950s. Stateville Correctional Center archives, Identification Department.

69. Interior of panopticon cellhouse, date unknown. Stateville Correctional Center archives, Identification Department.

70. Interior of panopticon cellhouse, date unknown. Stateville Correctional Center archives, Identification Department.

71. Christmas at a panopticon cellhouse, date unknown. Stateville Correctional Center archives, Identification Department.

72. Detention Building, second floor corridor, view to south, circa 1950s. Stateville Correctional Center archives, Identification Department.

73. Barber Shop, circa 1950s. Stateville Correctional Center archives, Identification Department.

74. Barber Shop, circa 1940s. Stateville Correctional Center archives, Identification Department.

75. Hospital, circa 1950s. Stateville Correctional Center archives, Identification Department.

76. Dental Laboratory, northwest corner of first floor Hospital, circa 1940s or 1950s. Stateville Correctional Center archives, Identification Department.

77. Dental Laboratory, northwest corner of first floor Hospital, circa 1940s or 1950s. Stateville Correctional Center archives, Identification Department.

78. Pharmacy, Hospital, circa 1940s. Stateville Correctional Center archives, Identification Department.

79. Laboratory, Hospital, circa 1940s. Stateville Correctional Center archives, Identification Department.

80. Radon gas testing, Hospital, circa 1953. Stateville Correctional Center archives, Identification Department.

81. Radon gas testing, Hospital, circa 1953. Stateville Correctional Center archives, Identification Department.

82. Laboratory, Hospital, circa 1940s or 1950s. Stateville Correctional Center archives, Identification Department.

83. Sick line, Hospital, circa 1950s. Stateville Correctional Center archives, Identification Department.

84. Patient ward, Hospital, circa 1950s. Stateville Correctional Center archives, Identification Department.

85. Patient ward during Army malaria testing, Hospital, circa 1940s. Stateville Correctional Center archives, Identification Department.

86. School Building and "State and Madison," view to northeast, circa 1950s. Stateville Correctional Center archives, Identification Department.

87. Interior of Dining Hall, circa 1940s or 1950s. Stateville Correctional Center archives, Identification Department.

88. Interior of Dining Hall, circa 1940s or 1950s. Stateville Correctional Center archives, Identification Department.

89. Interior of Dining Hall, circa 1940s or 1950s. Stateville Correctional Center archives, Identification Department.

90. Interior of Dining Hall, circa mid-1950s [sign at the base of the guard tower announces the showing of the film *Roman Holiday*]. Stateville Correctional Center archives, Identification Department.

91. Stateville "Electric Eye" building and Administration Building, view to west, circa 1950s. Stateville Correctional Center archives, Identification Department.

92. Second floor stain hall of the Administration Building, view to west, circa 1950s. Stateville Correctional Center archives, Identification Department.

93. Visiting Room, view to south, circa 1950s. Stateville Correctional Center archives, Identification Department.

94. Second inmate cemetery, view to west, circa 1950s. Stateville Correctional Center archives, Identification Department.

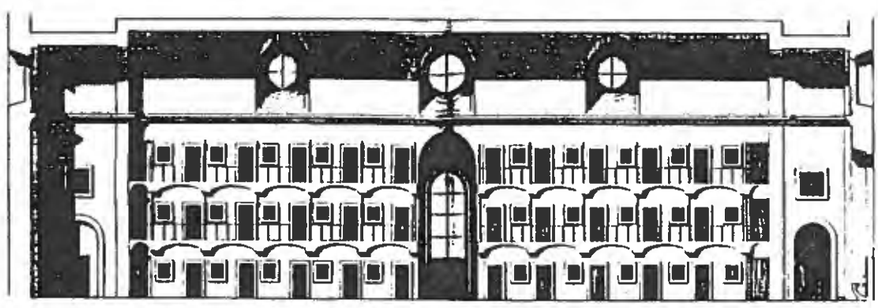
95. Service Building, date unknown. Illinois State Historical Library, Springfield, Illinois.

96. Honor Farm field west of prison, view to northeast. Stateville Correctional Center archives, Identification Department.

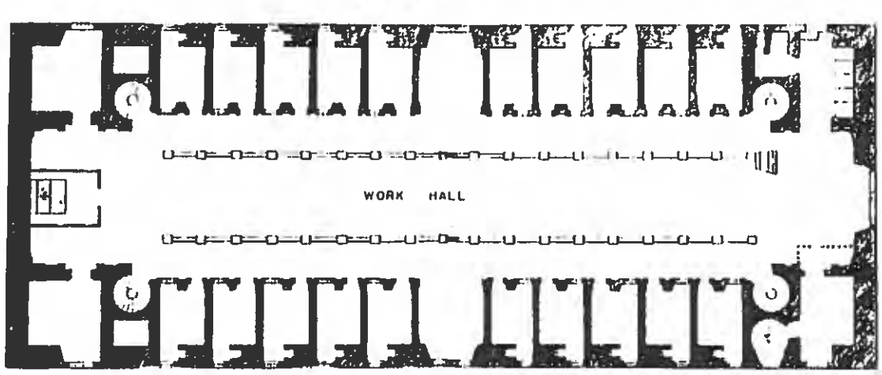
97. "Exterior of Hog House, completed 1944." View to northwest. Illinois State Historical Library, Springfield, Illinois.

98. Warden Ragen with horsemen, with horse barn in background, circa 1950s. Stateville Correctional Center archives, Identification Department.

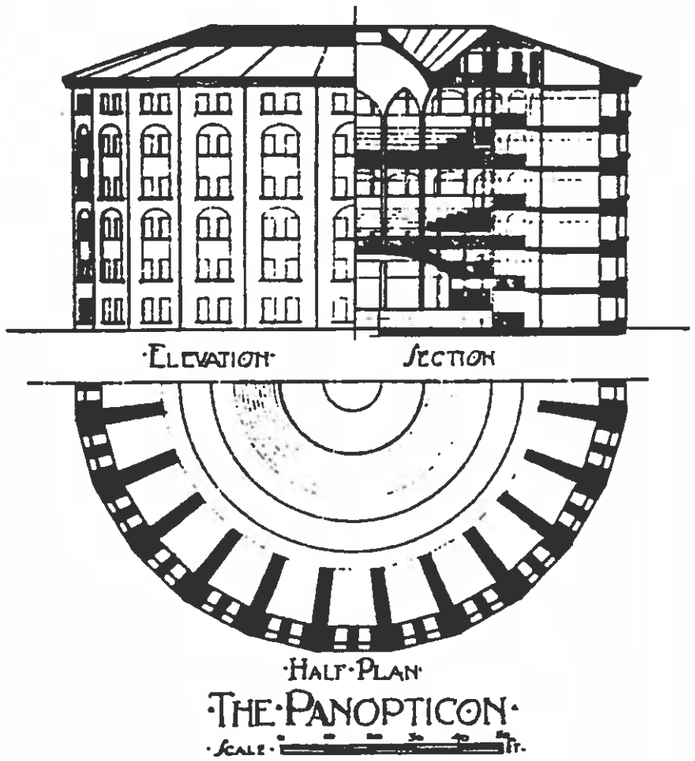
99. Honor Farm Dormitory, view to southwest, circa 1950s. Stateville Correctional Center archives, Identification Department.



LONGITUDINAL SECTION

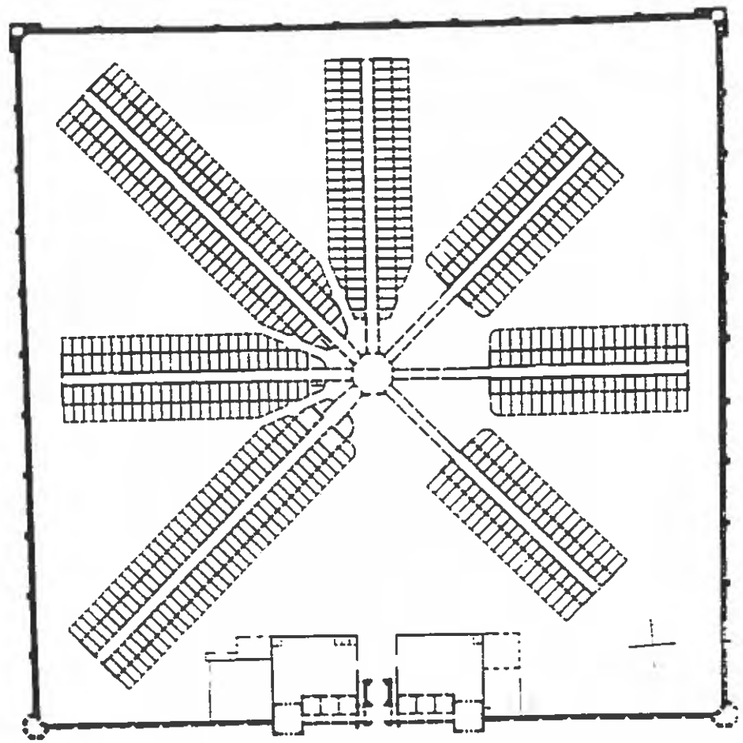


PLAN OF PAPAL PRISON OF SAINT MICHAEL, ROME, 1704

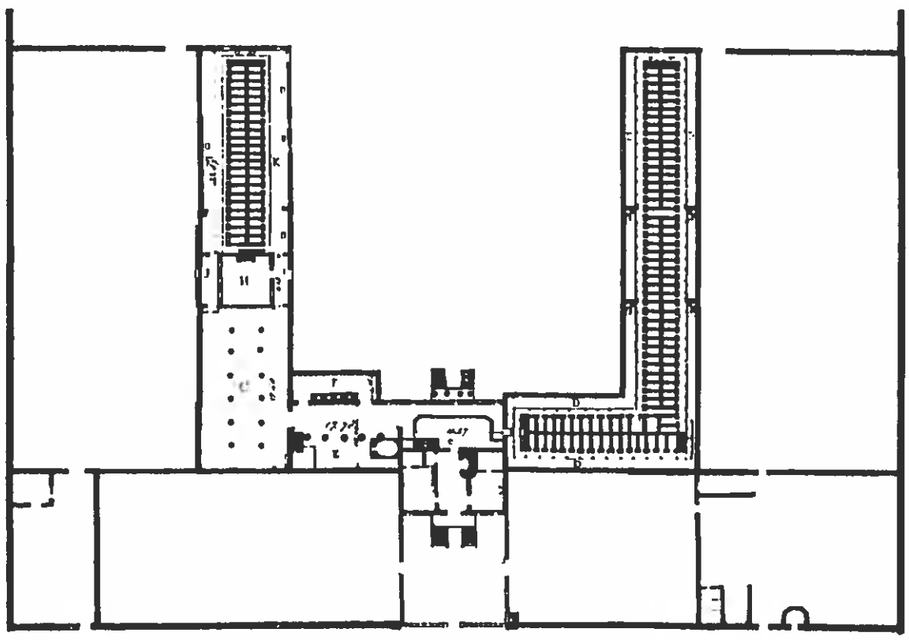


·THE·PANOPTICON·

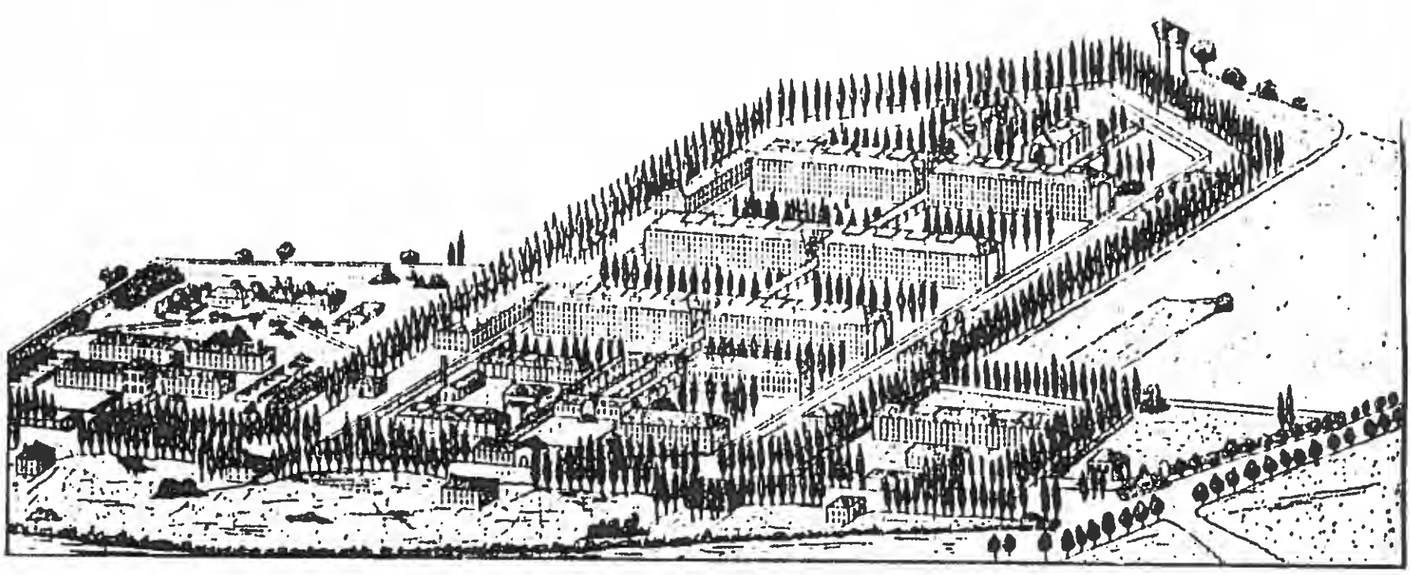
·SCALE·

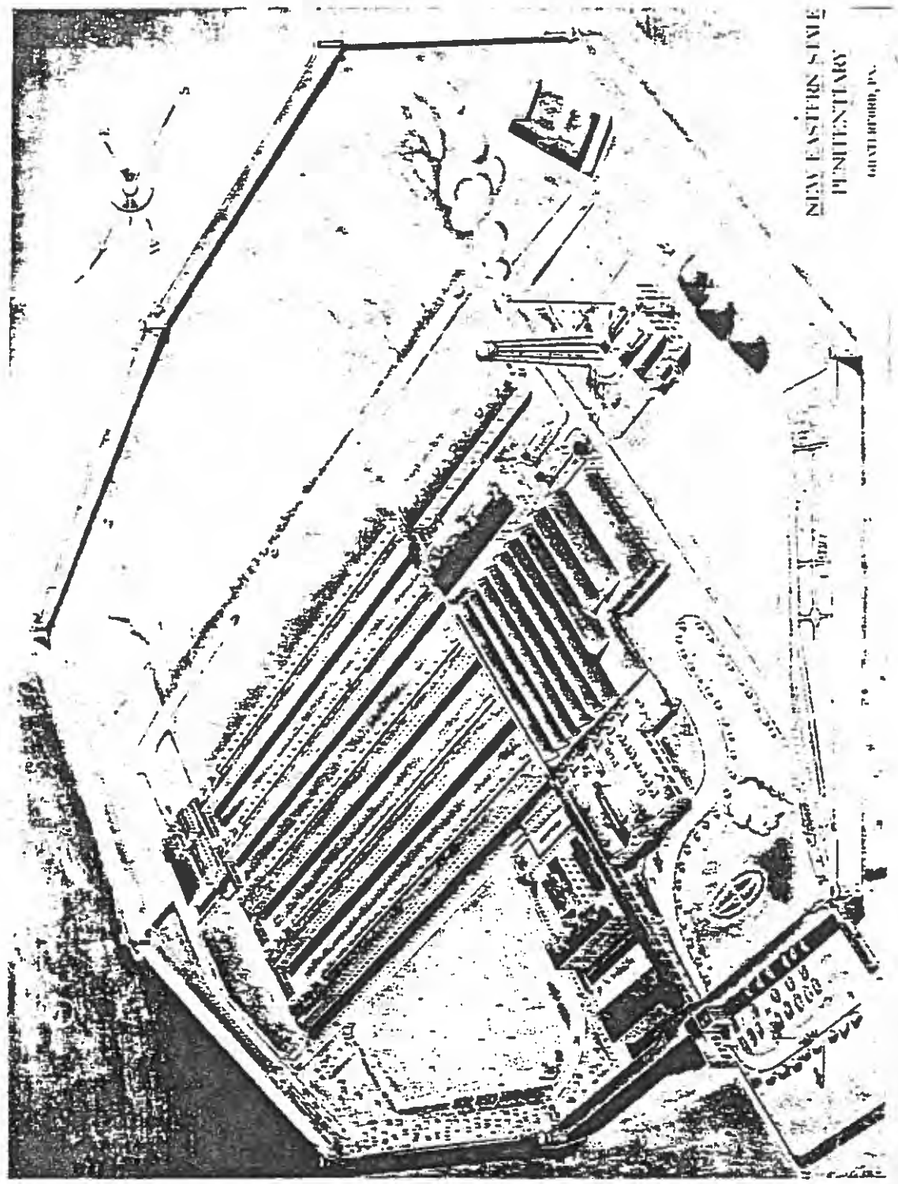


ORIGINAL PLAN EASTERN PENITENTIARY
PHILADELPHIA, PA. 1829

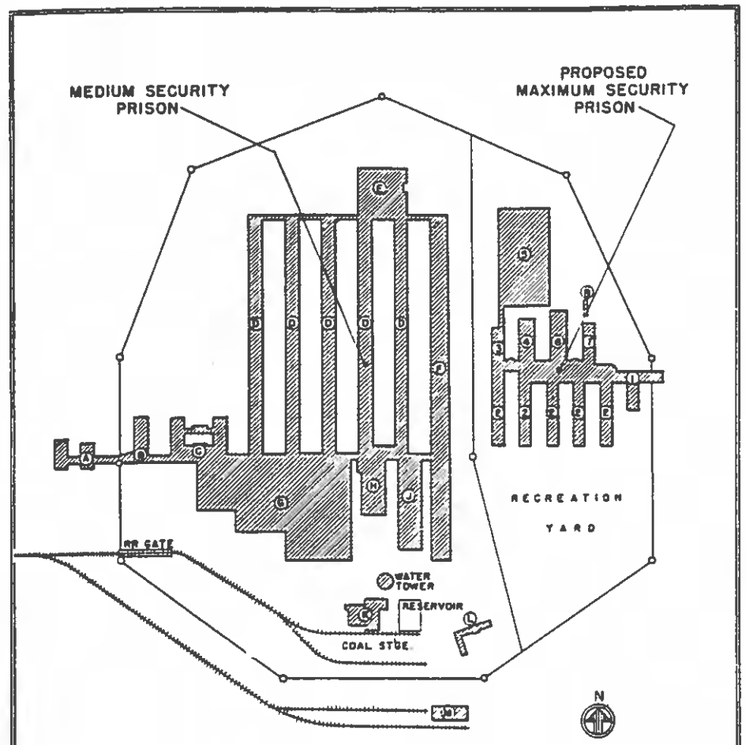


ORIGINAL CELL BLOCKS
AUBURN PRISON, 1825

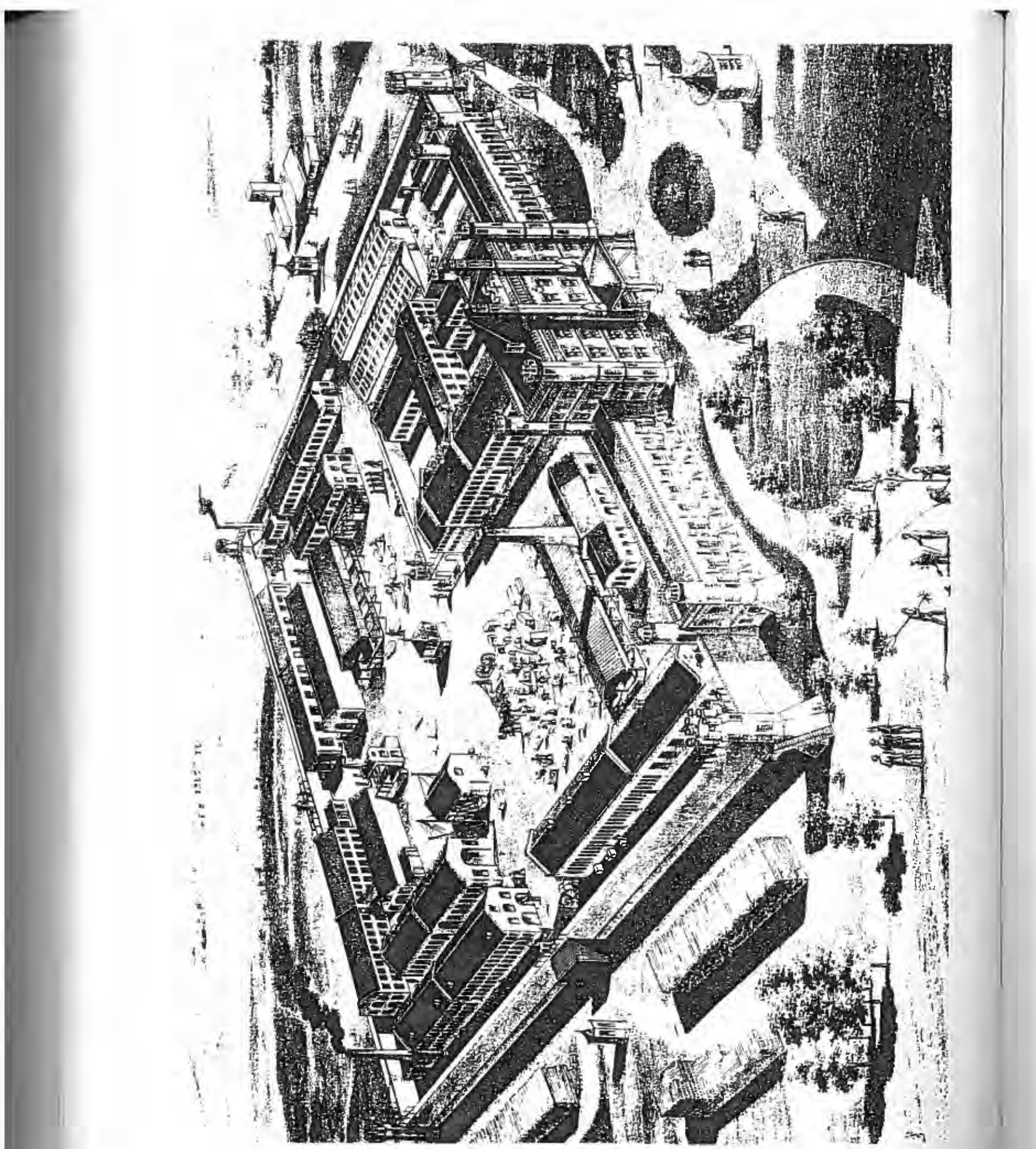


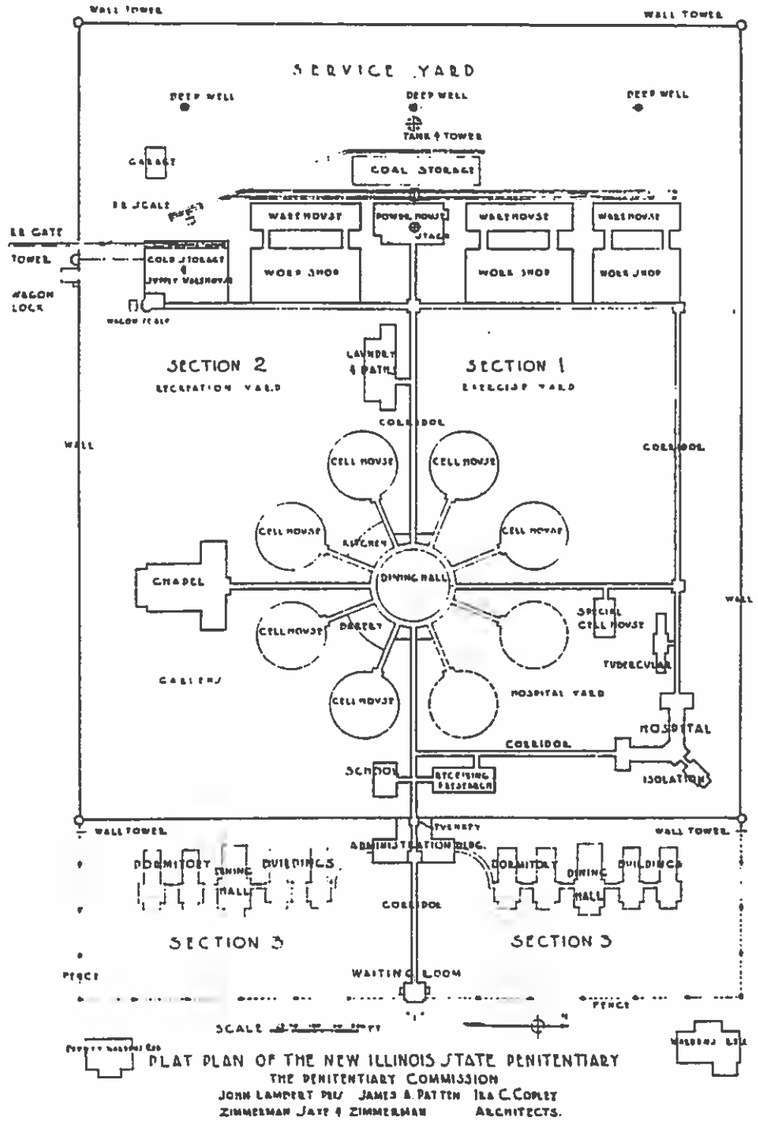


NEW EASTERN STATE PENITENTIARY
GRATERFORD, PENNA.



A WAITING ROOM	H ASSEMBLY HALL & GYM-NASIUM	2 CELL BLOCKS
B ADMINISTRATION		3 PUNISHMENT
C HOSPITAL	J LIBRARY & SCHOOL	4 EDUCATION
D CELL BLOCKS	K POWER HOUSE	5 SHOPS
E KITCHEN	L SECURITY CELL HOUSE	6 MESS HALL
F INDUSTRIES BLDG.(FUTURE)	M WAREHOUSE	7 HOSPITAL
G " "	1 ADMINISTRATION	8 GREENHOUSE



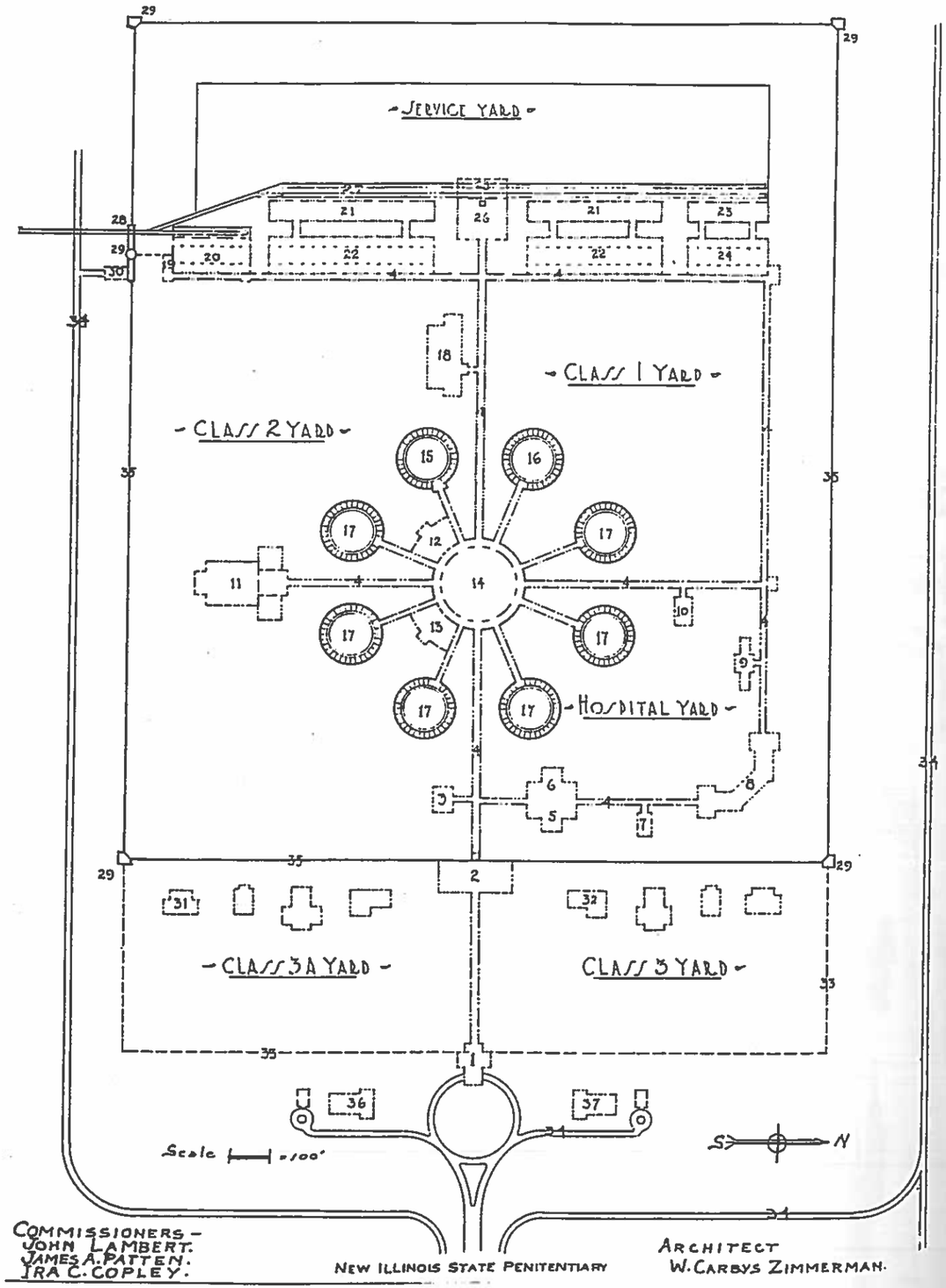


PLAT PLAN OF THE NEW ILLINOIS STATE PENITENTIARY

THE PENITENTIARY COMMISSION

JOHN LAMPERT PRES' JAMES A. PATTEN IRA C. COPLEY

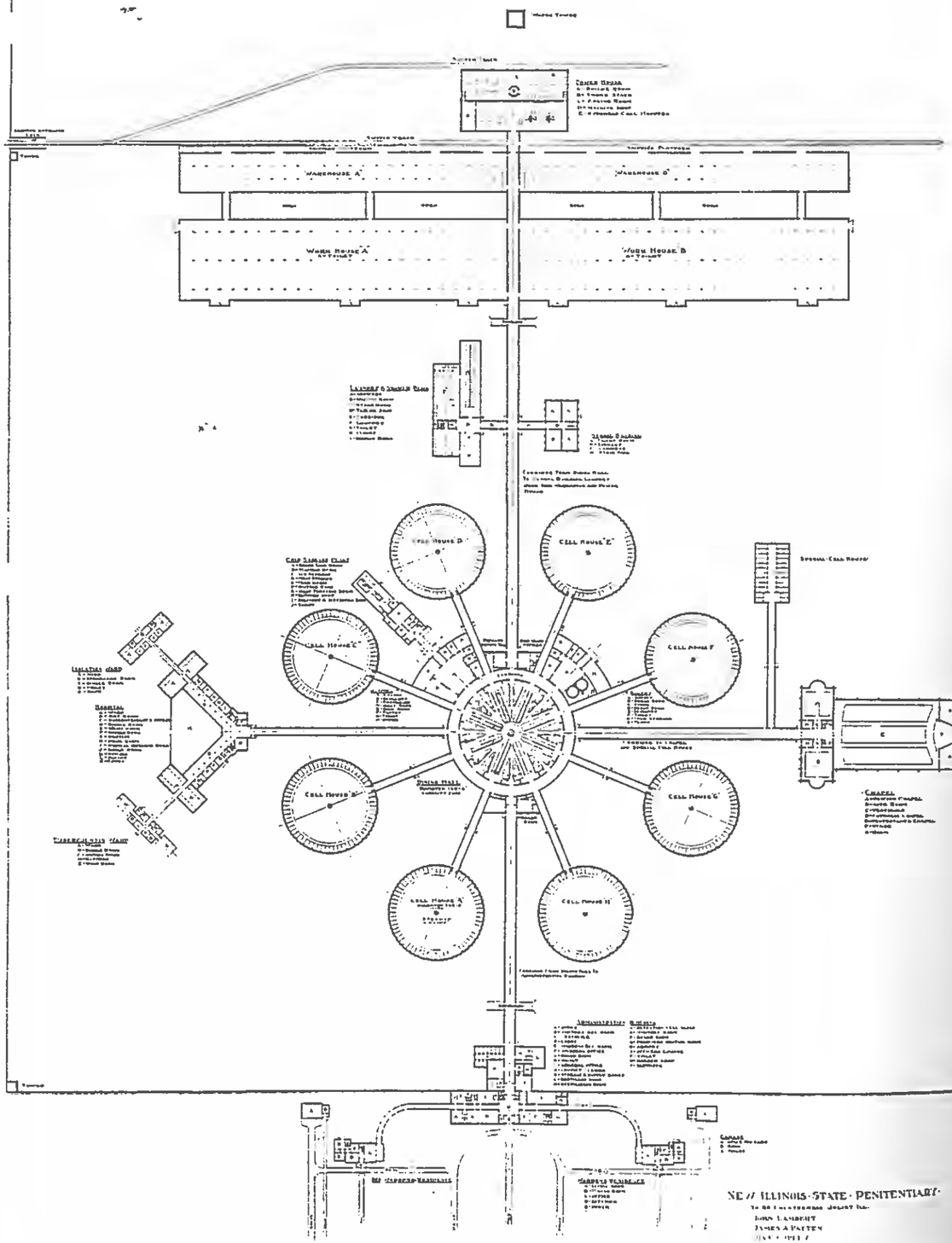
ZIMMERMAN JAFF & ZIMMERMAN ARCHITECTS.

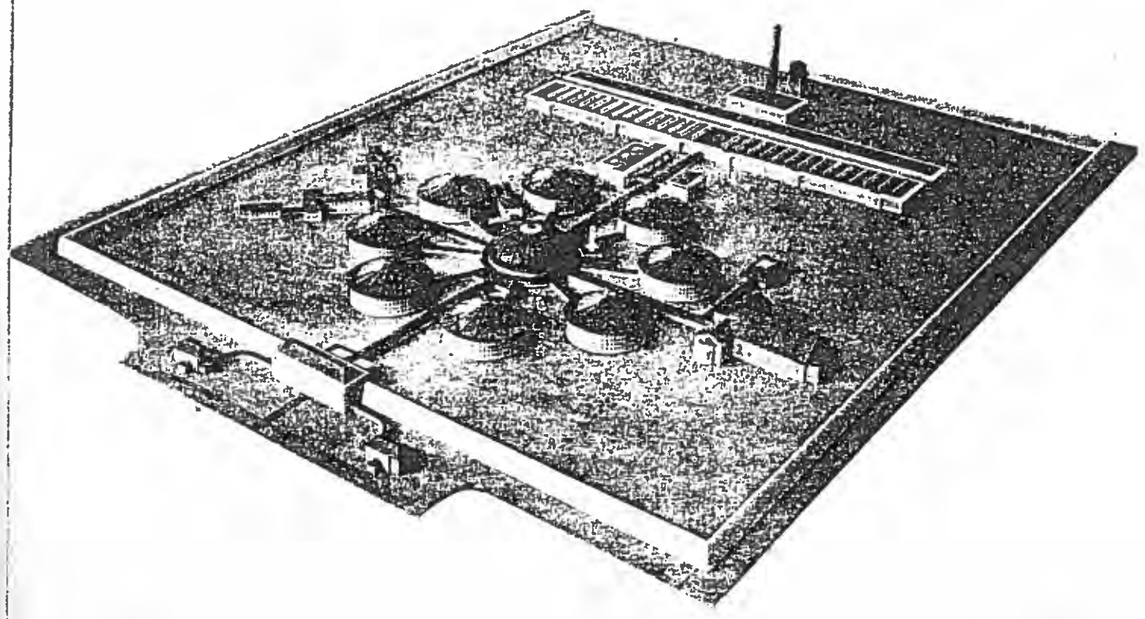


INDEX TO

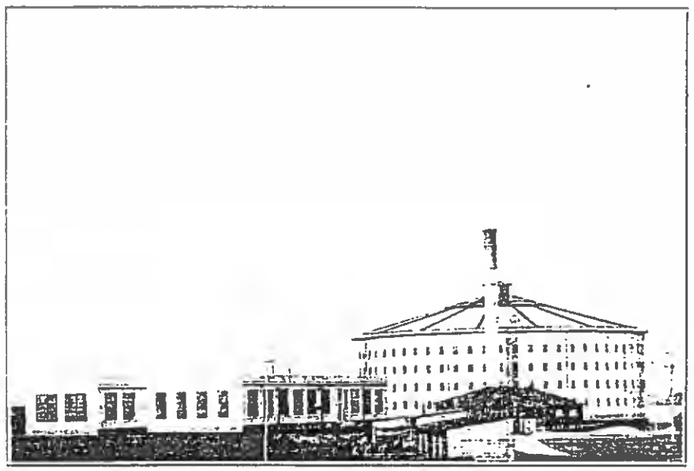
PLAT PLAN OF THE NEW ILLINOIS STATE PENITENTIARY

1. Waiting Room
2. Administration Building
3. School House
4. Corridor
5. Detention and Identification
6. Psychiatric and Research
7. Isolation Ward
8. Hospital
9. Tuberculosis Ward
10. Special Cell House
11. Chapel
12. Kitchen
13. Bakery
14. Dining Room
15. 16 and 17, Cell Houses
18. Completed Laundry & Bath Bldg.
19. Storekeeper's Office
20. Cold Storage and Supply Warehouse.
21. Warehouse for Class 2
22. Work Shop for Class 2
23. Warehouse for Class 1
24. Work Shop for Class 1
25. Coal Tipples
26. Power House
27. Railroad Switch
28. Railroad Gate
29. Tower
30. Wagon Lock
31. Dormitories. Etc. Class 3A
32. Dormitories. Etc. Class 3
33. Steel Fence
34. Road
35. Wall
36. Deputy Warden's Residence
37. Warden's Residence



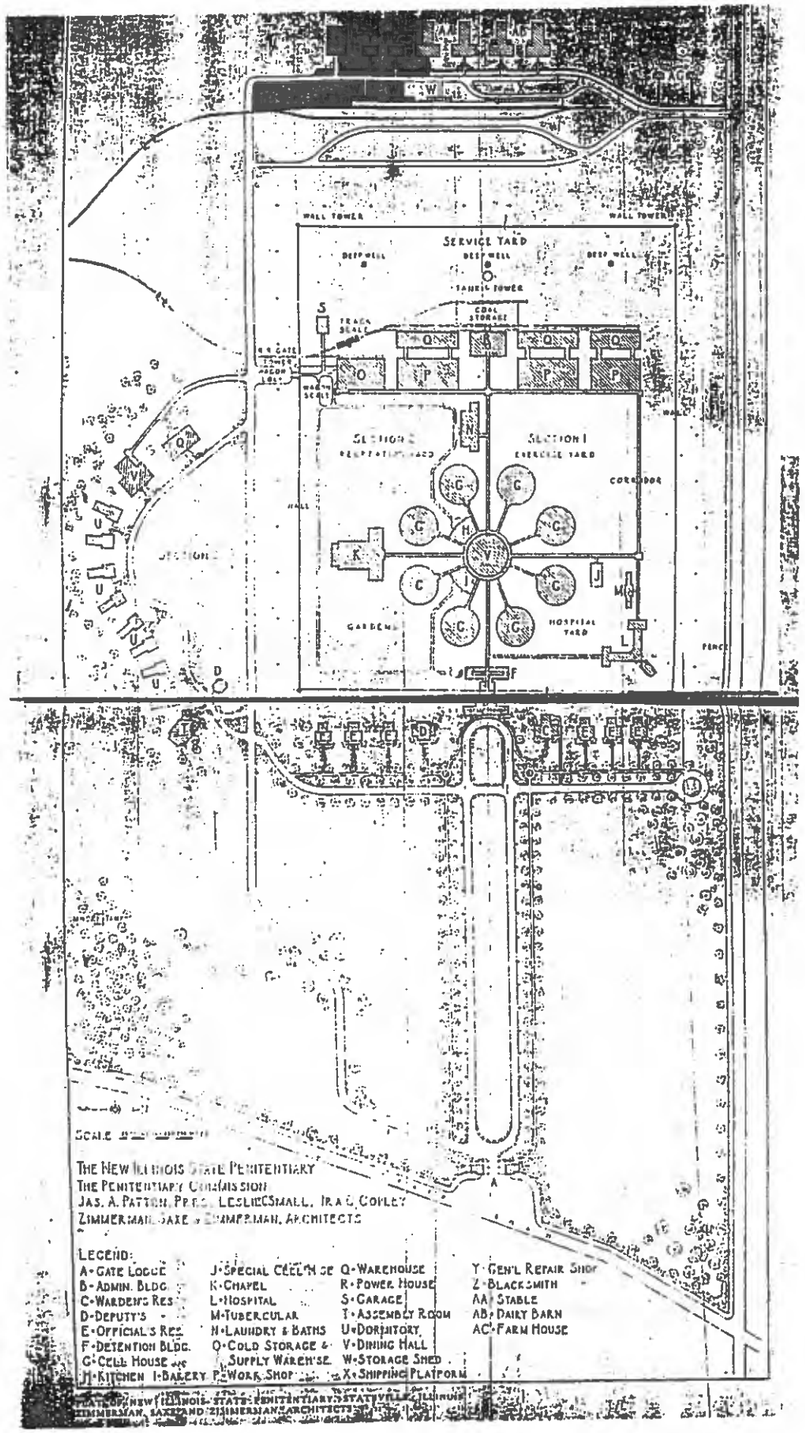


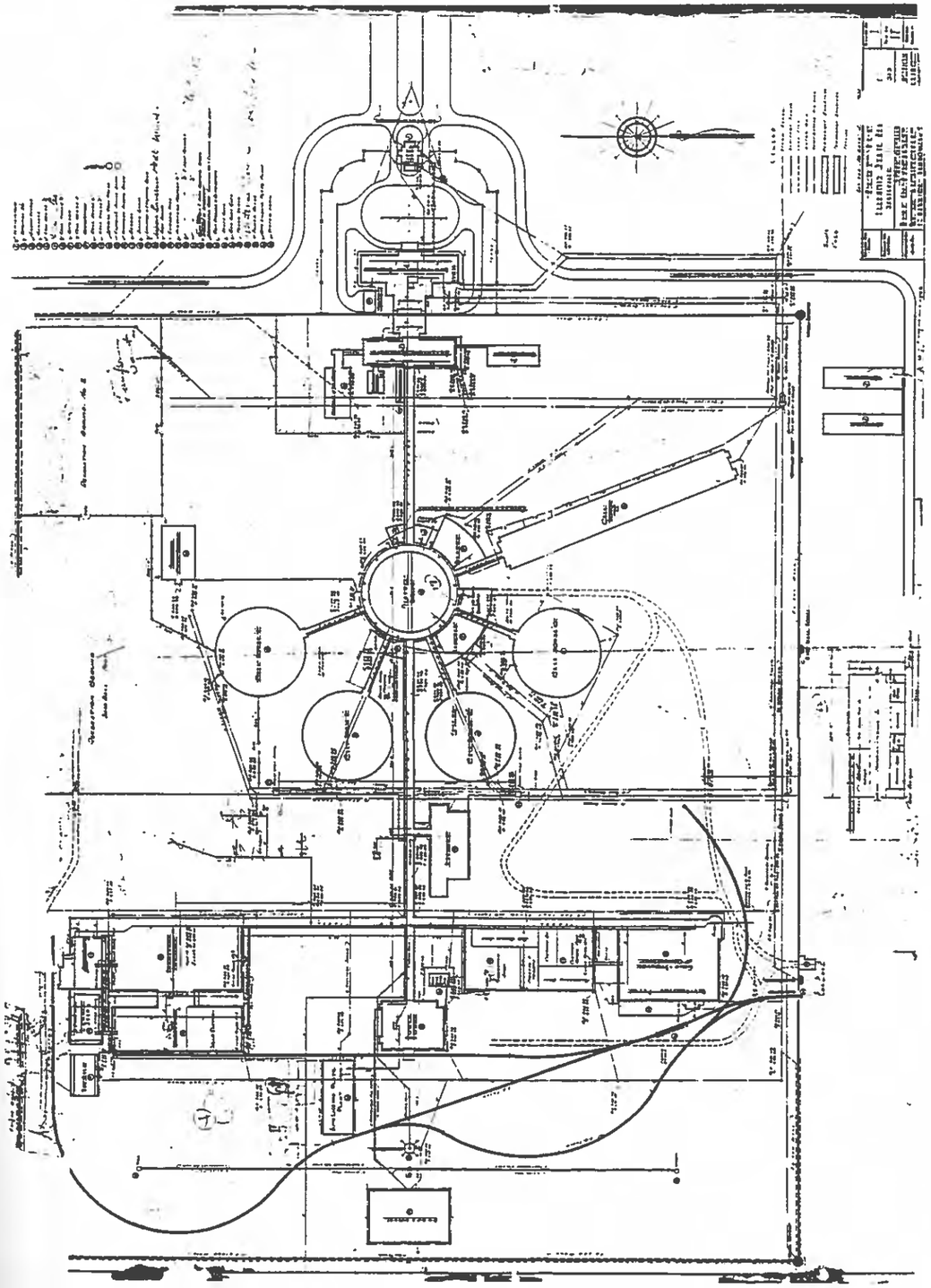
Bird's eye view NEW ILLINOIS STATE PENITENTIARY at STATEVILLE. Located in the center of the State Farm of 2,200 acres on the high ground west of Lockport, about 37½ miles northwest from the Old Joliet Penitentiary and overlooking the Desplaines River valley.

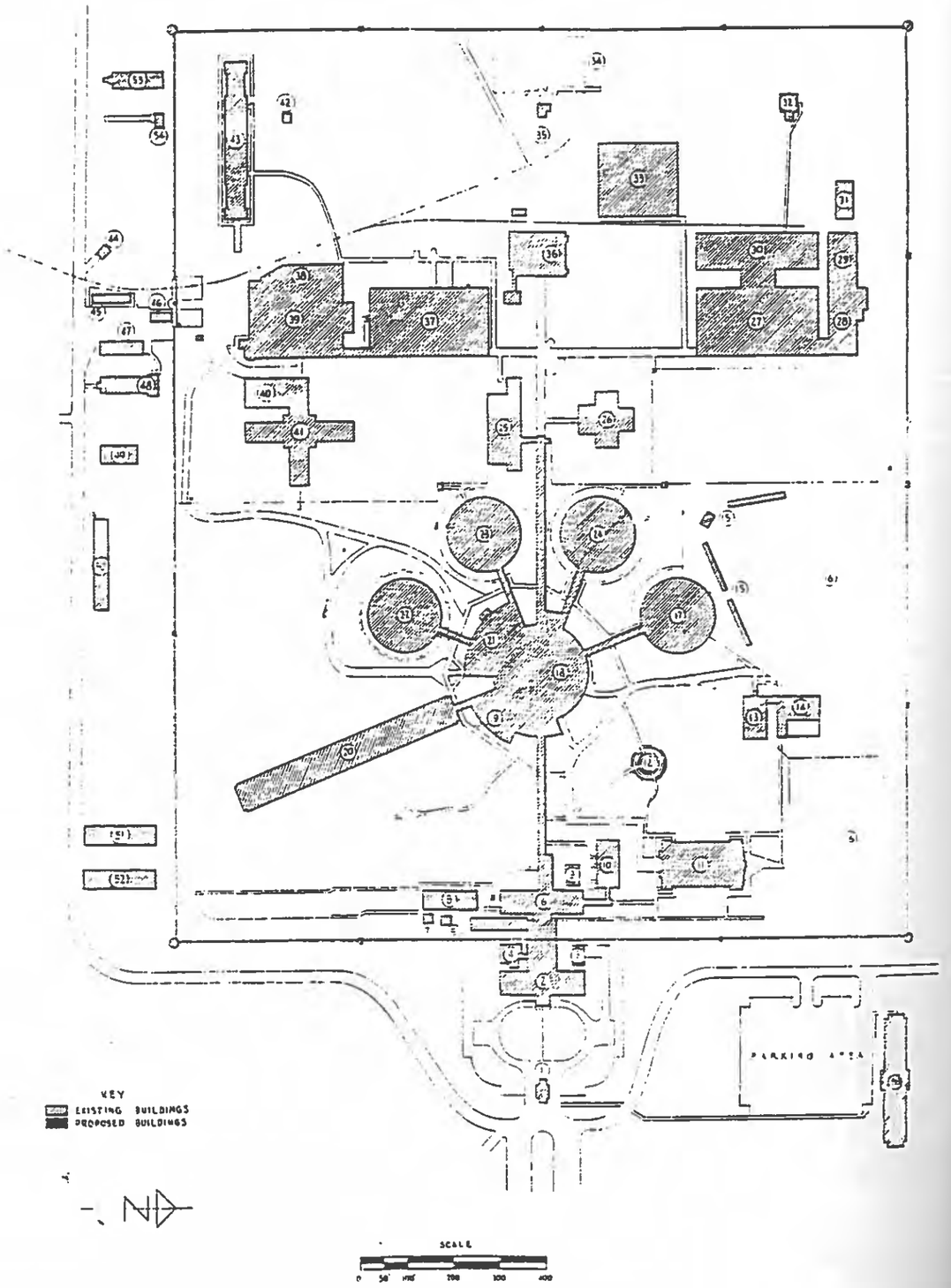


LAUNDRY and BATH HOUSE and CELL HOUSE

View from southwest (temporary heating plant in foreground).


WALL TOWER
WALL TOWER
SERVICE YARD
DEEP WELL
DEEP WELL
DEEP WELL
TANK & TOWER
COAL STORAGE
TRUCK SCALE
SECTION 2
RECREATION YARD
SECTION 1
EXERCISE YARD
CORRIDOR
GARDEN
HOSPITAL YARD
FENCE
SECTION
SCALE
THE NEW ILLINOIS STATE PENITENTIARY
THE PENITENTIARY COMMISSION
JAS. A. PATTON, PRES. LESLIE SMALL, IRA C. COPLEY
ZIMMERMAN, SAXE & ZIMMERMAN, ARCHITECTS
LEGEND:
A-GATE LODGE
B-ADMIN. BLDG.
C-WARDENS RES.
D-DEPUTY'S
E-OFFICIAL'S RES.
F-DETENTION BLDG.
G-CELL HOUSE
H-KITCHEN
J-SPECIAL CELL HOUSE
K-CHAPEL
L-HOSPITAL
M-TUBERCULAR
N-LAUNDRY & BATHS
O-COLD STORAGE & SUPPLY WAREH'SE.
P-WORK SHOP
Q-WAREHOUSE
R-POWER HOUSE
S-GARAGE
T-ASSEMBLY ROOM
U-DORMITORY
V-DINING HALL
W-STORAGE SHED
X-SHIPPING PLATFORM
Y-GEN'L REPAIR SHOP
Z-BLACKSMITH
AA-STABLE
AB-DAIRY BARN
AC-FARM HOUSE
PLAN OF NEW ILLINOIS STATE PENITENTIARY, STATEVILLE, ILLINOIS
ZIMMERMAN, SAXE AND ZIMMERMAN, ARCHITECTS



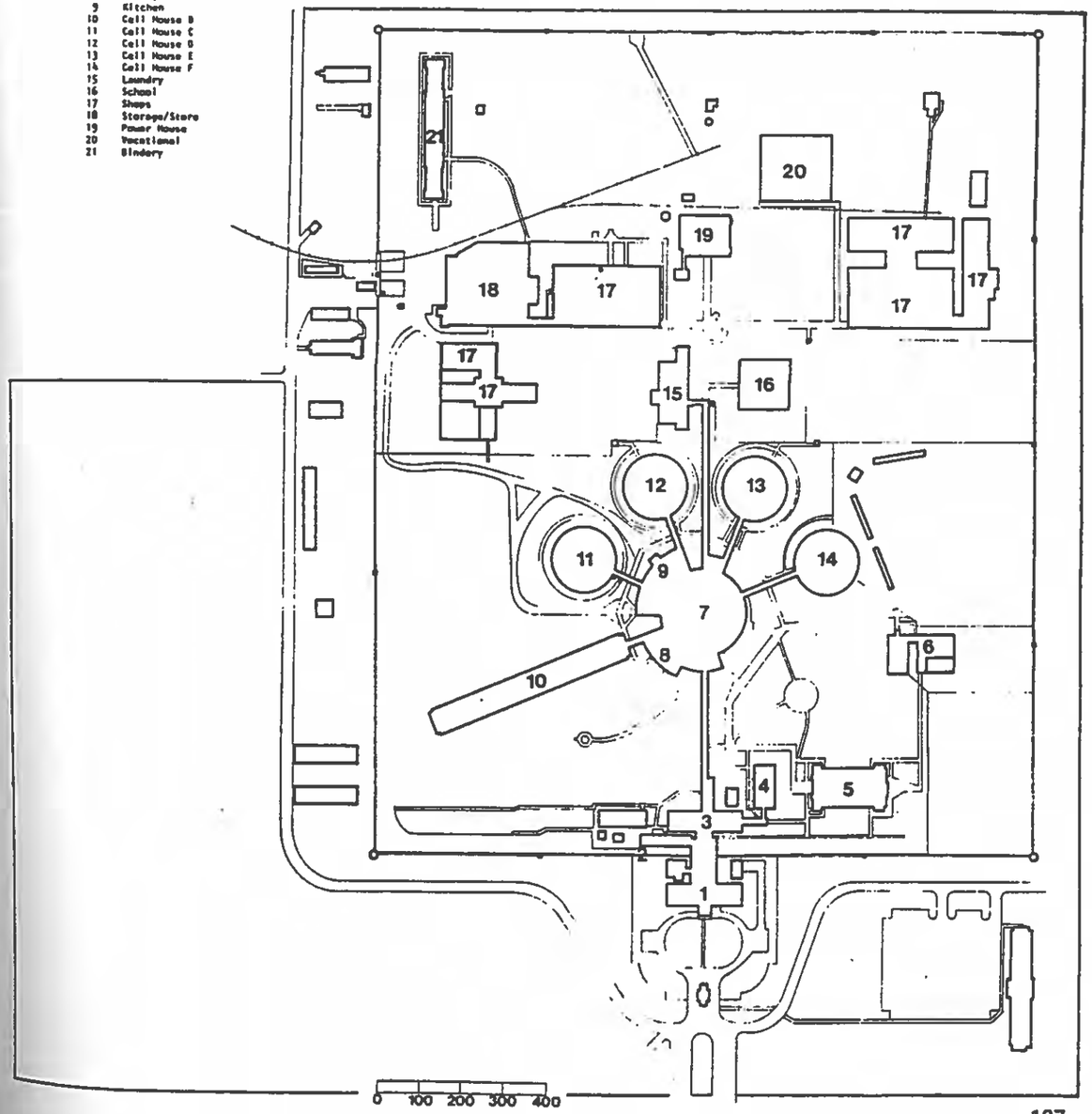


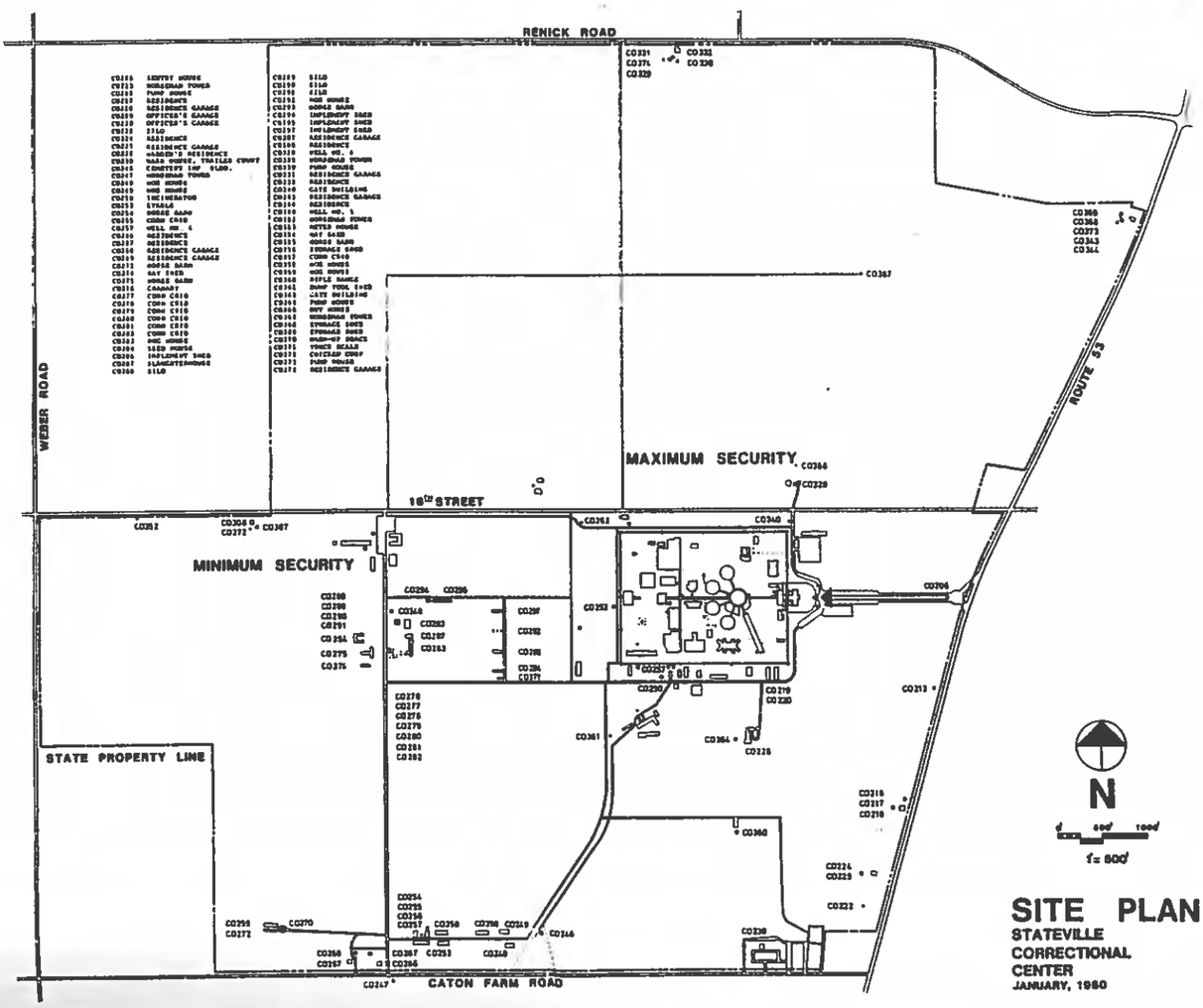
STATEVILLE CORRECTIONAL CENTER

key to site plan

number/building title

1 Administration
2 Visiting
3 Detention
4 Hospital
5 Chapel
6 Isolation/Segregation
7 Gymnasium
8 Bakery
9 Kitchen
10 Cell House B
11 Cell House C
12 Cell House D
13 Cell House E
14 Cell House F
15 Laundry
16 School
17 Shops
18 Storage/Store
19 Power House
20 Vocational
21 Bindery

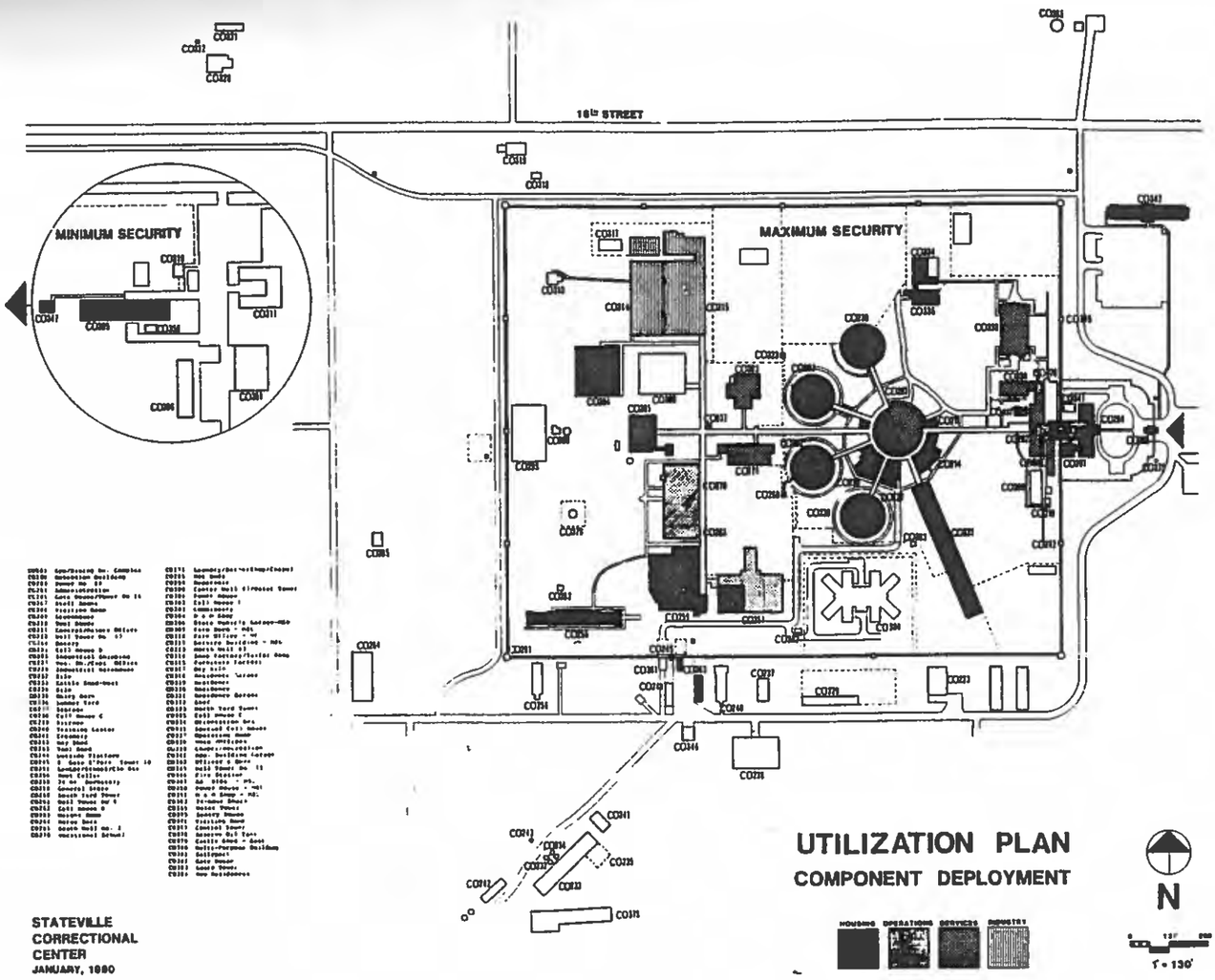




SITE PLAN

STATEVILLE CORRECTIONAL CENTER

JANUARY, 1980

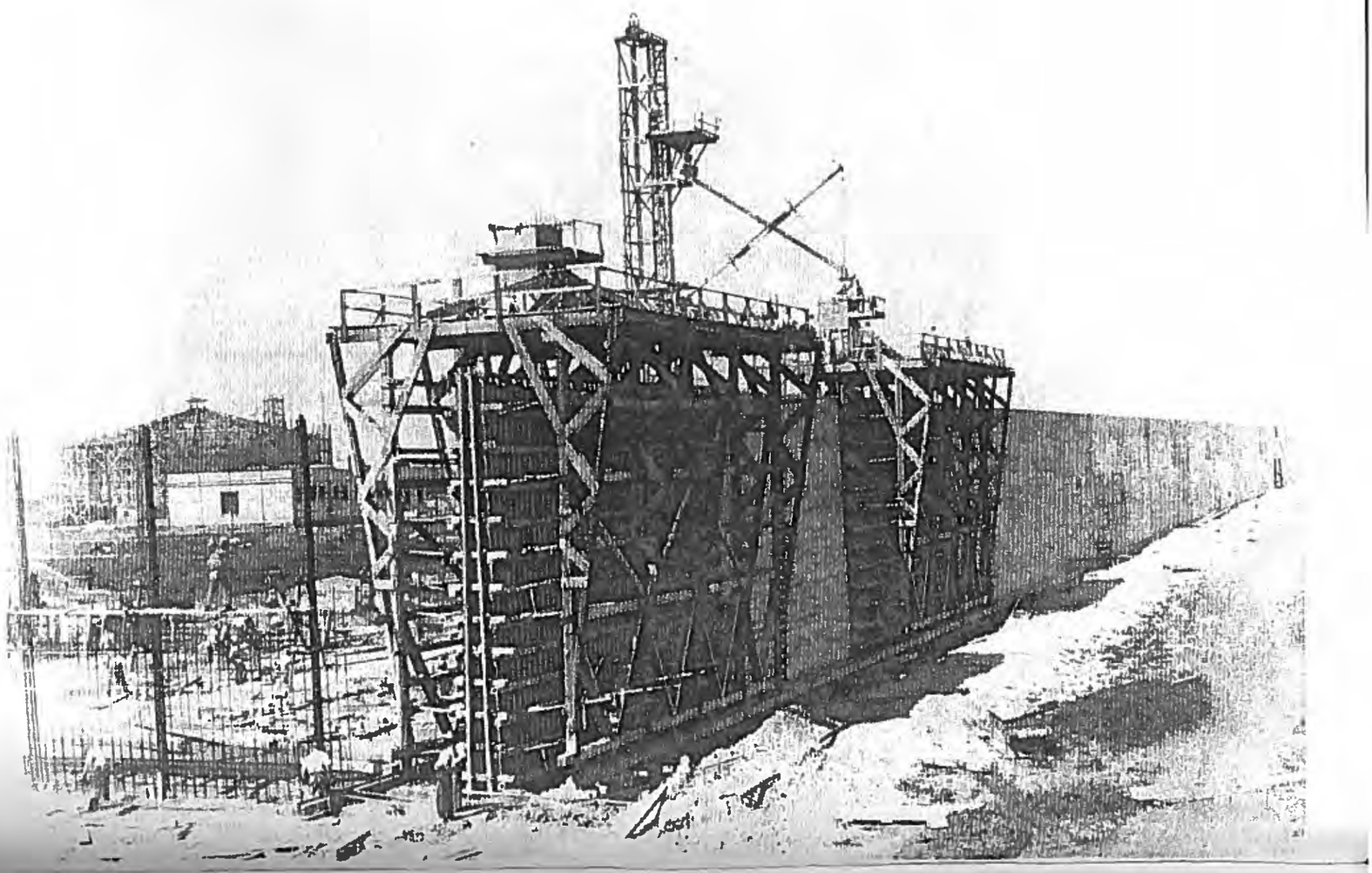


UTILIZATION PLAN

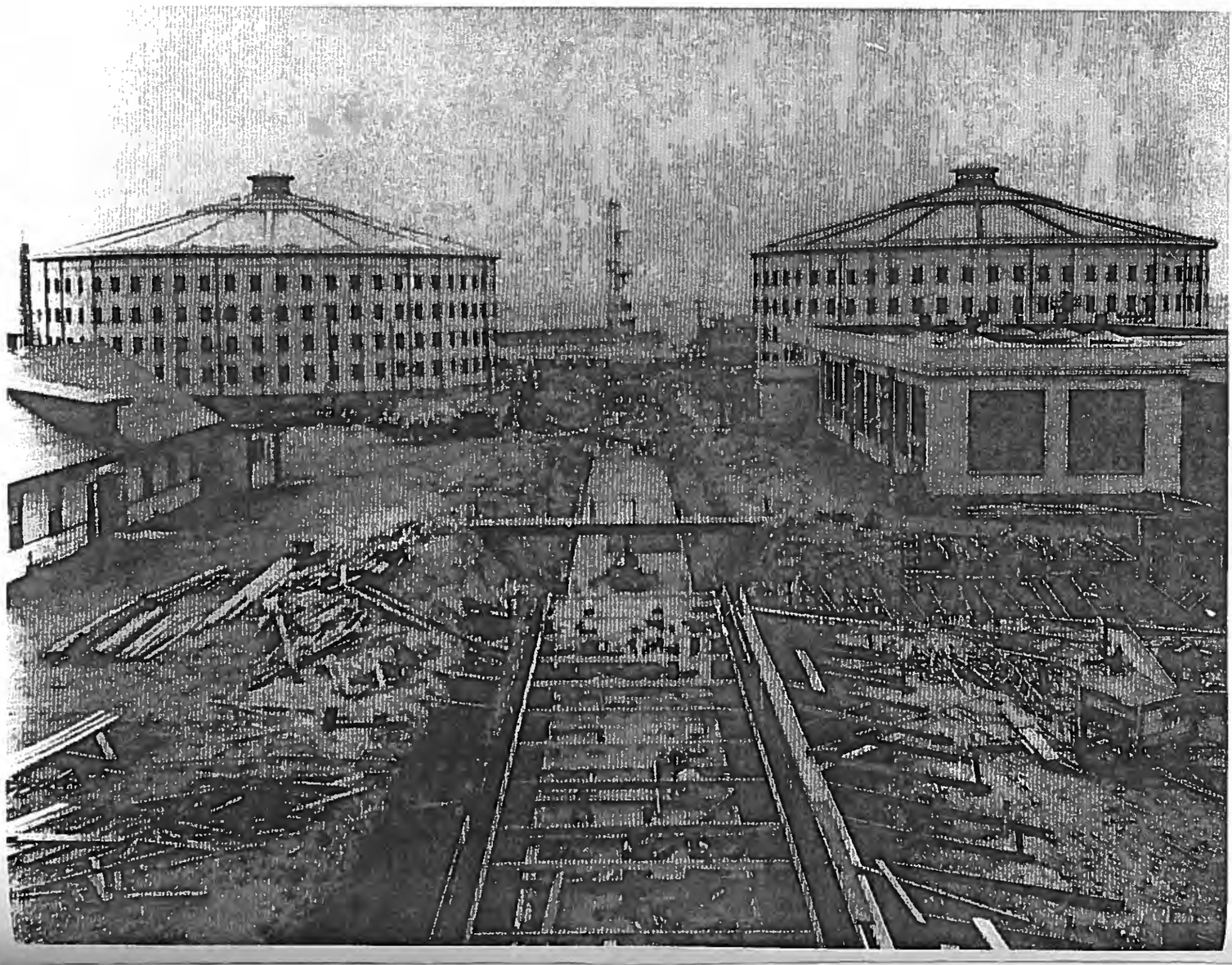
COMPONENT DEPLOYMENT

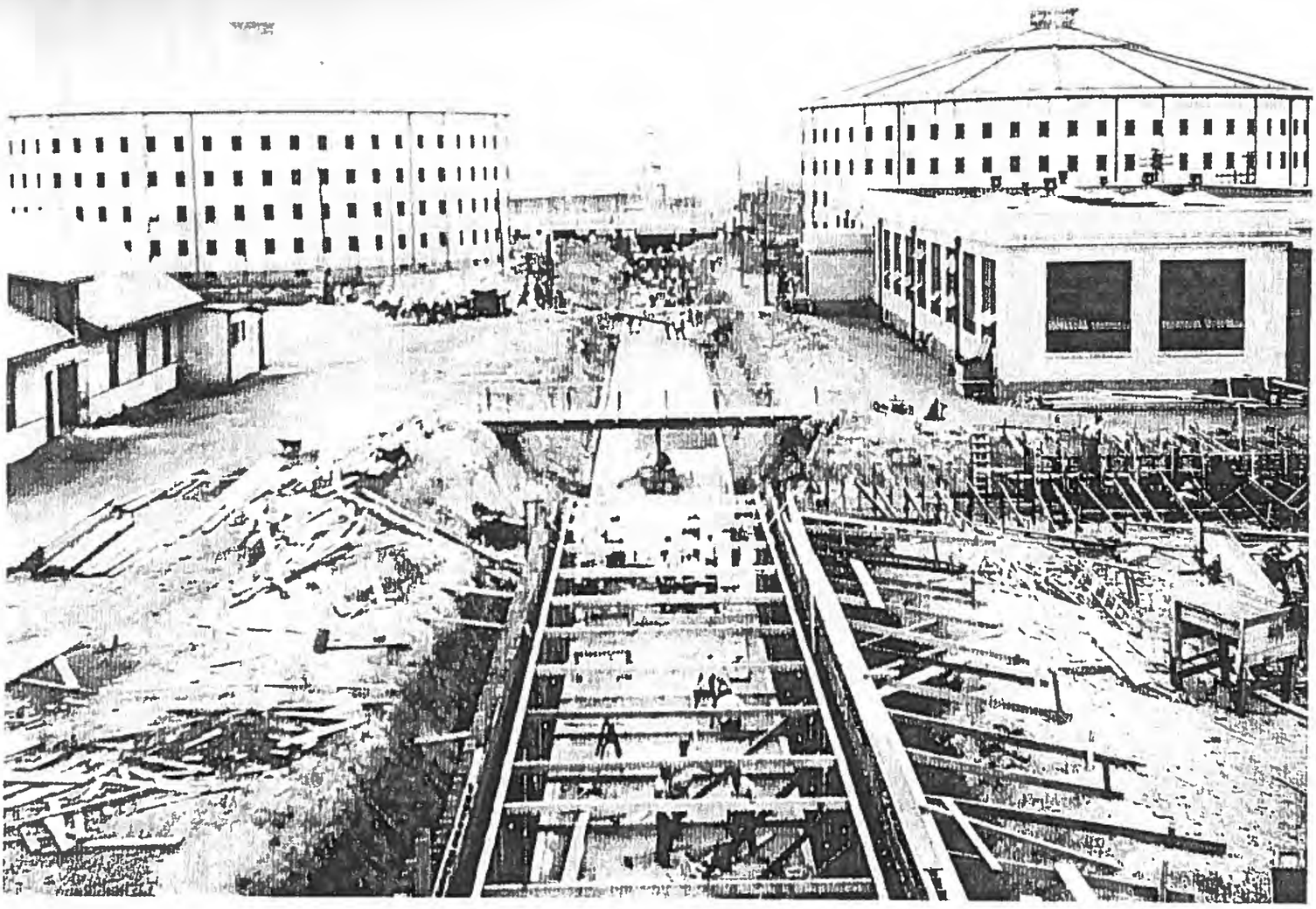
STATEVILLE CORRECTIONAL CENTER

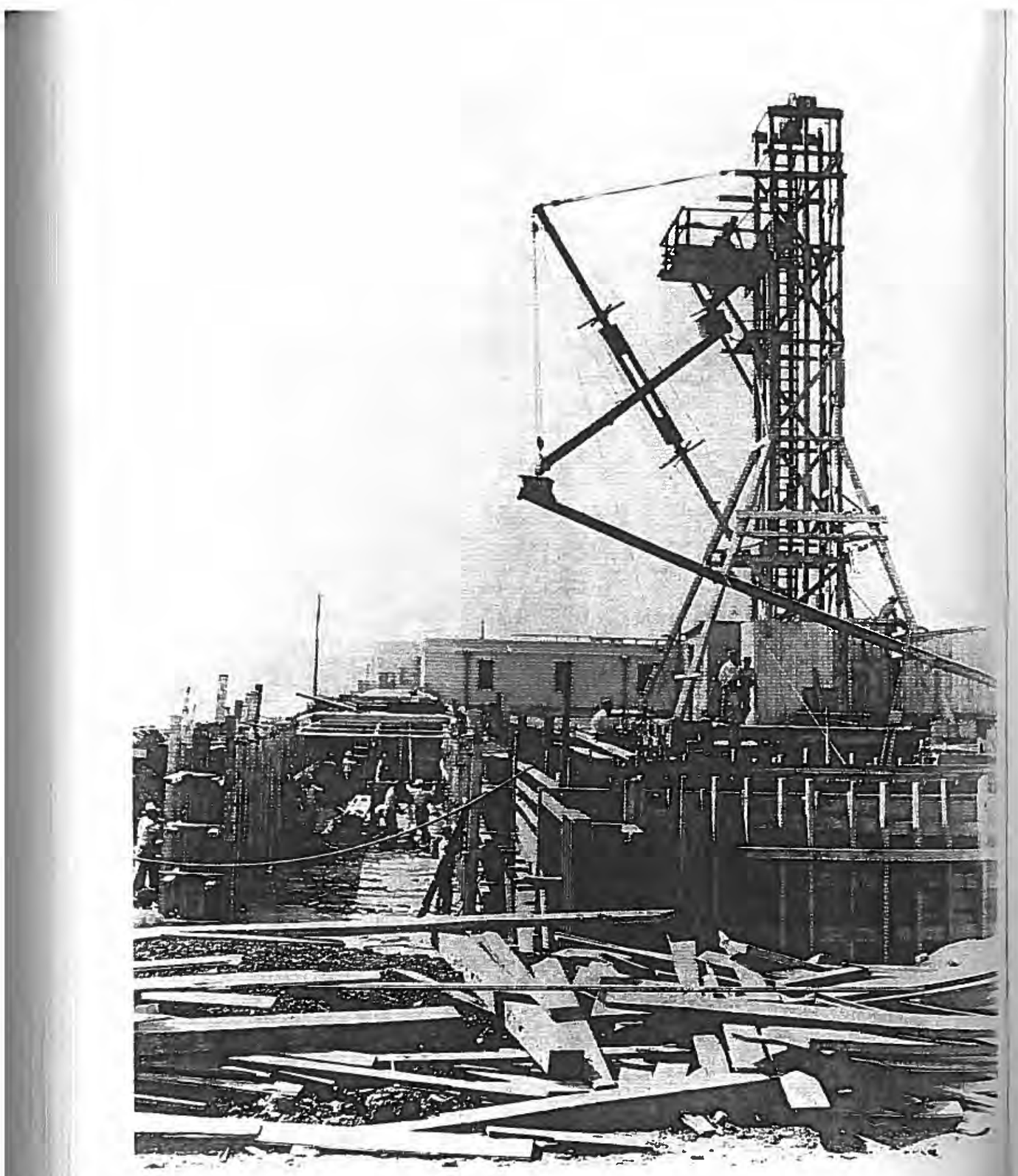
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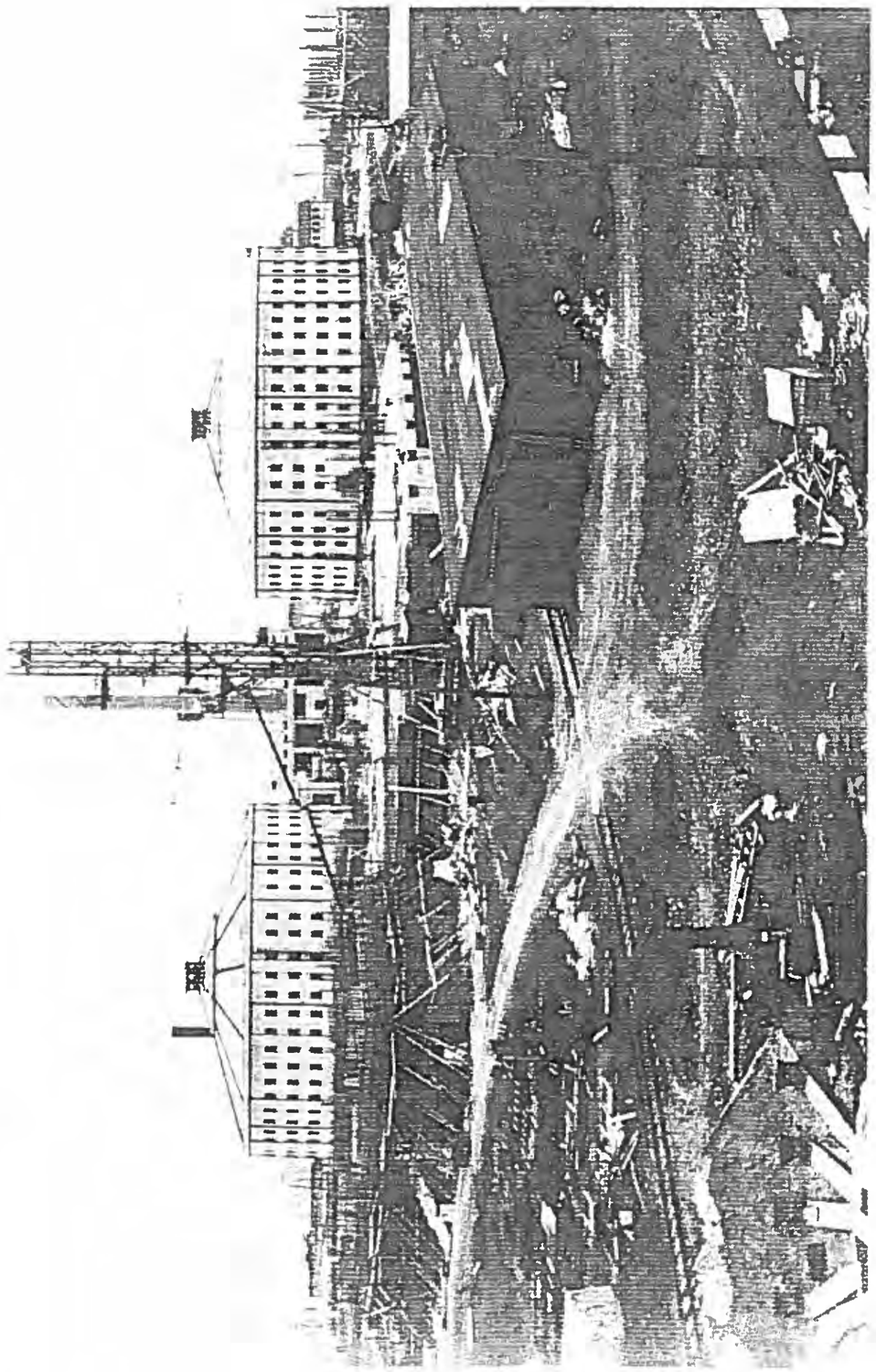


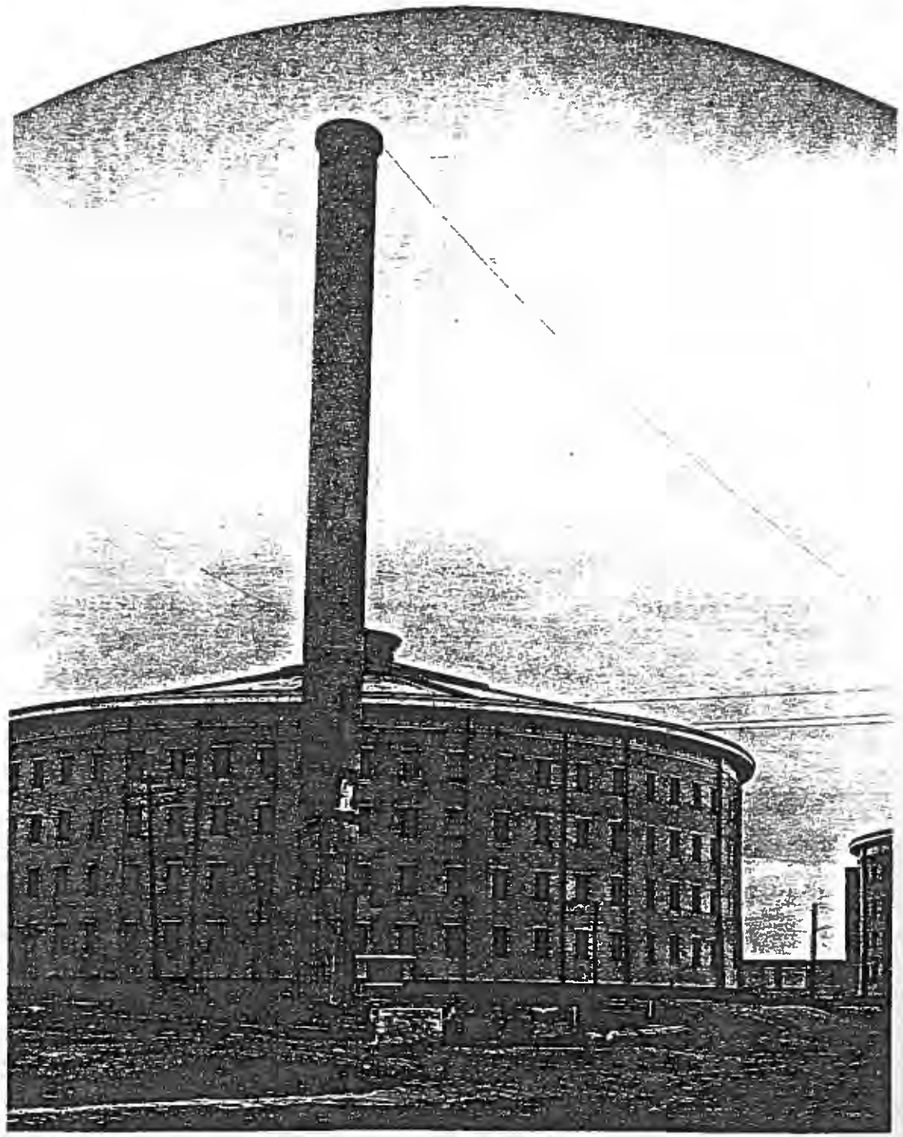








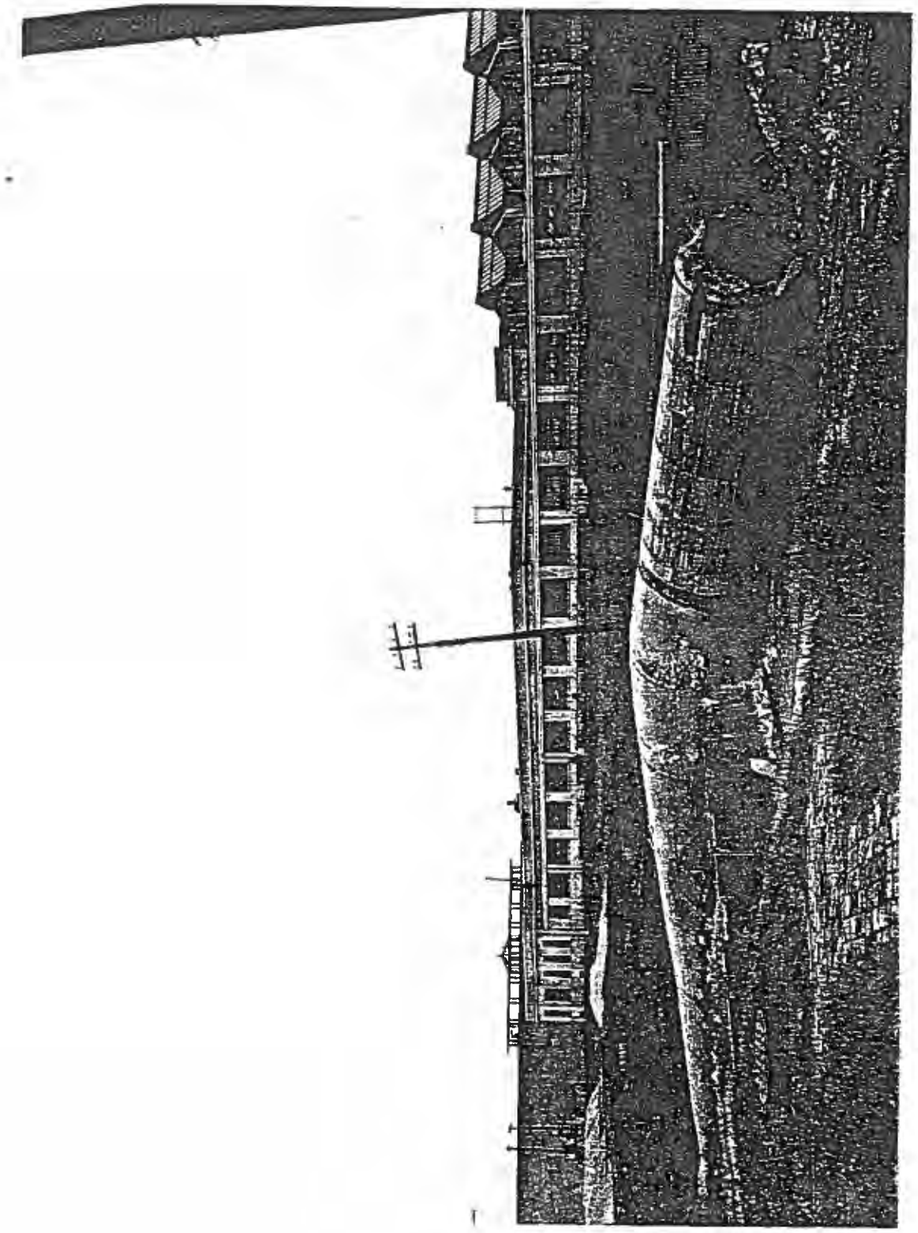




I.S.P. Wrecking the Smoke-stack of the old Boiler house

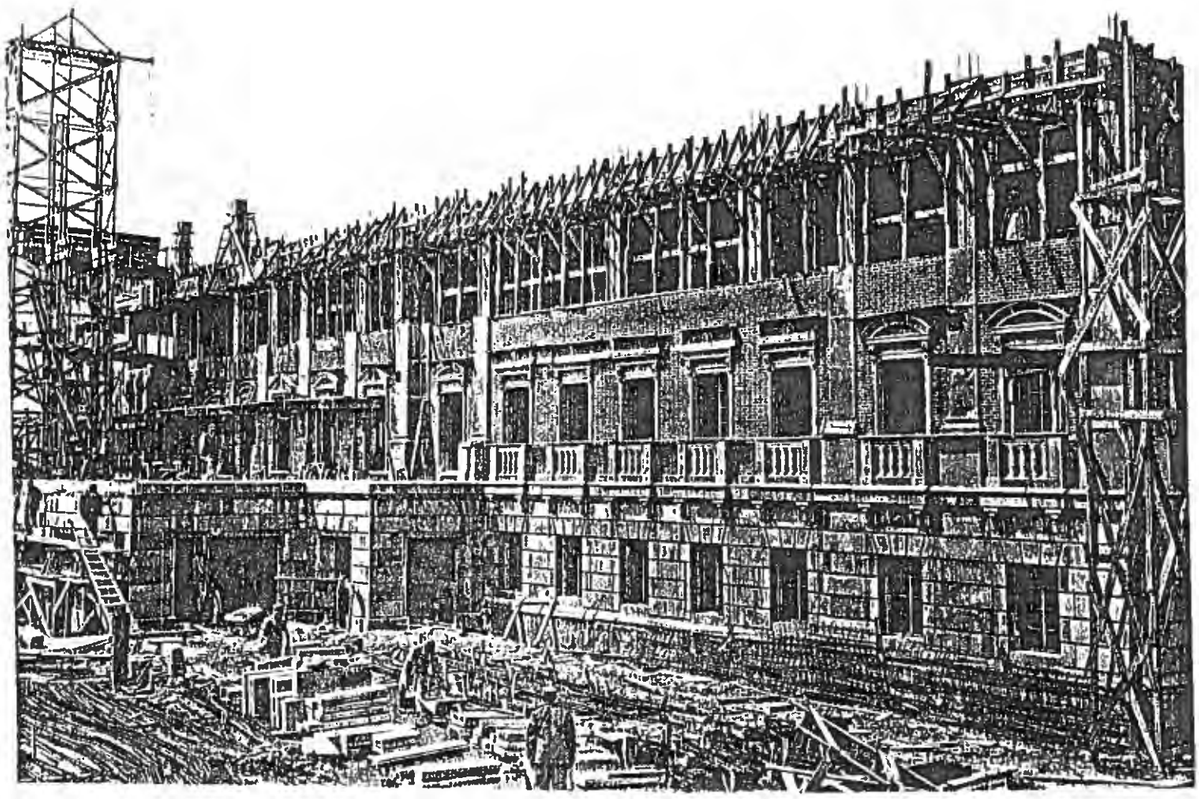
H A GOODRICH

September 21-1927



I.S.P. Wrecking the Smoke-stack of the old Boiler house

H A GOODRICH

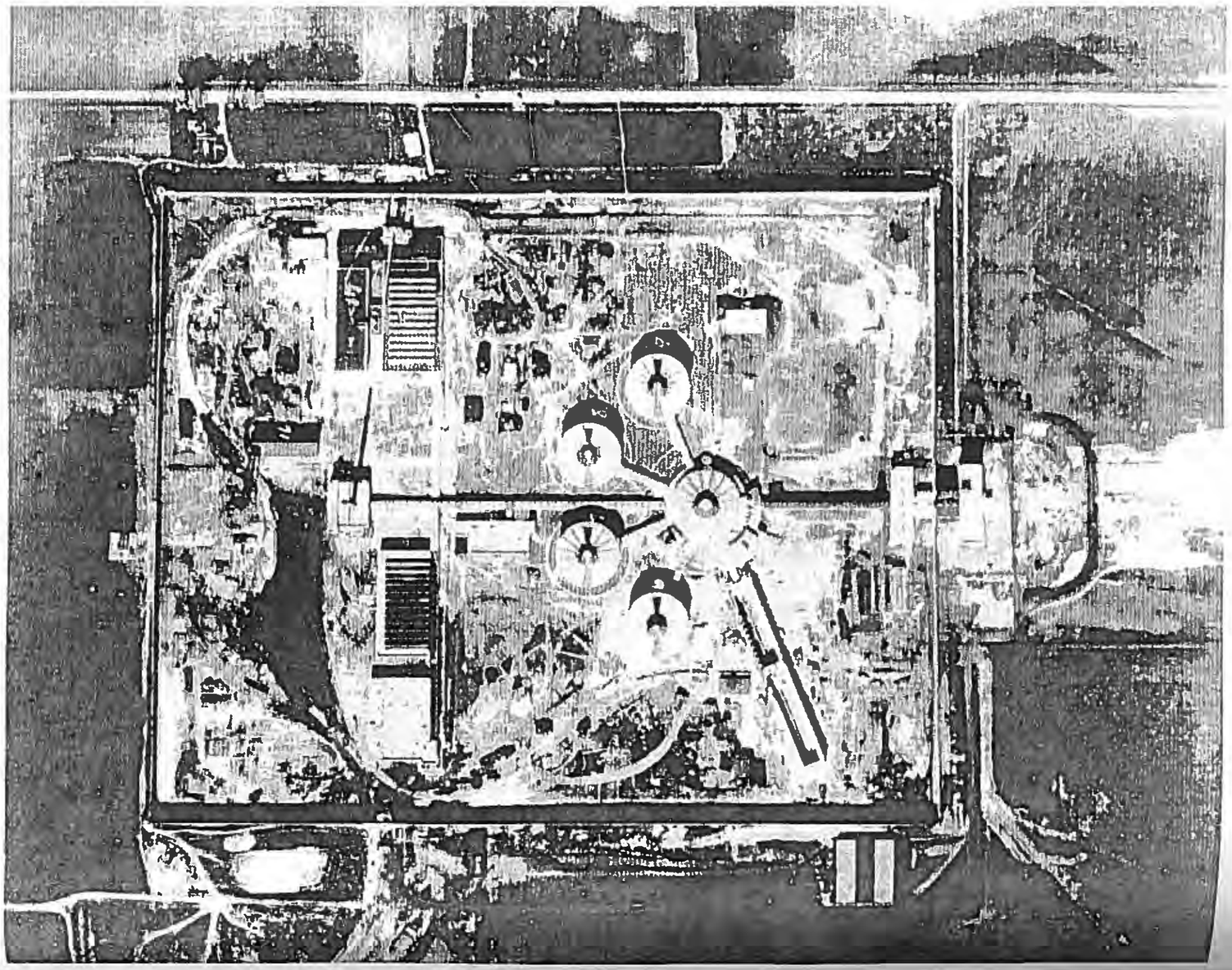


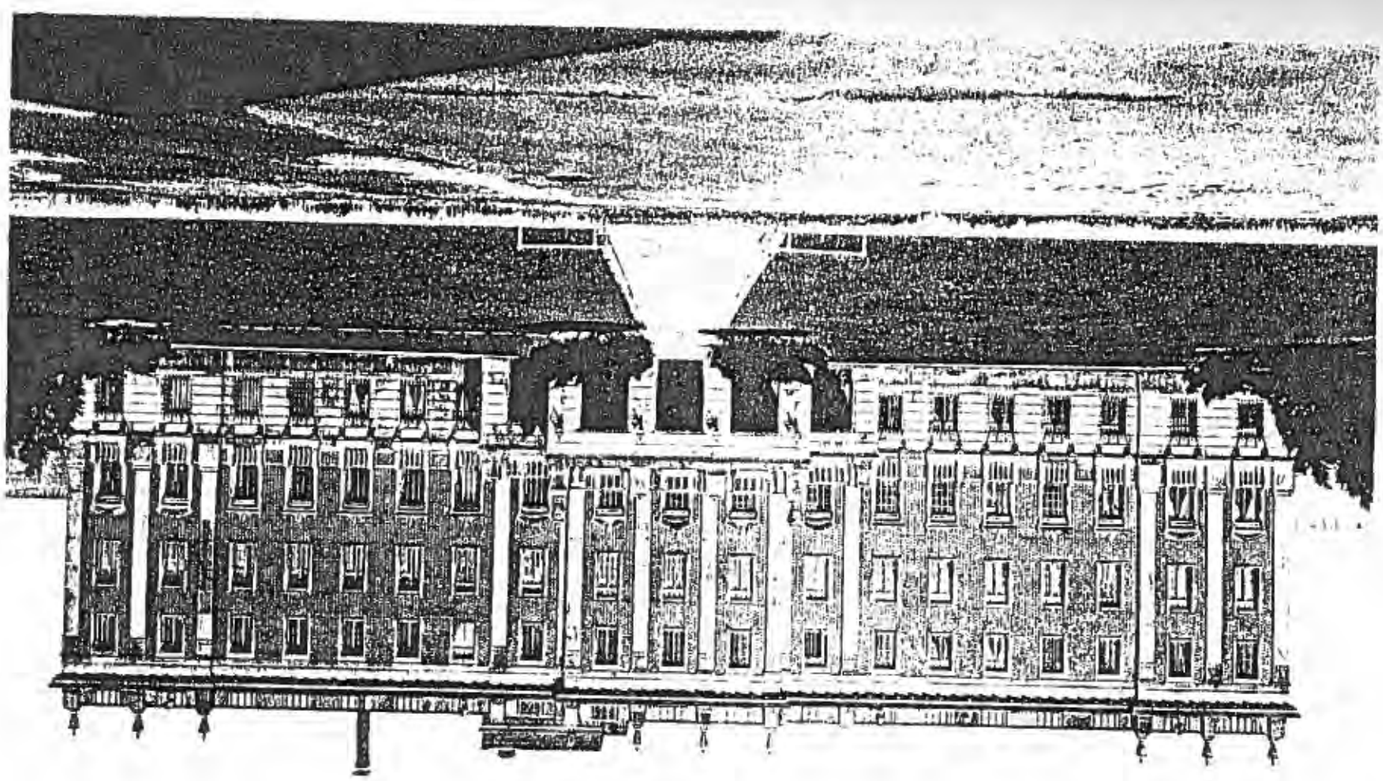
Administration Building

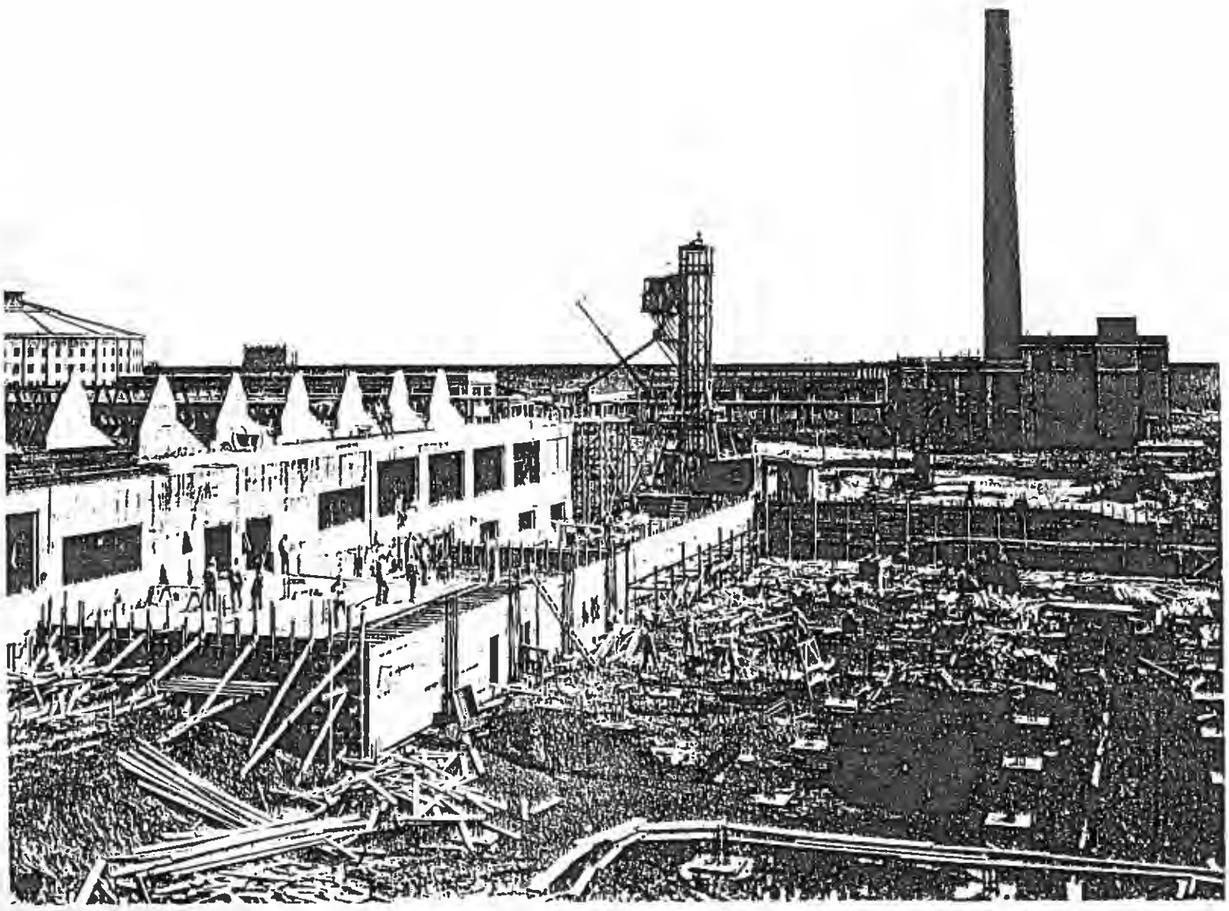
Looking S.-West

New I. S. P. May 10 - 1929





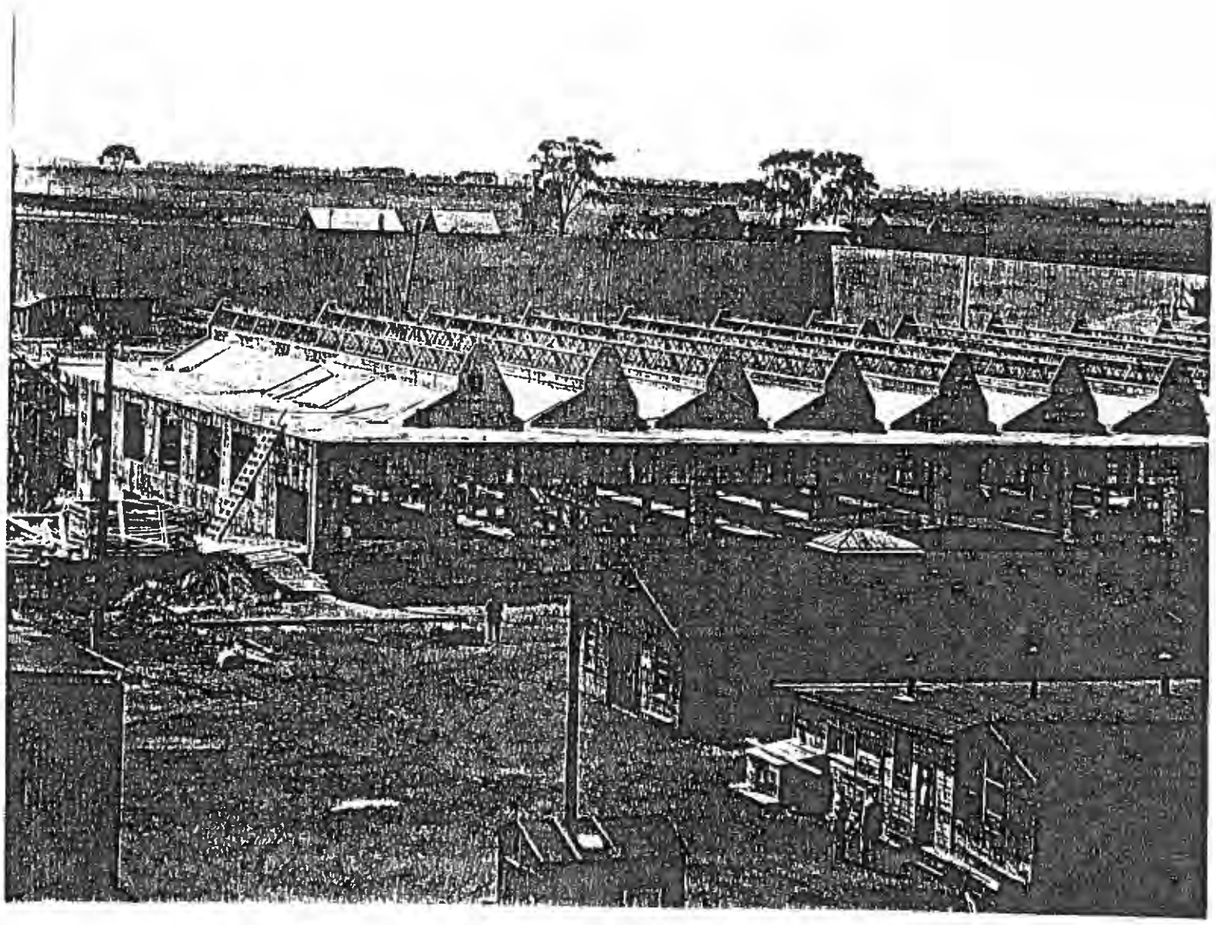




Furniture Factory Showing Unit „B" Form work Looking S.-East

H A GOODRICH
Supt. of Construction

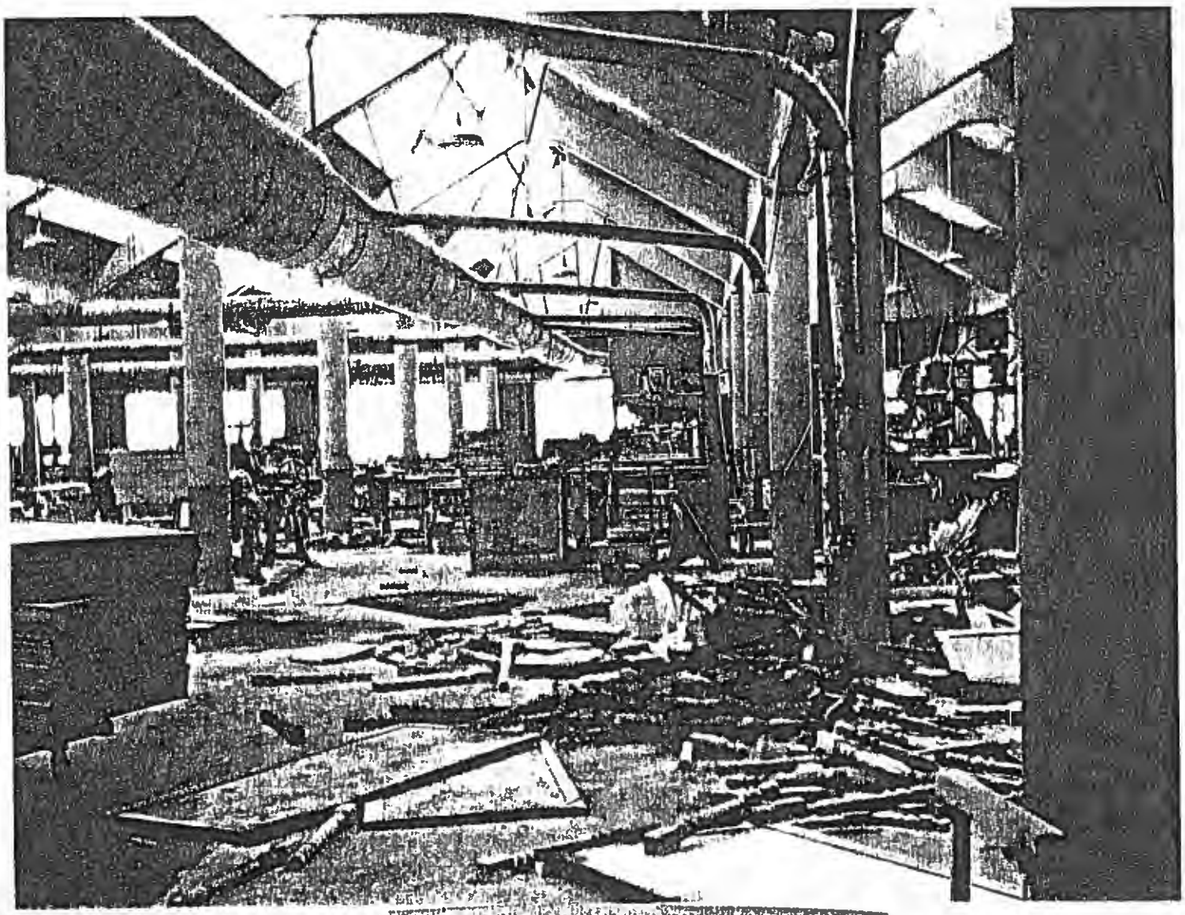
New I. S. P. May 23-1928



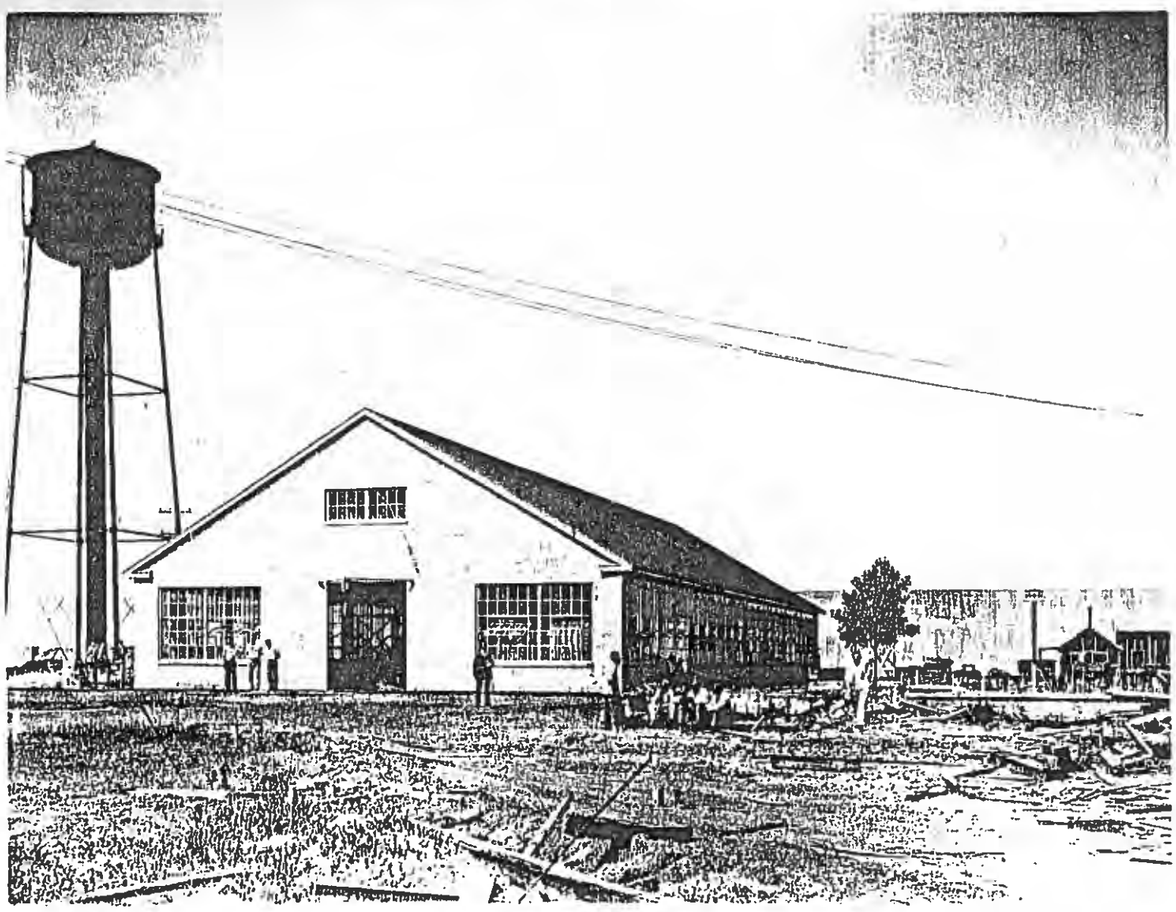
Furniture Factory „A" Roofing Looking N.-West

H A GOODRICH

SHOE SHOP



HARDWOOD DEPT. FURNITURE SHOP.

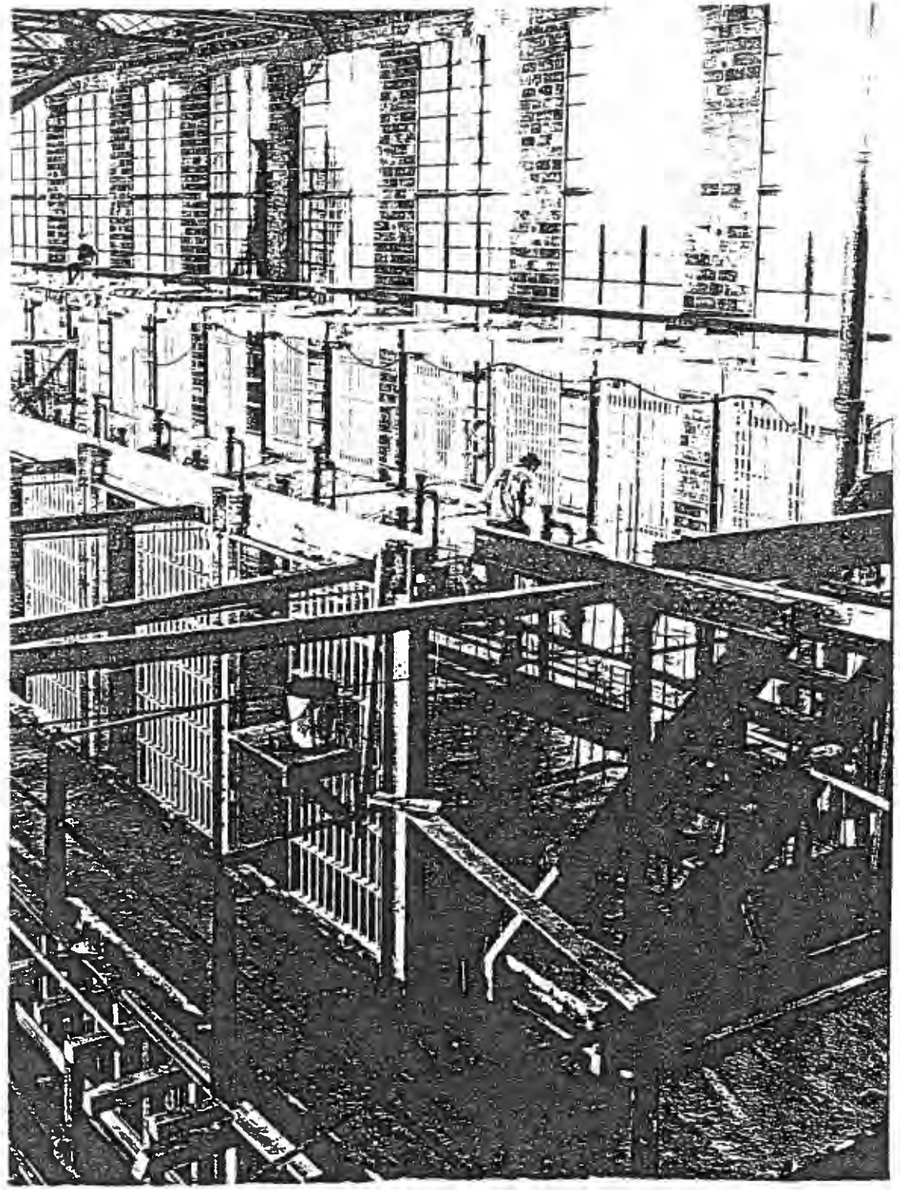


Fabricating Shop.

New I.S.P. June 21st.1930.

MAJOR H.C.HILL

WARDEN.

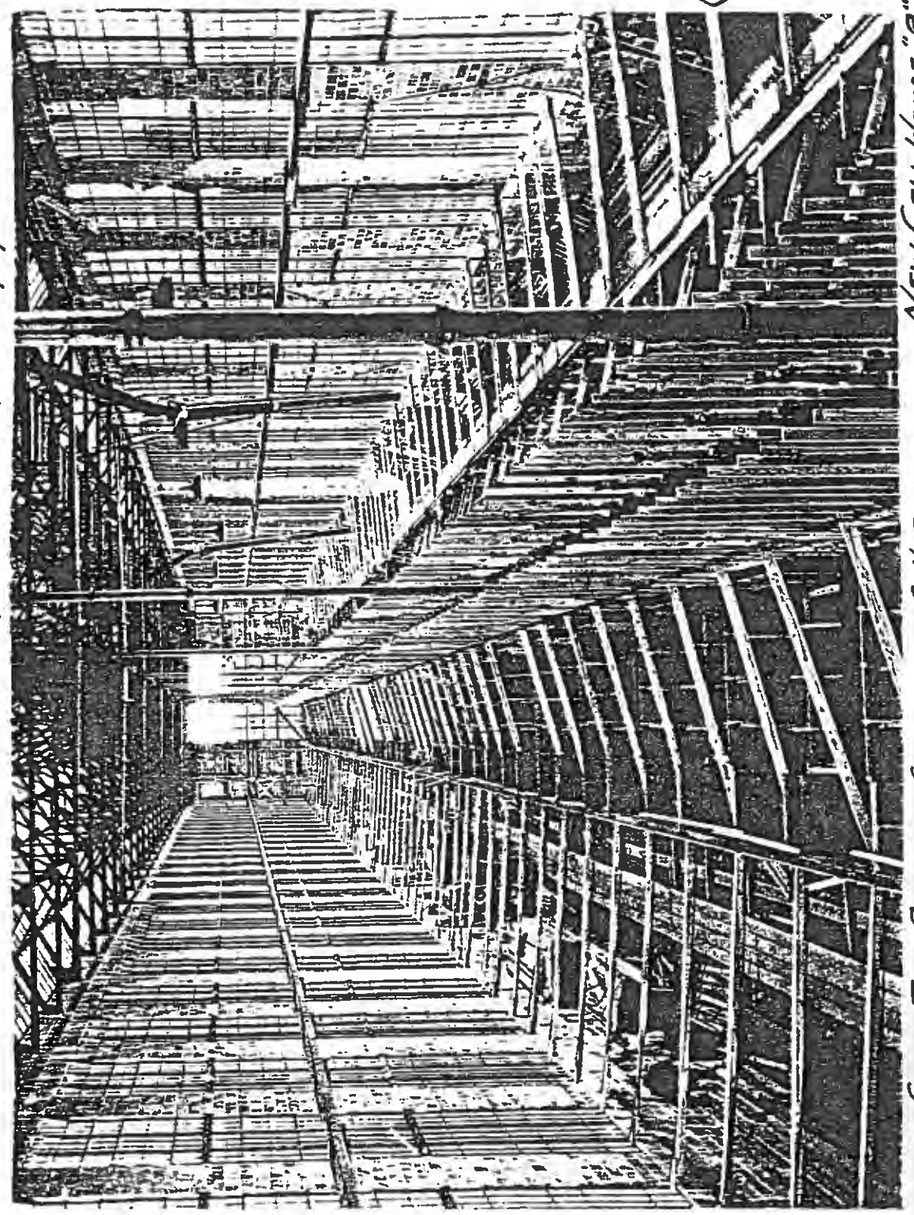


3rd TIER GALLERY POURED.-100%
ERECTING 4th TIER CELL FRONTS
CELL HOUSE B.
ILLINOIS STATE PENITENTIARY

MAJOR H. C. HILL,
WARDEN.

Aug. 3-1931.

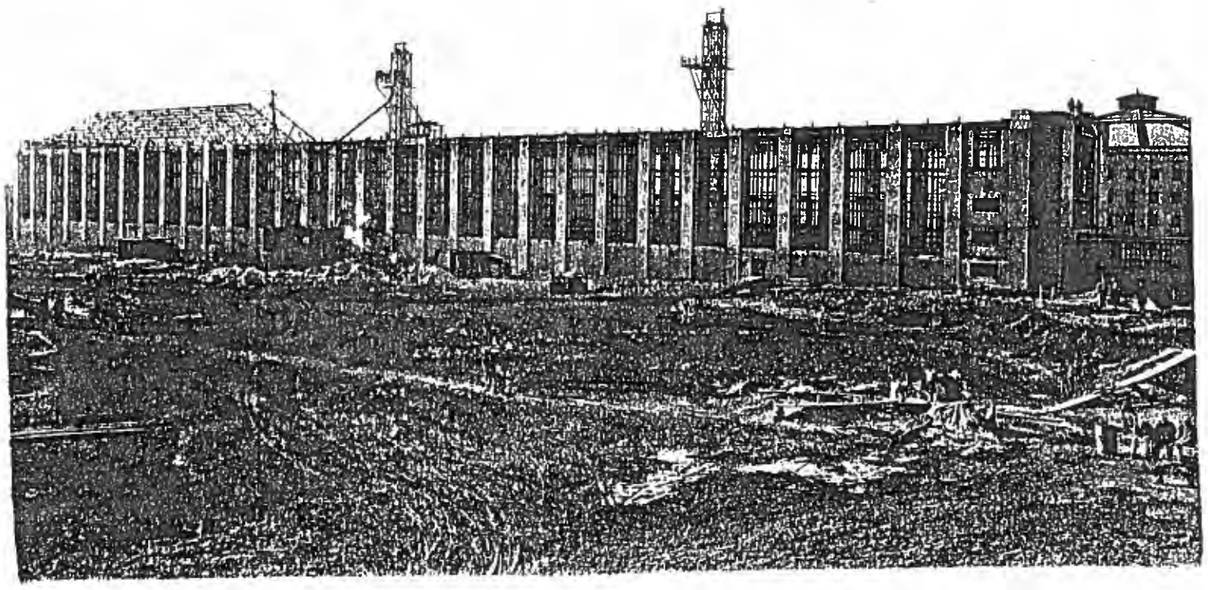
(2)



Note Continuous "Exterior Wall" Bracing of Cell Fronts.

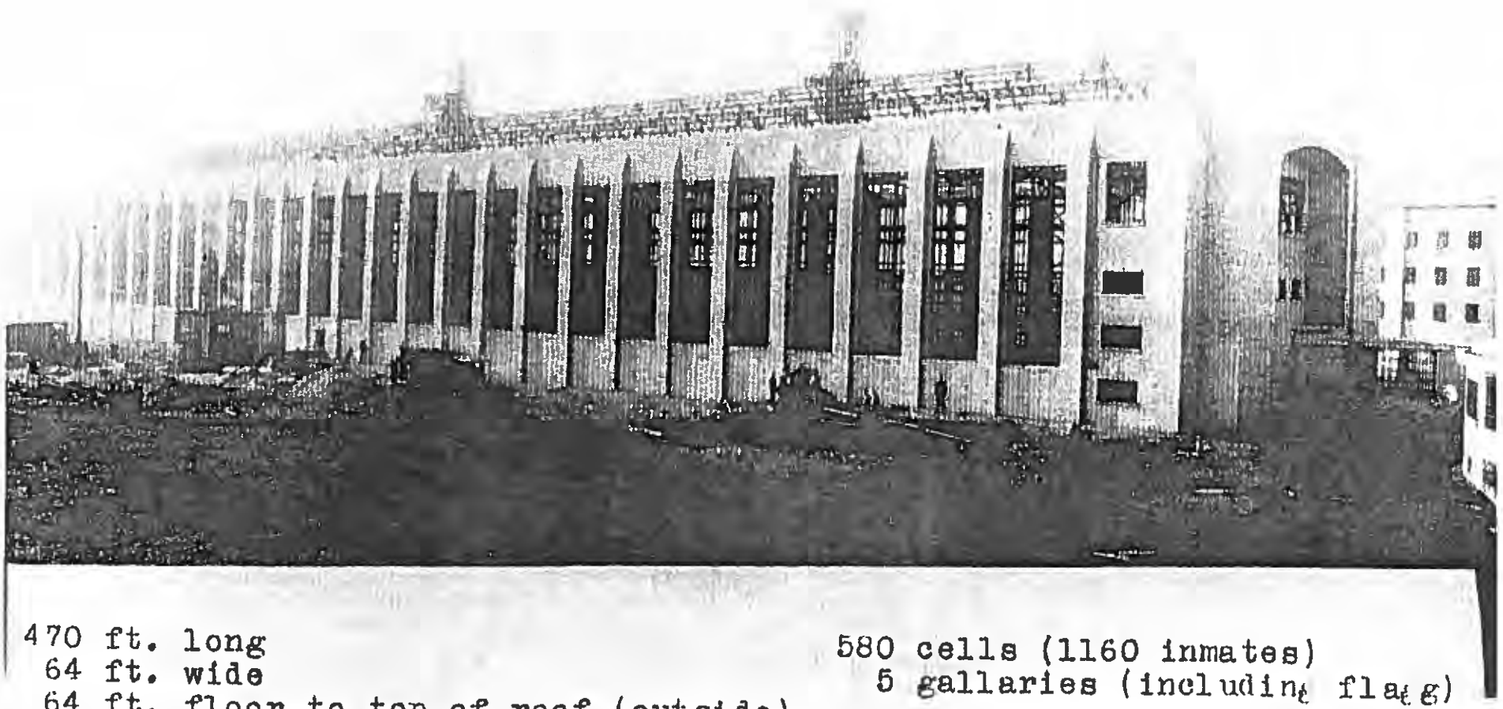
Looking South From Solitary Confinement Cell House "B"
All Cell Fronts Erected For 1st Tier - Both Sides.
Nat. Cell Front Co. Furnishing Fabricating & Erecting Cell Fronts Line up To 1/16".

NEW CELL HOUSE "B"
Ill. STATE PENITENTIARY.
MAY 13th 1931.



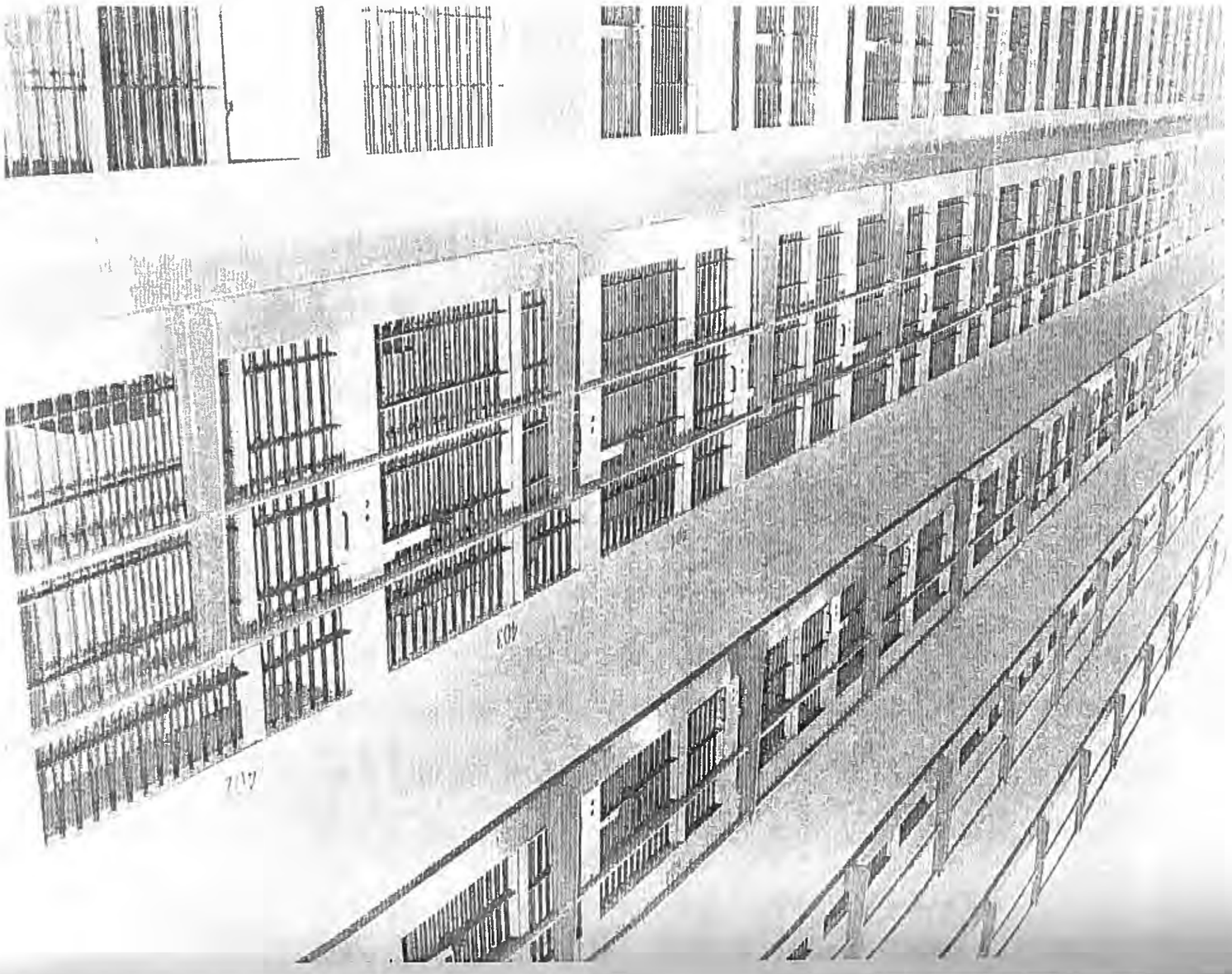
New Cell House "B" Looking S.W.
New Prison - 1/17/31.

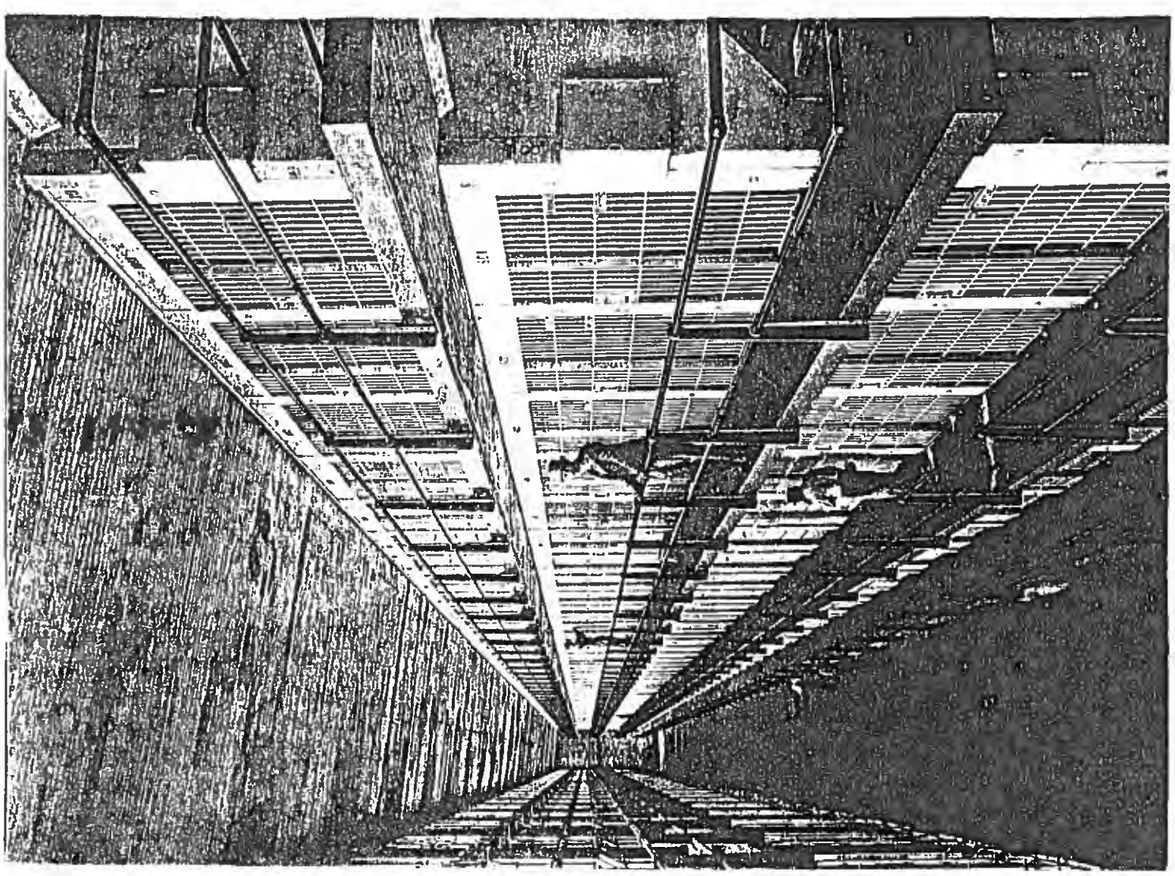
Major H.C.Hill
Warden.

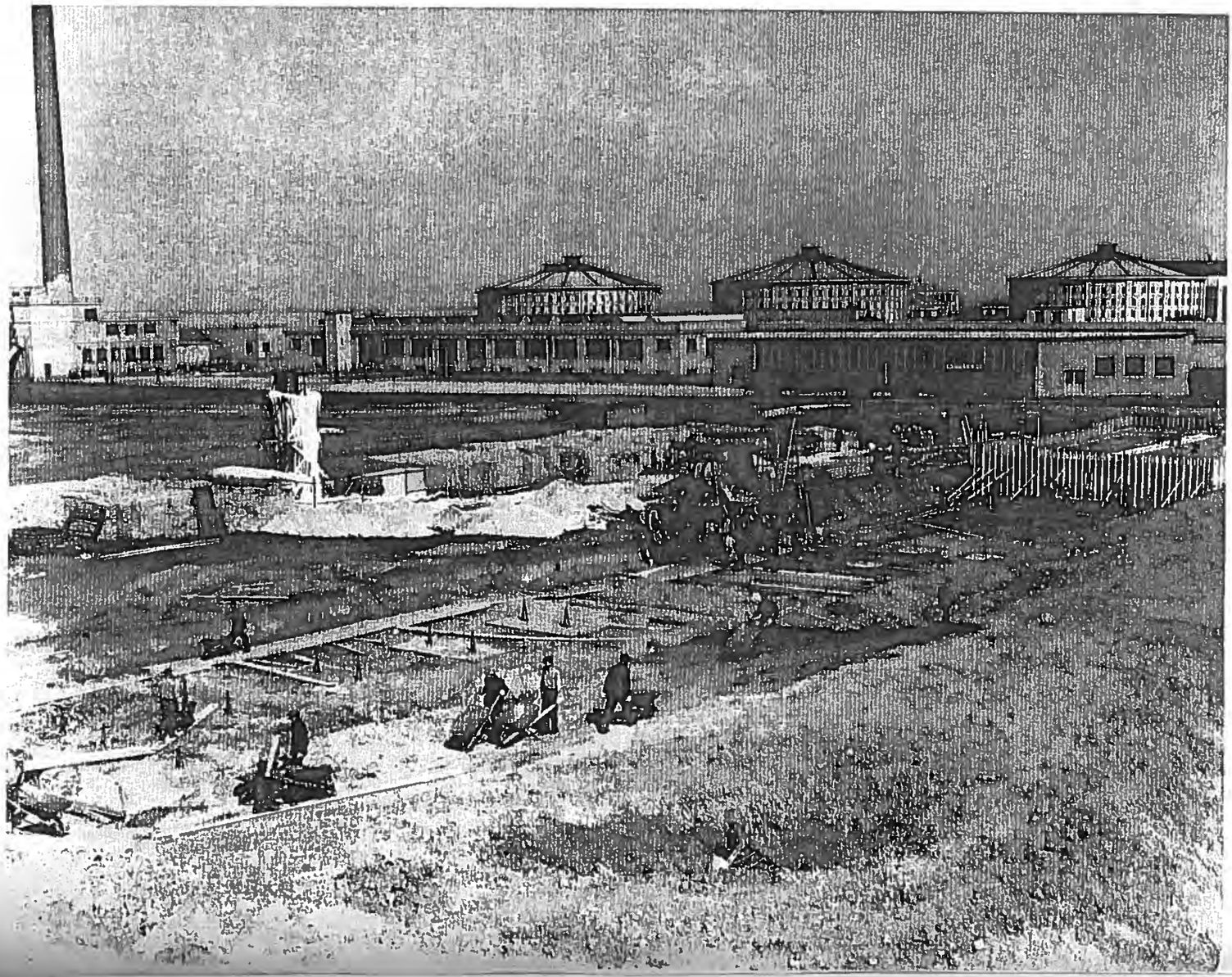


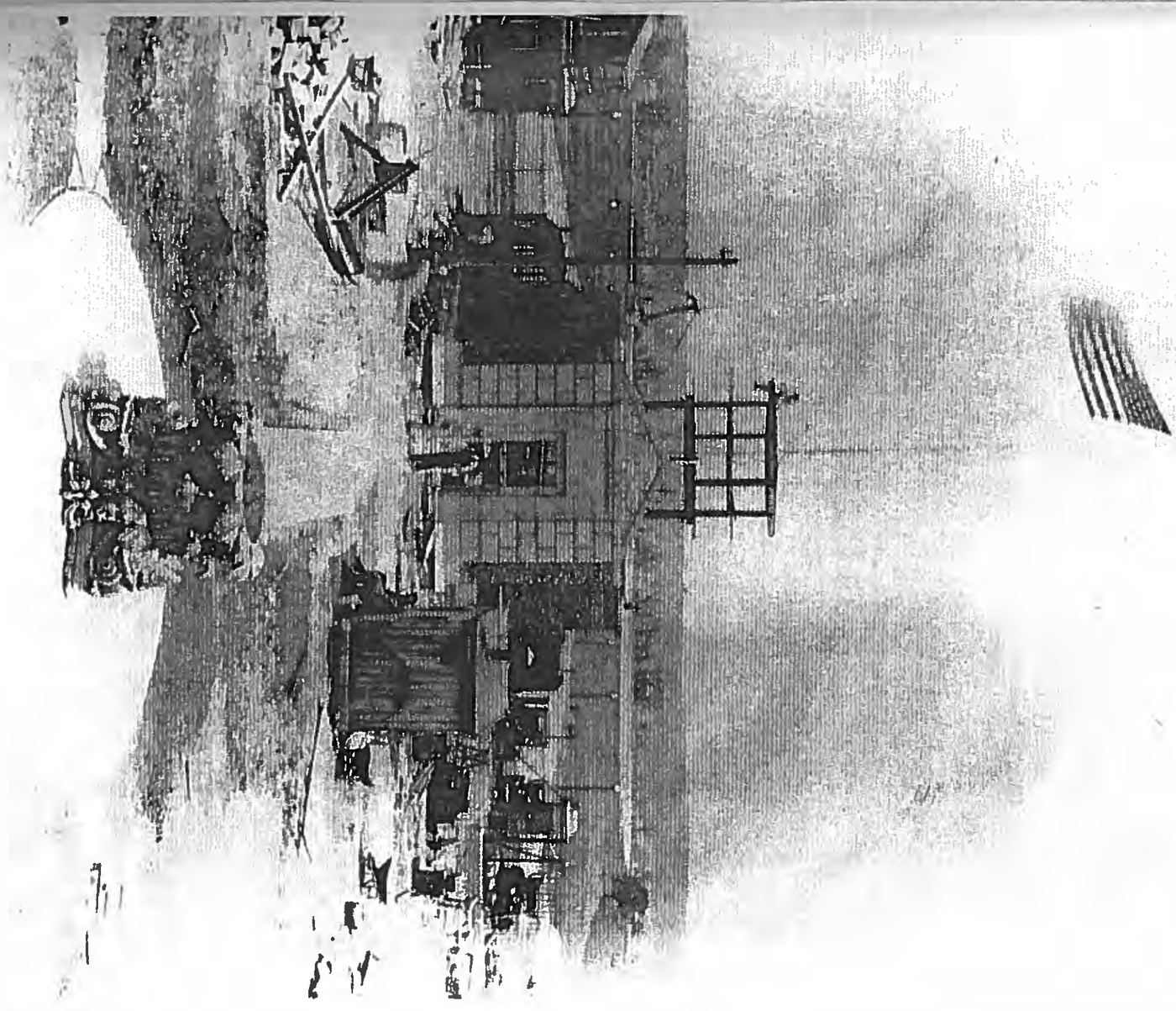
470 ft. long
64 ft. wide
64 ft. floor to top of roof (outside)

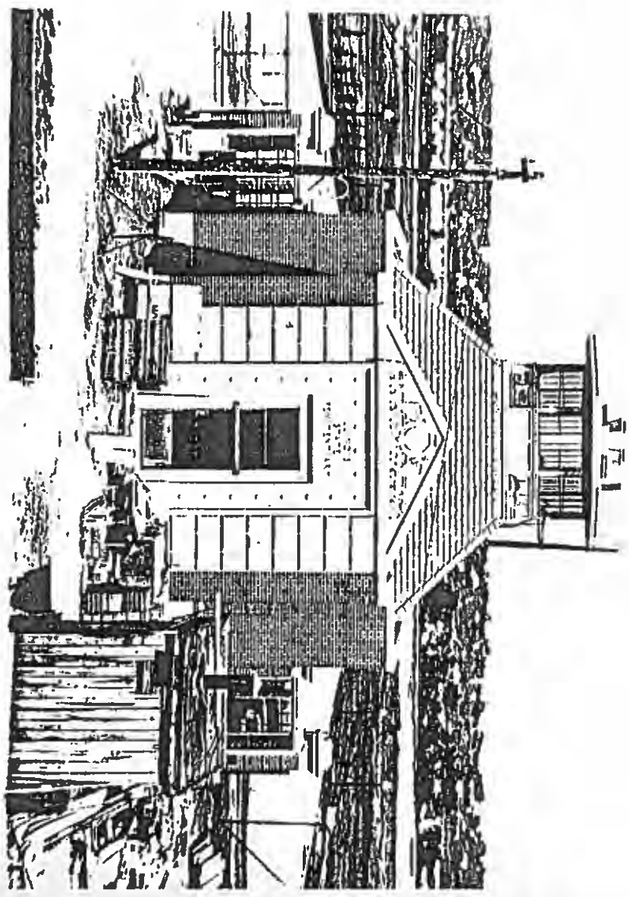
580 cells (1160 inmates)
5 gallaries (including flag)







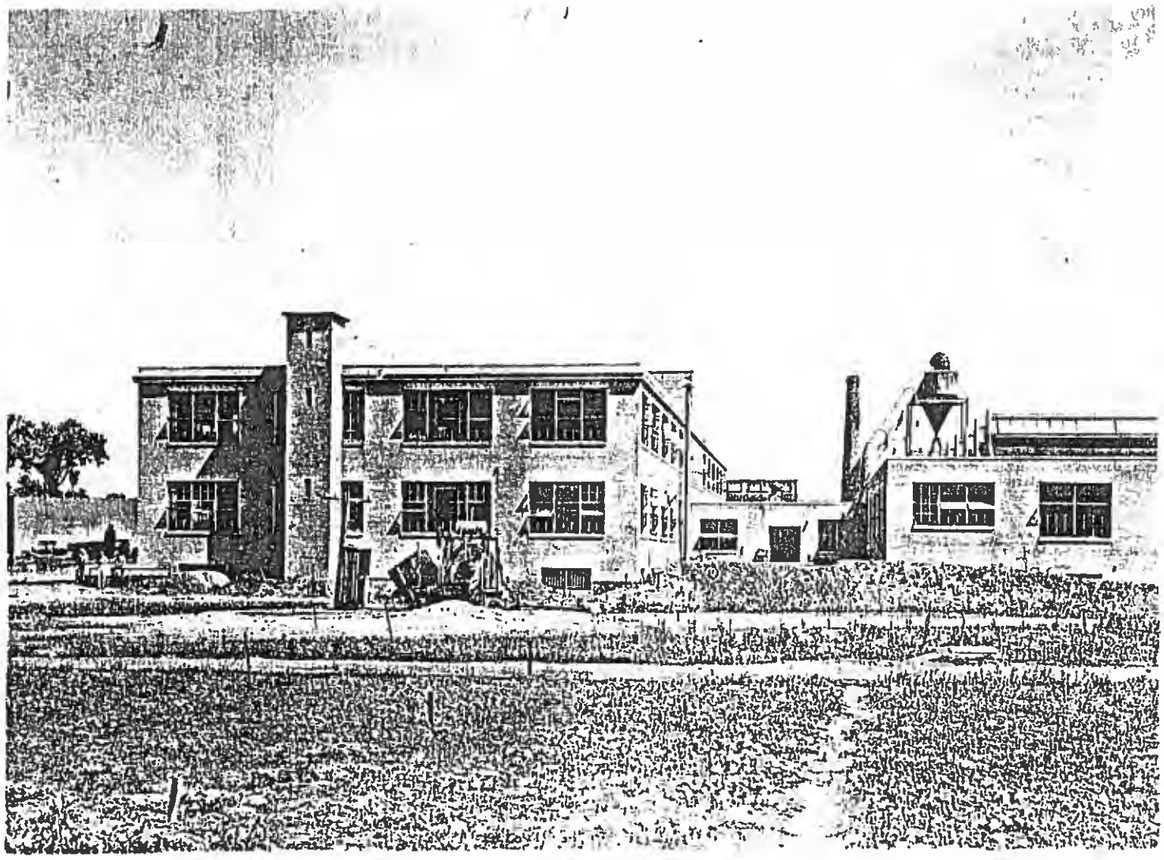




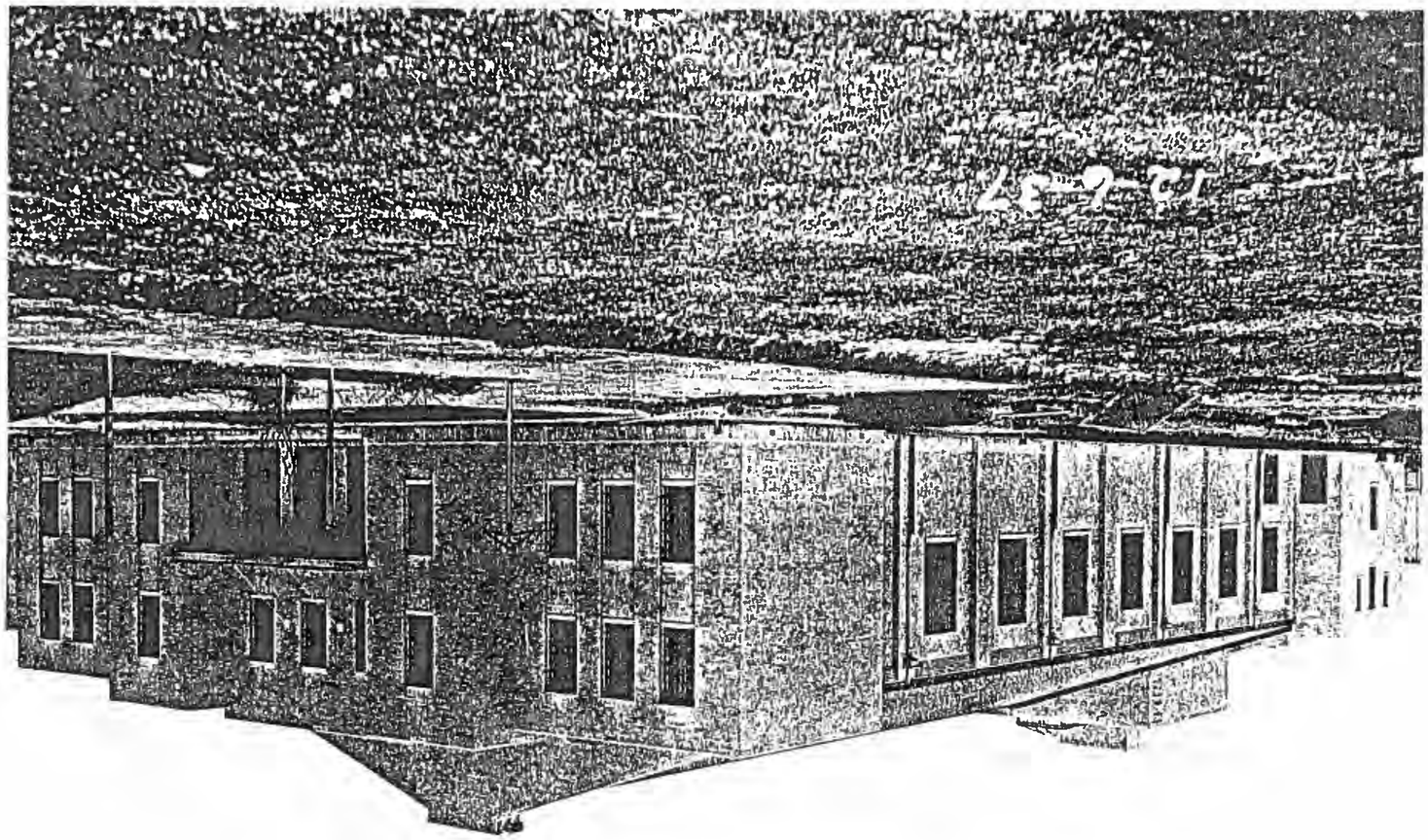
WEST ELEVATION
GATE HOUSE - NEW PRISON
JULY 18- 1931

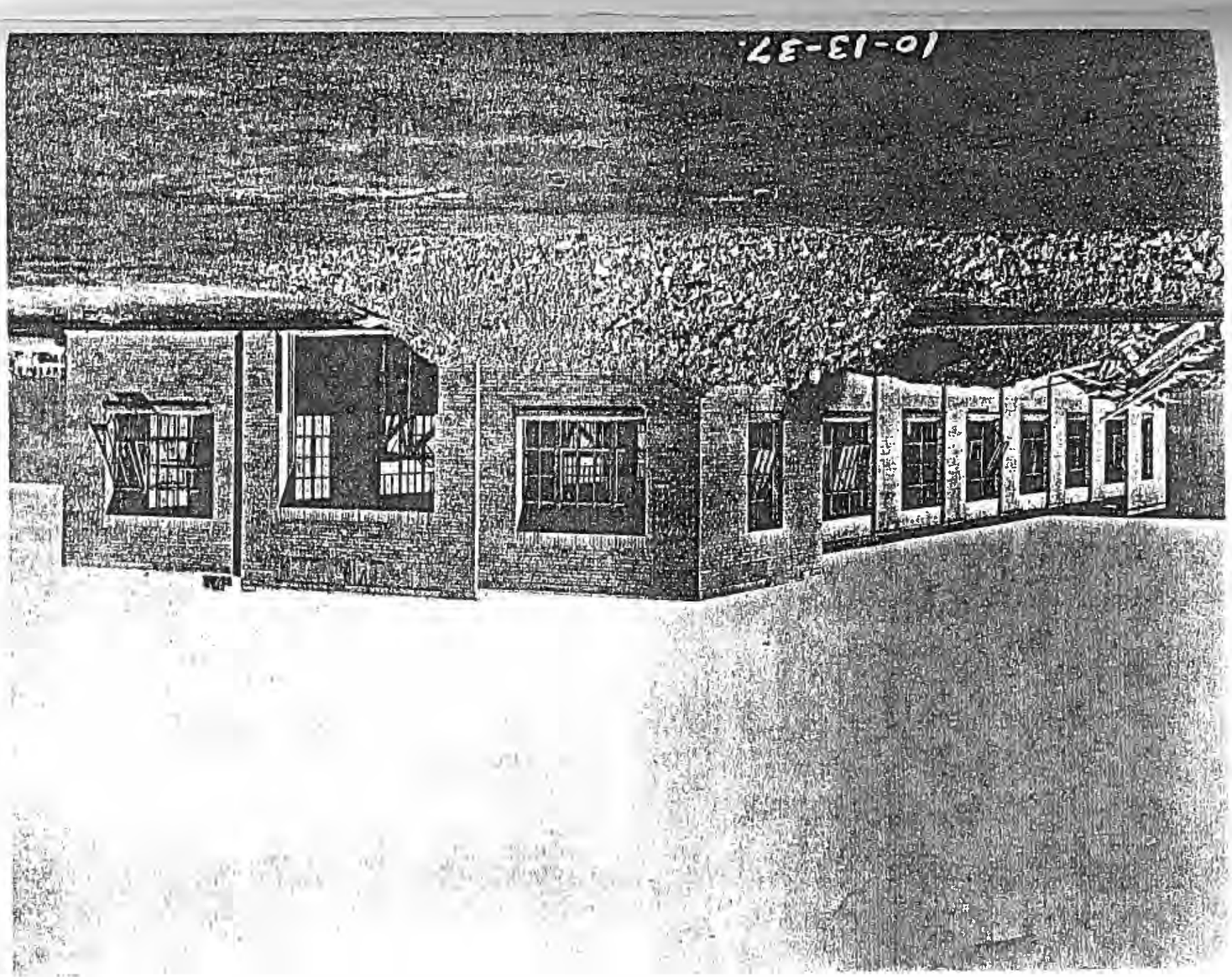
MAJOR H. C. HILL,
WARDEN.

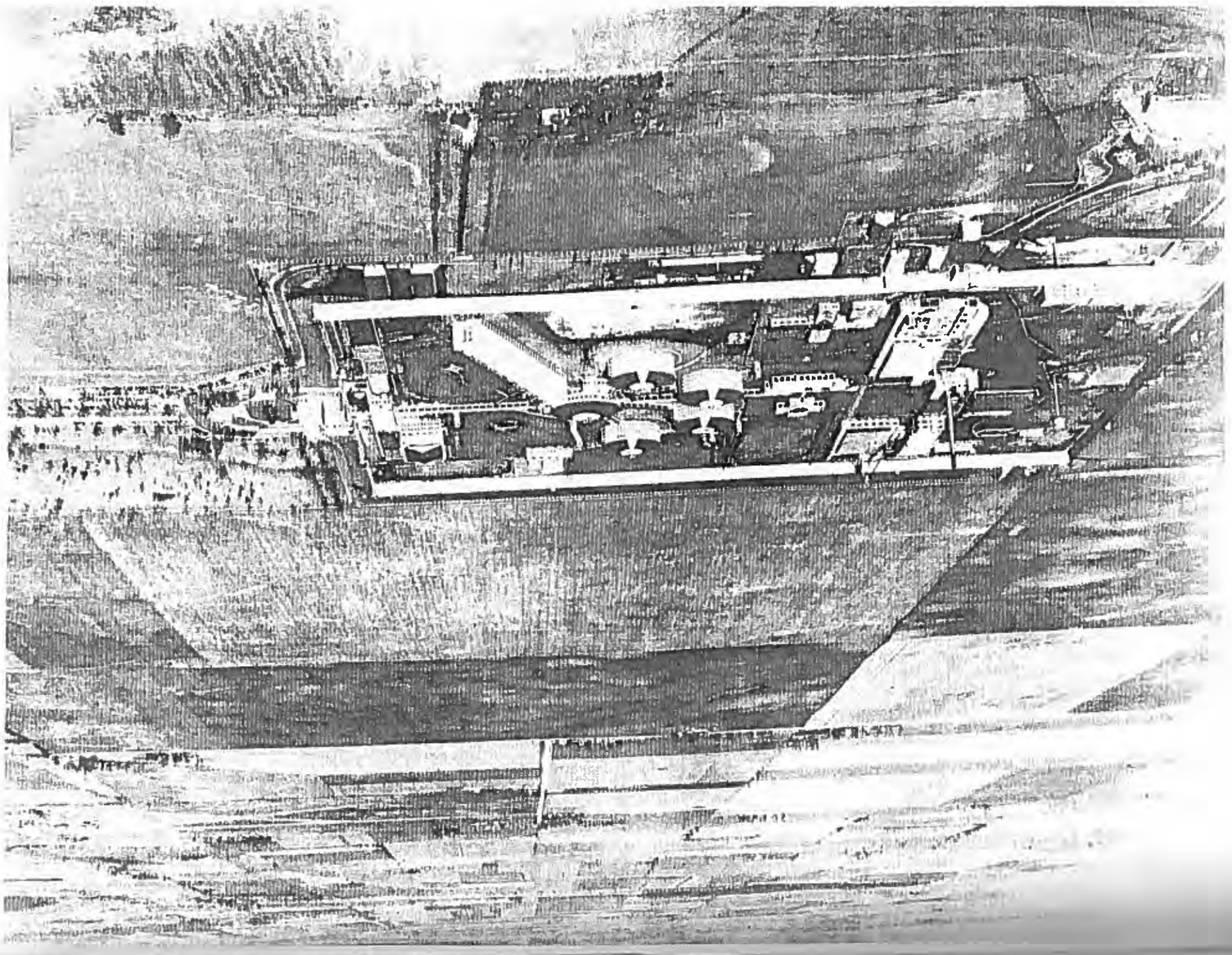
DIV. OF ARCHITECTURE AND ENGINEERING
CONSTRUCTION DEPARTMENT
ILL. STATE PENITENTIARY
Statesville

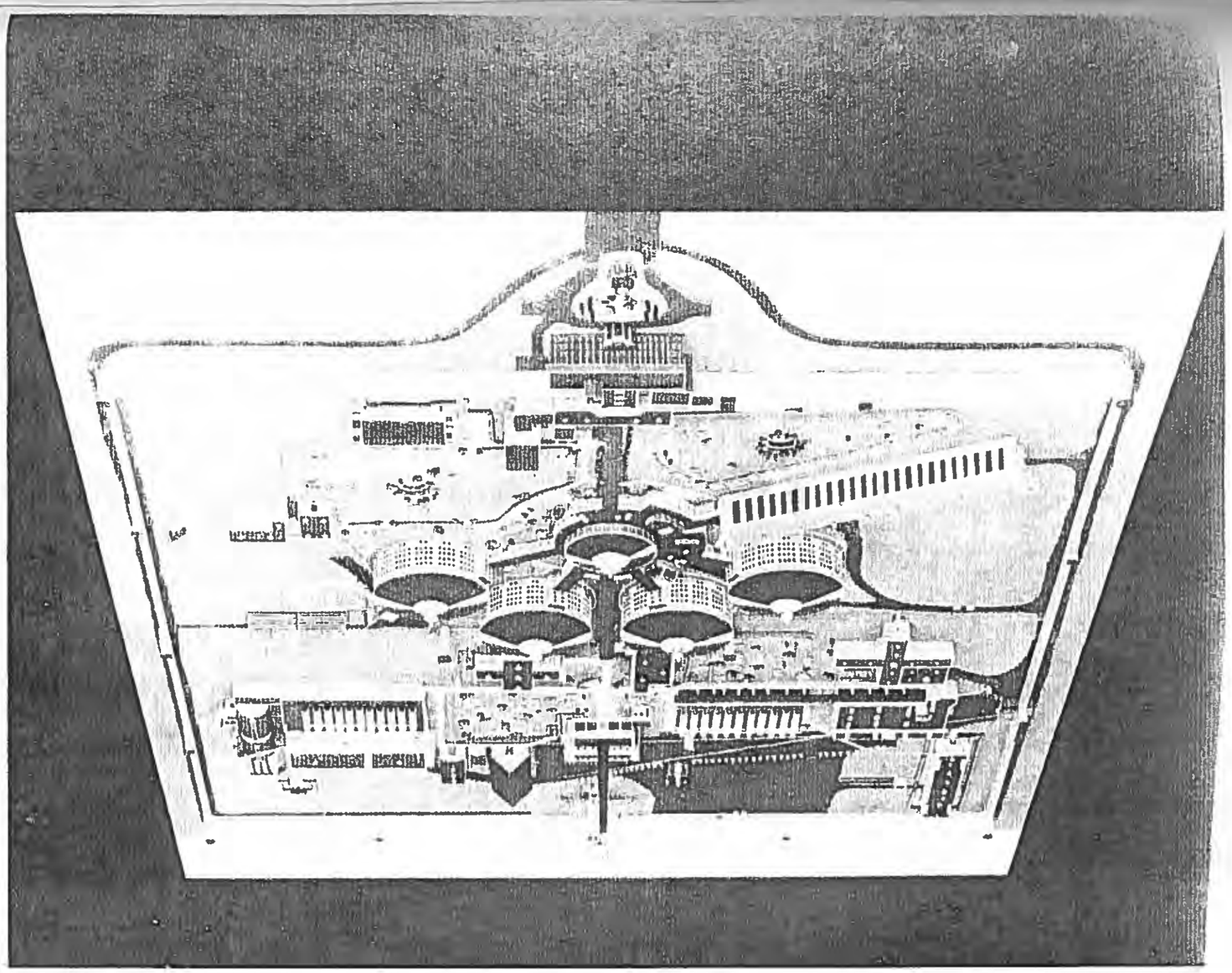


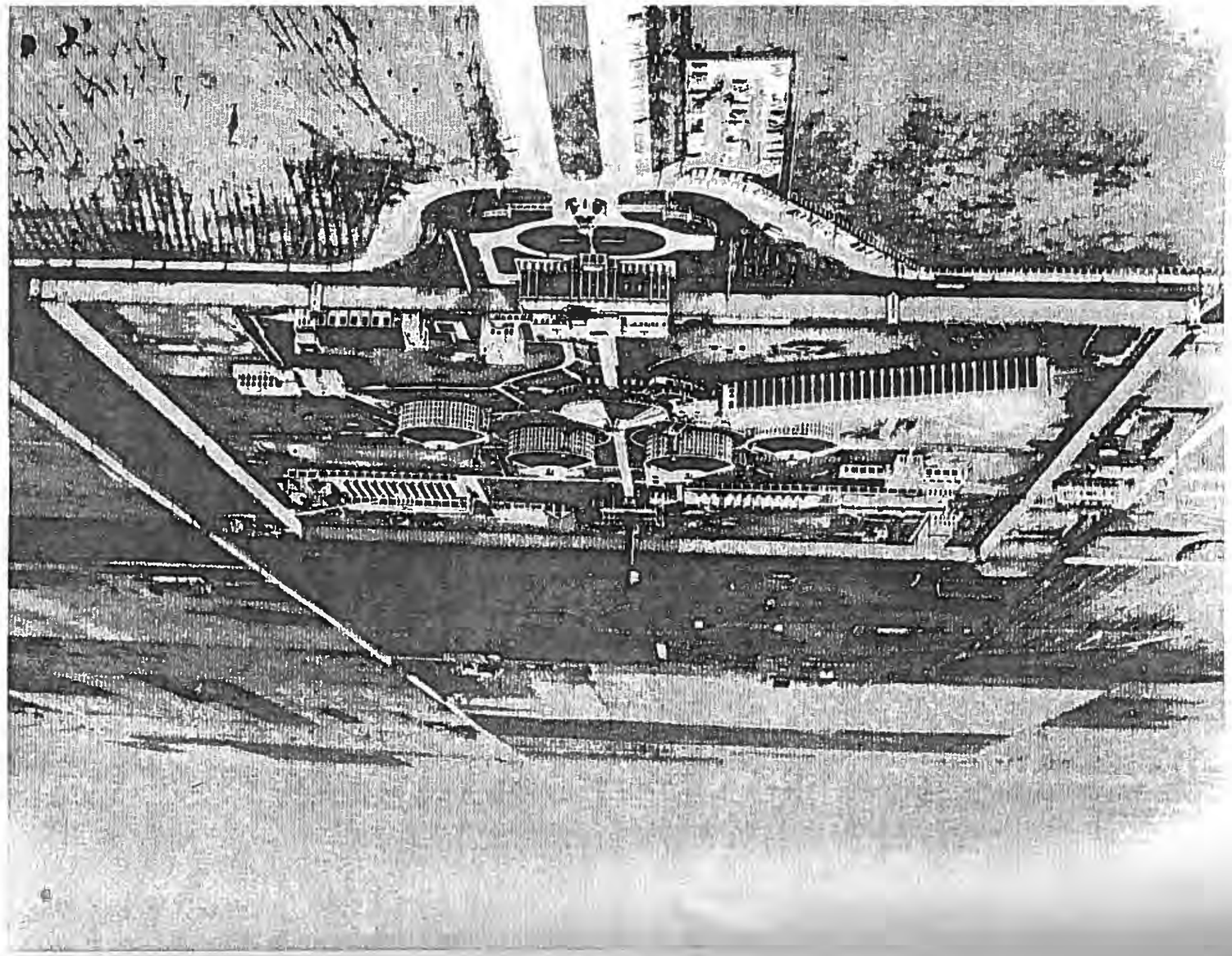
Tower #5 - (Old Prison)

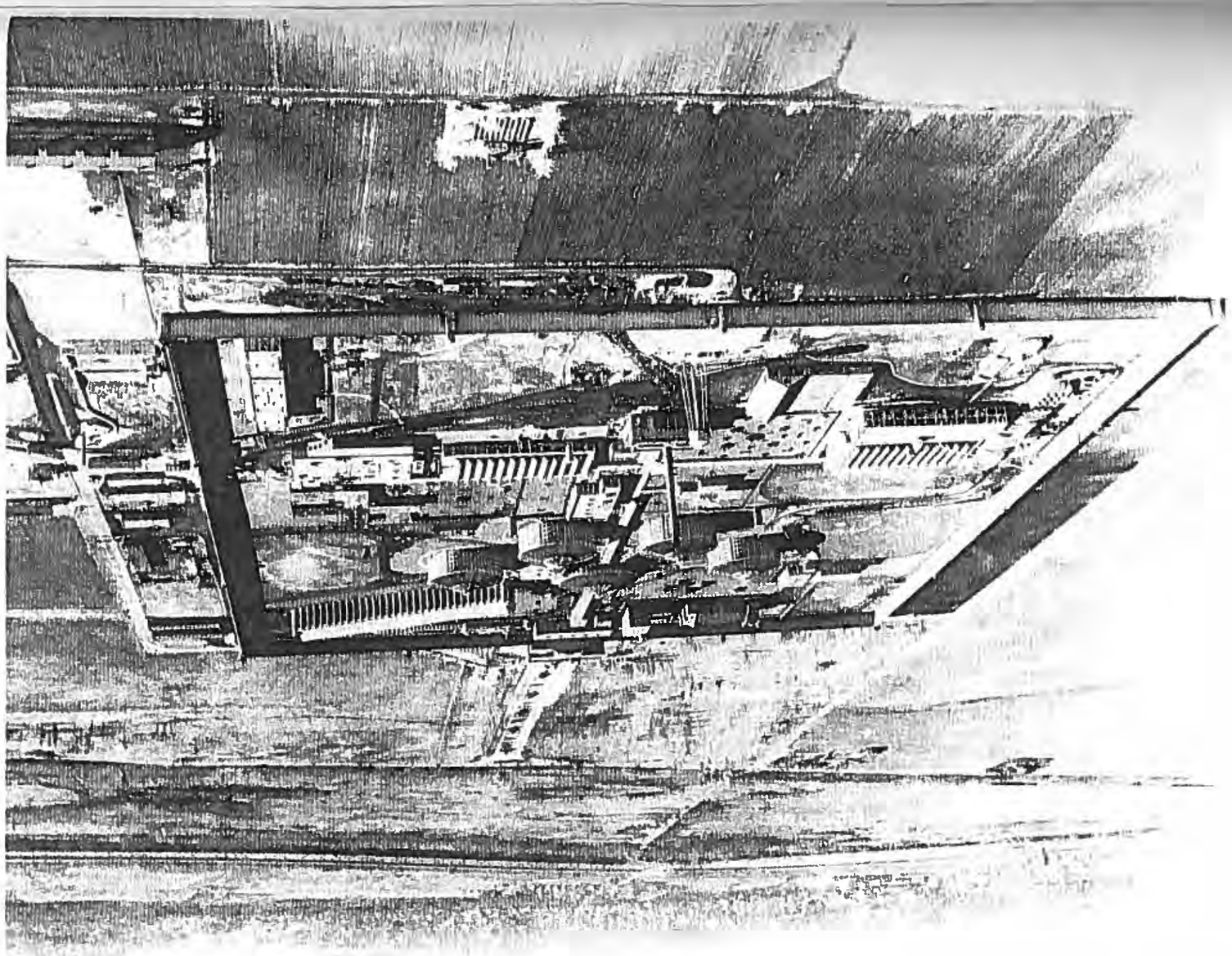


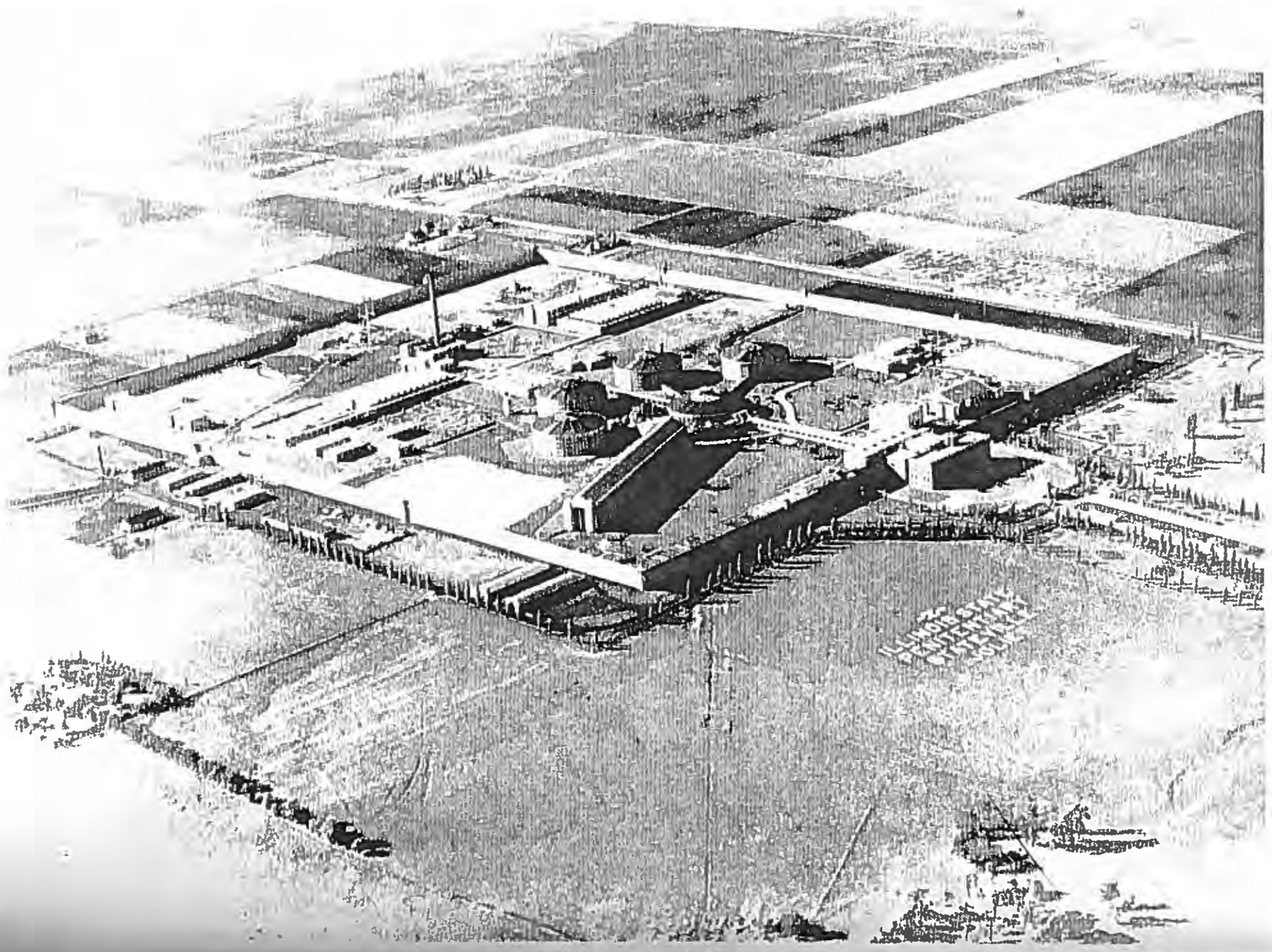

10-13-37

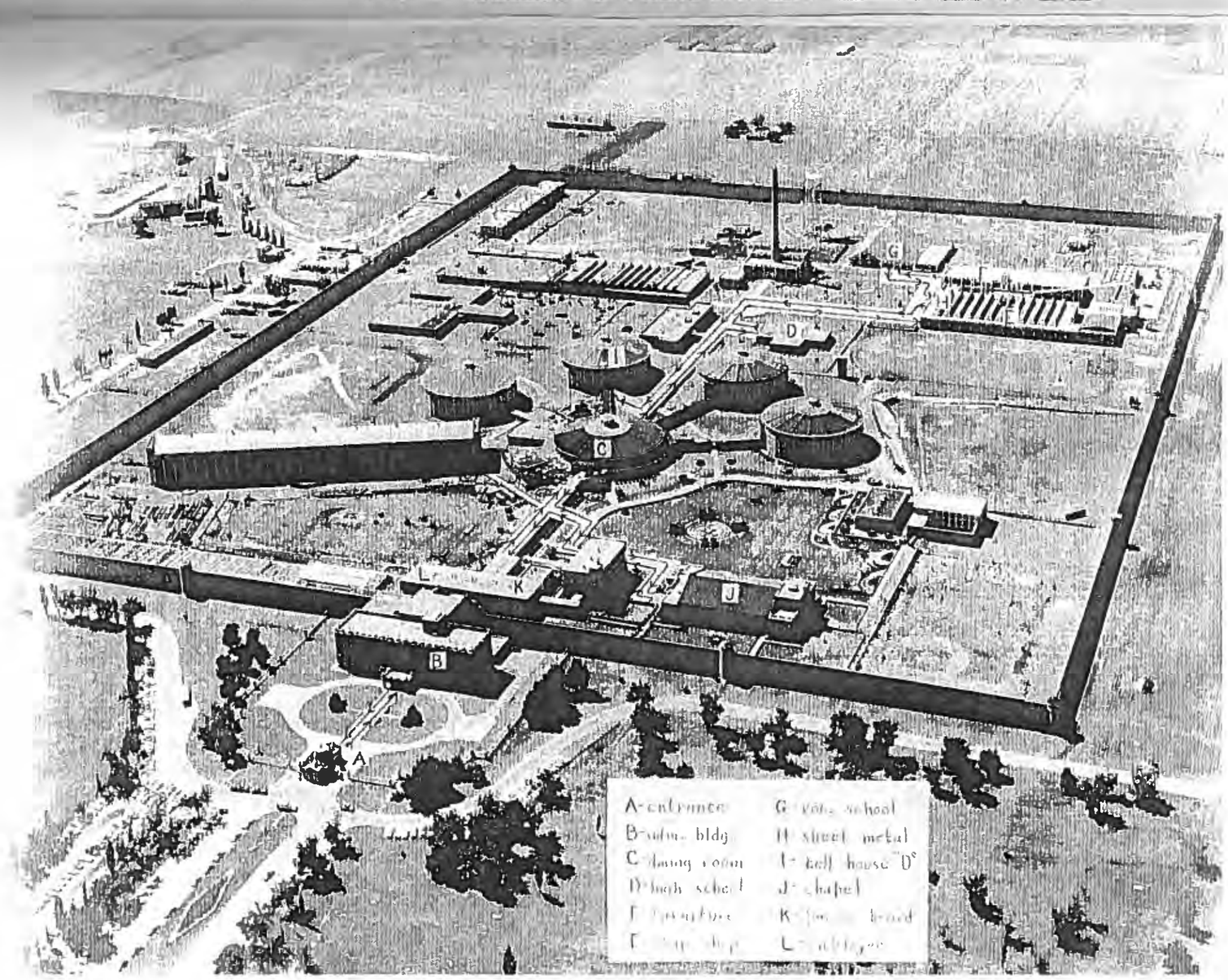


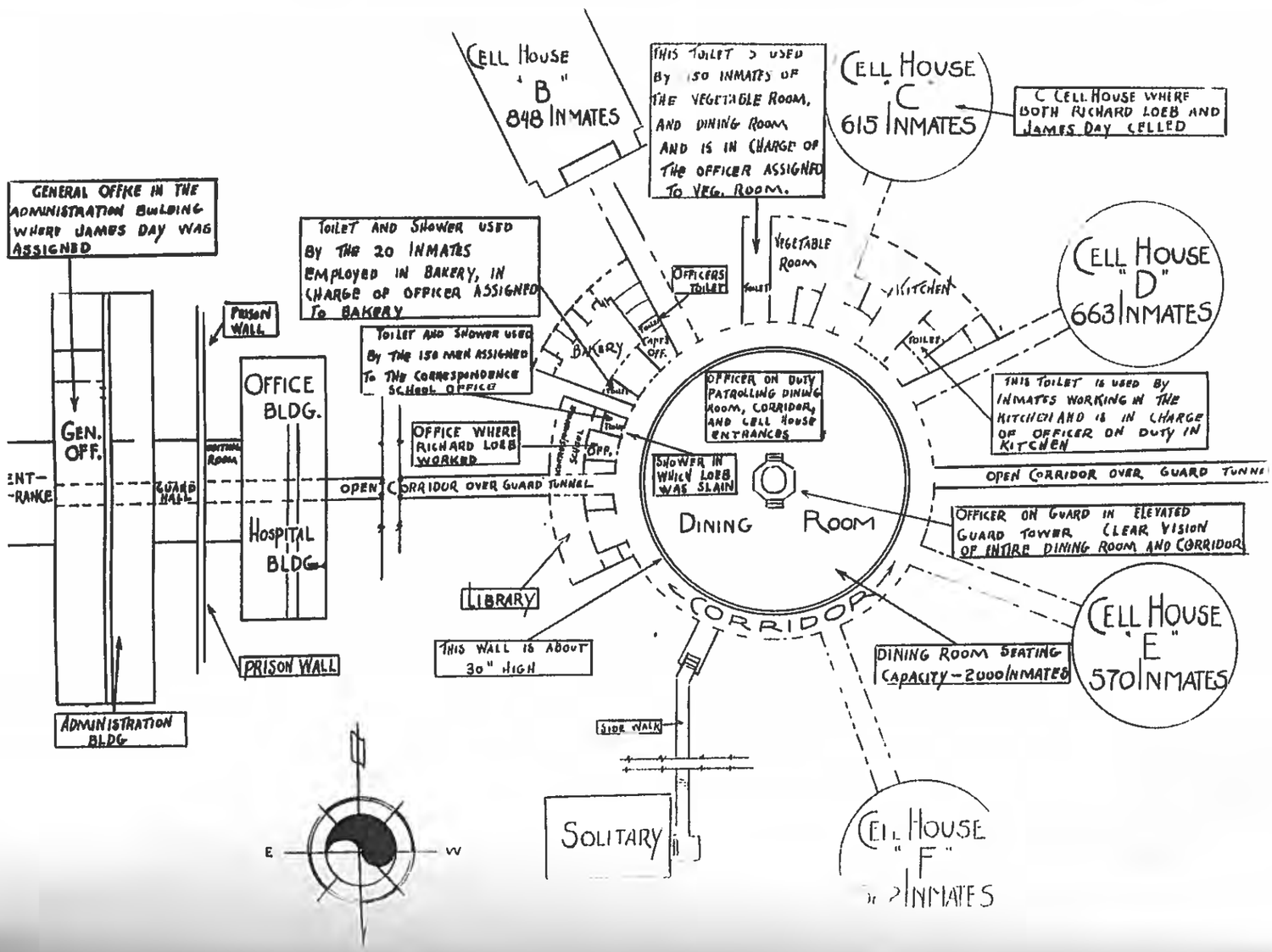


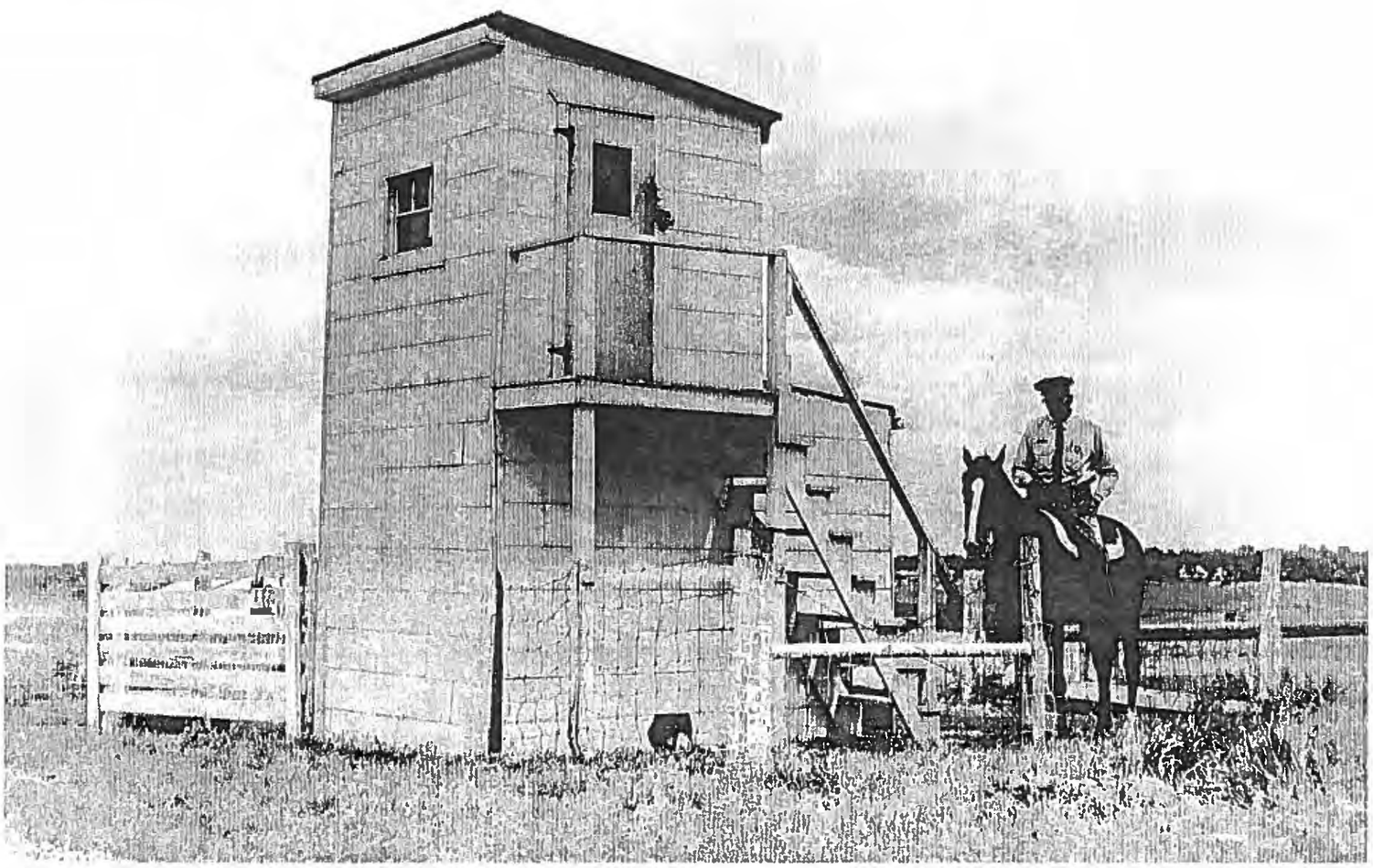


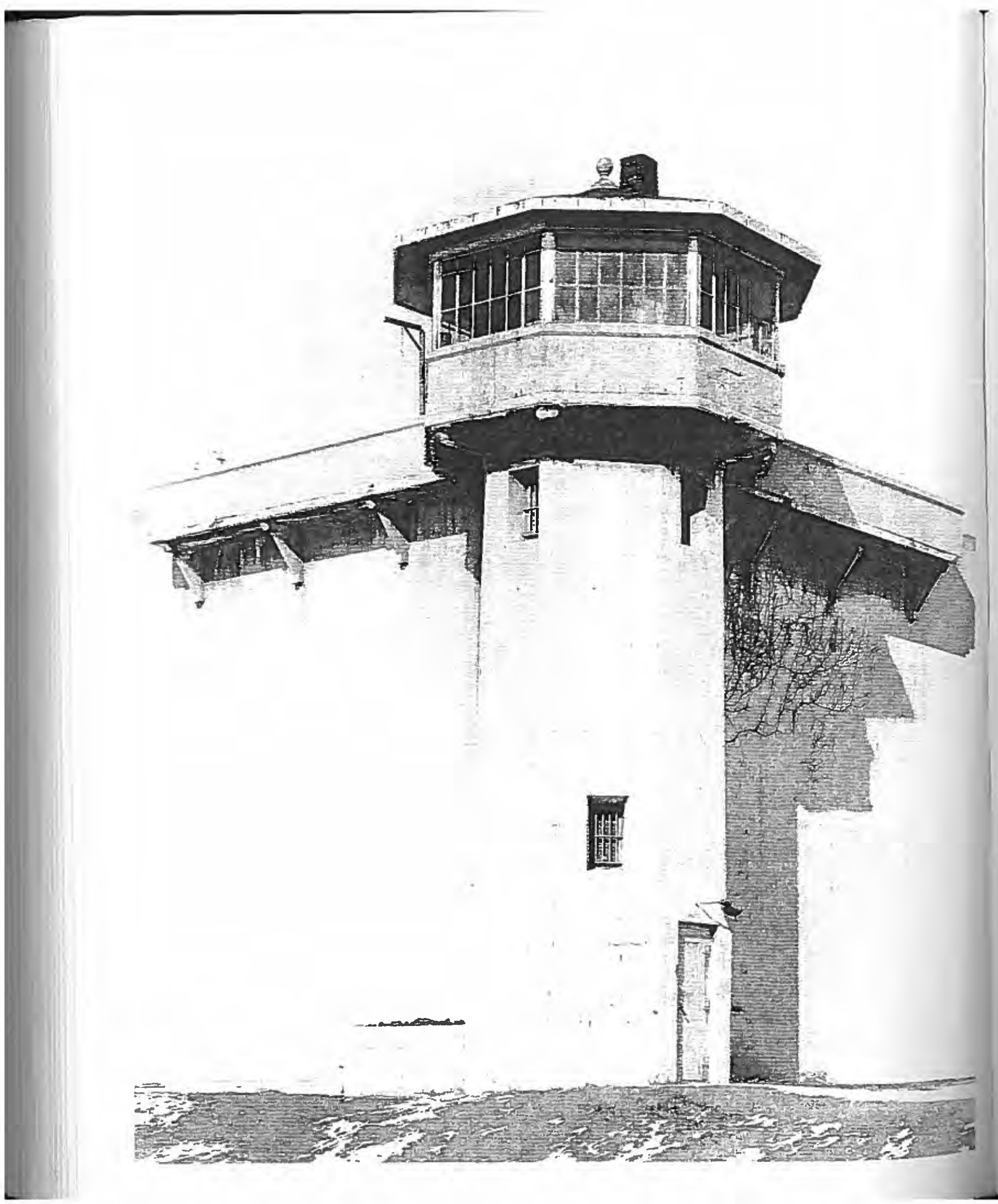


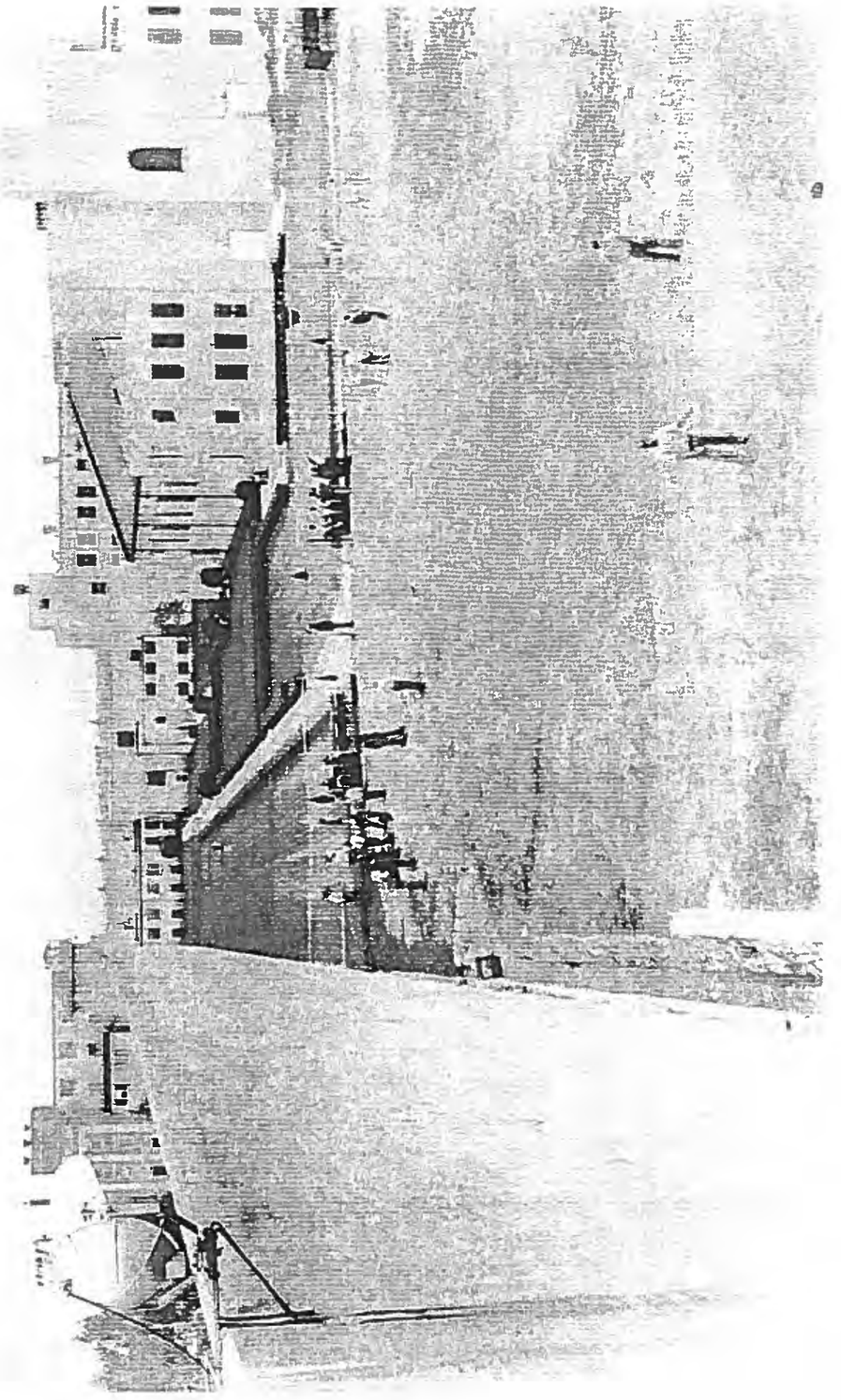



A
B
C
D
G
J
K
L


CELL HOUSE "B" 848 INMATES
THIS TOILET IS USED BY 150 INMATES OF THE VEGETABLE ROOM, AND DINING ROOM AND IS IN CHARGE OF THE OFFICER ASSIGNED TO VEG. ROOM.
CELL HOUSE "C" 615 INMATES
C CELL HOUSE WHERE BOTH RICHARD LOEB AND JAMES DAY CELLED
GENERAL OFFICE IN THE ADMINISTRATION BUILDING WHERE JAMES DAY WAS ASSIGNED
TOILET AND SHOWER USED BY THE 20 INMATES EMPLOYED IN BAKERY, IN CHARGE OF OFFICER ASSIGNED TO BAKERY
VEGETABLE ROOM
OFFICERS TOILET
KITCHEN
CELL HOUSE "D" 663 INMATES
PRISON WALL
BAKERY
TOILET AND SHOWER USED BY THE 150 MEN ASSIGNED TO THE CORRESPONDENCE SCHOOL OFFICES
OFFICE BLDG.
GEN. OFF.
OFFICE WHERE RICHARD LOEB WORKED
OFFICER ON DUTY PATROLLING DINING ROOM, CORRIDOR, AND CELL HOUSE ENTRANCES
THIS TOILET IS USED BY INMATES WORKING IN THE KITCHEN AND IS IN CHARGE OF OFFICER ON DUTY IN KITCHEN
SHOWER IN WHICH LOEB WAS SLAIN
OPEN CORRIDOR OVER GUARD TUNNEL
DINING ROOM
OFFICER ON GUARD IN ELEVATED GUARD TOWER CLEAR VISION OF ENTIRE DINING ROOM AND CORRIDOR
HOSPITAL BLDG.
LIBRARY
CORRIDOR
CELL HOUSE "E" 570 INMATES
THIS WALL IS ABOUT 30" HIGH
DINING ROOM SEATING CAPACITY - 2000 INMATES
PRISON WALL
SIDE WALK
ADMINISTRATION BLDG
SOLITARY
CELL HOUSE "F" 72 INMATES
E
W







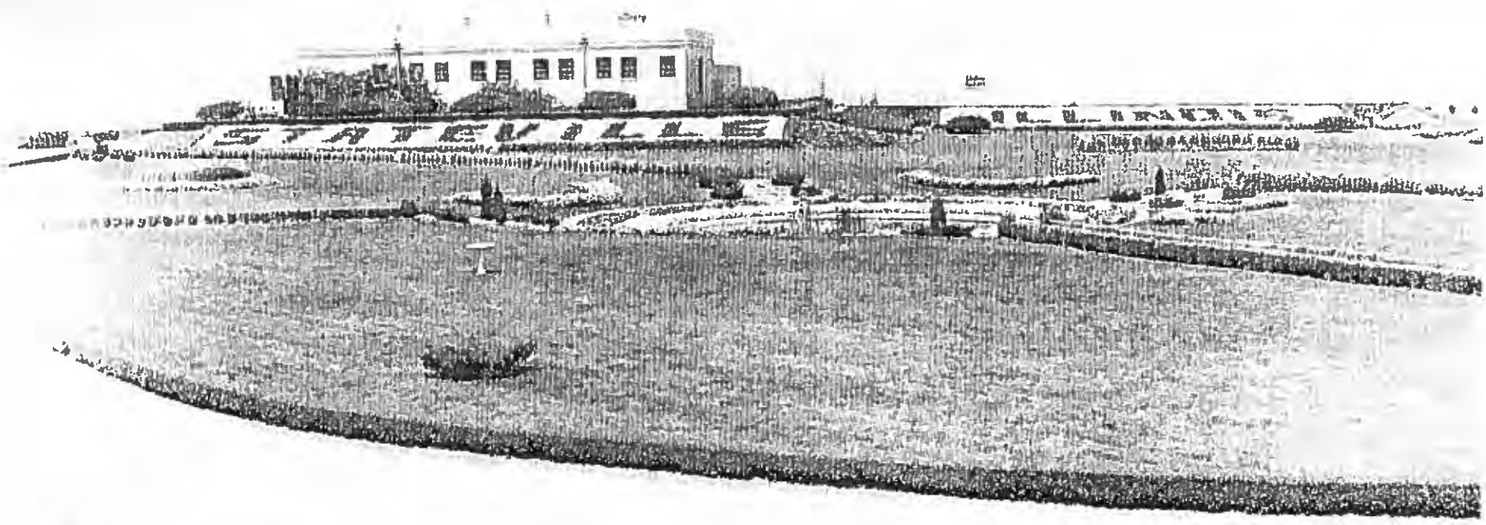






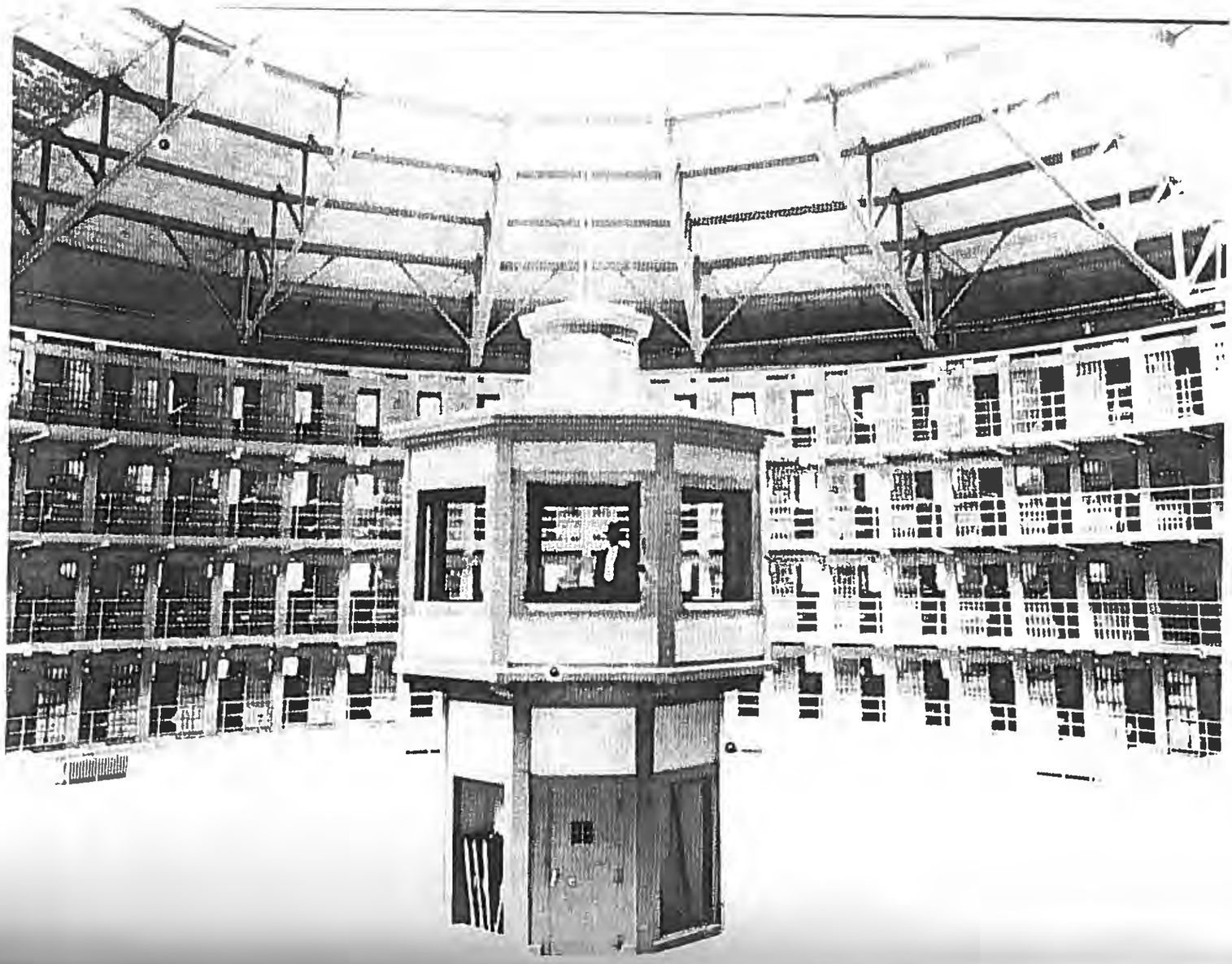


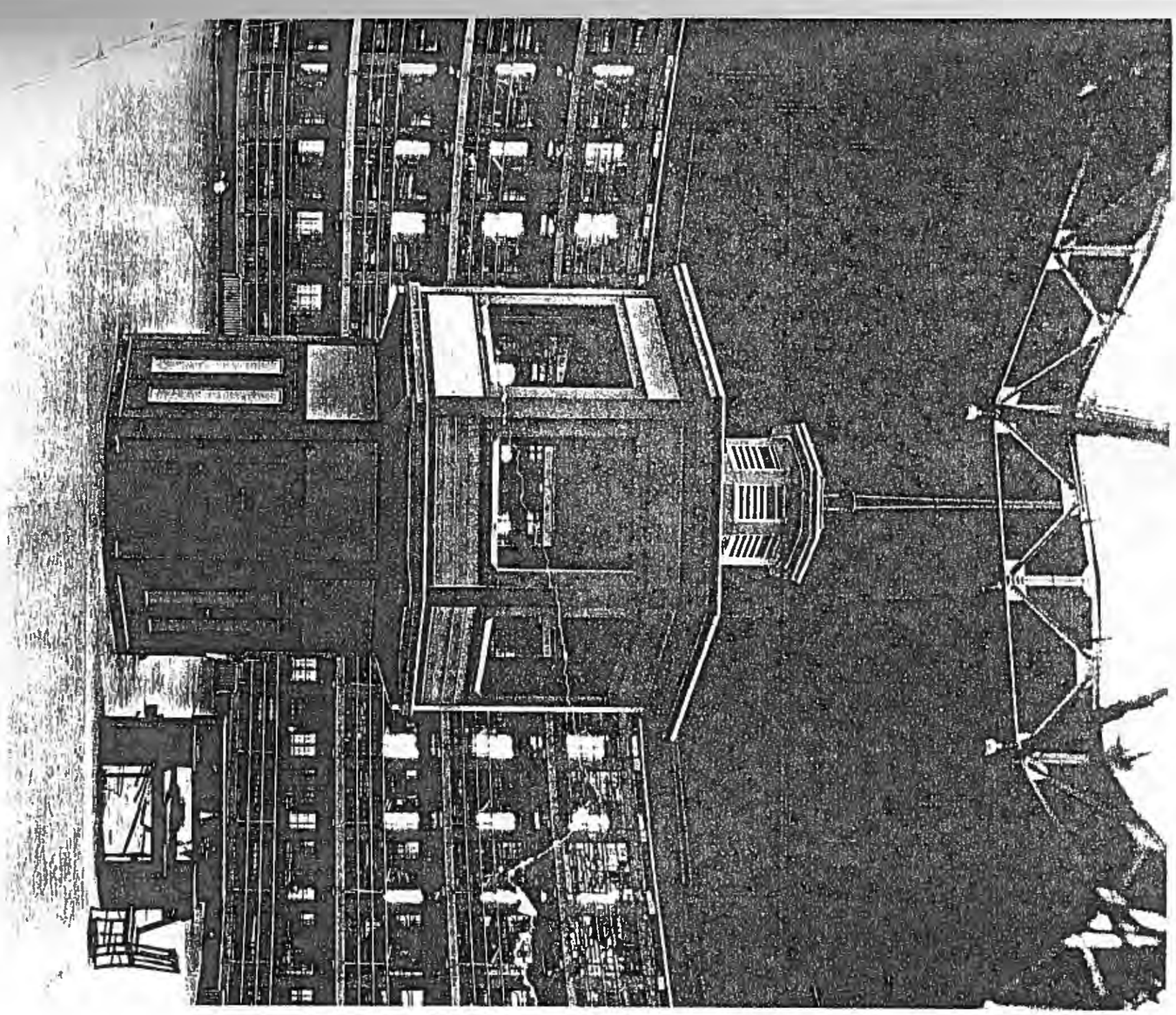

STATE ST.
MADISON ST.

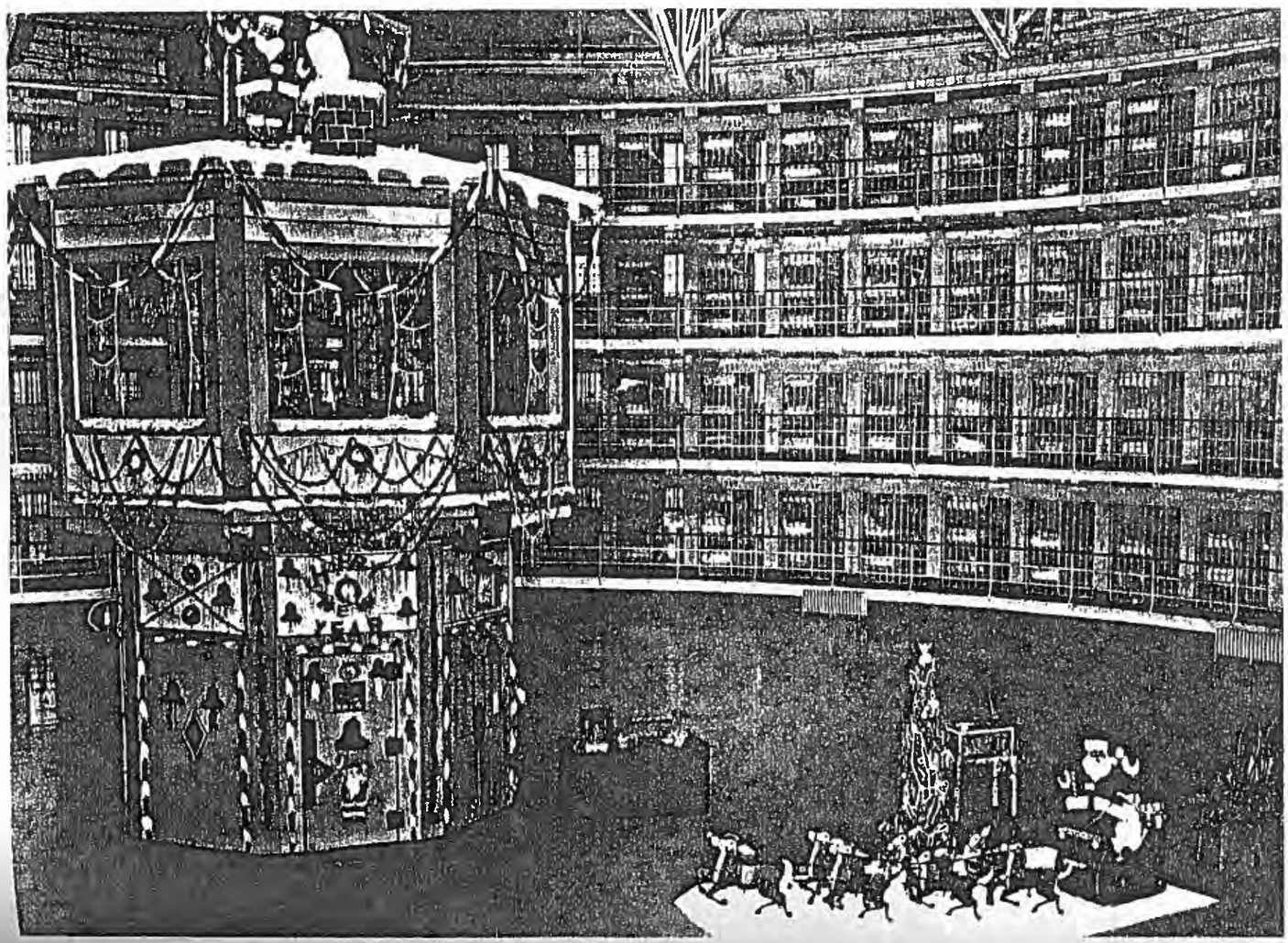





ILLINOIS







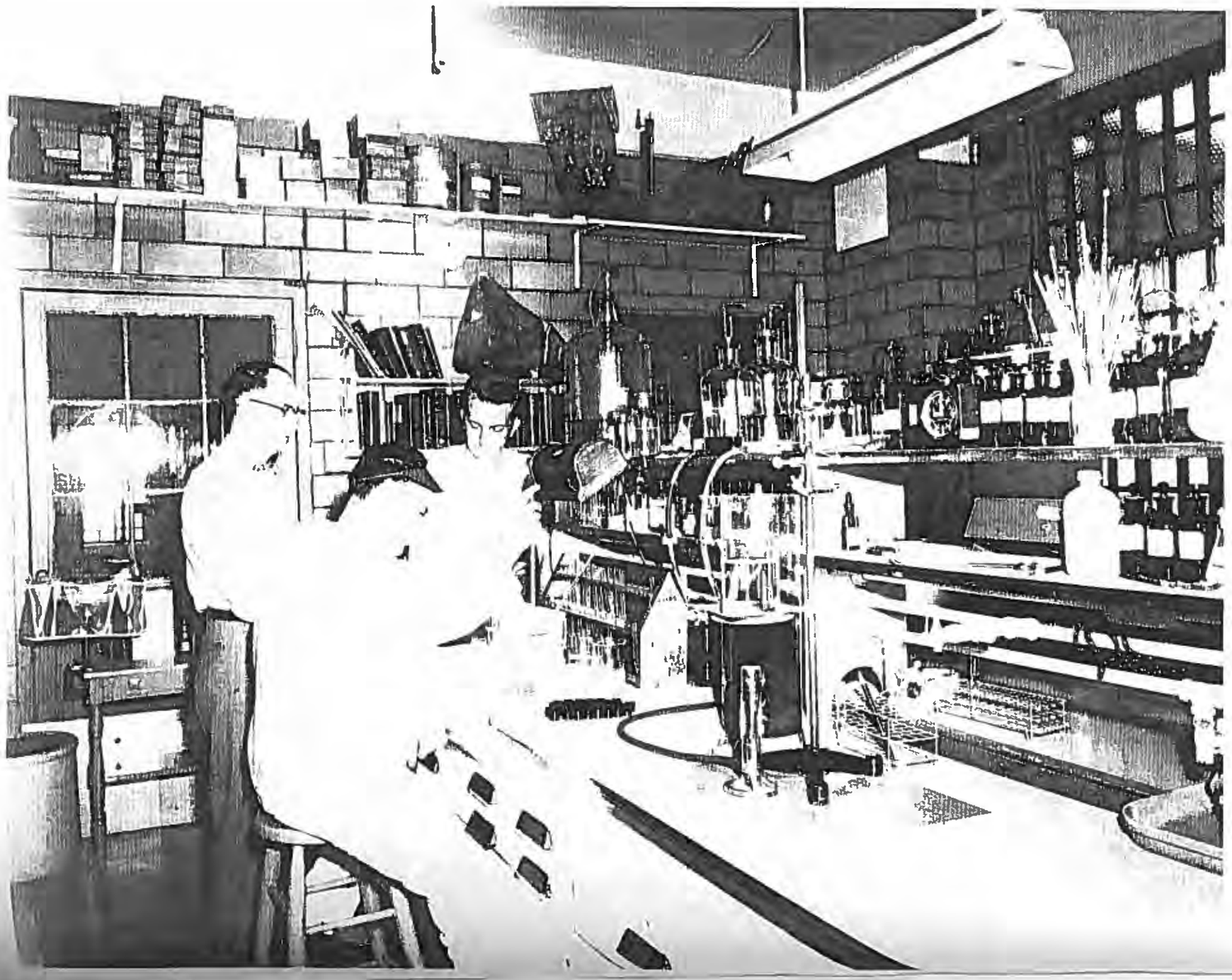

MERRY XMAS

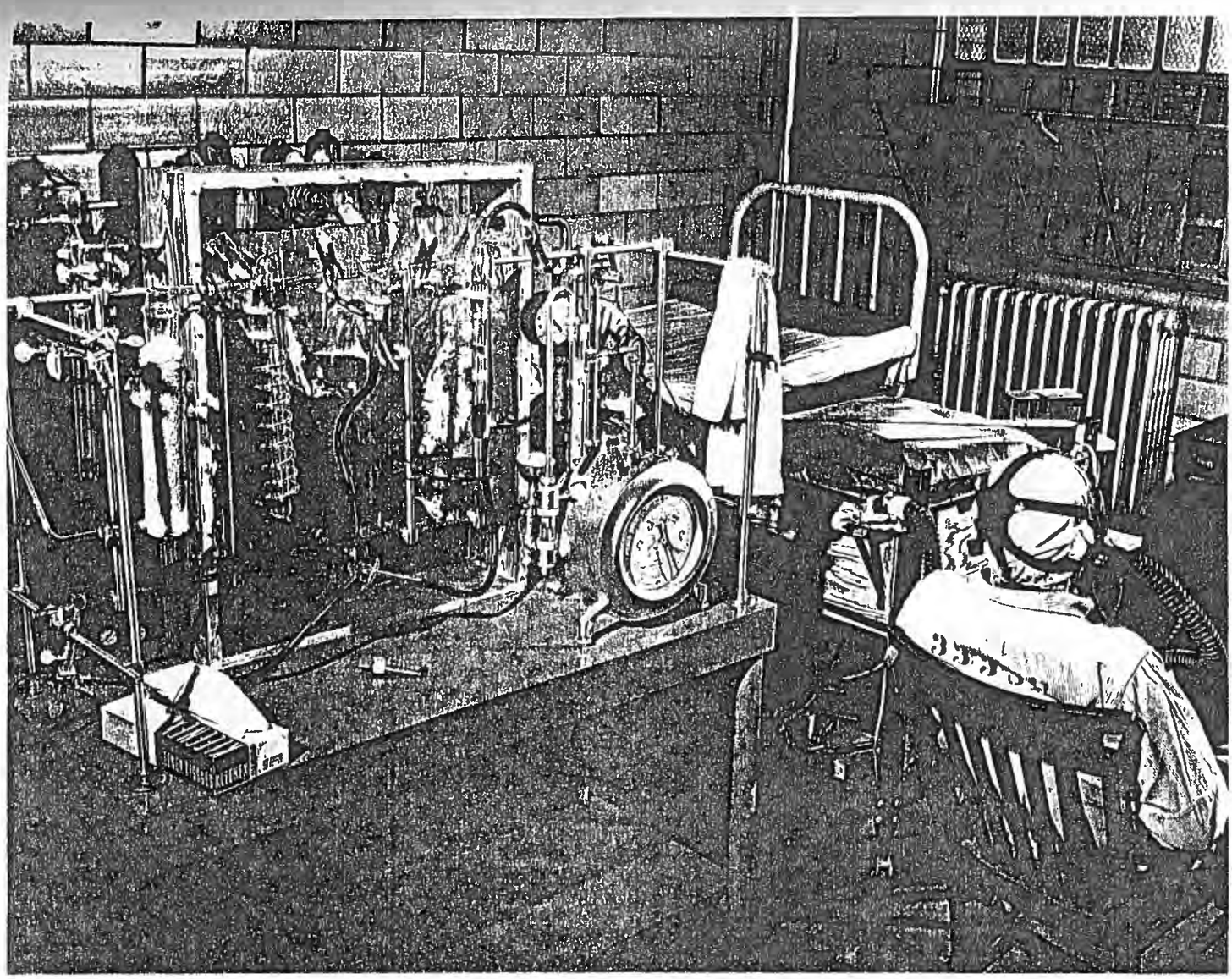


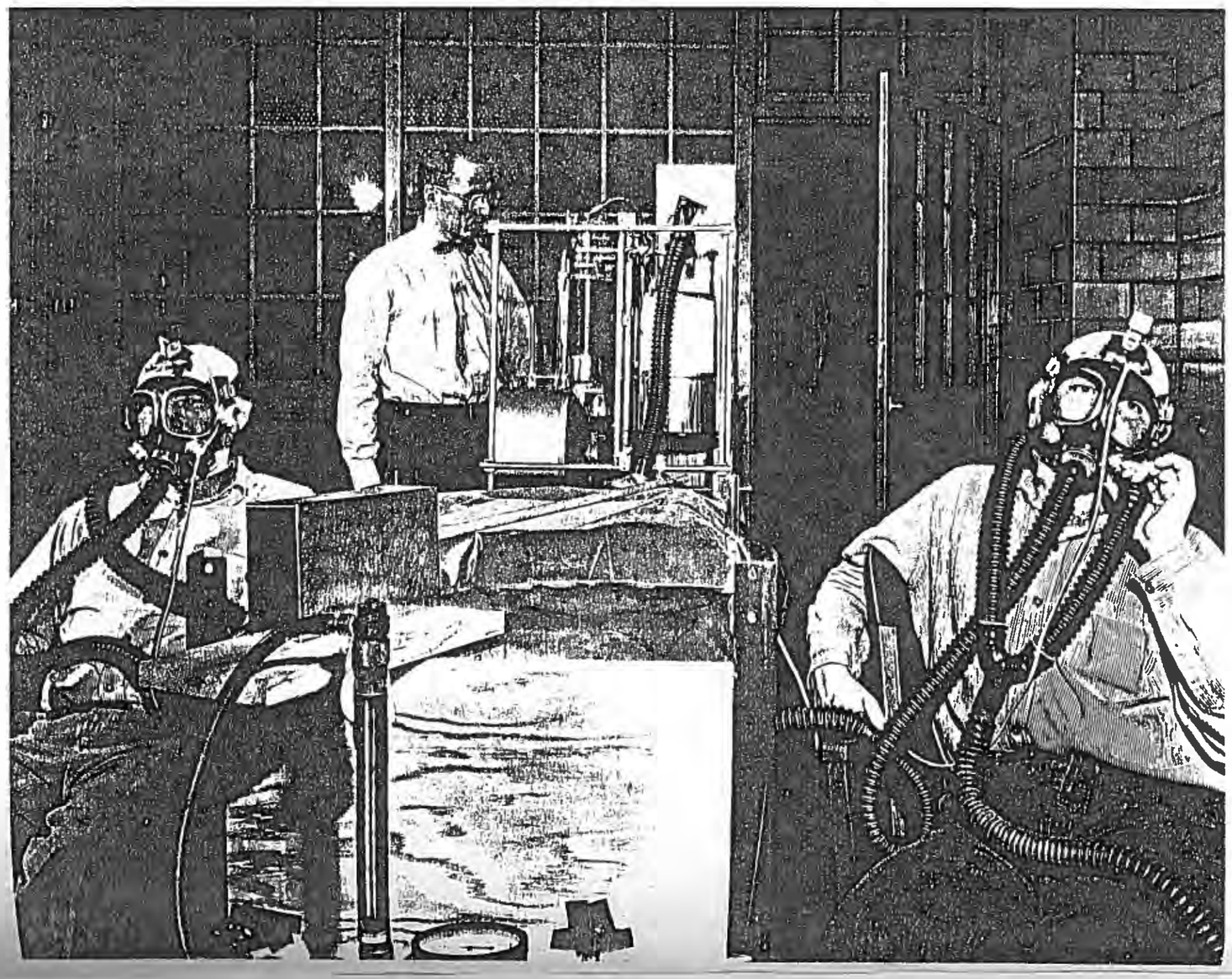

PHYSIOLO
CHAR
4
5
6

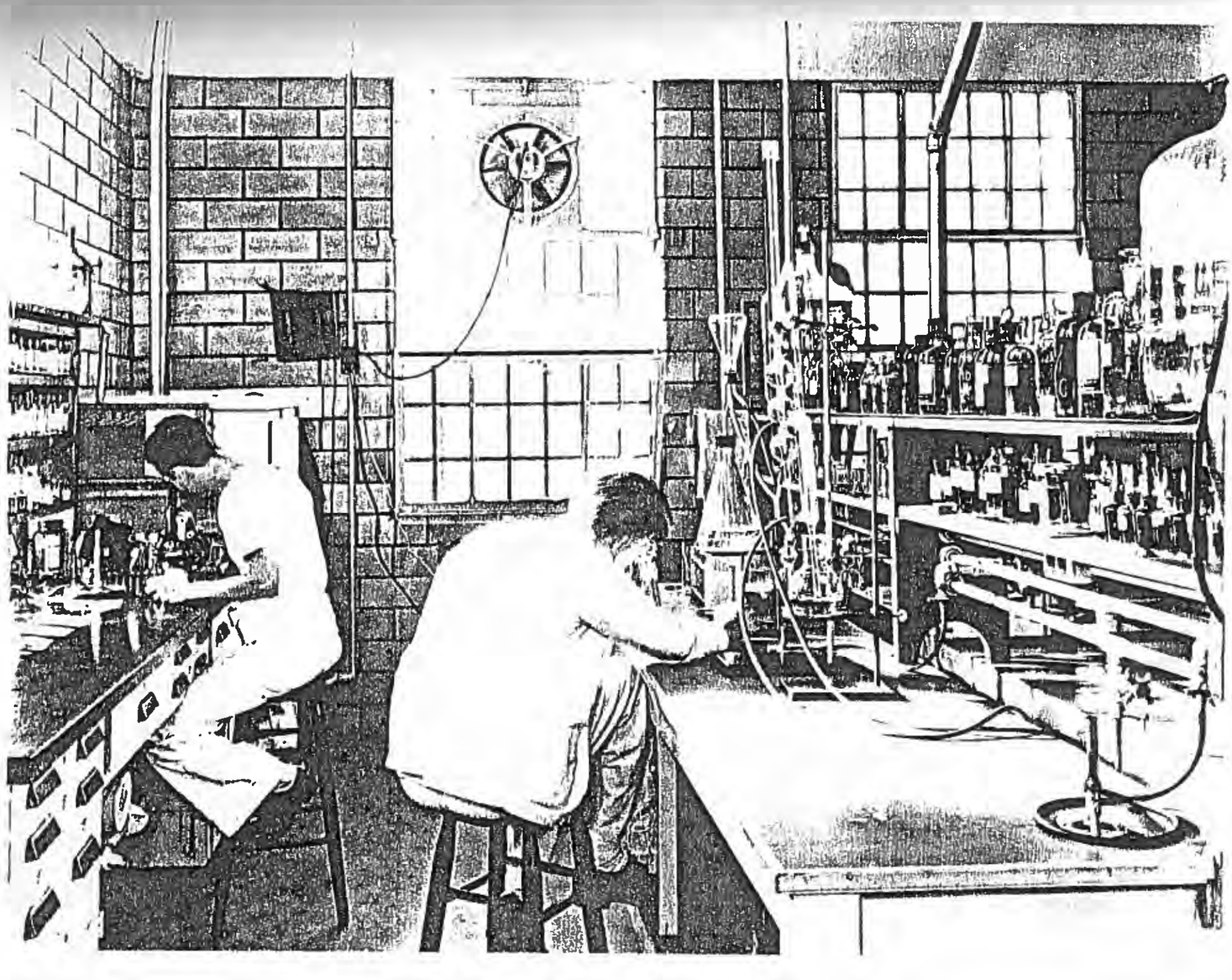


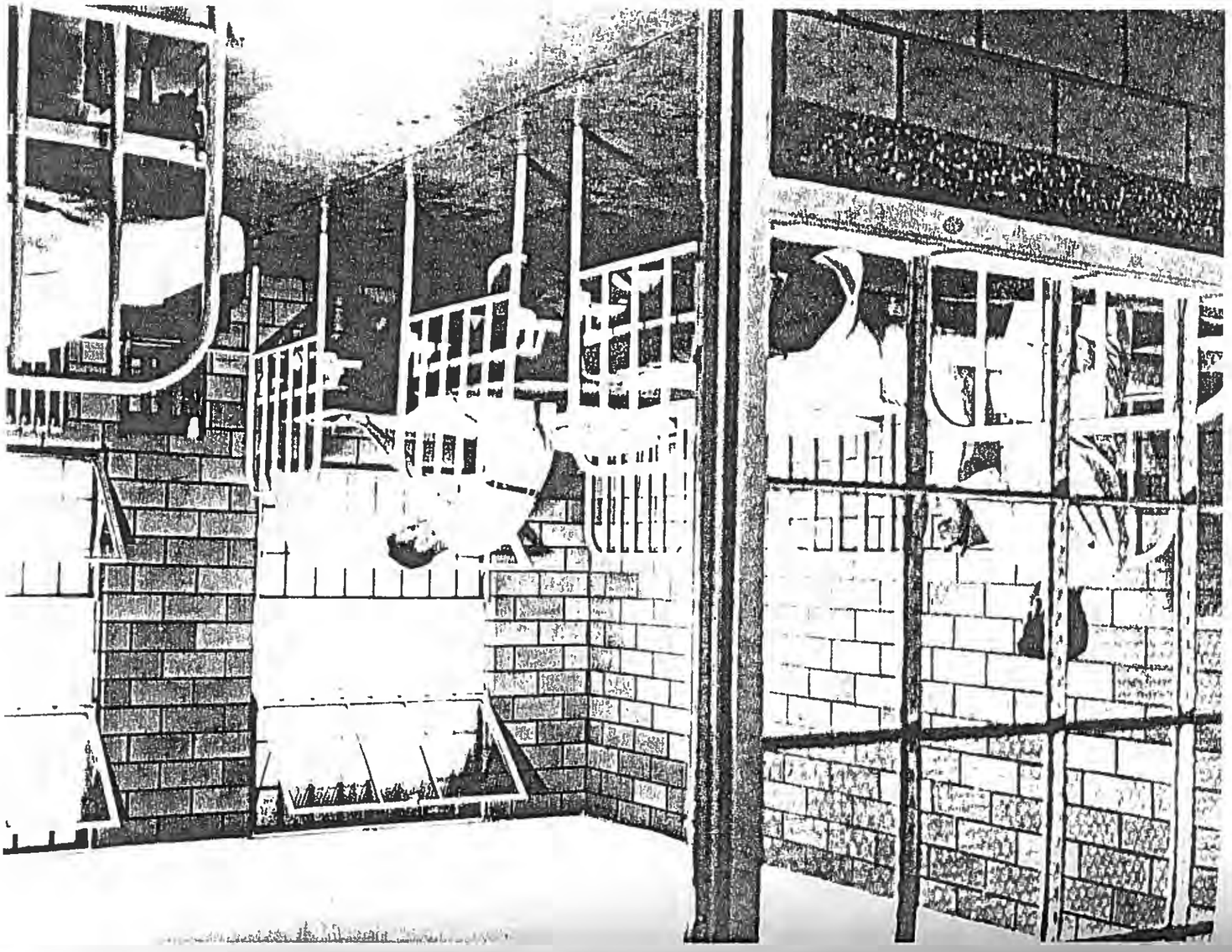


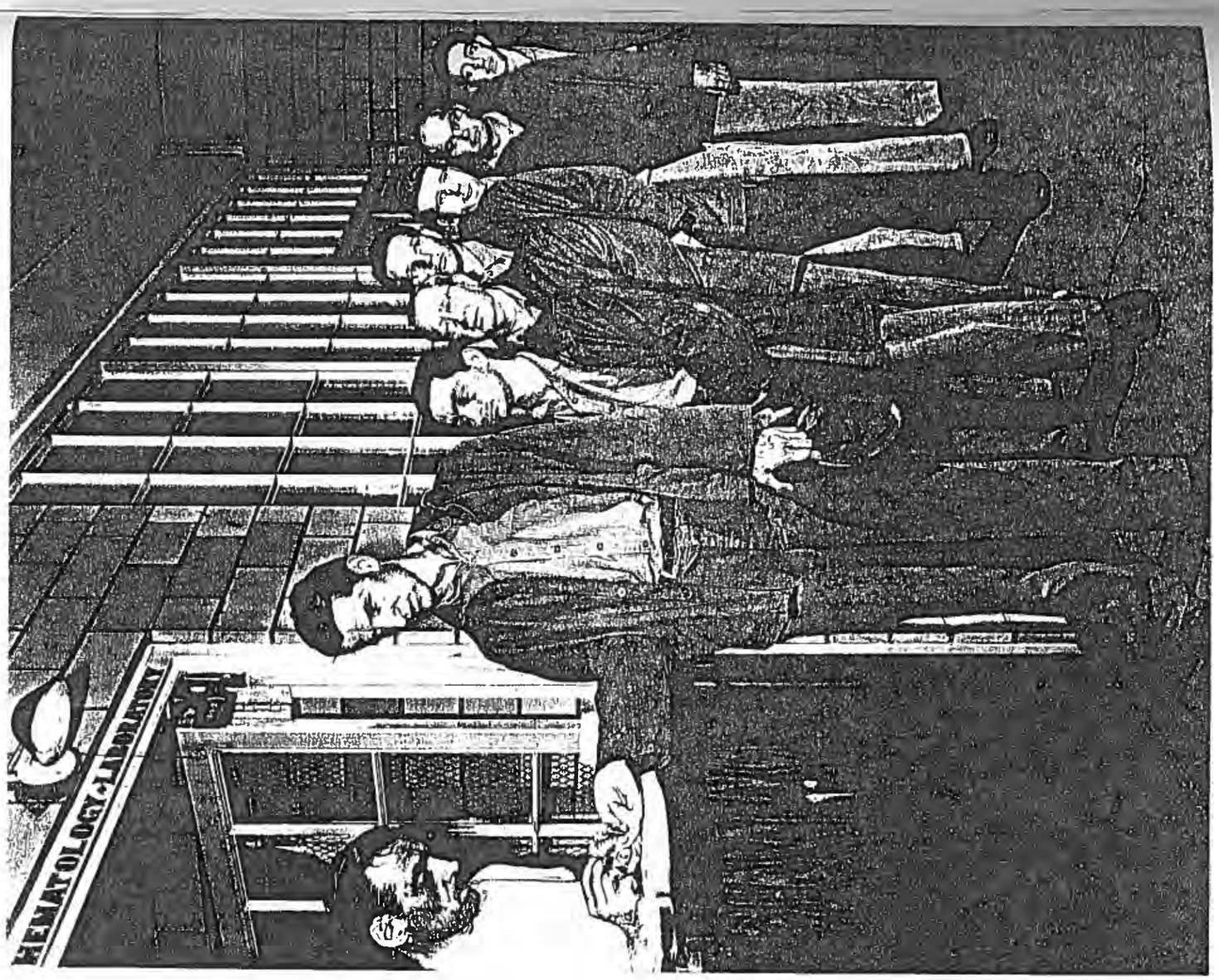


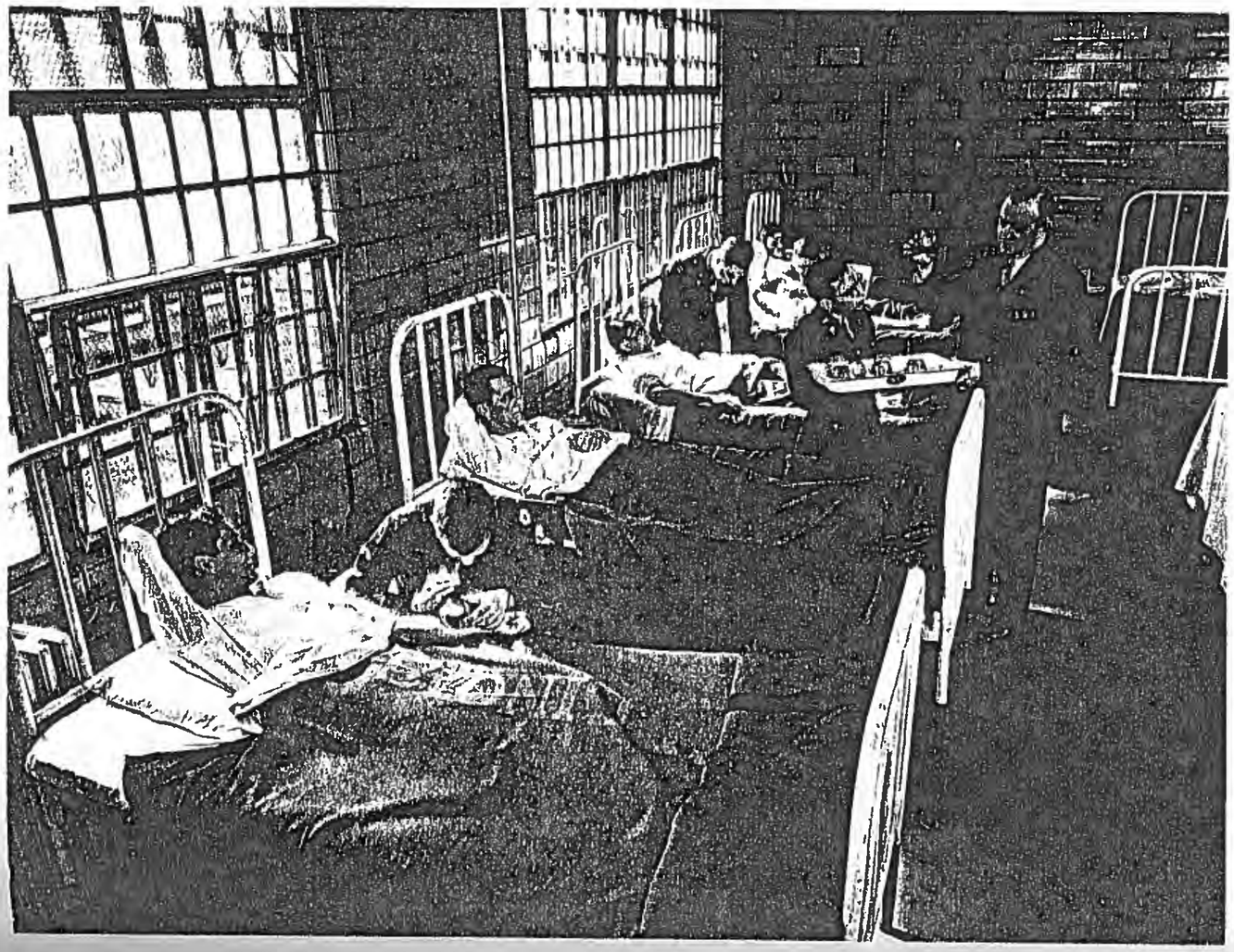




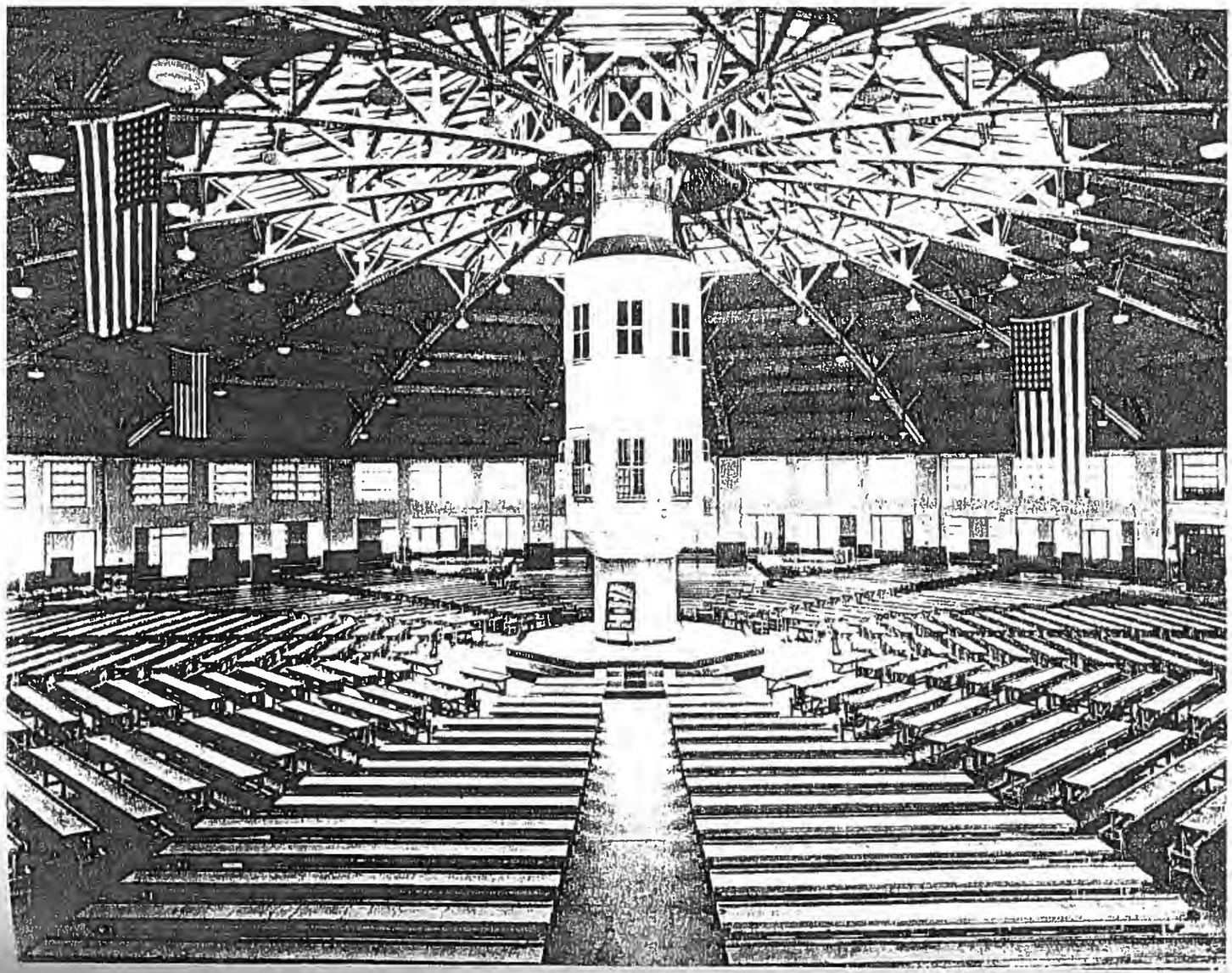


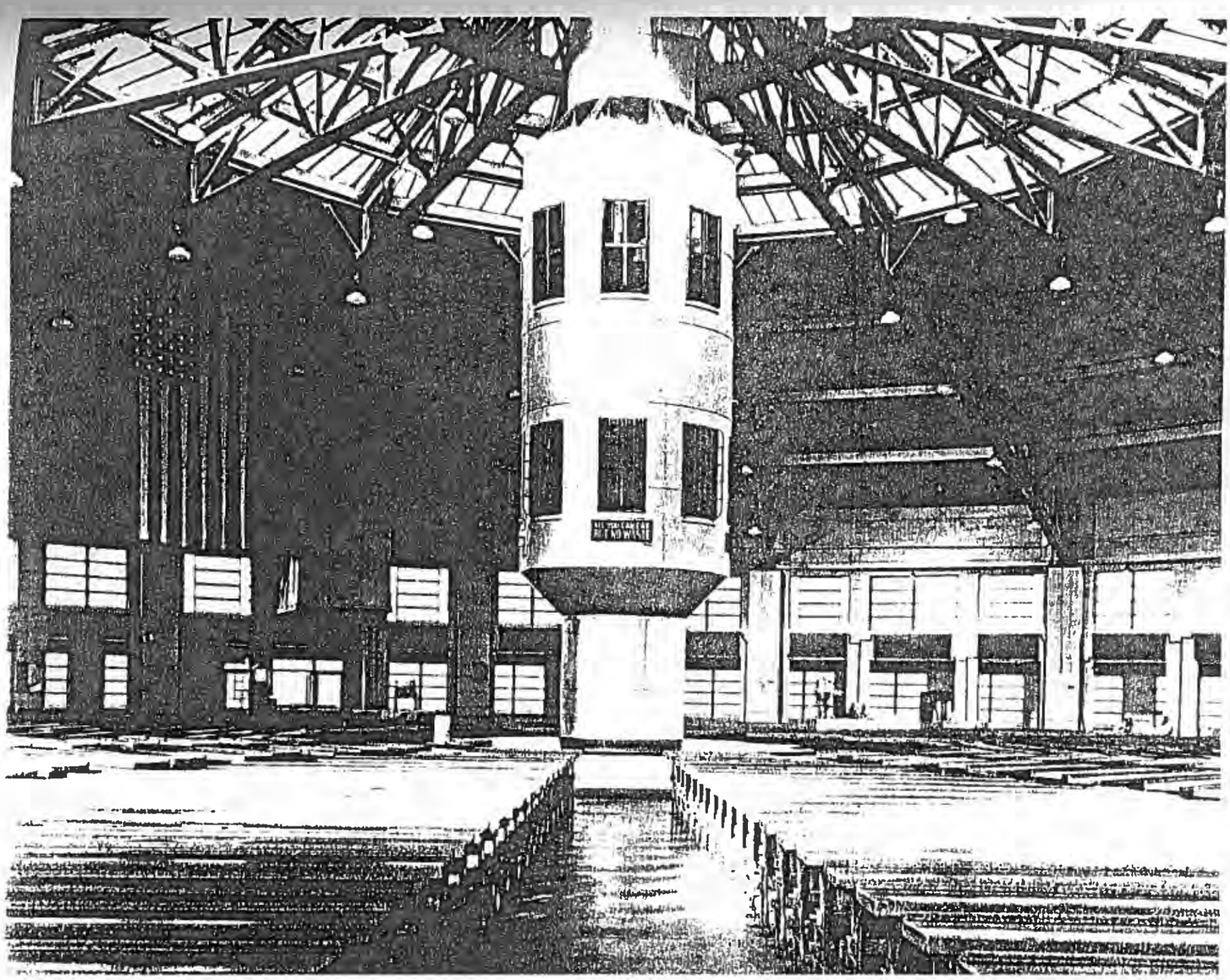


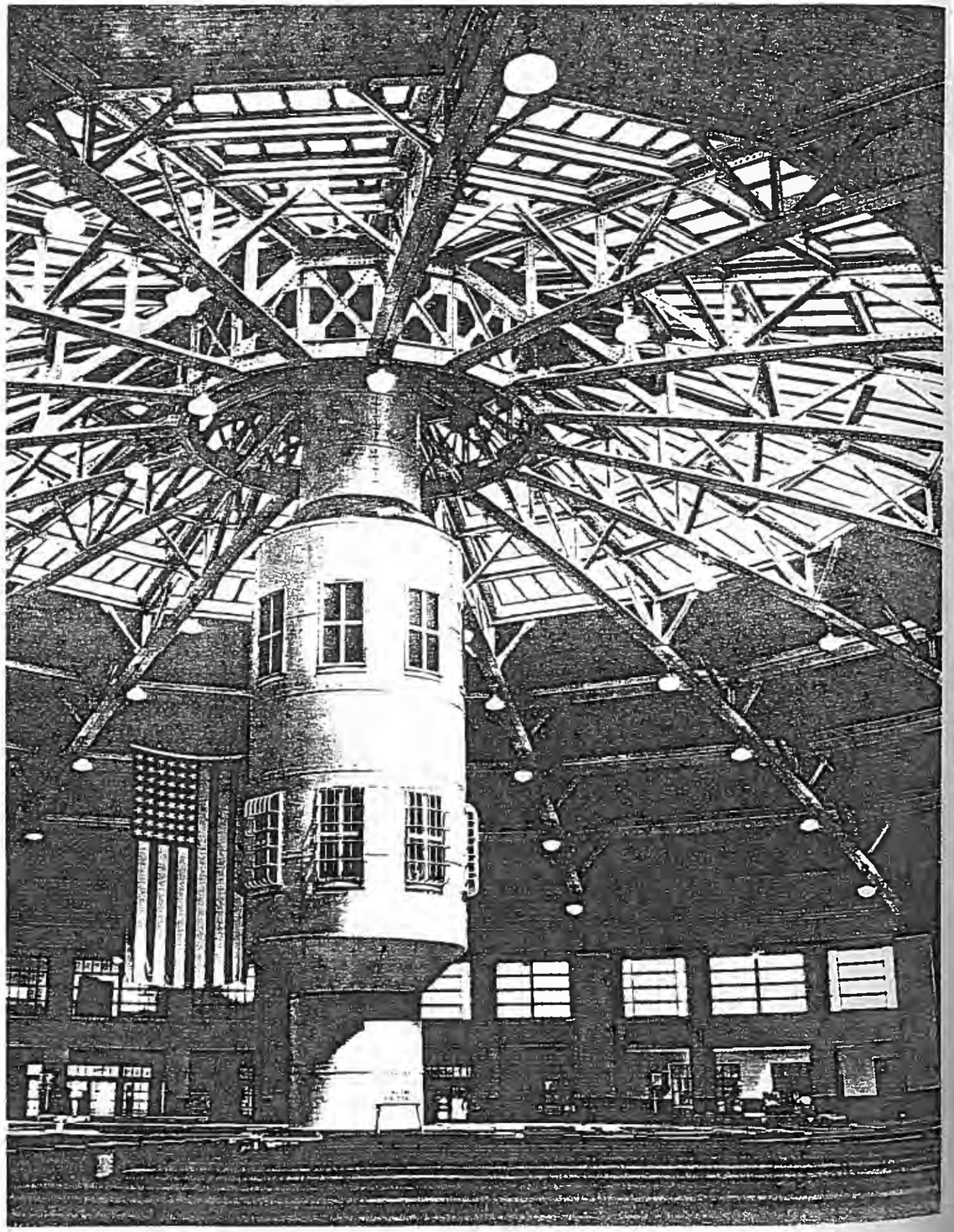

HEMATOLOGY LABORATORY

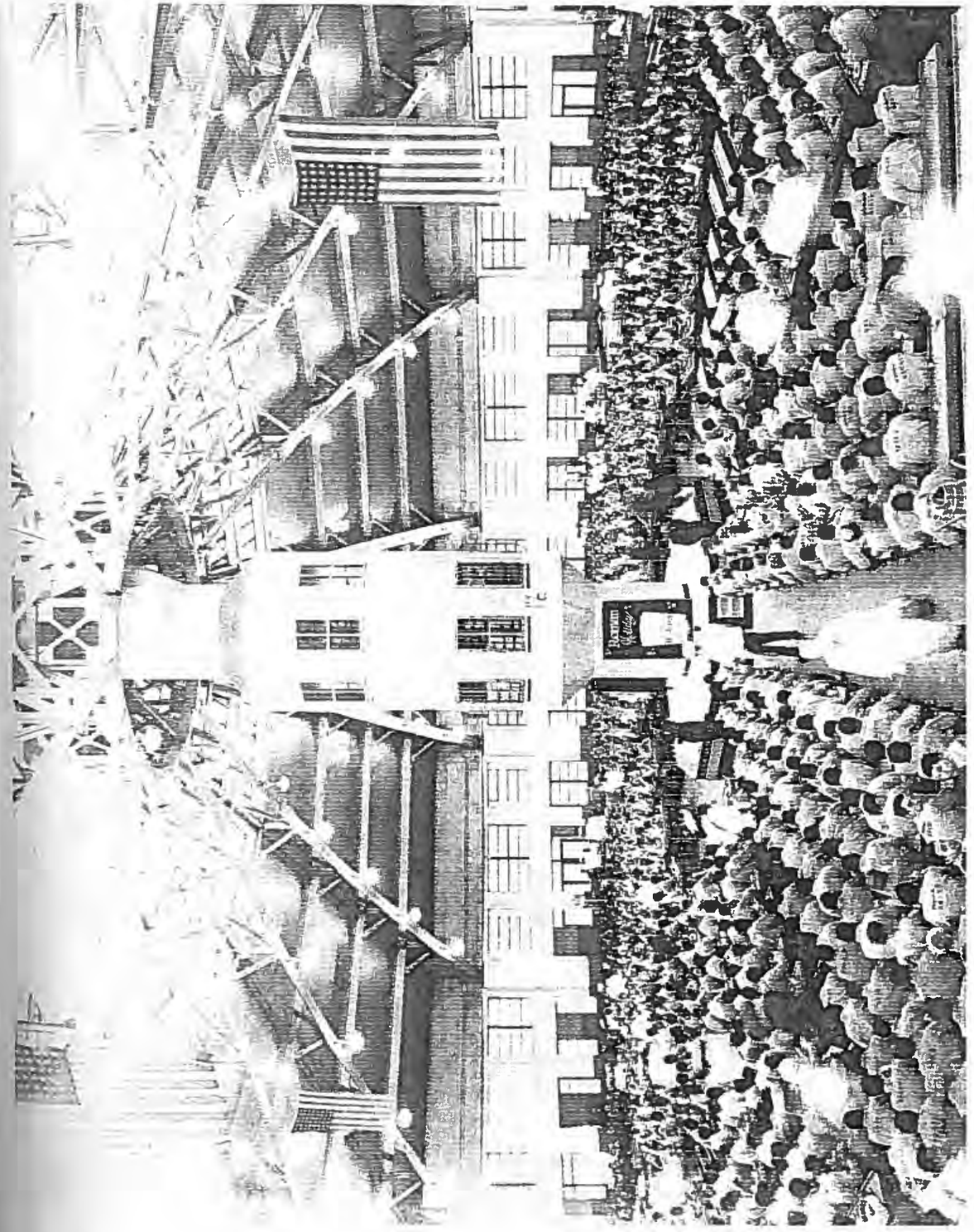


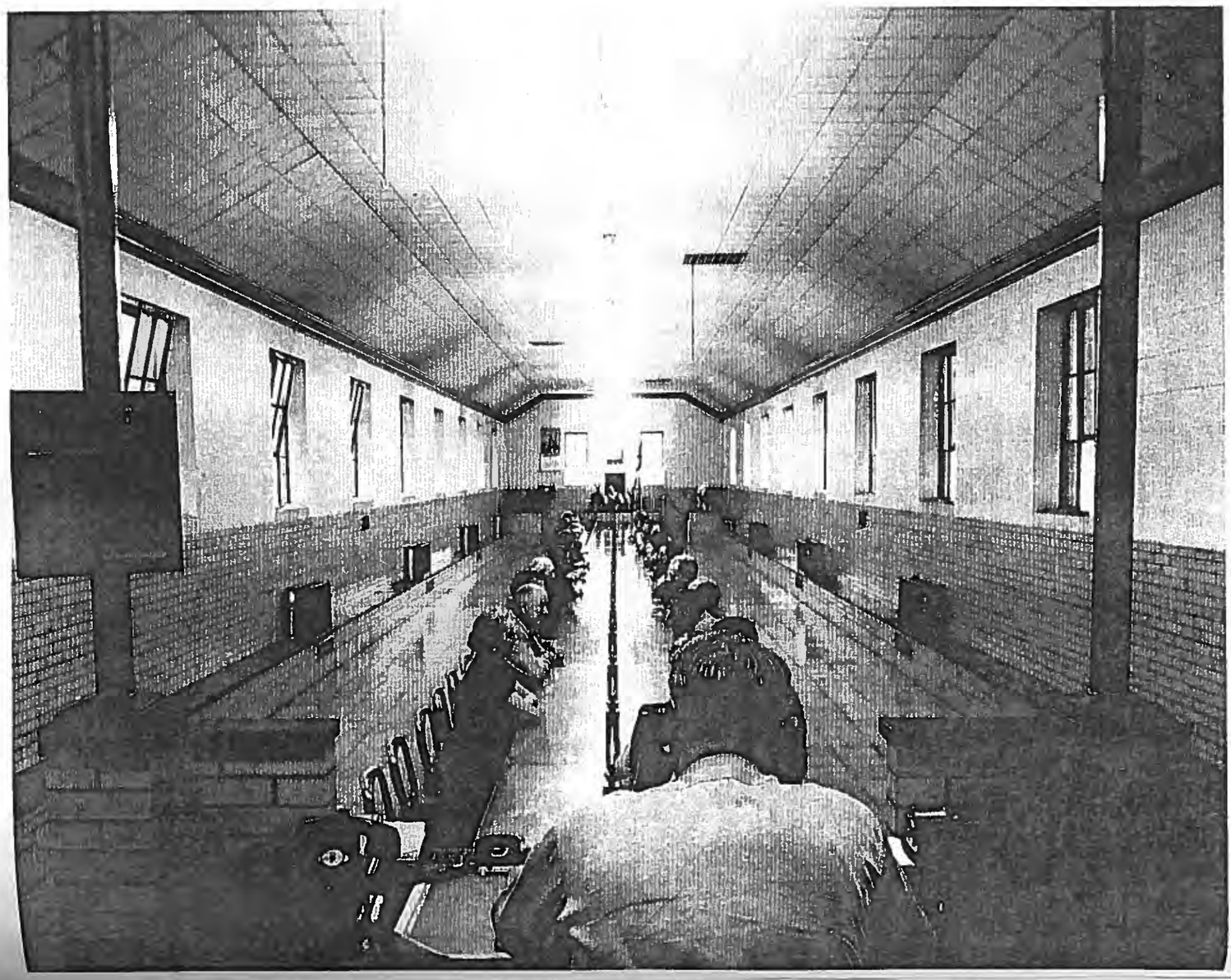




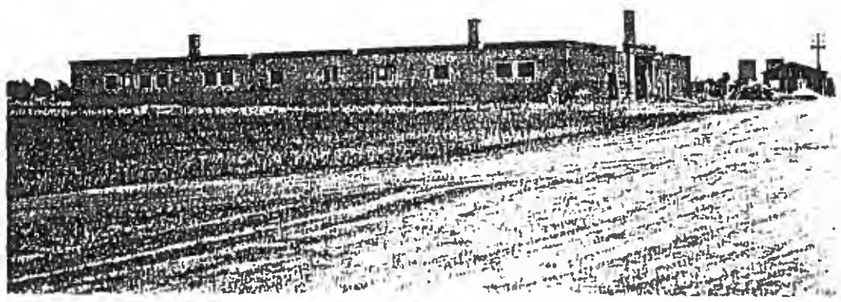


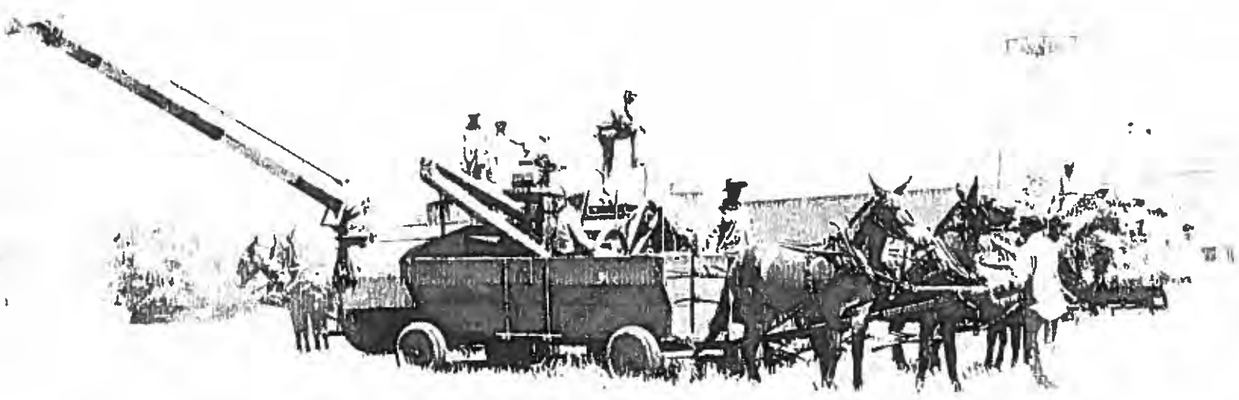




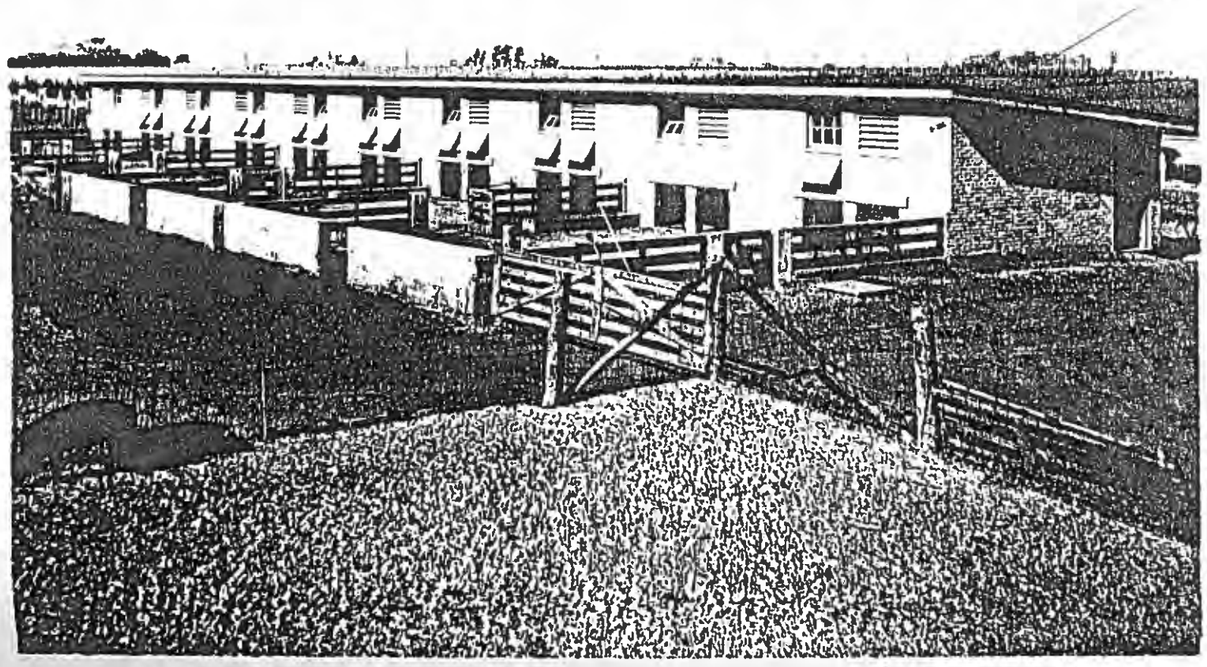




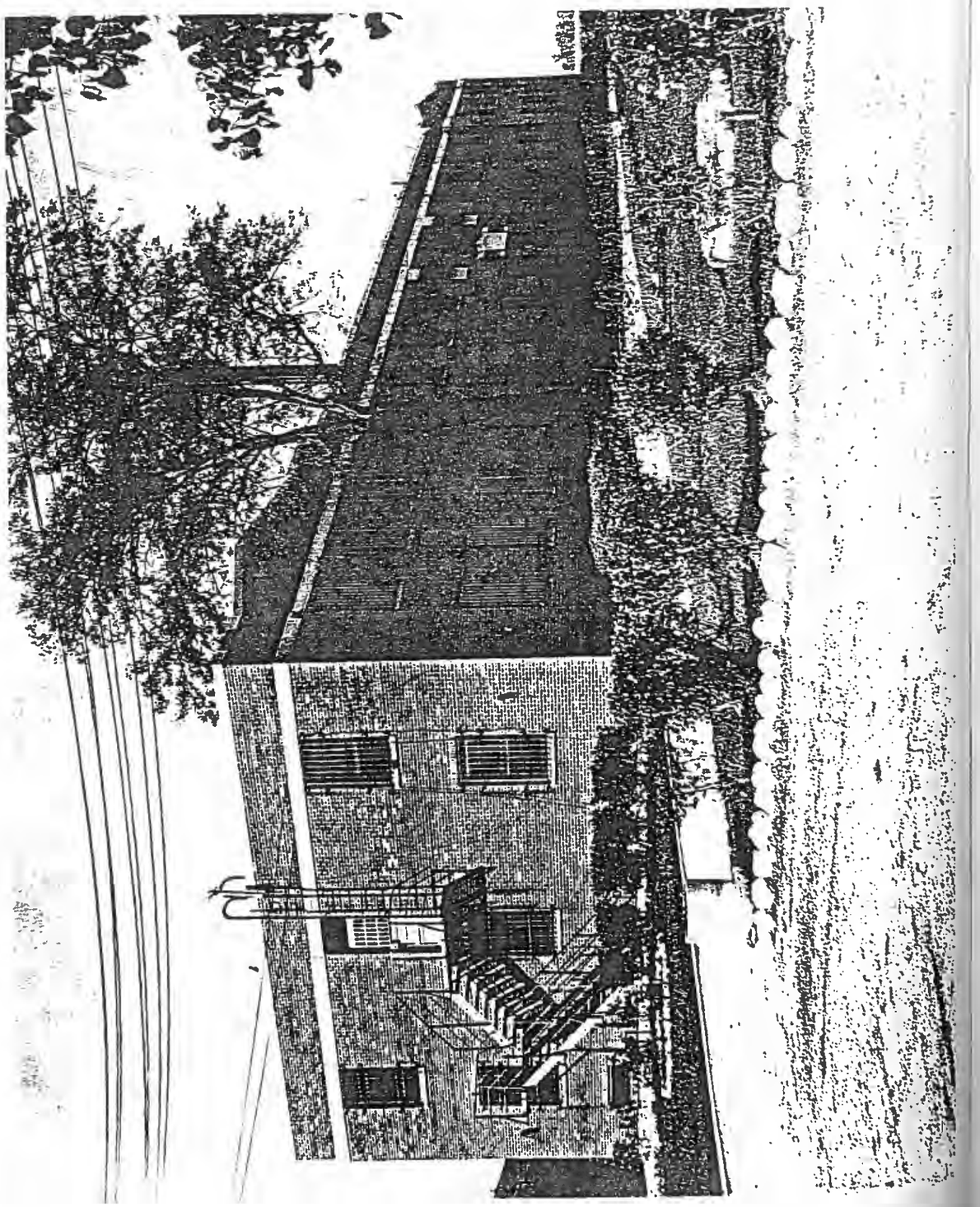




EXTERIOR OF HOG HOUSE
COMPLETED 1944





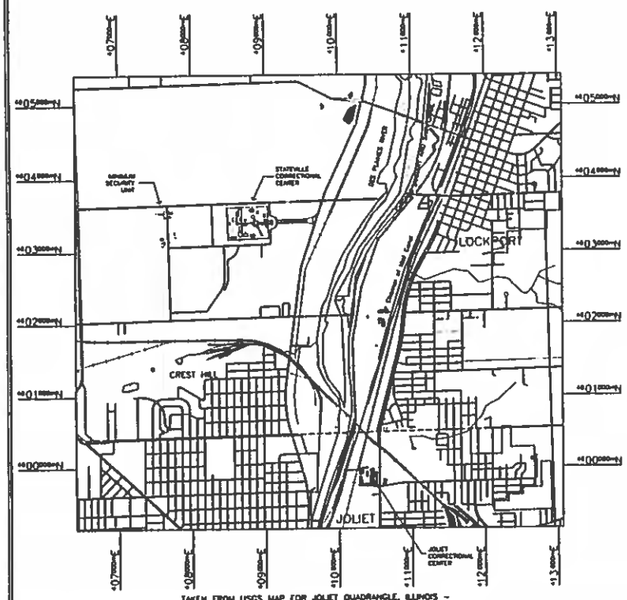


D. Xerographic Reproductions of Documentation Drawings

1. Reductions of archival mylar sheets 1 through 7: Stateville Correctional Center, IL HABS No. WI-1997-1

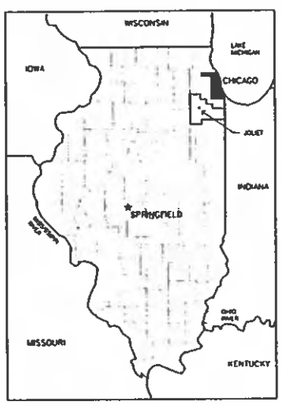
2. Old Hospital, IL HABS No. WI-1997-1-A (four pages)

STATEVILLE CORRECTIONAL CENTER



TAKEN FROM USGS MAP FOR JOLIET QUADRANGLE, ILLINOIS - WILL COUNTY
7.5 MINUTE SERIES, EDITED 1993

LOCATION MAP
SCALE IN MILES 1" = 2000'
SCALE IN KILOMETERS 1:24000



REGION MAP - ILLINOIS
NOT TO SCALE

STATEVILLE CORRECTIONAL CENTER WAS PLANNED AND CONSTRUCTED IN THE LATE 1910s AND 1920s, WHEN THE STATE OF ILLINOIS WAS IMPLEMENTING ITS "PROGRESSIVE MERIT SYSTEM," WHICH UTILIZED INDETERMINATE SENTENCING, INMATE CLASSIFICATION, AND PAROLE REVIEW IN CONJUNCTION WITH INDUSTRIAL WORKSHOPS AND VOCATIONAL AND EDUCATIONAL TRAINING TO RETURN REFORMED CRIMINALS TO SOCIETY. AS ORIGINALLY PLANNED BY ARCHITECT W. CARBYS ZIMMERMAN AND THE ILLINOIS PENITENTIARY COMMISSION, STATEVILLE WAS THE ARCHITECTURAL EMBODIMENT OF THE PROGRESSIVE MERIT SYSTEM, WITH THE REQUIREMENTS FOR ALL CUSTODIAL SECURITY LEVELS LOCATED IN ONE INSTITUTION.

THE PRISON WAS TO HOUSE WITHIN ITS 84 ACRE WALLED ENCLOSURE EIGHT PANOPTICON CELLHOUSES ORGANIZED AROUND A CIRCULAR DINING HALL, WITH ADDITIONAL CORRIDORS LEADING TO A CHAPEL, A HOSPITAL, AND SEVERAL INDUSTRIAL WORKSHOPS. THE FACILITY WAS REVOLUTIONARY IN ITS CONSTRUCTION, USING REINFORCED CONCRETE STRUCTURAL FRAMING SYSTEMS, INDUSTRIAL STEEL WINDOW SASH, AND OTHER ELEMENTS OF EMERGING TWENTIETH CENTURY MODERN ARCHITECTURE. MANY OF THESE BUILDINGS WERE CONSTRUCTED WITH THE ASSISTANCE OF INMATE LABOR.

HOWEVER, THE INITIAL PERIOD OF THE FACILITY'S CONSTRUCTION COINCIDED WITH THE AMERICAN "EXPERIMENT" WITH PROHIBITION, LEADING TO CRIMINAL ACTIVITY THAT GRADUALLY FILLED AND OVERFILLED THE NATION'S JAILS. STATEVILLE, EVEN BEFORE ITS COMPLETION, WAS REQUIRED TO HOLD SIGNIFICANTLY MORE INMATES THAN IT WAS DESIGNED FOR, AND DISCIPLINE AND ORDER AMONG THE PRISON POPULATION WAS LAX. WITHIN A DECADE OF THE START OF CONSTRUCTION, CORRECTIONS AUTHORITIES IN THE STATE DEVIATED FROM THE ORIGINAL ARCHITECTURAL DESIGNS WITH SUBSEQUENT CONSTRUCTION WORK. WITH ONLY FOUR PANOPTICON CELLHOUSES BUILT, THE STATE NEXT CONSTRUCTED THE GIGANTIC CELLHOUSE B, REPORTEDLY ONE OF THE LARGEST AUBURN PLAN CELLHOUSES IN THE NATION AND IN THE WORLD. OTHER BUILDINGS, INCLUDING THE HOSPITAL DATING FROM 1934, ALSO DEVIATED FROM ORIGINAL PLANS. THESE SUCCEEDING BUILDINGS, DESIGNED UNDER THE DIRECTION OF C. HERRICK HAMMOND, F.A.I.A., STATE OF ILLINOIS ARCHITECT, UTILIZED THE LATEST PLANNING AND CONSTRUCTION TECHNIQUES.

IN THE MID-1930S, A WARDEN WAS APPOINTED WHO, IN MANY RESPECTS, WAS STATEVILLE. JOSEPH RAGEN. WARDEN OF STATEVILLE FROM 1935 TO 1941 AND 1942 TO 1961, WAS ONE OF THE MOST INFLUENTIAL CORRECTIONS ADMINISTRATORS IN ILLINOIS AND THE UNITED STATES. RAGEN INSTITUTED POLICIES THAT LED TO A LONG PERIOD OF ORDER AND STABILITY, AT THE PRICE OF THE CONSTITUTIONAL RIGHTS OF INMATES OR TRULY STRIVING TOWARD A REHABILITATIVE PROGRAM.

NUMEROUS CHANGES HAVE OCCURRED IN CORRECTIONS ADMINISTRATION AND PRISON CULTURE SINCE THE RETIREMENT OF JOSEPH RAGEN. MANY OF THE BUILDINGS AT STATEVILLE BECAME OBSOLETE, LEADING TO THE DEMOLITION OF THREE OF THE FOUR PANOPTICON CELLHOUSES AND SEVERAL OTHER SMALLER BUILDINGS. NEW CONSTRUCTION INCLUDED FOUR NEW #-PLAN CELLHOUSES AND OTHER SUPPORT BUILDINGS. ONLY IN 1988, WITH THE COMPLETION OF THE "SUPER MAX" FAMOUS CORRECTIONAL CENTER, DID STATEVILLE CEASE TO BE THE "FLAGSHIP" OF ILLINOIS' PRISON SYSTEM.

THE STATEVILLE CORRECTIONAL CENTER DOCUMENTATION PROJECT WAS COMPLETED BY WSS, JANNEY, ELSTNER ASSOCIATES, INC. (WJE), IN ASSOCIATION WITH VHCI/HAMP ARCHITECTS (VHA) AND SPONSORED BY THE ILLINOIS HISTORIC PRESERVATION AGENCY AND THE CAPITAL DEVELOPMENT BOARD OF THE STATE OF ILLINOIS. ASSISTANCE WITH THE ON-SITE DOCUMENTATION AND RESEARCH WAS PROVIDED BY THE DEPARTMENT OF CORRECTIONS OF THE STATE OF ILLINOIS AND THE STAFF OF STATEVILLE CORRECTIONAL CENTER.

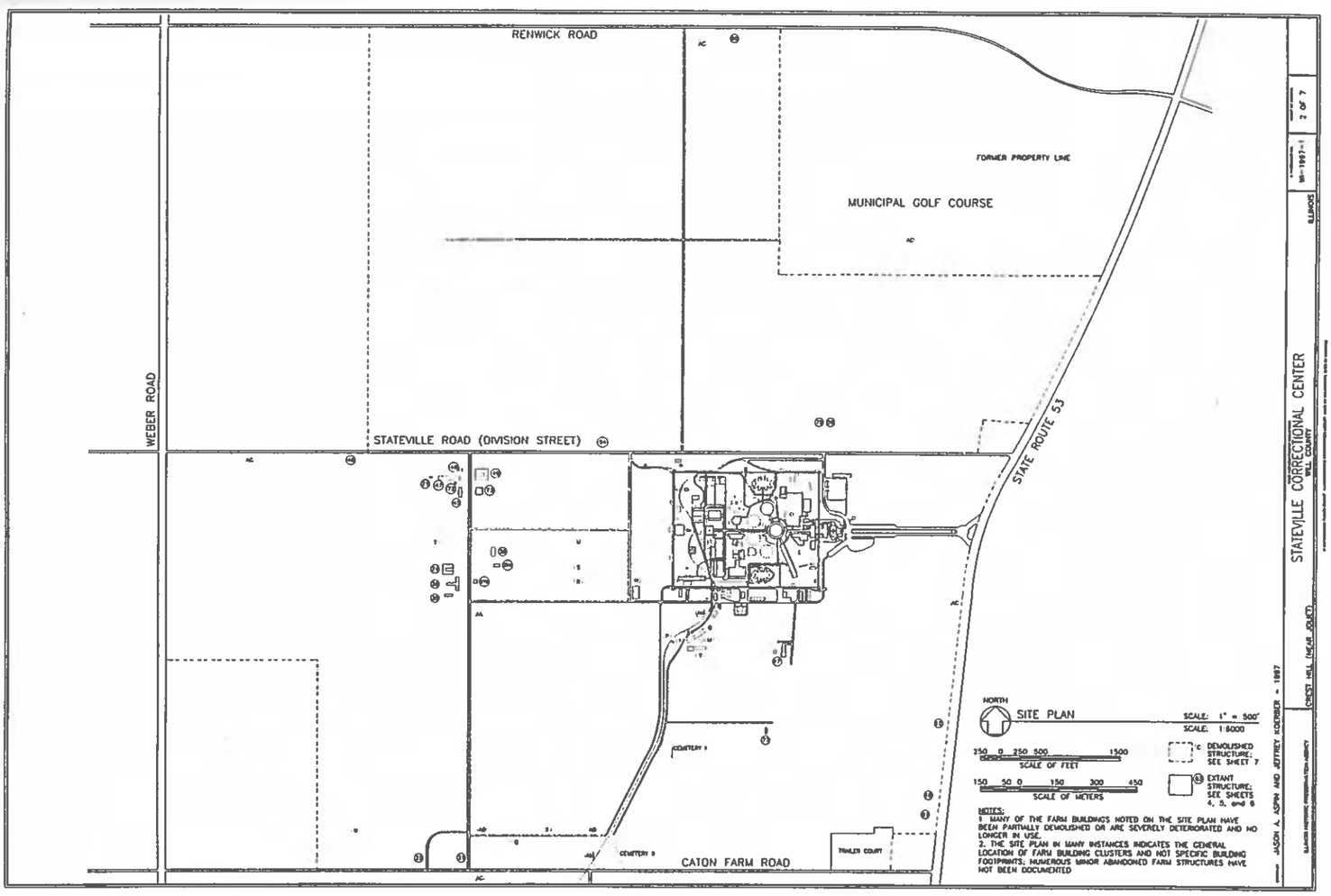
THE WJE PROJECT TEAM INCLUDED JEFFREY P. KOERBER, PROJECT MANAGER AND ARCHITECT; KAAREN R. DODGE, PROJECT ARCHITECTURAL RESEARCHER AND ASSISTANT ARCHITECTURAL HISTORIAN; DEBORAH SLATON, PROJECT ARCHITECTURAL HISTORIAN; JASON A. ASPIN AND SUN-YOUNG HONG, PROJECT DELINEATORS; WITH HARRY J. HUNDERMAN, PROJECT CONSULTANT AND ARCHITECT. OTHER PROJECT TEAM MEMBERS INCLUDED CHARLES PIPAL, DELINEATOR (VHA) AND LESLIE SCHWARTZ, PHOTOGRAPHER (LESLIE SCHWARTZ PHOTOGRAPHY).

INDEX OF DRAWINGS

SHEET 1 - TITLE SHEET
SHEET 2 - OVERALL SITE PLAN
SHEET 3 - DETAIL SITE PLAN
SHEET 4 - INVENTORY OF EXISTING BUILDINGS
SHEET 5 - INVENTORY OF EXISTING BUILDINGS
SHEET 6 - INVENTORY OF EXISTING BUILDINGS
SHEET 7 - INVENTORY OF DEMOLISHED BUILDINGS

STATEVILLE CORRECTIONAL CENTER
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SUN-YOUNG HONG AND JEFFREY KOERBER - 1997
ILLINOIS HISTORIC PRESERVATION AGENCY

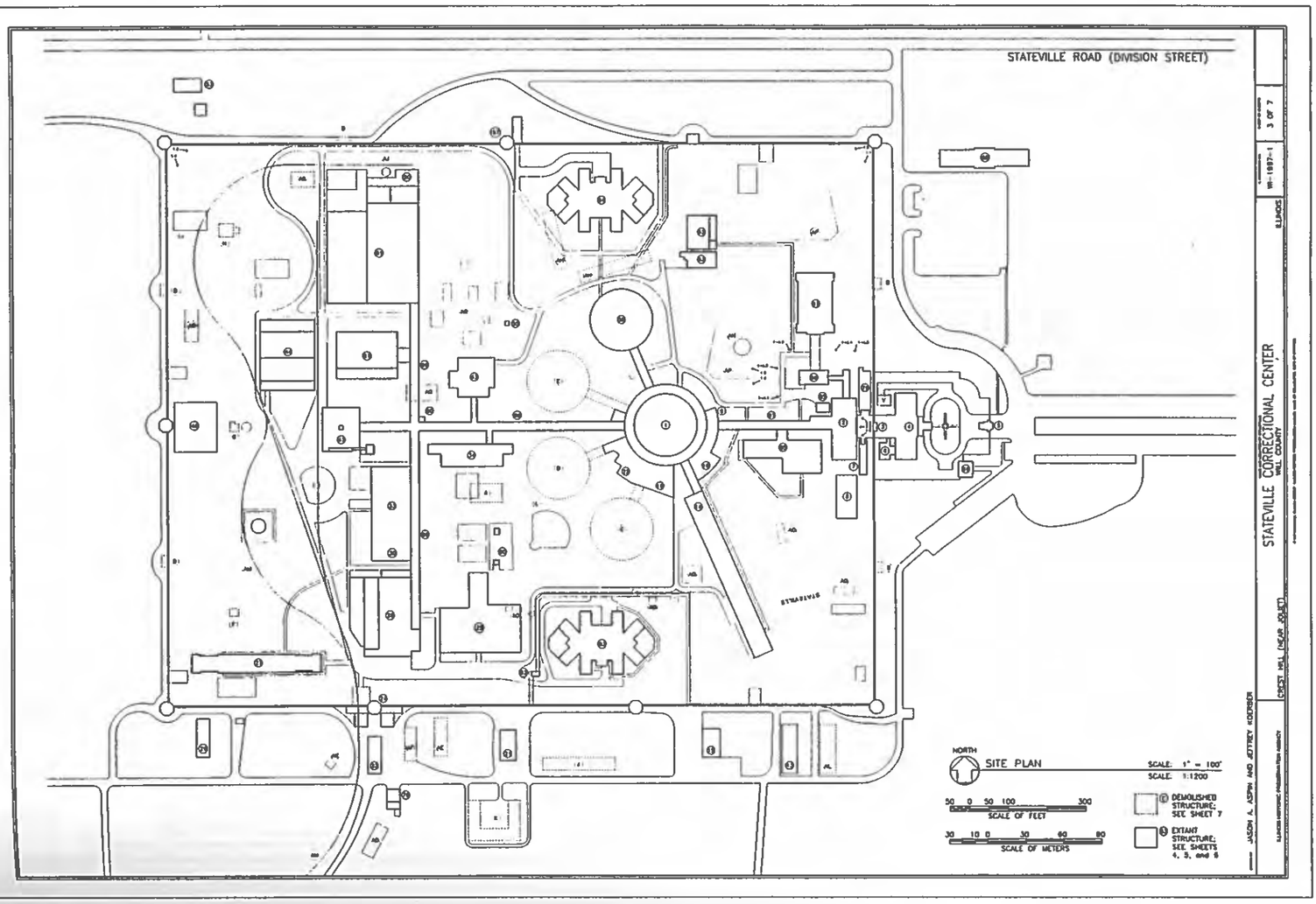


NORTH
SITE PLAN
SCALE: 1" = 500'
SCALE: 1:6000
SCALE OF FEET
SCALE OF METERS
DEMOLISHED STRUCTURE; SEE SHEET 7
EXTANT STRUCTURE; SEE SHEETS 4, 5, and 6

NOTES:
1. MANY OF THE FARM BUILDINGS NOTED ON THE SITE PLAN HAVE BEEN PARTIALLY DEMOLISHED OR ARE SEVERELY DETERIORATED AND NO LONGER IN USE.
2. THE SITE PLAN IN MANY INSTANCES INDICATES THE GENERAL LOCATION OF FARM BUILDING CLUSTERS AND NOT SPECIFIC BUILDING FOOTPRINTS. NUMEROUS MINOR ABANDONED FARM STRUCTURES HAVE NOT BEEN DOCUMENTED

STATEVILLE CORRECTIONAL CENTER
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JASON A. ASPIN AND JEFFREY KOERBER - 1997
ILLINOIS HISTORIC PRESERVATION AGENCY



EXTANT BUILDINGS AND STRUCTURES

NUMBER	STATE OF ILLINOIS NUMBER	YEAR OF CONSTRUCTION	NAME	HISTORIC NAME(S)	ARCHITECT	DESCRIPTION
1	C0201	1924	GYM/DINING ROOM	DINING ROOM, RECREATION BUILDING	ZIMMERMAN, SAXE & ZIMMERMAN	TALL ONE STORY BRICK MASONRY WITH TRUNCATED CONICAL ROOF
2	C0202	1920	DETENTION BUILDING		ZIMMERMAN, SAXE & ZIMMERMAN	TWO STORY BRICK MASONRY WITH LOW SLOPED ROOF
3	C0203	CIRCA 1930	WALL TOWER			ONE STORY STEEL AND CONCRETE WITH HIPPED ROOF
4	C0204	CIRCA 1930	ADMINISTRATION BUILDING		WILLIAM LINDSTROM, STATE SUPERVISING ARCHITECT (POSSIBLY BASED ON DESIGNS OF ZIMMERMAN, SAXE & ZIMMERMAN)	FOUR STORY BRICK, LIMESTONE, AND CAST STONE MASONRY WITH LOW SLOPED ROOF
5	C0205	1931	GATEHOUSE TOWER	GATEHOUSE, ELECTRIC EYE	C. HERRICK HAMMOND, STATE SUPERVISING ARCHITECT	ONE STORY BRICK, LIMESTONE, AND CAST STONE MASONRY WITH HIPPED ROOF
6	C0207	1943	STAFF ROOMS	GUARDS' DORMITORY	C. HERRICK HAMMOND, STATE SUPERVISING ARCHITECT	FOUR STORY BRICK AND CAST STONE MASONRY WITH LOW SLOPED ROOF
7	C0208	1938	OLD VISITOR ROOM	VISITORS' ROOM	C. HERRICK HAMMOND, STATE SUPERVISING ARCHITECT	ONE STORY BRICK AND CAST STONE MASONRY WITH GABLED ROOF
8	C0209	LATE 1920s OR EARLY 1930s	GREENHOUSE			ONE STORY GLASS AND METAL WITH GABLED ROOF
9	C0211	1925	CONTROL/MAJOR'S OFFICE	CAPTAINS' DINING ROOM; SCHOOL AND LIBRARY	ZIMMERMAN, SAXE & ZIMMERMAN	ONE STORY BRICK MASONRY WITH LOW SLOPED ROOF
10	C0214	1924	BAKERY			ONE AND A HALF STORY BRICK MASONRY WITH LOW SLOPED ROOF
12	C0217		RESIDENCE			
13	C0219	1920s	OFFICERS' GARAGE	GARAGE		ONE STORY WITH GABLED ROOF
14	C0221	1931	CELLHOUSE B		C. HERRICK HAMMOND, STATE SUPERVISING ARCHITECT	MULTI-LEVEL CONCRETE STRUCTURE WITH GABLED ROOF
15	C0223	LATE 1950s OR 1960s	INDUSTRIAL SHIPPING			TWO STORY MASONRY WITH LOW SLOPED ROOF
16	C0224		RESIDENCE			
17	C0226		RESIDENCE			
18	C0227	1934	VEGETABLE ROOM	KITCHEN ADDITION		ONE STORY BRICK MASONRY WITH LOW SLOPED ROOF
21	C0237	1930s OR 1940s	STORAGE	STOREROOM - PAINTS & OILS		ONE STORY CONCRETE MASONRY WITH LOW SLOPED ROOF
22	C0239	1924	KITCHEN		ZIMMERMAN, SAXE & ZIMMERMAN	ONE AND A HALF STORY BRICK MASONRY WITH LOW SLOPED ROOF
23	C0244	1941	OUTSIDE PLATFORM			ONE STORY WITH GABLED ROOF
24	C0245	1920	WALL TOWER AND SOUTH GATE		ZIMMERMAN, SAXE & ZIMMERMAN	MULTI-LEVEL CONCRETE STRUCTURE WITH HIPPED ROOF
25	C0251	1939; ADDITION 1942	LAW LIBRARY/ SCHOOL	TAILOR SHOP; SHOPS	C. HERRICK HAMMOND, STATE SUPERVISING ARCHITECT	ONE STORY BRICK MASONRY WITH LOW SLOPED ROOF
26	C0256	1942	ROOT CELLAR		C. HERRICK HAMMOND, STATE SUPERVISING ARCHITECT	ONE-HALF STORY WITH GABLED ROOF
27	C0258	1937	UNIT G DORMITORY	HONOR DORMITORY, GRADE SCHOOL, AND BOOK REHABILITATION CENTER; DORMITORY BUILDING	C. HERRICK HAMMOND, STATE SUPERVISING ARCHITECT	TWO STORY BRICK AND CAST STONE MASONRY WITH LOW SLOPED ROOF
28	C0259	1921, WITH LATER ADDITIONS	GENERAL STORE	VEGETABLE PREPARATION, DEHYDRATION PLANT, COLD STORAGE, AND COMMISSARY	ZIMMERMAN, SAXE & ZIMMERMAN	ONE STORY BRICK MASONRY WITH LOW SLOPED ROOF
30	C0263		WEIGHT ROOM	CLOTHING REPAIR SHOP		ONE STORY BRICK MASONRY WITH LOW SLOPED ROOF
31	C0266		RESIDENCE			
32	C0267		RESIDENCE			

EXTANT BUILDINGS AND STRUCTURES

NUMBER	STATE OF ILLINOIS NUMBER	YEAR OF CONSTRUCTION	NAME	HISTORIC NAME(S)	ARCHITECT	DESCRIPTION
33	C0270	1924	VOCATIONAL SCHOOL	SHEET METAL FABRICATING SHOP, SHOE SHOP, AND CLOTHING REPAIR SHOP	ZIMMERMAN, SAXE & ZIMMERMAN	TALL ONE STORY BRICK MASONRY WITH LOW SLOPED ROOF AND SAW-TOOTH ROOF MONITORS
34	C0271	1920	LAUNDRY/CHAPEL/ BARBER	LAUNDRY; LAUNDRY AND CLOTHING ROOM	ZIMMERMAN, SAXE & ZIMMERMAN	TALL ONE STORY BRICK MASONRY WITH LOW SLOPED ROOF
35	C0274	1940s	HAY SHED			ONE STORY WOOD FRAME WITH GABLED ROOF
36	C0275	1939	HORSE BARN			ONE STORY WOOD FRAME WITH GABLED ROOF
37A	C0287	1939	SLAUGHTERHOUSE			ONE STORY CONCRETE BLOCK WITH GABLED ROOF
37B	C0283	LATE 1930s	GRANARY			TWO BIN CORN CRIB WITH GAMBREL ROOF
38	C0293	LATE 1930s	HORSE BARN			WOOD FRAME WITH GAMBREL ROOF
40	C0299	1928	RESERVOIR			
42	C0301	1923	POWERHOUSE		ZIMMERMAN, SAXE & ZIMMERMAN	MULTI-LEVEL BRICK MASONRY WITH LOW SLOPED ROOF AND SMOKESTACK
43	C0303	1942	INMATE COMMISSARY	SCHOOL BUILDING; HIGH SCHOOL BUILDING	C. HERRICK HAMMOND, STATE SUPERVISING ARCHITECT	ONE STORY BRICK MASONRY WITH LOW SLOPED ROOF
44	C0304	1930, ADDITIONS 1937 AND CIRCA 1940s	M AND M SHOP; MASTER MECHANIC SHOP	AUTO LICENSE PLATE PLANT; AUTO LICENSE PLATE PLANT AND WAREHOUSE; VOCATIONAL SHOPS	C. HERRICK HAMMOND, STATE SUPERVISING ARCHITECT	TALL ONE STORY BRICK MASONRY WITH GABLED ROOF (ORIGINAL PORTION OF BUILDING) AND LOW SLOPED ROOF (ADDITIONS)
45	C0306		VEHICLE GARAGE MSU			ONE STORY WITH GABLED ROOF
46	C0308		RESIDENCE			
47	C0309	1930	FARM DORM MSU	HONOR FARM DORMITORY	C. HERRICK HAMMOND, STATE SUPERVISING ARCHITECT	TWO STORY BRICK MASONRY WITH LOW SLOPED ROOF
48	C0310		FARM OFFICE MSU			
49	C0311	CIRCA 1930s	SERVICE BUILDING MSU		C. HERRICK HAMMOND, STATE SUPERVISING ARCHITECT	ONE STORY BRICK MASONRY WITH LOW SLOPED ROOF
50	C0314	1929	SOAP FACTORY/ TAILOR SHOP	SOAP FACTORY AND FURNITURE FACTORY "C"	WILLIAM J. LINDSTROM, STATE SUPERVISING ARCHITECT	TALL ONE STORY BRICK MASONRY WITH BOW STRING TRUSS ROOF; TALL ONE STORY BRICK MASONRY WITH LOW SLOPED ROOF
51	C0315	1929	FURNITURE FACTORY	FURNITURE FACTORY AND DRY KILN; FURNITURE FACTORIES "A" AND "B"	WILLIAM J. LINDSTROM, STATE SUPERVISING ARCHITECT	TALL ONE STORY BRICK MASONRY WITH LOW SLOPED ROOF AND SAW-TOOTH ROOF MONITORS (UNIT "A"); TALL TWO STORY BRICK MASONRY WITH LOW SLOPED ROOF (UNIT "B")
53	C0319		RESIDENCE			
54	C0320		RESIDENCE			
55	C0323	1931	NORTH YARD TOWER			
57	C0325		TOWER/SALLYPORT			
58	C0326	1922	CELLHOUSE F		ZIMMERMAN, SAXE & ZIMMERMAN	FOUR STORY BRICK MASONRY WITH CONICAL ROOF
59	C0328		WELL 6			
60	C0332		RESIDENCE			
62	C0334	1947	ORIENTATION SEGREGATION	SEGREGATION BUILDING	C. HERRICK HAMMOND, STATE SUPERVISING ARCHITECT	TWO STORY BRICK MASONRY WITH LOW SLOPED ROOF

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EXTANT BUILDINGS AND STRUCTURES

NUMBER	STATE OF ILLINOIS NUMBER	YEAR OF CONSTRUCTION	NAME	HISTORIC NAME(S)	ARCHITECT	DESCRIPTION
63	C0335	1920	SPECIAL CELLHOUSE		ZIMMERMAN, SAXE & ZIMMERMAN	ONE STORY BRICK MASONRY WITH LOW SLOPED ROOF
65	C0337	1934	OPERATING ROOM	OPERATING ROOM WING	C. HERRICK HAMMOND, STATE SUPERVISING ARCHITECT	ONE STORY (WITH BASEMENT) BRICK MASONRY WITH LOW SLOPED ROOF
66	C0338 ILLINOIS HABS No. IL-1997-1-A	1934	OLD HOSPITAL	HOSPITAL	C. HERRICK HAMMOND, STATE SUPERVISING ARCHITECT	THREE STORY (WITH BASEMENT) BRICK MASONRY WITH LOW SLOPED ROOF
67	C0339	1937	OLD CHAPEL	CHAPEL; CHAPEL AND RECREATION	C. HERRICK HAMMOND, STATE SUPERVISING ARCHITECT	TWO STORY BRICK MASONRY WITH GABLED AND LOW SLOPED ROOFS
68	C0342	1943	OFFICERS' DORMITORY	GUARDS' DORMITORY	C. HERRICK HAMMOND, STATE SUPERVISING ARCHITECT	FOUR STORY BRICK MASONRY WITH LOW SLOPED ROOF
70	C0346	1940s	FIRE STATION		C. HERRICK HAMMOND, STATE SUPERVISING ARCHITECT	TALL ONE STORY BRICK MASONRY WITH LOW SLOPED ROOF
71	C0347	1960s OR 1970s	EDUCATION BUILDING MSU			ONE STORY WITH GABLED ROOF
72	C0350		POWERHOUSE MSU			ONE STORY WITH LOW SLOPED ROOF
73	C0351	1975	VOCATIONAL BODY SHOP MSU			ONE STORY WITH GABLED ROOF
74	C0354	1940s	HAY SHED			ONE STORY WITH GABLED ROOF
77	C0360	1940s	RIFLE RANGE			
78	C0365	1960s	WATER TOWER			FOUR LEGGED STEEL TOWER
79	C0376	1979	VISITING ROOM			ONE STORY WITH GABLED ROOF
80	C0377	CIRCA 1976	CONTROL TOWER			
81	C0380	1981	MULTIPURPOSE BUILDING			TALL ONE STORY PRECAST CONCRETE WITH LOW SLOPED ROOF
82	C0382	1982-83	GATEHOUSE, UNIT "H"		BALSAMO & OLSON, INC.	ONE STORY WITH LOW SLOPED ROOF
83	C0384	1982-83	UNIT "H"		BALSAMO & OLSON, INC.	THREE STORY PRECAST CONCRETE WITH LOW SLOPED ROOF
84	C0385	1984-85	UNIT "I"		BALSAMO & OLSON, INC.	THREE STORY PRECAST CONCRETE WITH LOW SLOPED ROOF
85	C0390	1989	MEDICAL UNIT			TALL ONE STORY PRECAST CONCRETE WITH LOW SLOPED ROOF
86		1996	VISITORS' ENTRANCE			ONE STORY BRICK MASONRY WITH HIPPED ROOF
87		EARLY 1920s	EAST TUNNEL			ONE STORY CONCRETE WITH LOW SLOPED ROOF
88		EARLY 1920s, EXTENDED CIRCA 1976	WEST TUNNEL			ONE STORY CONCRETE WITH LOW SLOPED ROOF
89		CIRCA 1976	NORTH/SOUTH TUNNEL			ONE STORY CONCRETE WITH LOW SLOPED ROOF
90			GUARD TOWER			
91		1920s	CONCRETE SILO			ABANDONED CONCRETE WALL SILO

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DEMOLISHED BUILDINGS AND STRUCTURES

NUMBER	STATE OF ILLINOIS NUMBER	YEAR OF CONSTRUCTION	YEAR OF DEMOLITION	HISTORIC NAME(S)	ARCHITECT	DESCRIPTION
A		1917	1927	TEMPORARY POWERHOUSE	ZIMMERMAN, SAVE & ZIMMERMAN	ONE STORY (MASONRY?)
B		EARLY 1930s	1980s	GUARD TOWERS	C. HERRICK HAMMOND, STATE SUPERVISING ARCHITECT	BRICK MASONRY AND CONCRETE STRUCTURE WITH LOW SLOPED ROOF
C		1924-1927	1985	CELLHOUSE C	ZIMMERMAN, SAVE & ZIMMERMAN	FOUR STORY BRICK MASONRY WITH CONICAL ROOF
D		1919	1983	CELLHOUSE D	ZIMMERMAN, SAVE & ZIMMERMAN	FOUR STORY BRICK MASONRY WITH CONICAL ROOF
E		1920	1988	CELLHOUSE E	ZIMMERMAN, SAVE & ZIMMERMAN	FOUR STORY BRICK MASONRY WITH CONICAL ROOF
F	C0265		1997	SOUTH WELL		ONE STORY WITH LOW SLOPED ROOF
G	C0300		1997	CENTER WELL 2 AND WATER TOWER		ONE STORY WITH LOW SLOPED ROOF
H	C0313		1997	NORTH WELL 3		ONE STORY WITH LOW SLOPED ROOF
J	C0229	1930s	EARLY 1990s	INDUSTRY WAREHOUSE, MATERIAL STORAGE		ONE STORY MASONRY WITH LOW SLOPE ROOF
K	C0236	1940s (?) W/LATER ADDITIONS	EARLY 1990s	LUMBER YARD		ONE STORY (MASONRY?) WITH GABLED ROOF
L	C0383	1930s	1990s	GUARD TOWER		TWO STORY MASONRY
M	C0233	1930s	1990s	CATTLE BARN		THREE-ENDED GAMBREL ROOF BARN WITH SHED ROOF WEST WING ADDITION
N	C0264	1940s	BURNED EARLY 1990s	HORSE BARN		GAMBREL ROOF BARN
O	C0241	1930s (?)	1980s (?)	CREAMERY		GAMBREL ROOF BARN
P	C0242	1930s (?)	1980s (?)	HAY SHED		ONE STORY WITH GABLE ROOF
Q	C0253	1930s (?)	1980s (?)	STABLE		ONE STORY WITH GABLE ROOF
R	C0284	BEFORE 1939	1980s (?)	SEED HOUSE		ONE STORY WITH GABLE ROOF
S	C0286	BEFORE 1939	1980s (?)	IMPLEMENT SHED		ONE STORY WITH GABLE ROOF
T	C0288 through C0291	1940s (?)	1980s	FOUR SILOS		PRECAST CONCRETE STAVE WITH STEEL HOOPS (?)
U	C0297	BEFORE 1939	1980s	IMPLEMENT SHED		ONE STORY WITH GABLE ROOF
V	C0341	1940s (?)	MID-1990s	ADMINISTRATION BUILDING GARAGE		ONE STORY BRICK MASONRY WITH LOW SLOPED ROOF
W	C0355	1940s (?)	1980s	HORSE BARN		
X	C0358 and C0359	1950s (?)	1980s	TWO HOG HOUSES		ONE STORY (MASONRY?)
Y	C0379	1920s (?)	1990s	EAST CATTLE SHED		ONE STORY (MASONRY?)
Z	C0232 and C0234	1920s (?)	1980s	TWO SILOS		CONCRETE WALL SILOS (?)
AA	C0276 through C0282	1950s (?)	1980s (?)	ONE GRANARY AND SIX CORN CRIBS		ONE STORY (MASONRY?)
AB	C0248 and C0249	1940s (?)	1980s (?)	TWO HOG HOUSES		ONE STORY (MASONRY?)
AC	C0213, C0247, C0328, C0352, and C0367	1930s OR 1940s	1970s	HORSEMAN TOWERS (guard towers positioned to observe inmates working in the farm fields)		TWO STORY WITH WOOD SIDING AND LOW SLOPED ROOF
AD	C0254, C0255, and C0357	1930s (?)	1980s	ONE SMALL HORSE BARN AND TWO CORN CRIBS		ONE STORY (MASONRY?)
AE	C0240	1936 OR 1937	1980s	DETAIL HOUSE, TRAINING CENTER; DINING ROOM AND KITCHEN BUILDING (for Honor Farm Inmates)		ONE STORY MASONRY WITH LOW SLOPED ROOF
AF	C0363	1930s	1980s	DETAIL HOUSE; 24-HOUR SHACK; OIL STORAGE		ONE STORY MASONRY WITH LOW SLOPED ROOF
AG	C0317	1931	1980s	DRY KILN		ONE STORY MASONRY WITH LOW SLOPED ROOF
AH		1939	1970s	BLEACHERS		
AJ		EARLY 1930s	1970s (?)	MATERIAL TOWER		ONE STORY MASONRY WITH LOW SLOPED ROOF
AK	C0244	1930s (?)	1980s (?)	INCINERATOR		ONE STORY WITH CABLED ROOF
AL		1920s	1980s	GARAGE		
AM		1910s through 1930s	1930s AND 1970s	RAILROAD TRACKS		
AN		1937 OR 1938	1970s	FOUNTAIN AND POOL		
AO		1910s	MID-1930s	SHACKS AND TEMPORARY BUILDINGS		BASED ON HISTORIC AERIAL PHOTOGRAPH CIRCA 1931
AP		1920s	MID-1930s	BASEBALL FIELDS		BASED ON HISTORIC AERIAL PHOTOGRAPH CIRCA 1931

NOTES:
1. MANY OF THE FARM BUILDINGS NOTED ABOVE HAVE ONLY BEEN PARTIALLY DEMOLISHED OR ARE SEVERELY DETERIORATED AND NO LONGER IN USE.
2. THE SITE PLAN ON SHEET 2 INDICATES THE GENERAL LOCATION OF FARM BUILDING CLUSTERS. NUMEROUS SMALLER DEMOLISHED FARM STRUCTURES HAVE NOT BEEN LISTED ABOVE.

JEFFREY KOSEMEN - 1997

STATEVILLE CORRECTIONAL CENTER
MILL COUNTY
CHEST MILL (NEAR JOLIET)
ILLINOIS

HISTORIC AMERICAN BUILDINGS SURVEY

WI-1997-1

7 OF 7

BASEMENT FLOOR PLAN

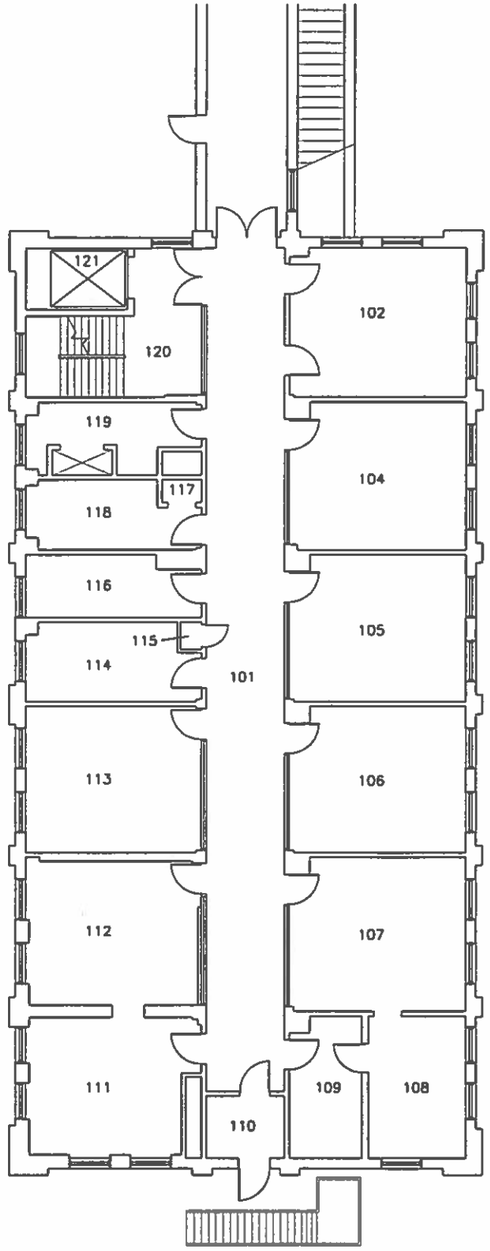
SCALE: 1/16" = 1'-0"

NORTH

16 0 16 32 FEET

0 10 METERS

STATEVILLE CORRECTIONAL CENTER
OLD HOSPITAL
ILLINOIS HABS No. WI-1997-1-A



FIRST FLOOR PLAN

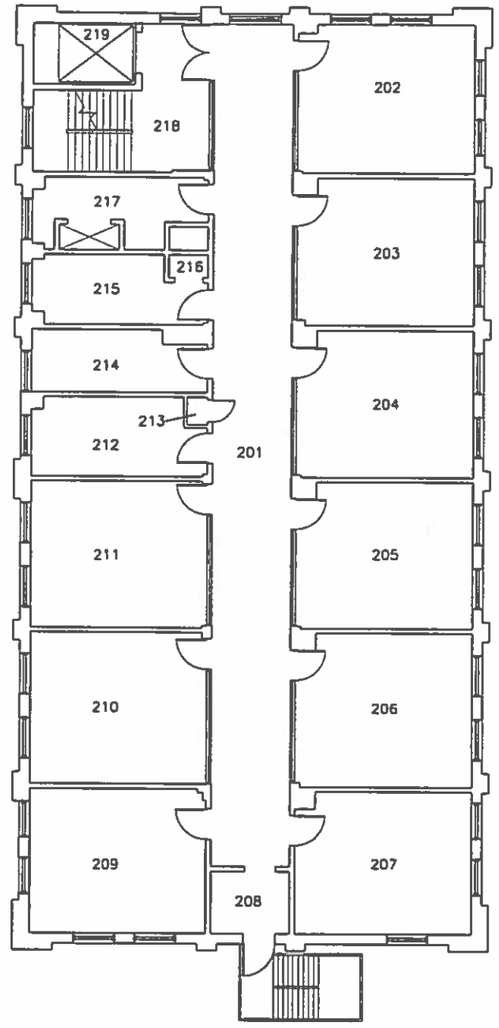
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NORTH

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STATEVILLE CORRECTIONAL CENTER
OLD HOSPITAL
ILLINOIS HABS No. WI-1997-1-A



SECOND FLOOR PLAN

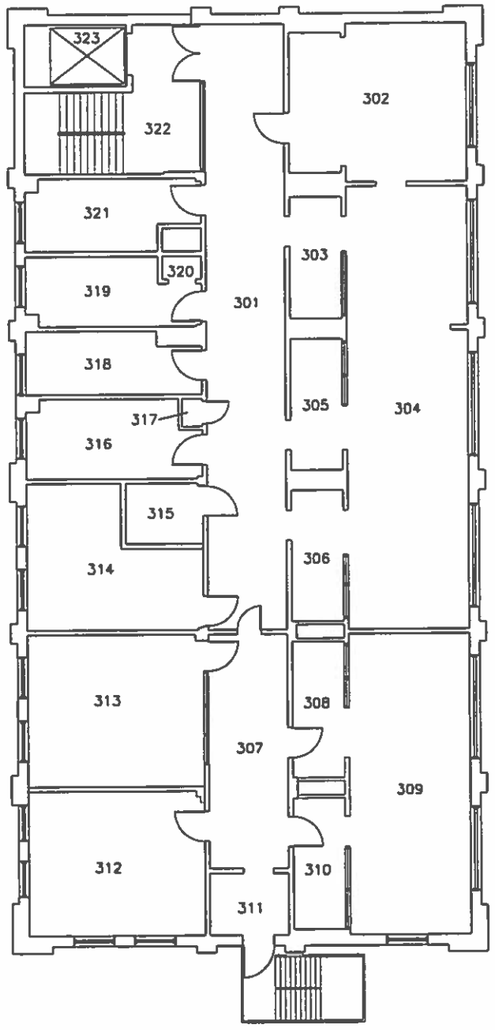
SCALE: 1/16" = 1'-0"

NORTH

16 0 16 32 FEET

0 10 METERS

STATEVILLE CORRECTIONAL CENTER
OLD HOSPITAL
ILLINOIS HABS No. WI-1997-1-A



THIRD FLOOR PLAN
SCALE: 1/16" = 1'-0"

NORTH

16 0 16 32 FEET

0 10 METERS

STATEVILLE CORRECTIONAL CENTER
OLD HOSPITAL
ILLINOIS HABS No. WI-1997-1-A

INDEX TO PHOTOGRAPHS

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(near Joliet)
Will County
Illinois

IL HABS No. WI-1997-1

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22 photographic copies of historic photographs
19 photographic copies of original drawings

Old Hospital
IL HABS No. WI-1997-1-A — 4 exterior photographs (1997)
4 interior photographs (1997)

Leslie Schwartz, Photographer, May 1997
Jeffrey Koerber, Photographer, May 1997 (IL HABS No. WI-1997-1-A.5, -A.7, -A.8, -A.9, and –A.10)

IL HABS No. WI-1997-1.1 — GENERAL VIEW: VIEW TO SOUTH FROM THE NORTHEAST GUARD TOWER , WITH THE ADMINISTRATION BUILDING (LEFT OF "THE WALL"), THE VISITING ROOM (CENTER), THE OLD HOSPITAL, AND THE OLD CHAPEL BUILDING (RIGHT)

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IL HABS No. WI-1997-1.28 — Photographic copy of historic photograph (circa 1950s?) from Stateville Correctional Center archives: Typical corner guard tower and prison wall, showing the pattern of corroded form ties and horizontal form boards

IL HABS No. WI-1997-1.29 — Photographic copy of historic photograph (circa 1950s?) from Stateville Correctional Center archives: typical horseman tower

IL HABS No. WI-1997-1.30 — Photographic copy of historic photograph (1950s) from Stateville Correctional Center archives: second floor landing of the Administration Building showing gates leading to the "tunnel," view to west

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IL HABS No. WI-1997-1.33 — Photographic copy of original construction drawing (circa 1917) from Illinois Capital Development Board archives: W. Carbys Zimmerman, Architect; New Illinois State Penitentiary, Cell House Set; Sheet 1, undated [circa 1917]; basement and typical floor plan

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IL HABS No. WI-1997-1.35 — Photographic copy of original construction drawing (circa 1917) from Illinois Capital Development Board archives: W. Carbys Zimmerman, Architect; New Illinois State Penitentiary, Cell House Set; Sheet 5, undated [circa 1917]; wall sections and details

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IL HABS No. WI-1997-1.41 — Photographic copy of original construction drawing (1920) from Illinois Capital Development Board archives: W. Carbys Zimmerman, Architect; New Illinois State Penitentiary, Wagon Lock and R.R. Gate; Sheet 1, revised 15 March 1920; plans, sections, elevations, and details

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IL HABS No. WI-1997-1.49 — Photographic copy of original construction drawing (1933) from Illinois Capital Development Board archives: C. Herrick Hammond, Supervising Architect, State of Illinois Department of Purchases and Construction, Division of Architecture and Engineering; Illinois State Penitentiary, Operating Wing Addition to Detention Building, Stateville, Illinois; Sheet 12, revised 29 October 1933; building elevations and sections

IL HABS No. WI-1997-1.50 — Photographic copy of original construction drawing (1943) from Illinois Capital Development Board archives: C. Herrick Hammond, Supervising Architect, State of Illinois Department of Public Works and Buildings, Division of Architecture and Engineering; Guards Dormitory and Addition to Administration Building, Illinois State Penitentiary, Stateville Branch, Stateville, Illinois; Sheet A-3, 6 March 1943; building elevations and sections

IL HABS No. WI-1997-1.51 — Photographic copy of original construction drawing (1945) from Illinois Capital Development Board archives: C. Herrick Hammond, Supervising Architect, State of Illinois Department of Public Works and Buildings, Division of Architecture and Engineering; Segregation Building, Illinois State Penitentiary, Stateville Branch, Joliet, Illinois; Sheet A-2, revised 11 December 1945; floor plans and sections

IL HABS No. WI-1997-1-A.1 — OLD HOSPITAL, WEST AND SOUTH FACE, VIEW TO NORTHEAST

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IL HABS No. WI-1997-1-A.5 — BUILDING LINKING OLD HOSPITAL TO THE OPERATING ROOM AND THE TUNNEL, NORTH FACE, VIEW TO SOUTHWEST

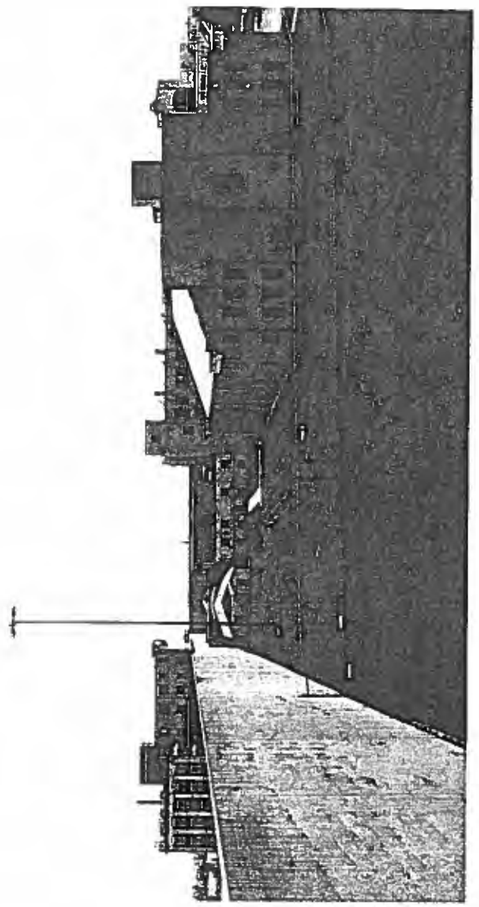
IL HABS No. WI-1997-1-A.6 — OLD HOSPITAL, SECOND FLOOR INTERIOR CORRIDOR, VIEW TO SOUTHWEST

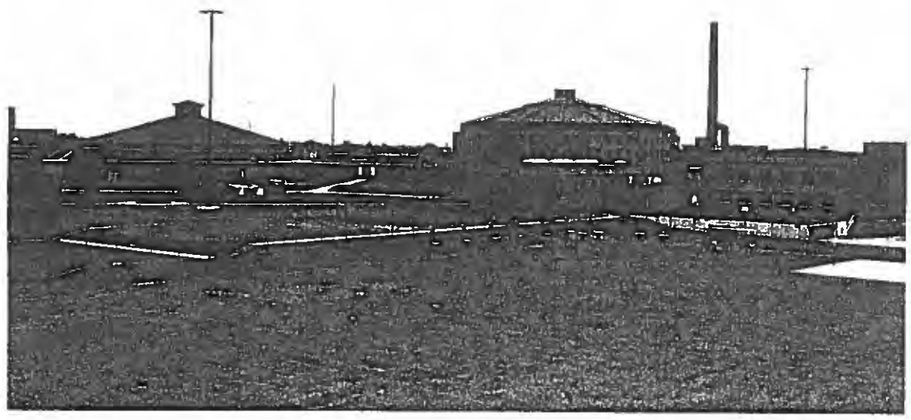
IL HABS No. WI-1997-1-A.7 OLD HOSPITAL, THIRD FLOOR WARD, VIEW TO SOUTHEAST

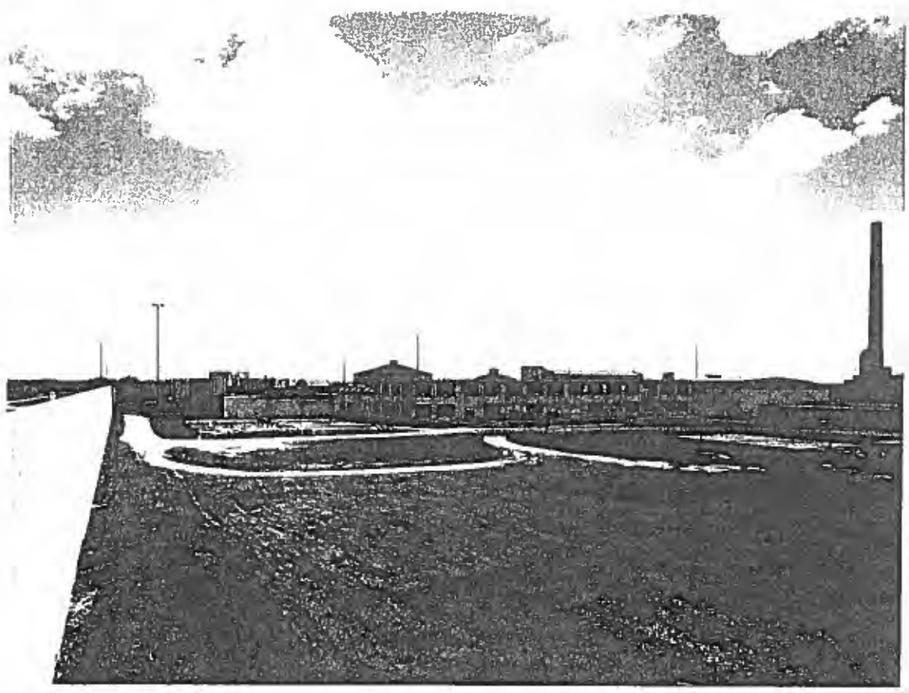
IL HABS No. WI-1997-1-A.8 OLD HOSPITAL, KITCHEN, BASEMENT, VIEW TO NORTHWEST

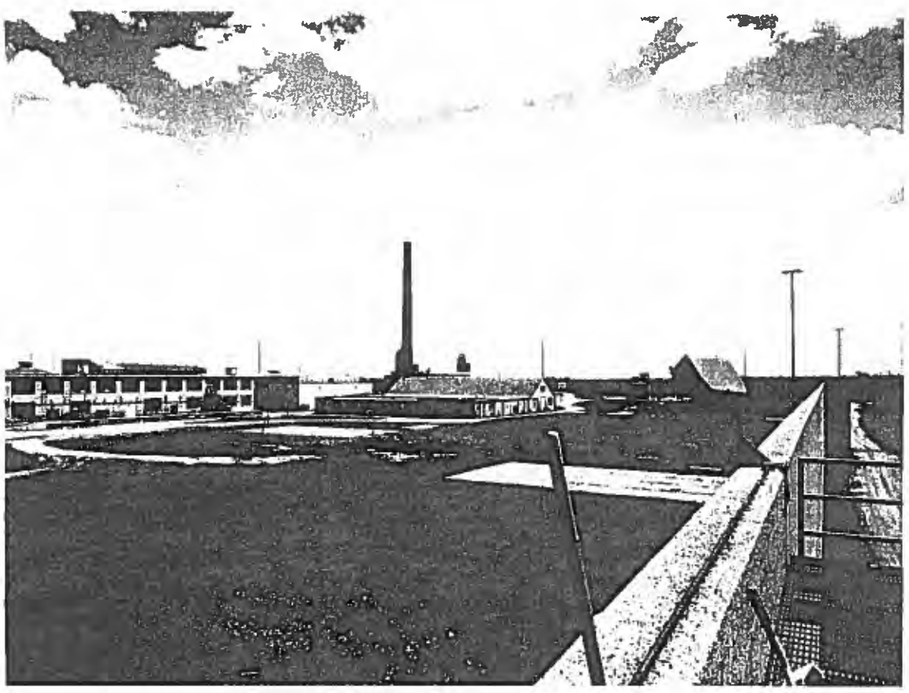
IL HABS No. WI-1997-1-A.9 RED COLORED CONCRETE MONUMENT, SECOND INMATE CEMETERY, VIEW TO NORTHWEST

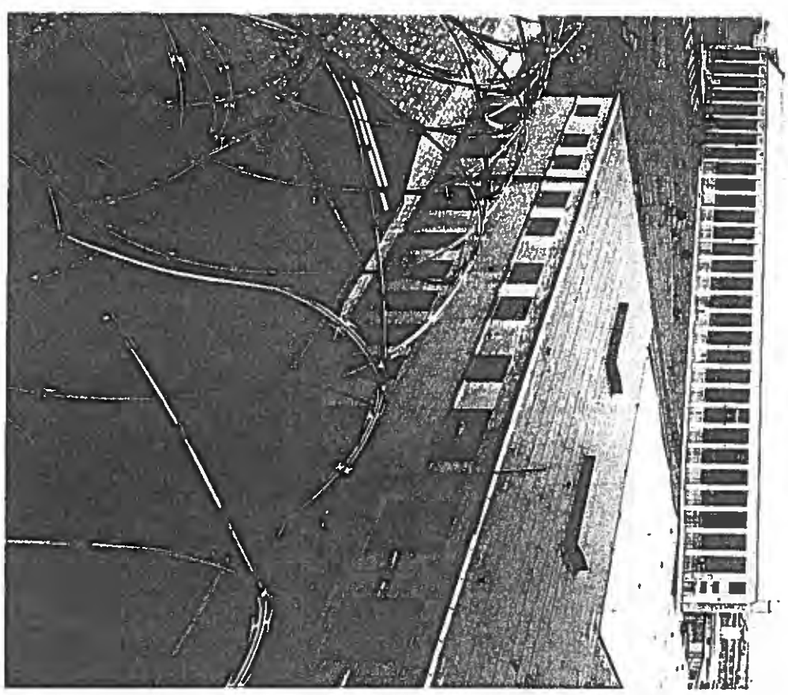
IL HABS No. WI-1997-1-A.10 SECOND INMATE CEMETERY WITH CONCRETE MARKERS, WITH MONUMENT (RIGHT) AND RUINS OF HOG HOUSE (BACKGROUND)

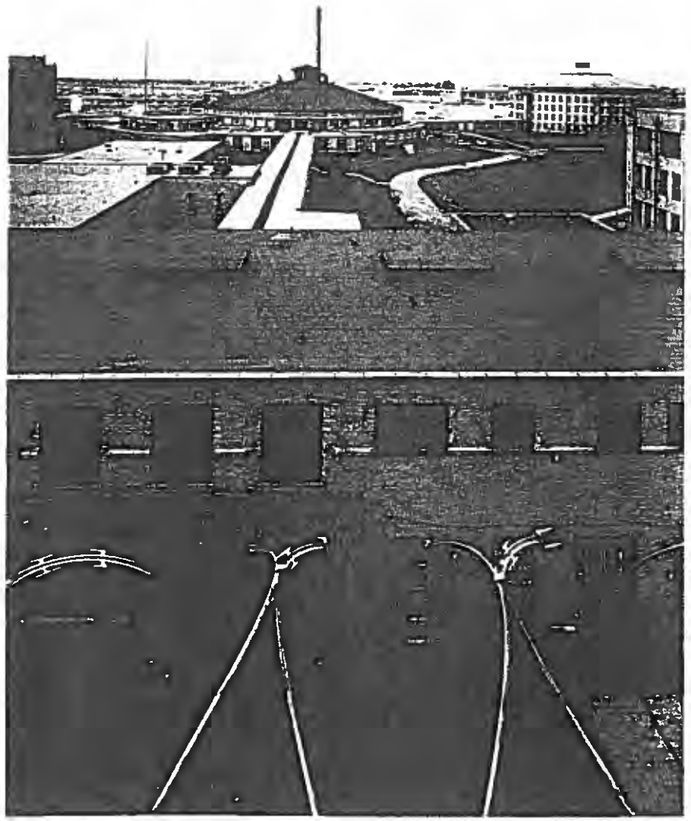


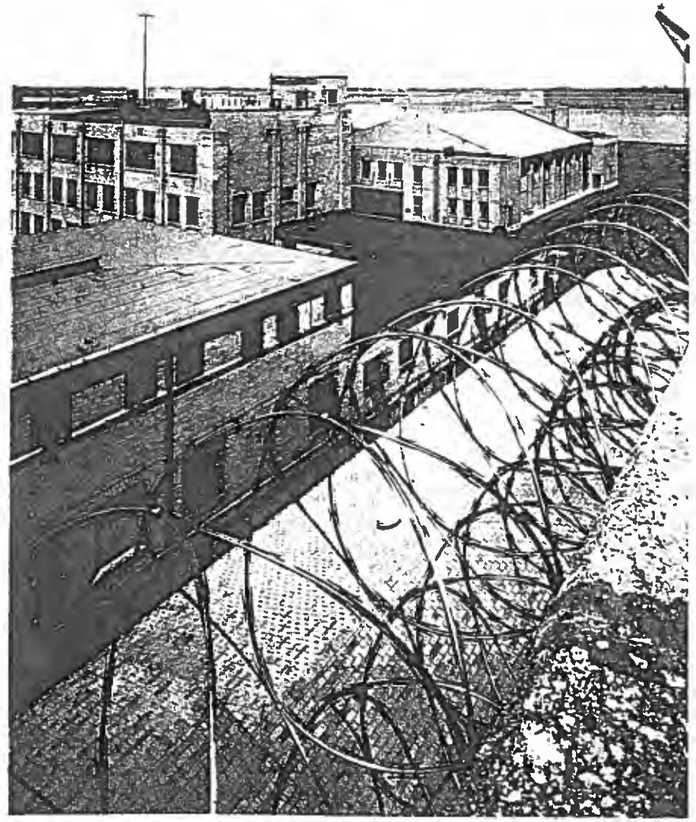


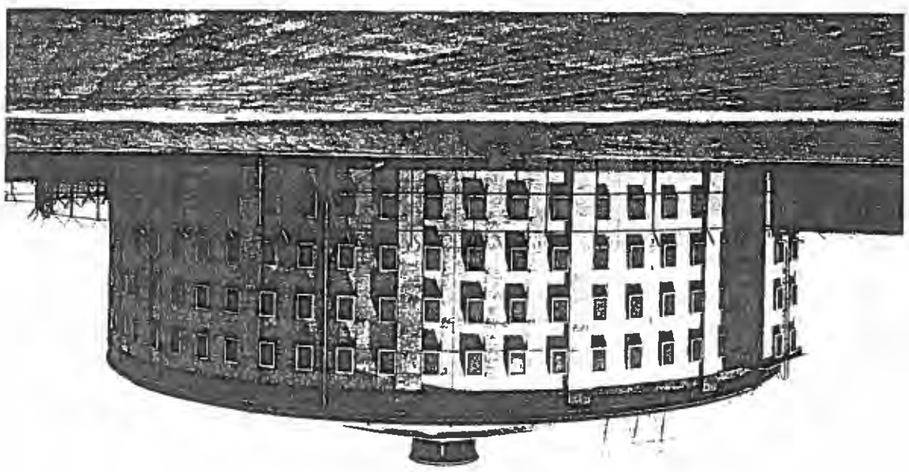




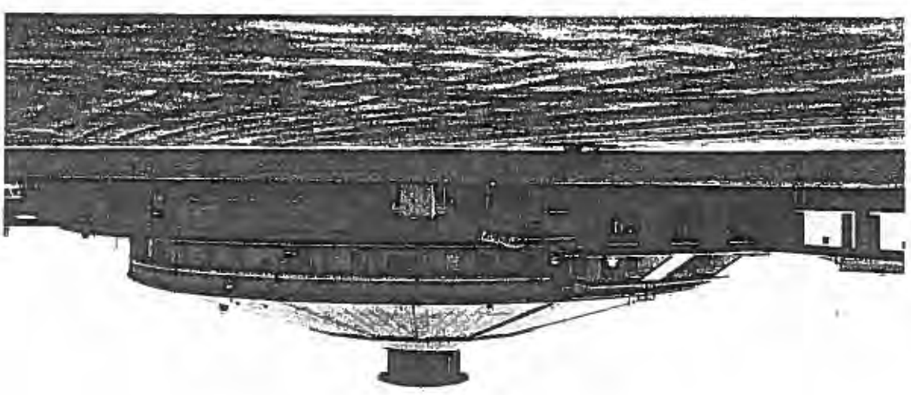




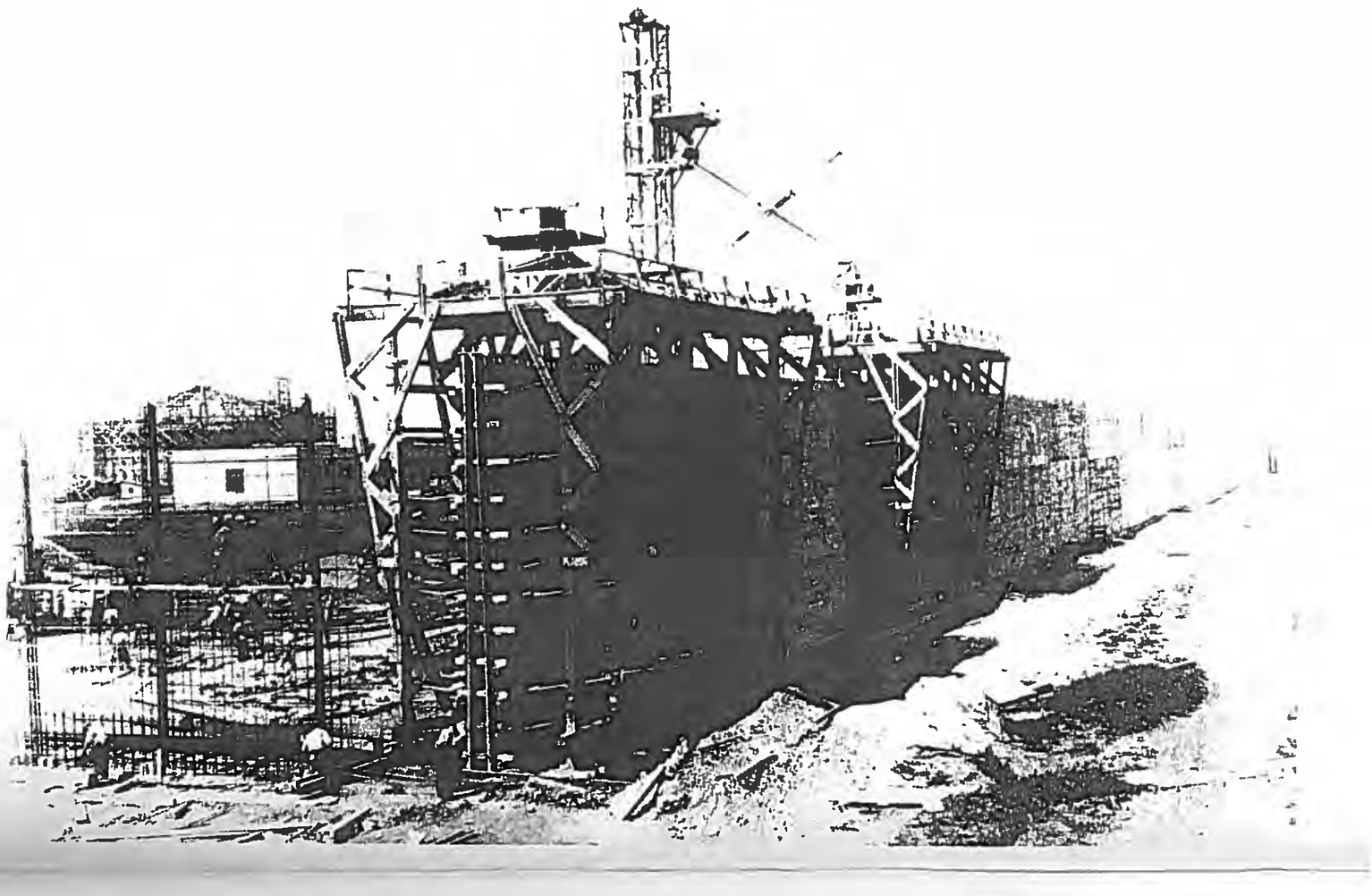




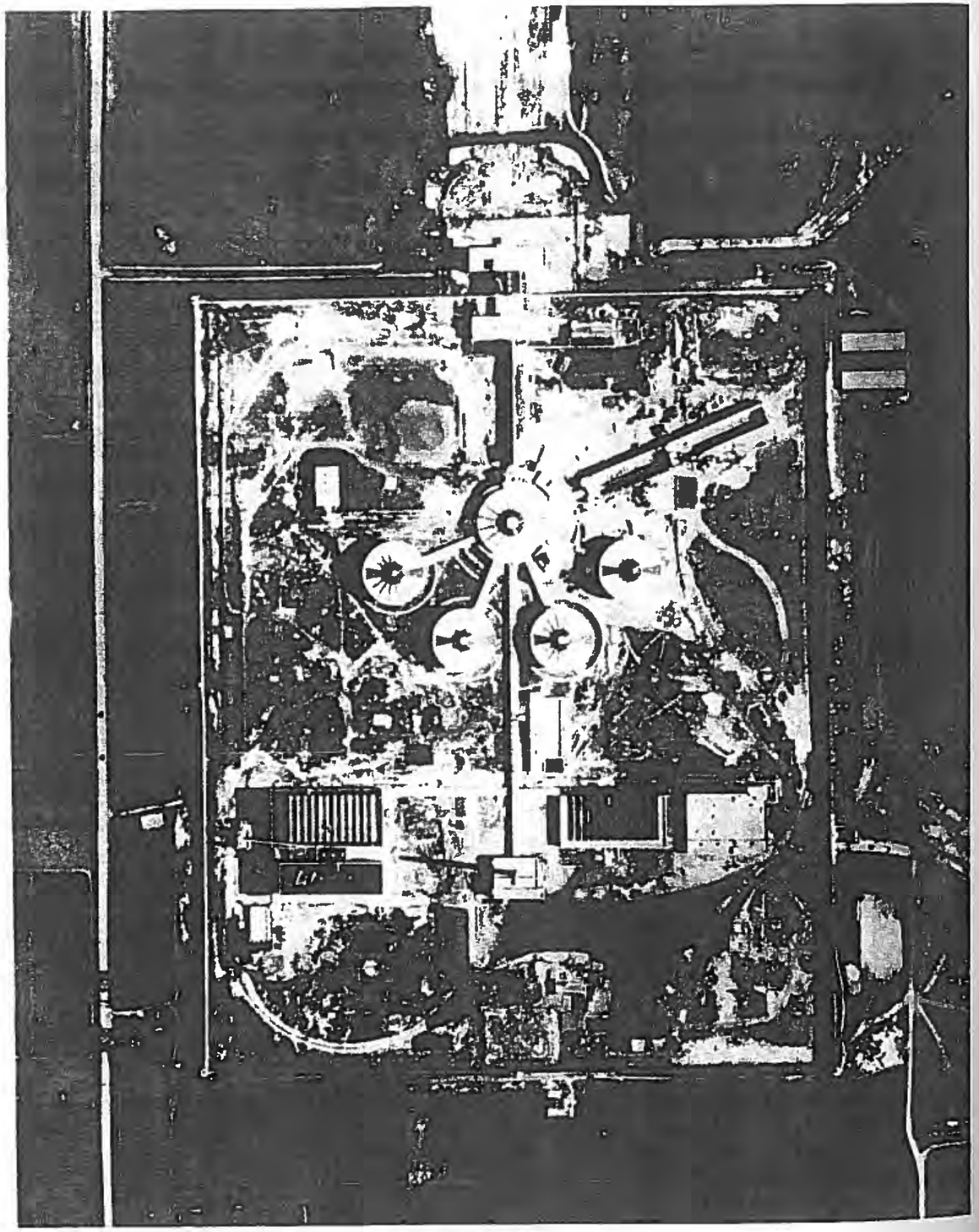


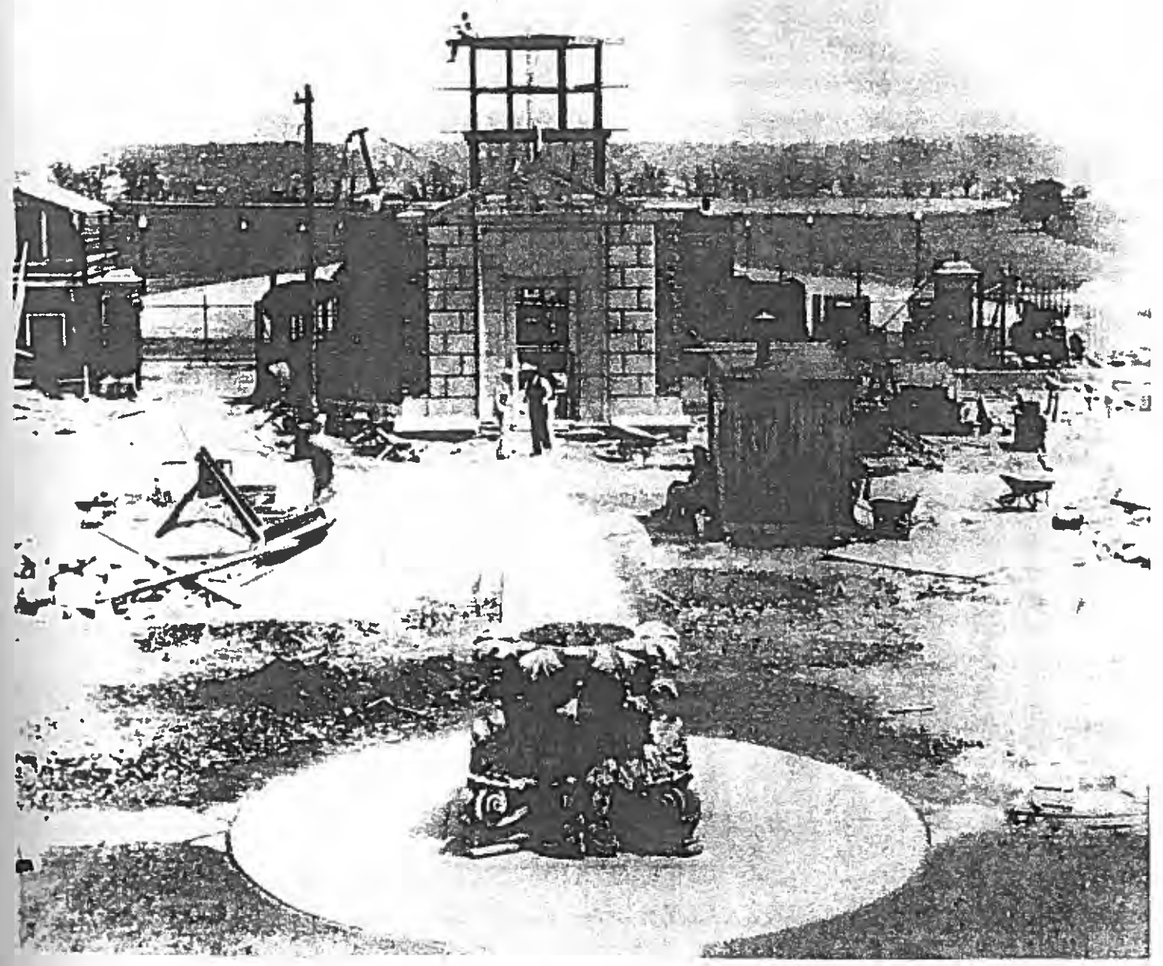




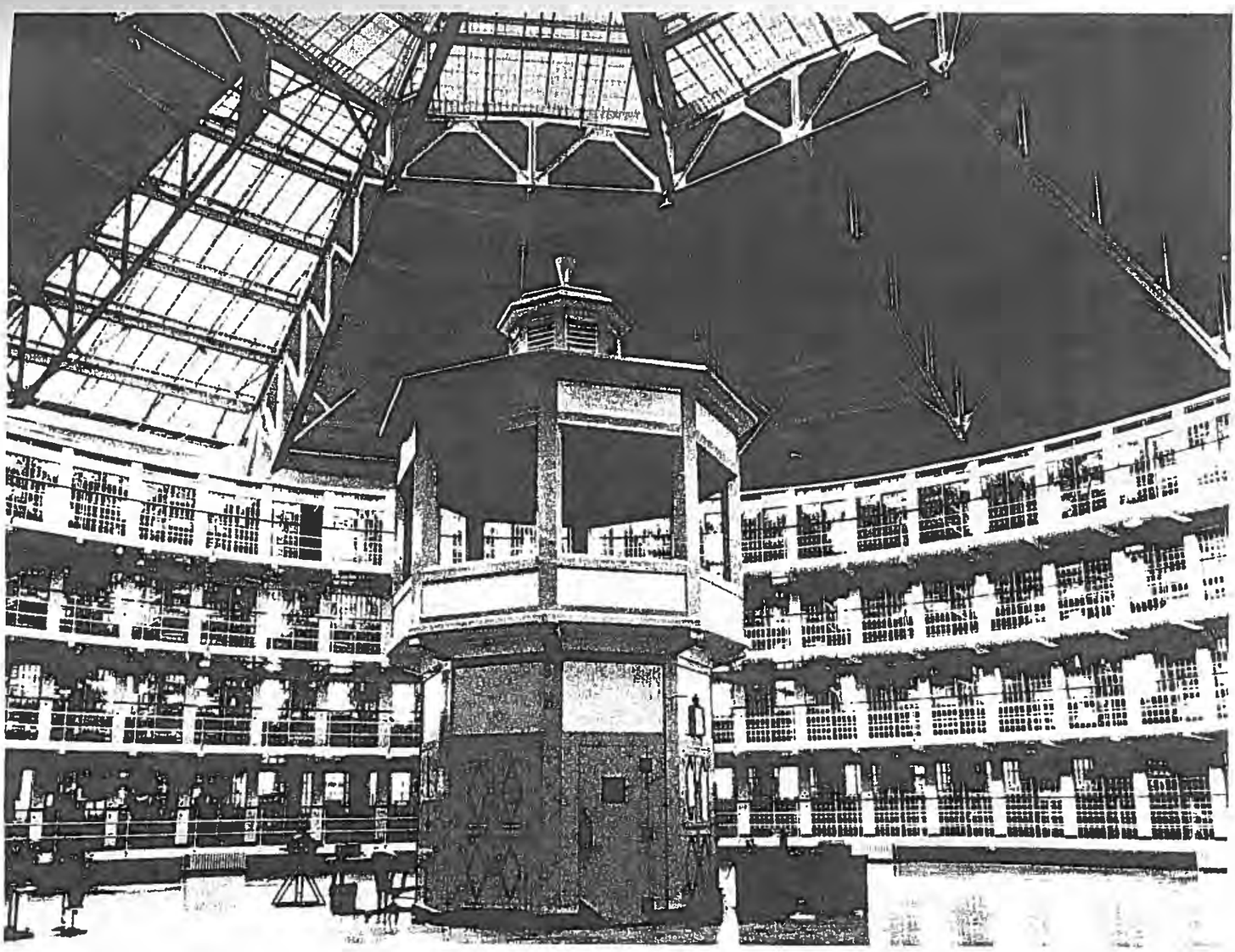


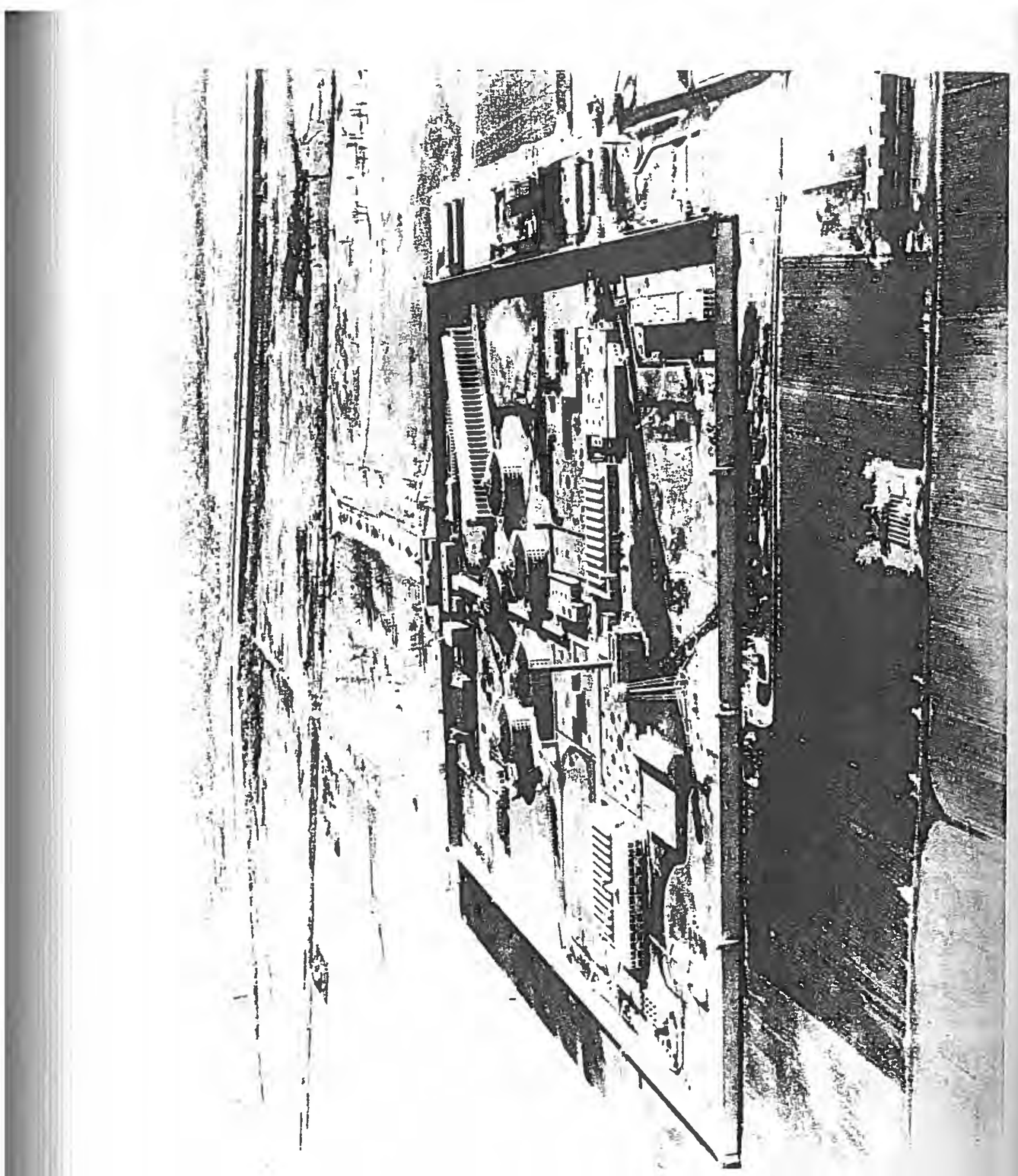


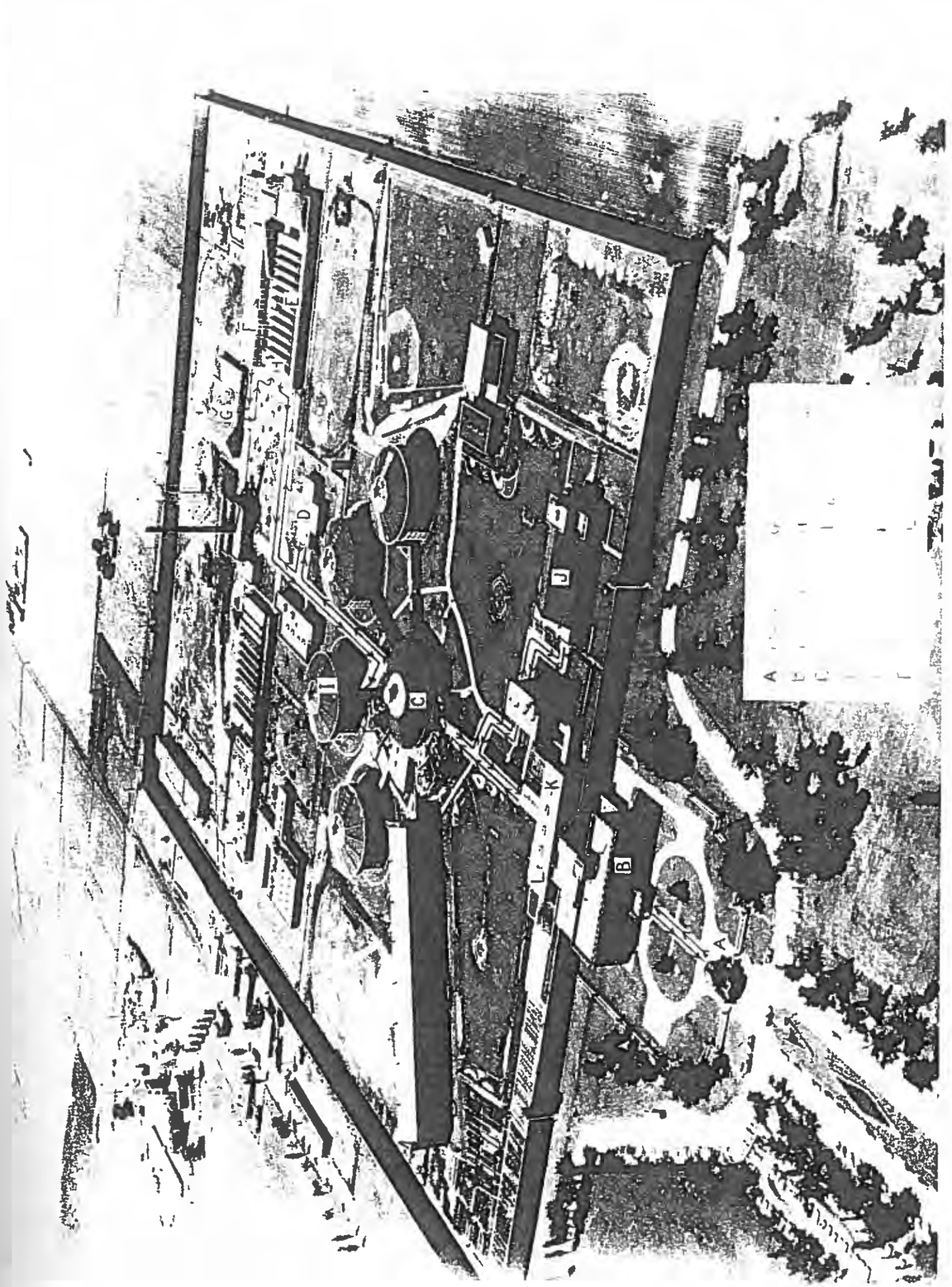




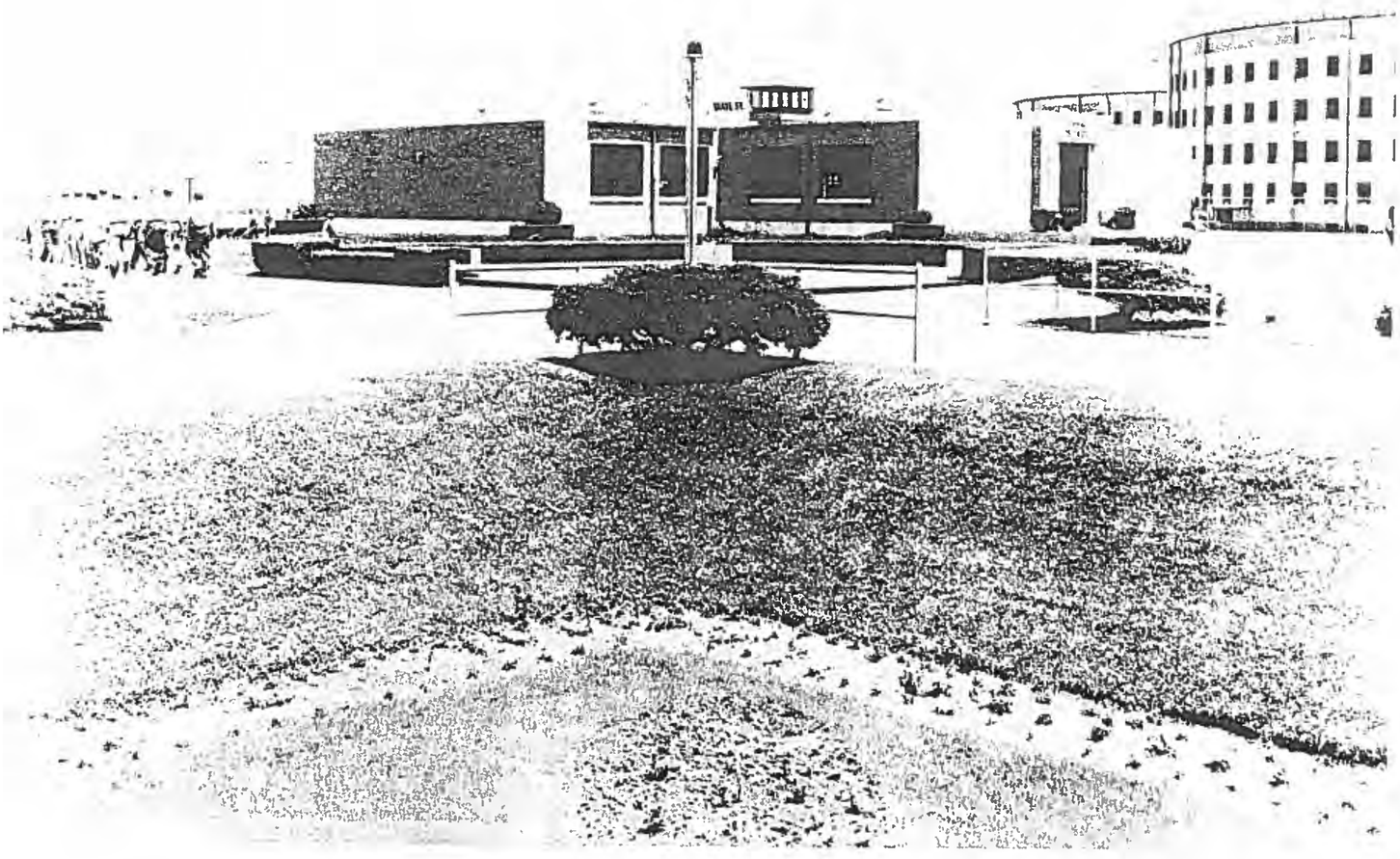







A
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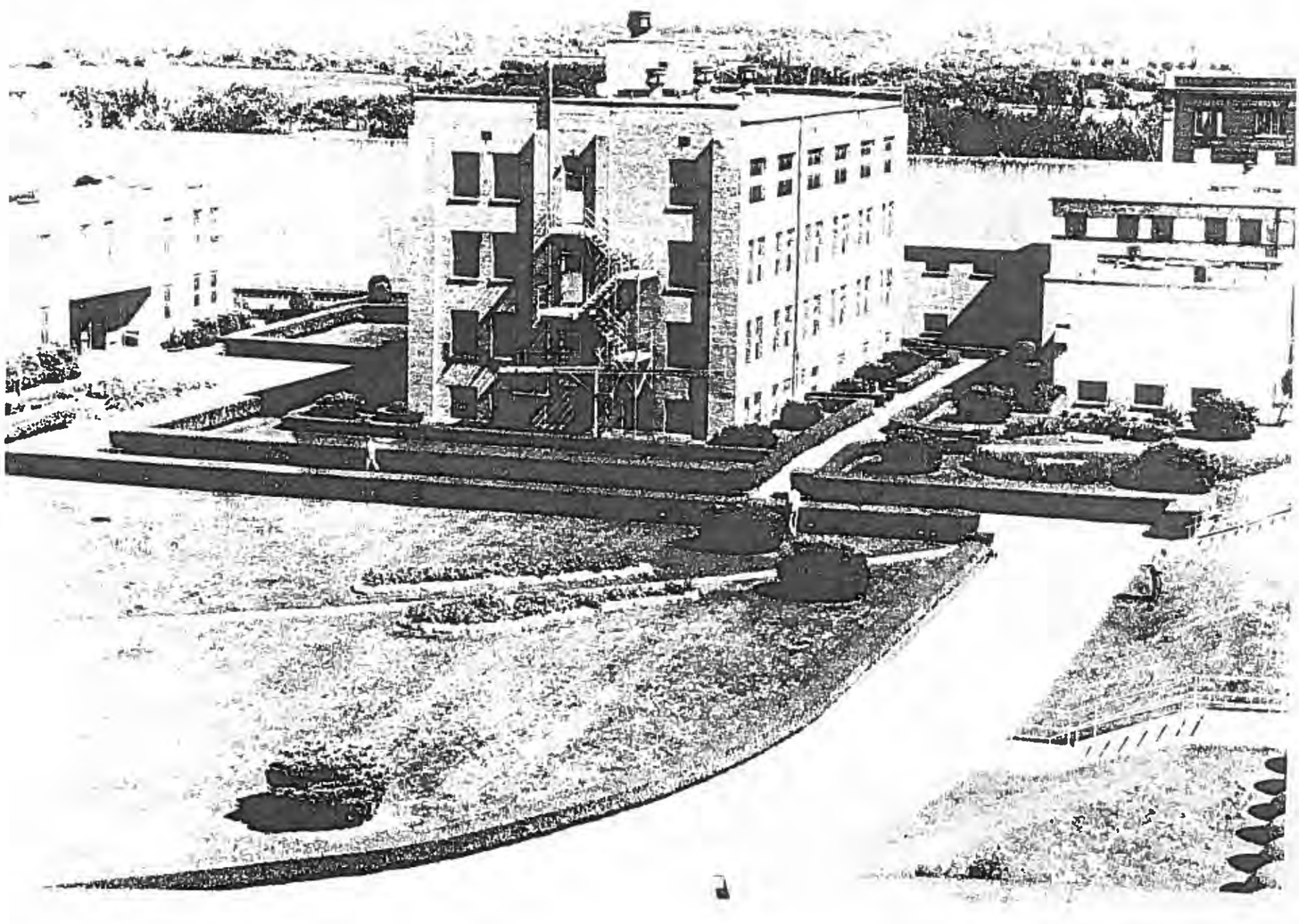


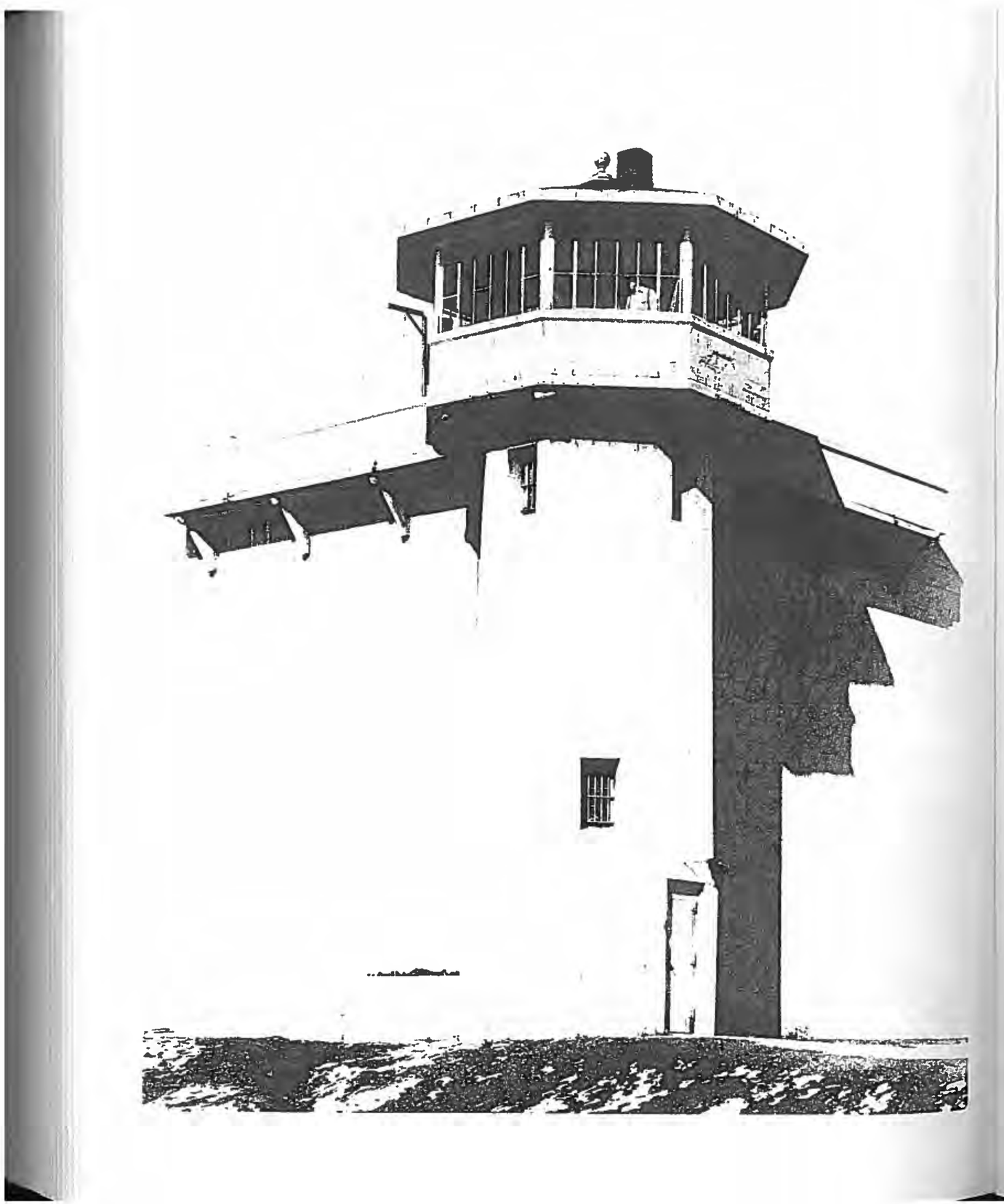


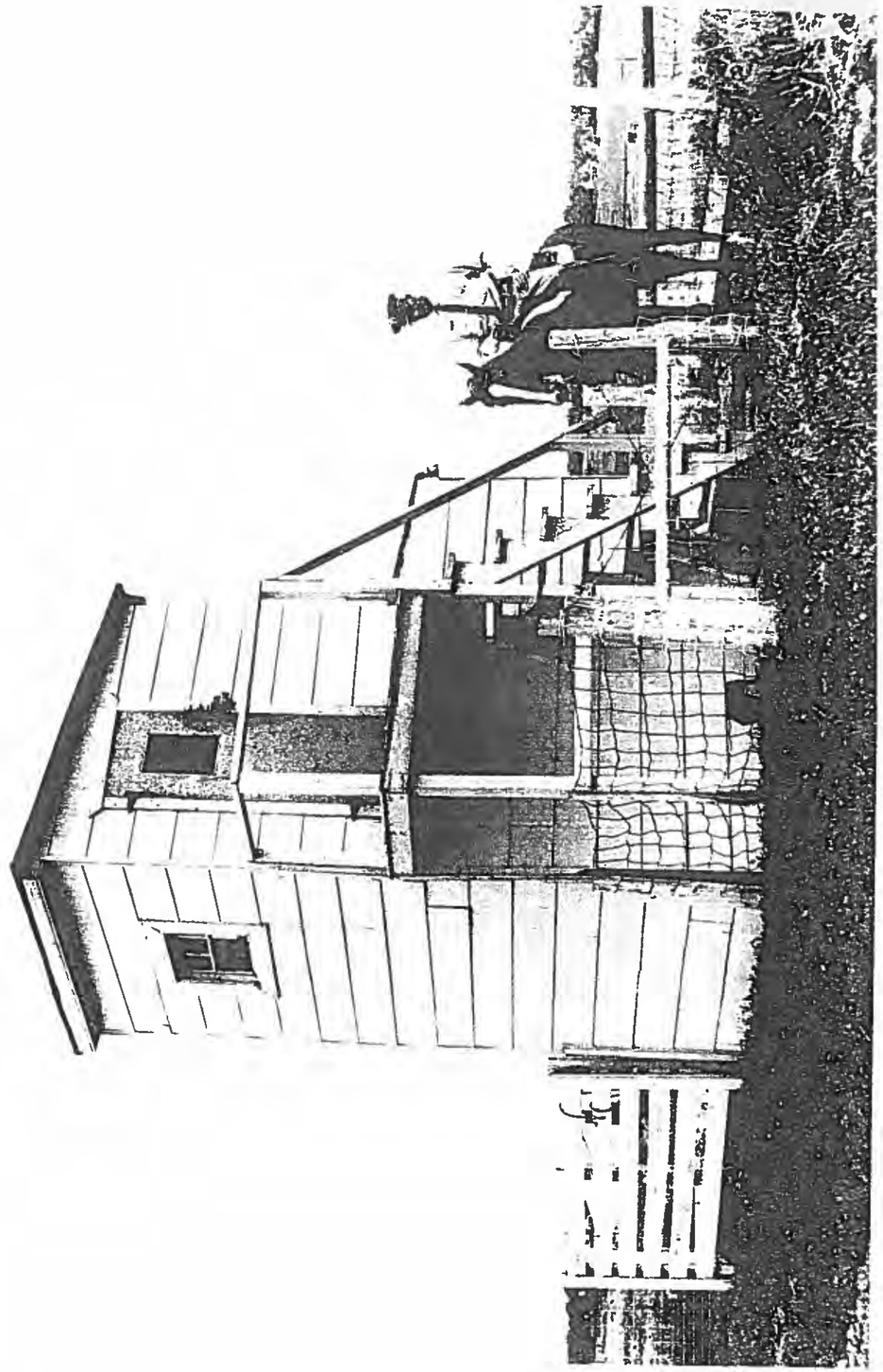


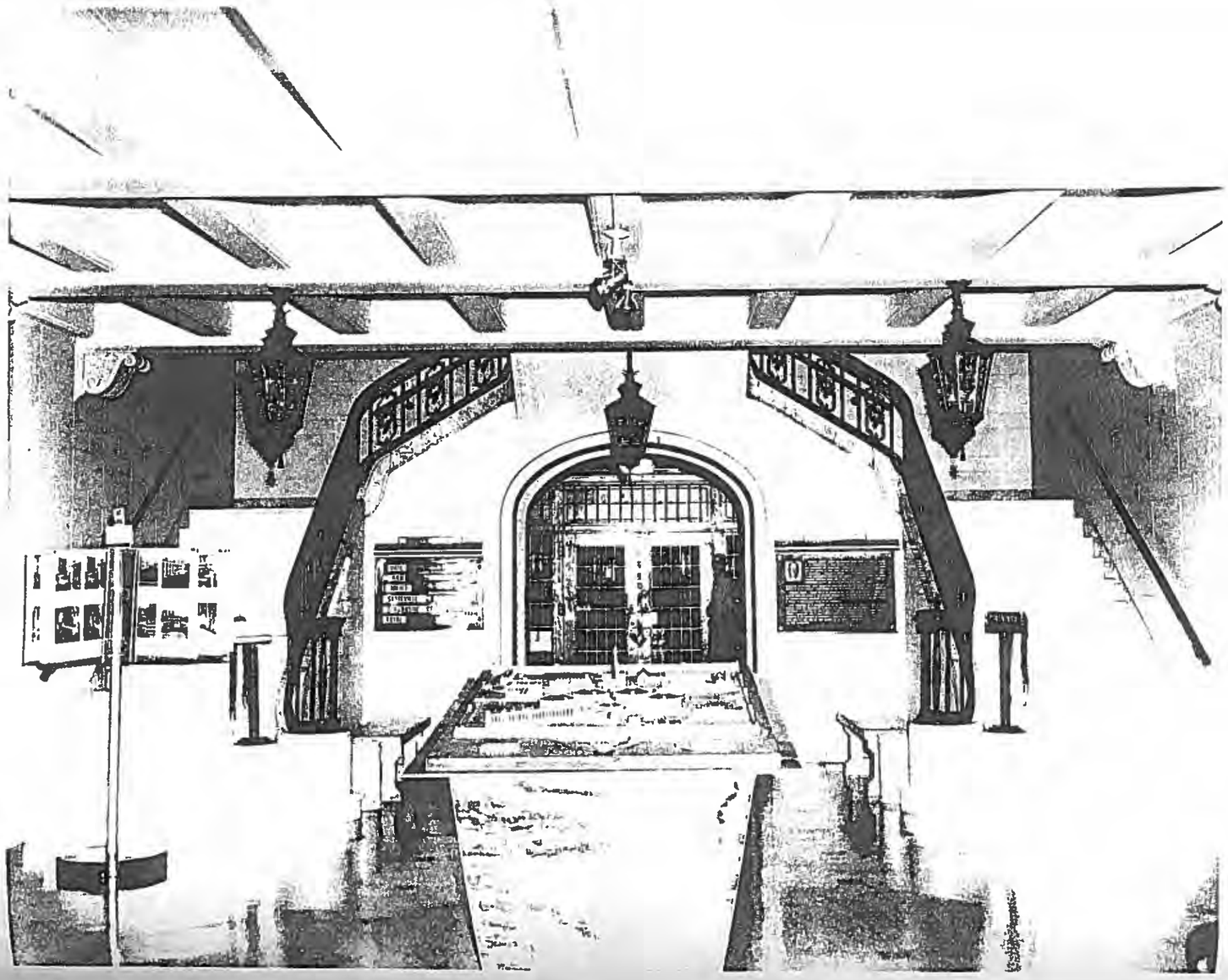


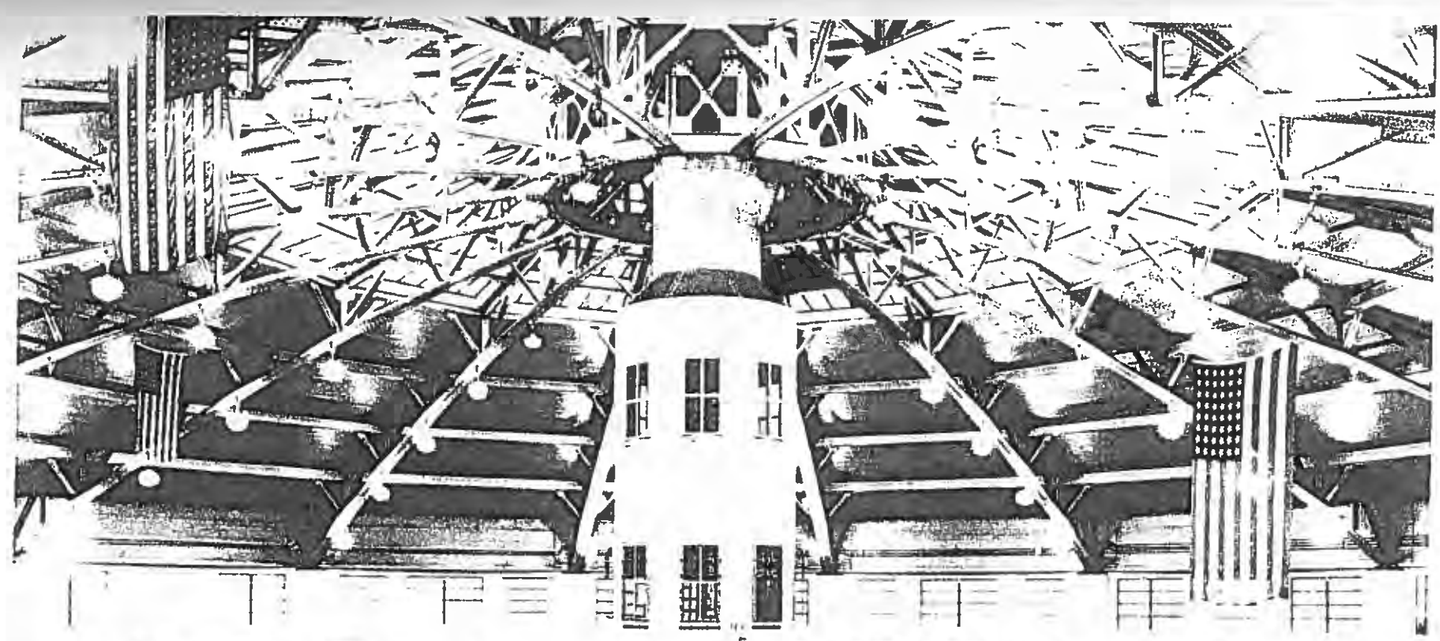


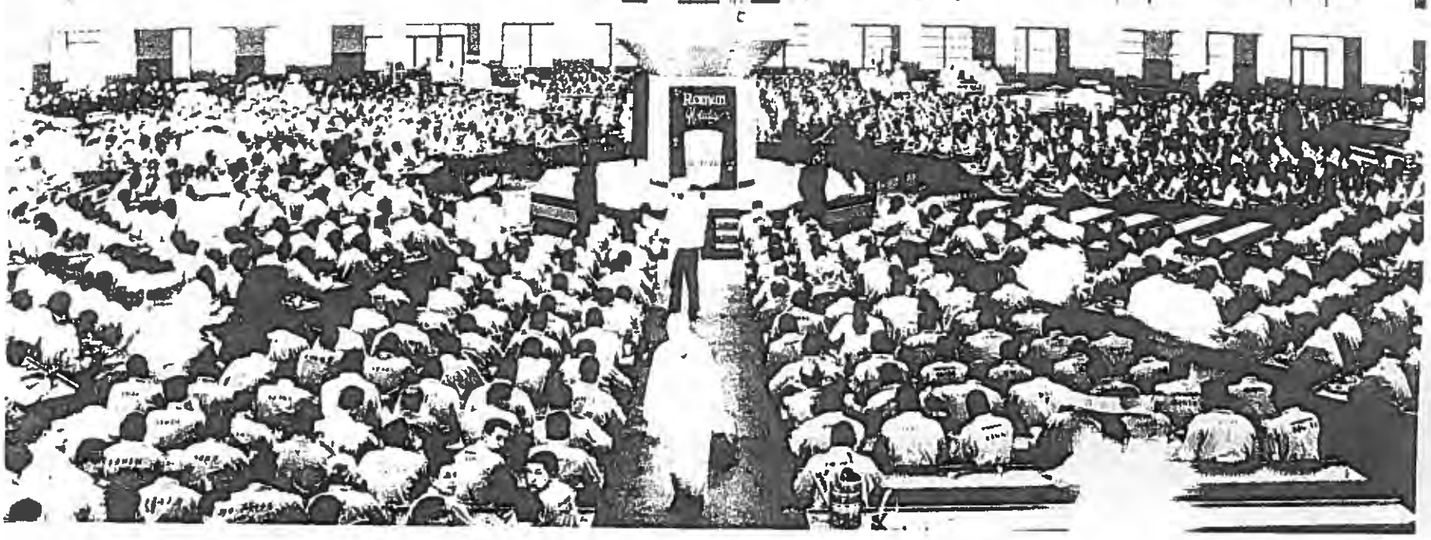


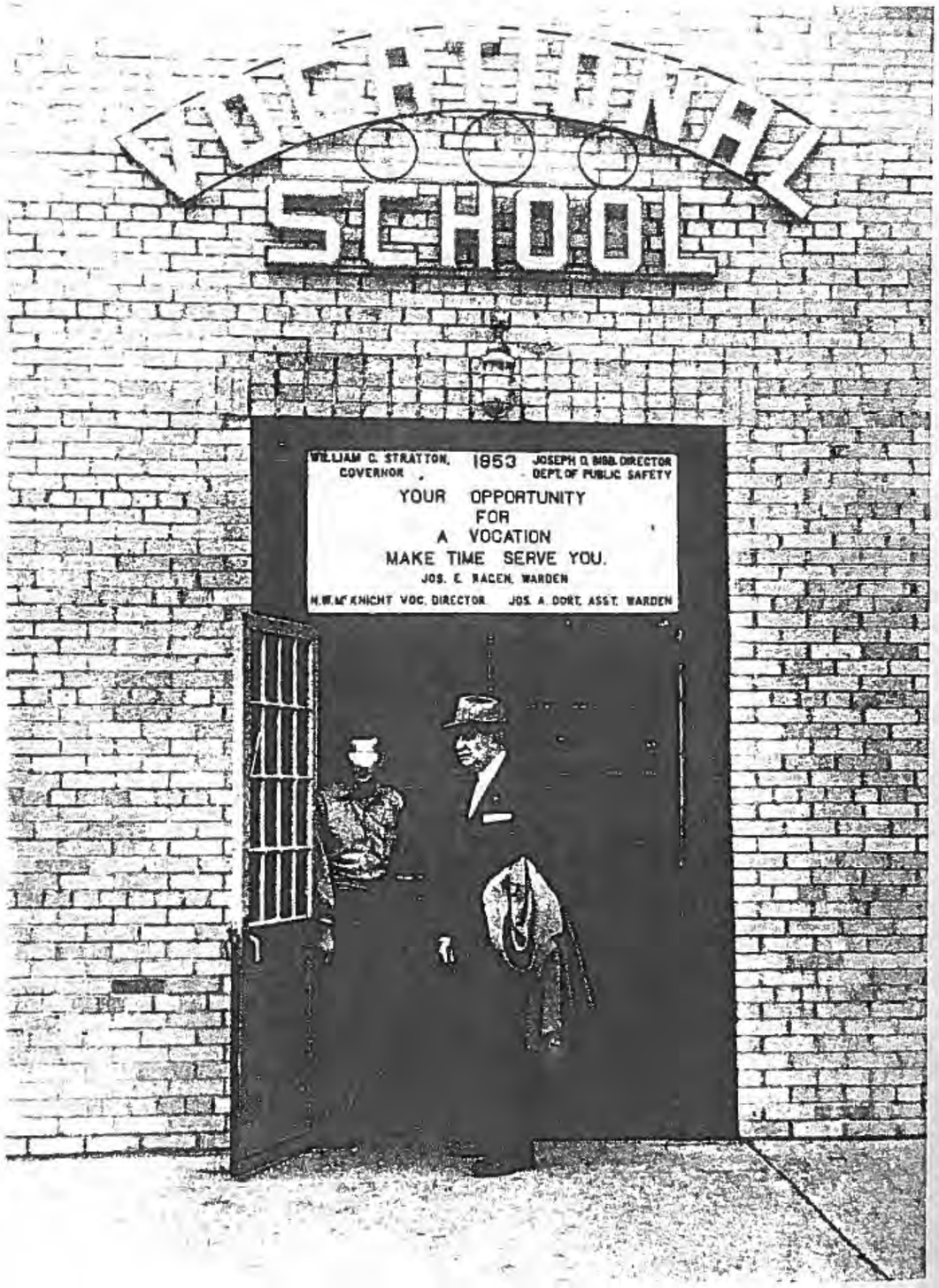


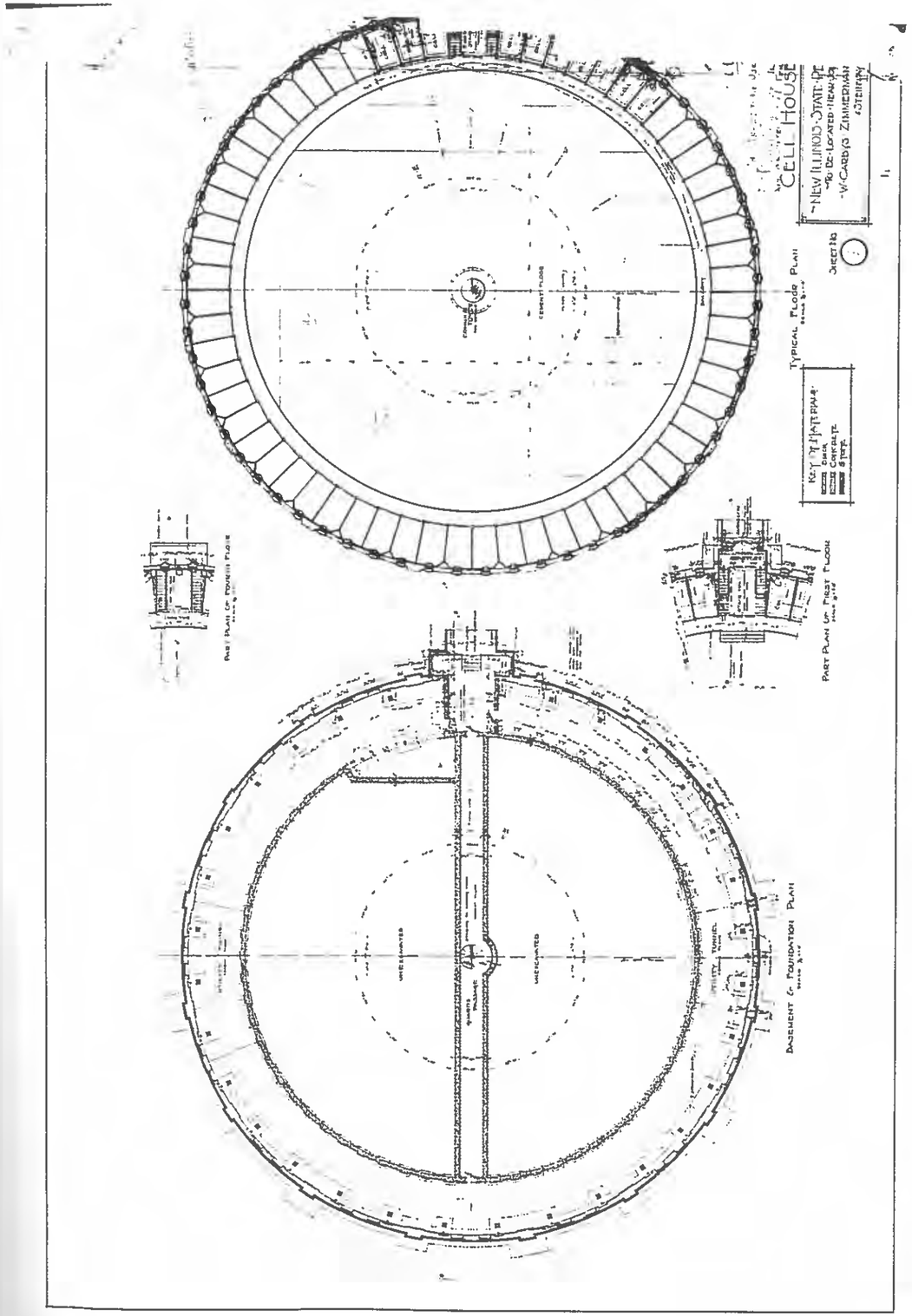









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1953
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CELL HOUSE
NEW ILLINOIS STATE PEN
TYPICAL FLOOR PLAN
KEY TO MATERIALS
BASEMENT & FOUNDATION PLAN

-CELL-HOUSE-SET-

"NEW ILLINOIS STATE PENITENTIARY"
"TO BE LOCATED NEAR JOLIET ILL."
-W. CARBYS ZIMMERMAN ARCHITECT-
-STEINWAY HALL CHICAGO-

SHEET NO. 4

KEY-TO-MATERIALS-

TYPICAL STAIR & CELL PLAN
TAKEN AT 2ND FLOOR
SCALE 1/16"

CELL NO. 60
CELL NO. 64
CELL NO. 65
BUNK
BUNK
STAIR HALL

CELL-HOUSE-SET

"NEW ILLINOIS STATE PENITENTIARY"
"TO BE LOCATED NEAR JOLIET ILL."
-W. CARBYS ZIMMERMAN ARCHITECT-
-STEINWAY HALL CHICAGO-

SHEET NO. 5

KEY-TO-MATERIALS-

DETAIL OF AIR INTAKE

DETAIL OF CELL WALL OVER TWO FLOORS

DOOR BETWEEN CELLHOUSE AND CORRIDOR

SECTION THRU CORNICE OF STAIR HALL

SECTION THRU CELLHOUSE & STAIR HALL

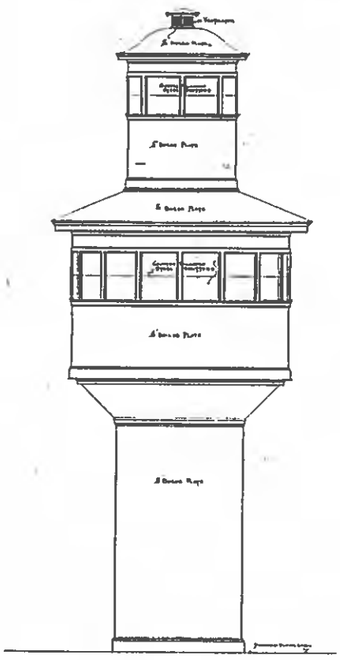
SECTION THRU TYPICAL CELL WALL

DETAIL OF WINDOW

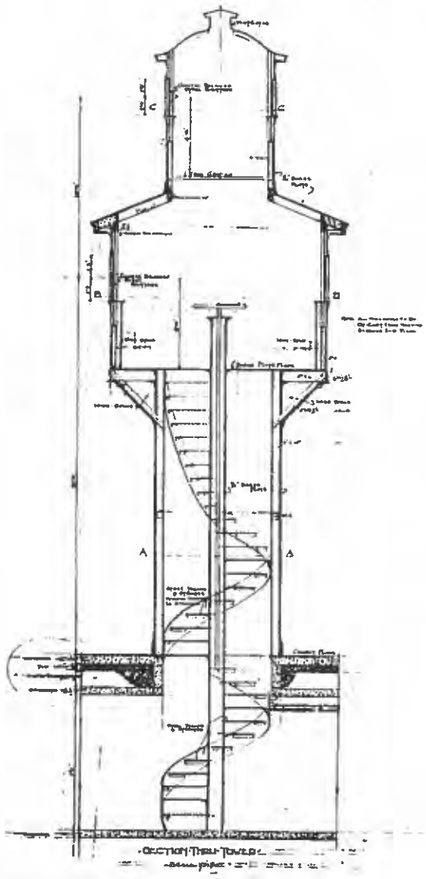
DETAIL OF DOOR

PLAN

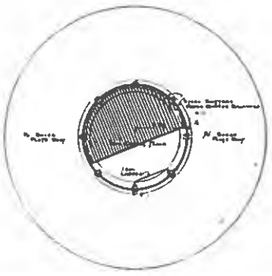
ELEVATION



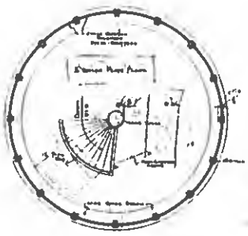
ELEVATION



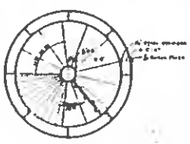
SECTION THRU TOWER C



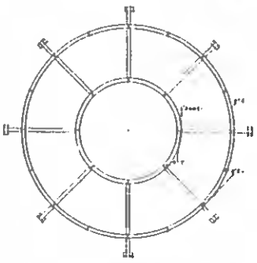
PLAN AT CC



PLAN AT D-D



PLAN AT A-A



FRAMING PLAN AT CC



FRAMING PLAN AT D-D

CONNING-TOWER-DETAILS

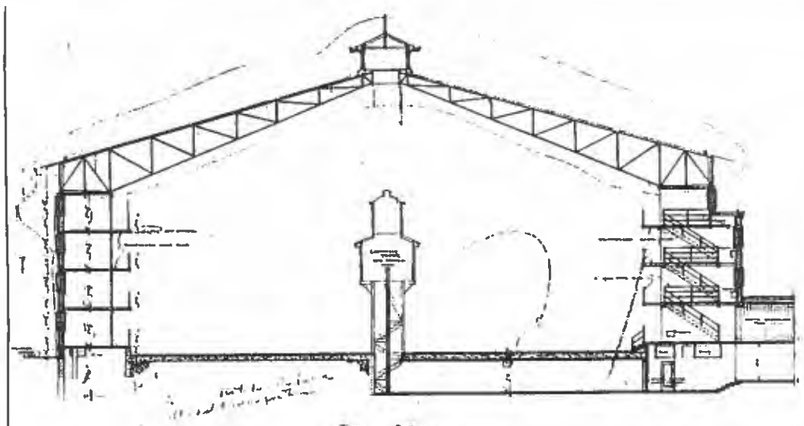
SCALE 3/4"=1'-0"

TYPICAL CELL HOUSE

CELL HOUSE SE

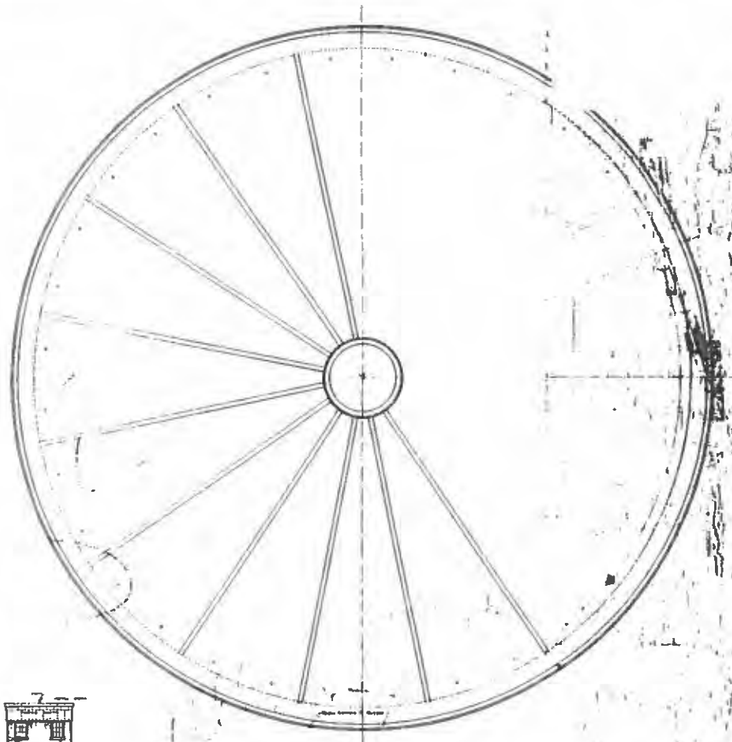
NEW ILLINOIS STATE PENITENTIARY
TO BE LOCATED NEAR JOLIET, ILL.
W. CARBYS ZIMMERMAN, ARCHITECT
STEINWAY HALL, CHICAGO

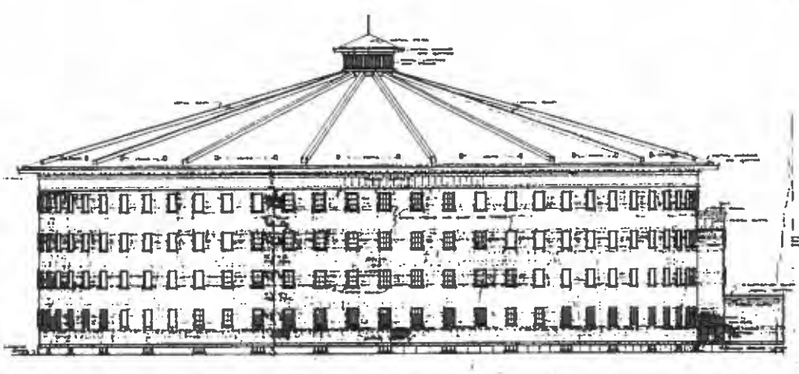
SHEET NO. 8



TYPICAL SECTION

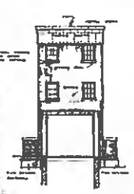
SCALE 3/16"=1'-0"





TYPICAL ELEVATION

SCALE 3/16"=1'-0"



FRONT ELEVATION OF STATE HALL DAY.

SCALE 3/16"=1'-0"

KEY OF MATERIALS

TYPICAL CELL HOUSE

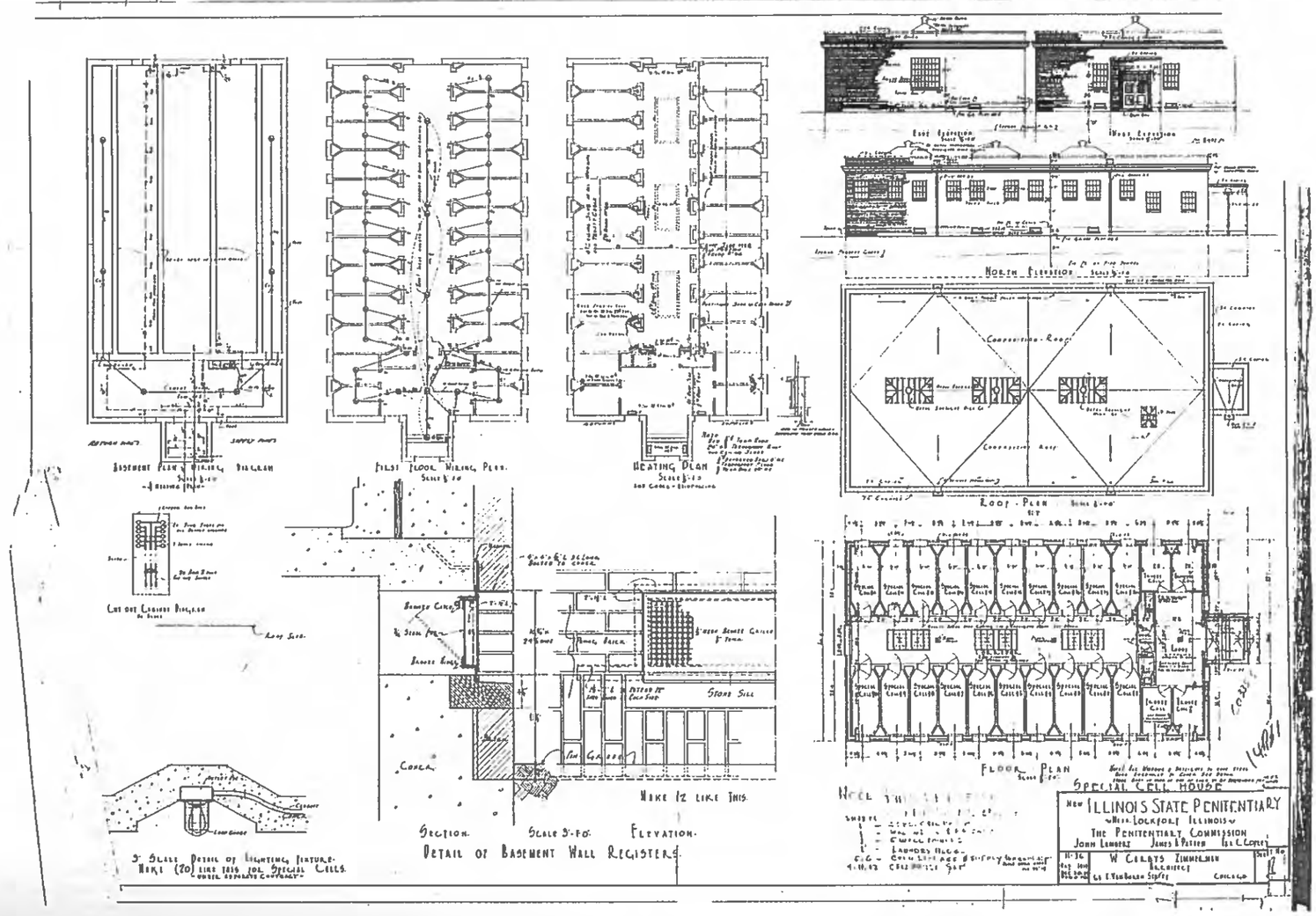
CELL HOUSE SET

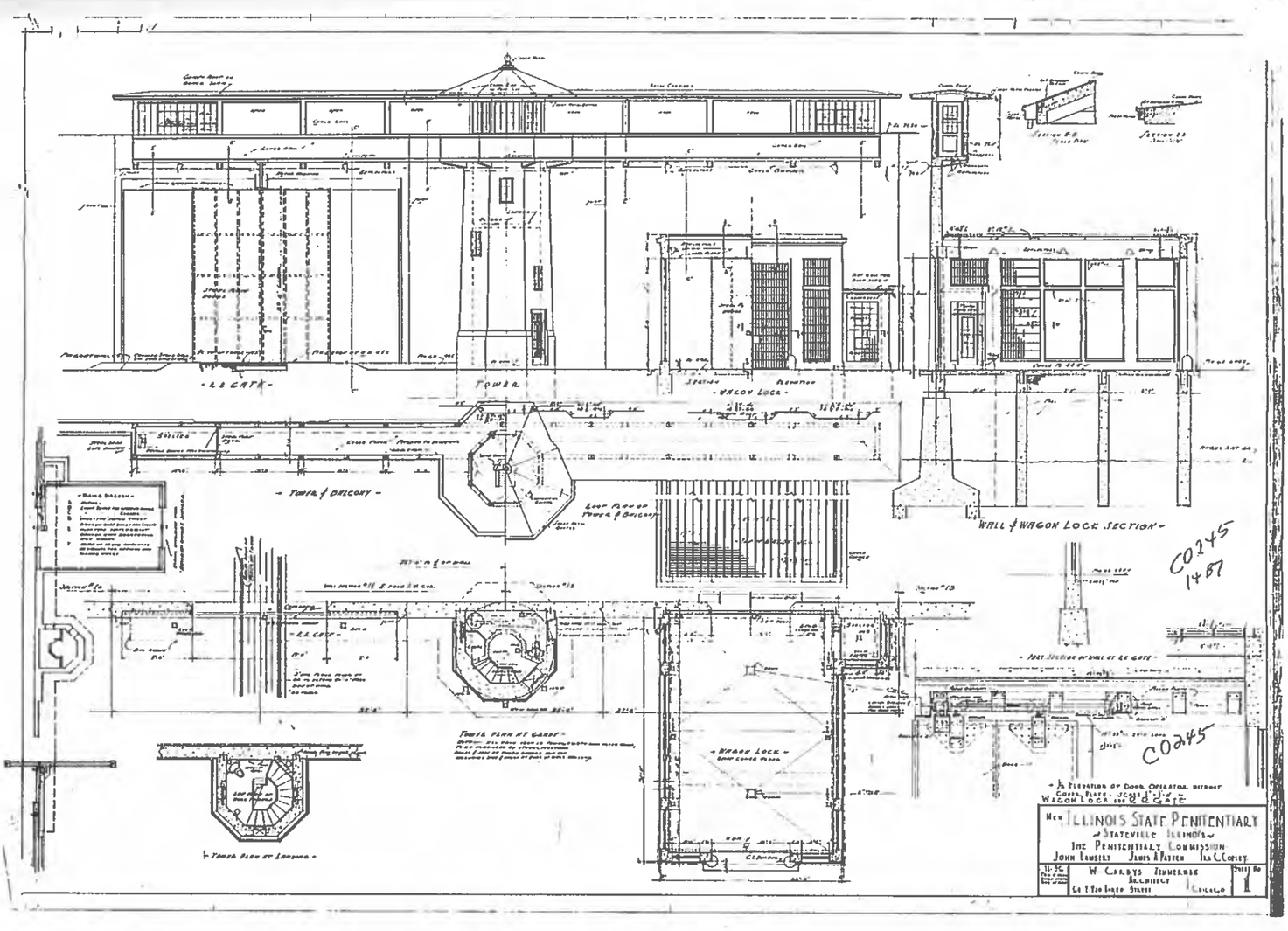
NEW ILLINOIS STATE PENITENTIARY
TO BE LOCATED NEAR JOLIET, ILL.
W. CARBYS ZIMMERMAN, ARCHITECT
STEINWAY HALL, CHICAGO

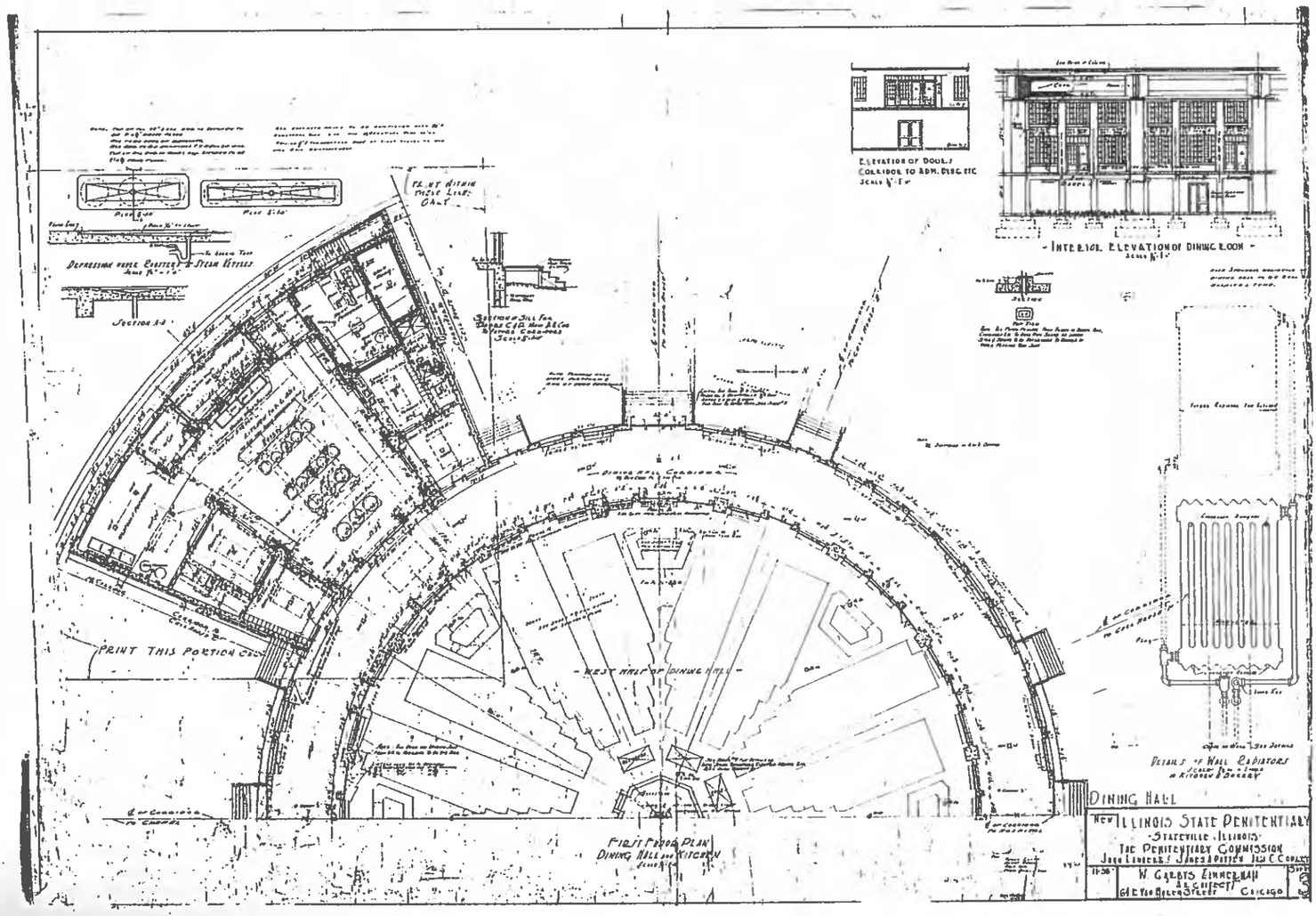
SHEET NO. 16

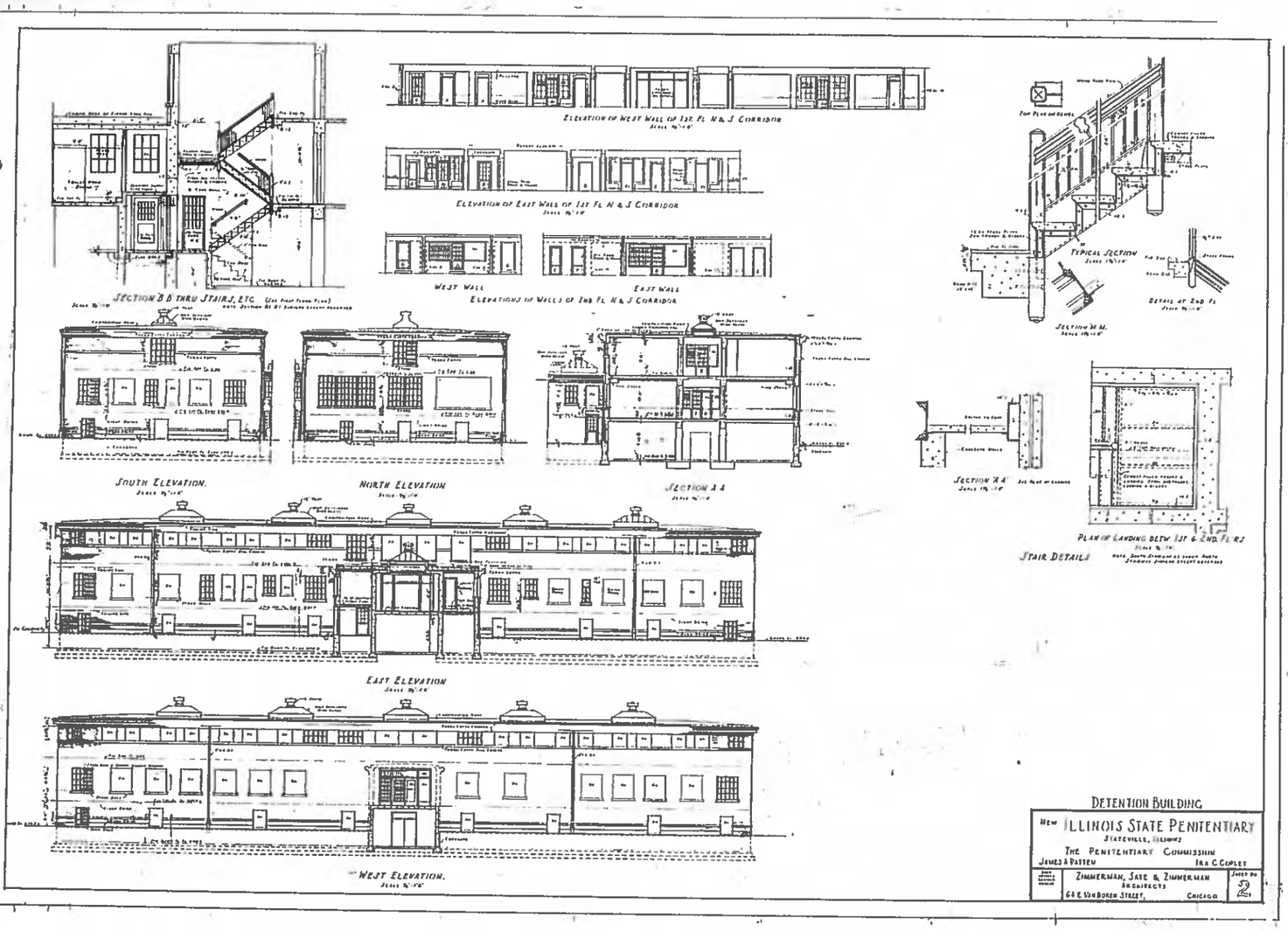
New ILLINOIS STATE PENITENTIARY
at Rock Island, Illinois
The Penitentiary Commission
John Lambert James A. Ryder Ira C. Copley
W. Carbys Zimmerman
Architect
Cell House Set C
Roof Plan
Scale 1/16
North
South
West
Section A-A
Section B-B
Section C-C
Section D-D
Section E-E
Section F-F
Section G-G
Section H-H
Details of Skylight
Scale 1-16

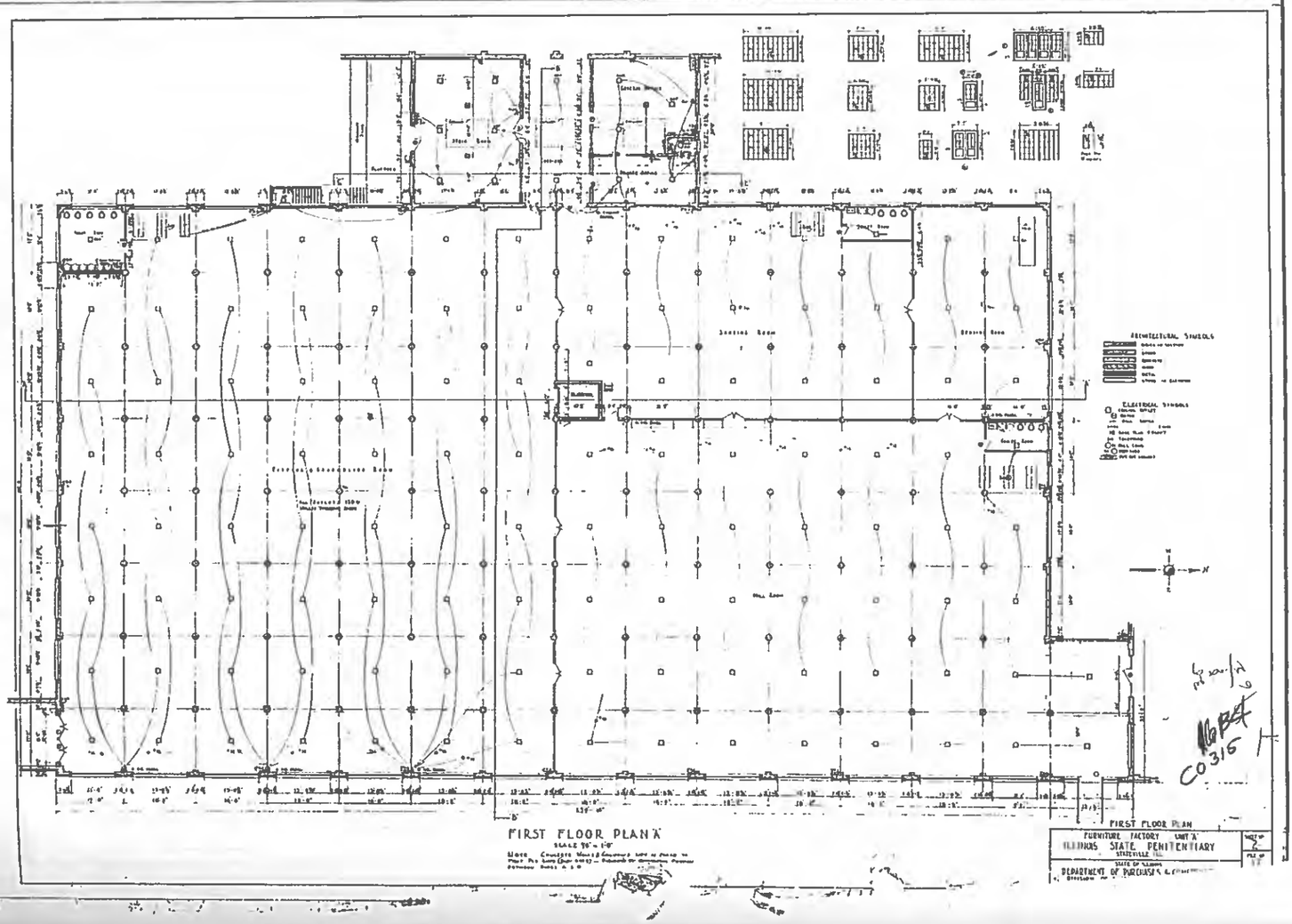
New ILLINOIS STATE PENITENTIARY
at Rock Island, Illinois
The Penitentiary Commission
John Lambert James A. Ryder Ira C. Copley
W. Carbys Zimmerman
Architect
5 Wall Towers
Elevation
Detail of Dome - Top Level
Detail of Windows in Tower
Plan of Observation Floor
Plan of Middle Floor
Plan of Ground Floor
Section A-A
Section B-B
Detail of Entrance Door to Tower

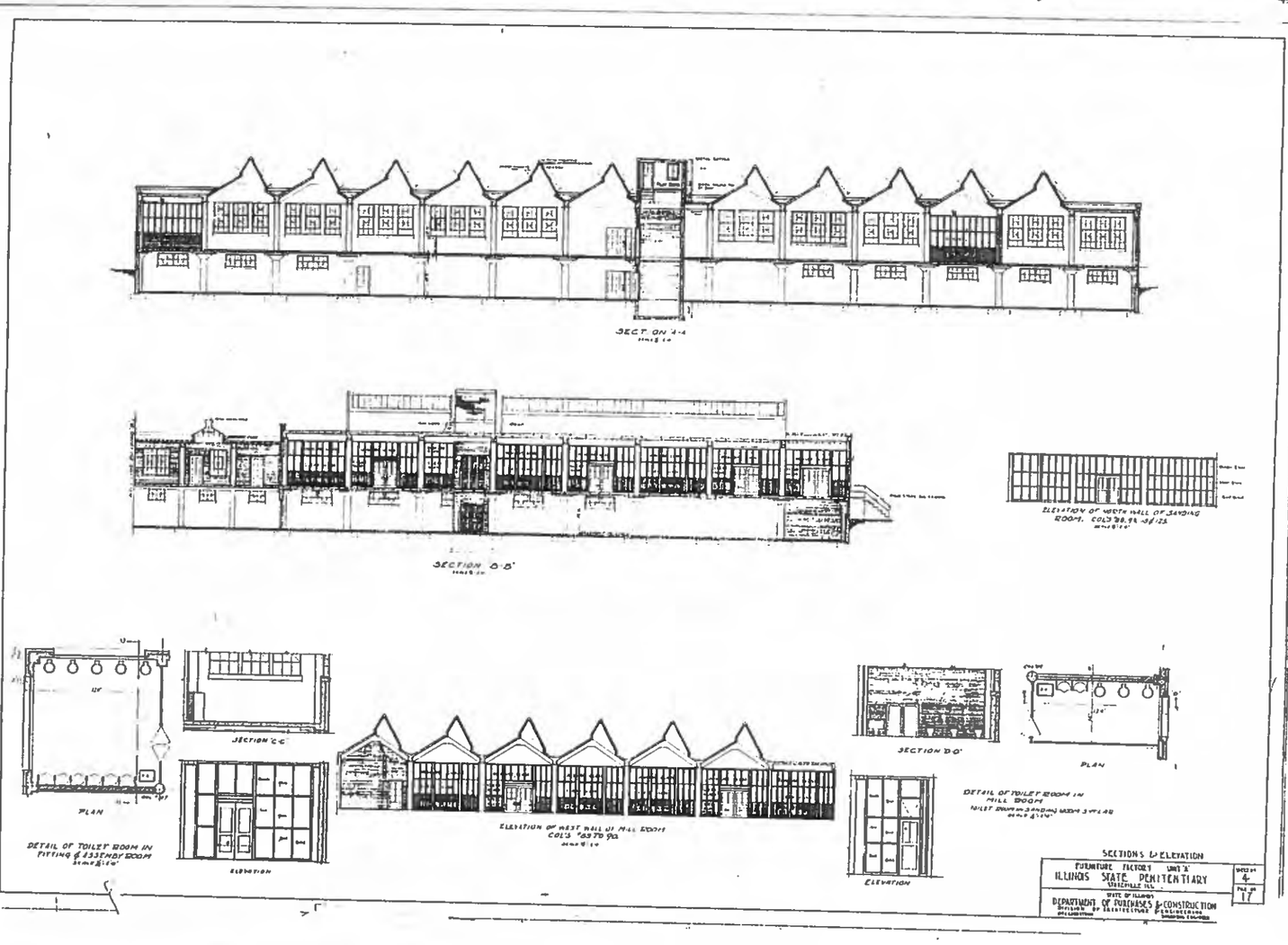

Basement Plan & Wiring Diagram
First Floor Wiring Plan
Heating Plan
North Elevation
Roof Plan
Floor Plan
Special Cell House
New Illinois State Penitentiary
Joliet, Illinois
The Penitentiary Commission
John Lambert James A Patten Ira C Copley
W Carbys Zimmerman
Architect
Chicago
Section
Elevation
Detail of Basement Wall Registers
Make it like this

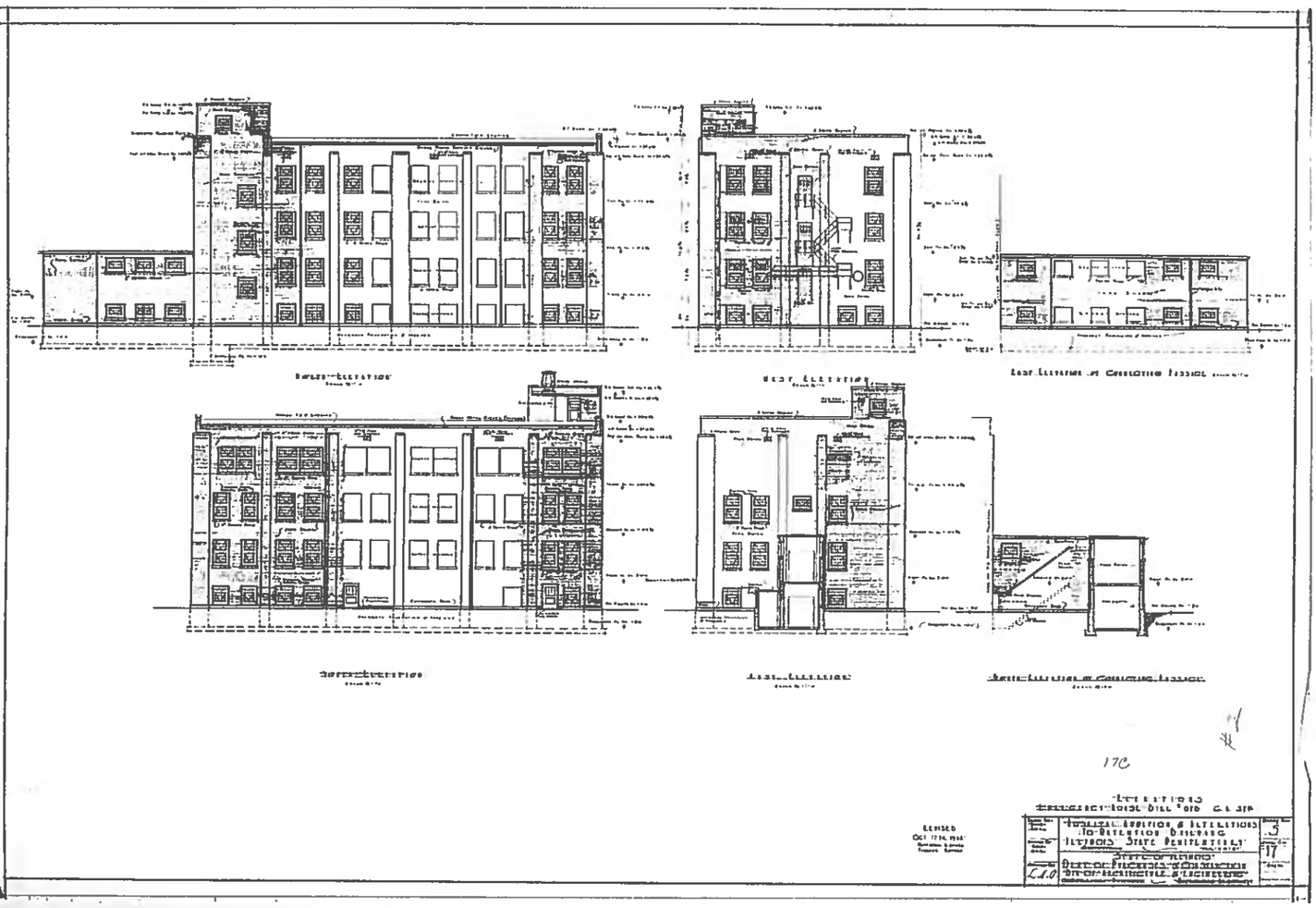

Tower & Balcony
Wall & Wagon Lock Section
Tower Plan at Gate
Wagon Lock
New Illinois State Penitentiary
Stateville Illinois
The Penitentiary Commission
John Lambert James A Patten Ira C Copley
W Carbys Zimmerman
Architect
Chicago


Elevation of Door, Corridor to Adm. Bldg. etc
Interior Elevation of Dining Room
Depressed Vapor Radiator & Steam Mains
Section A-A
Section of Sill for Double Cast Iron Sash & Metal Casements
Details of Wall Radiators
PRINT THIS PORTION ONLY
- West Half of Dining Hall -
First Floor Plan
Dining Hall and Kitchen
Dining Hall
New Illinois State Penitentiary
Statesville, Illinois
The Penitentiary Commission
James A Patten Ira C Copley
W. Carbys Zimmerman
Architect
66 E. Van Buren Street Chicago

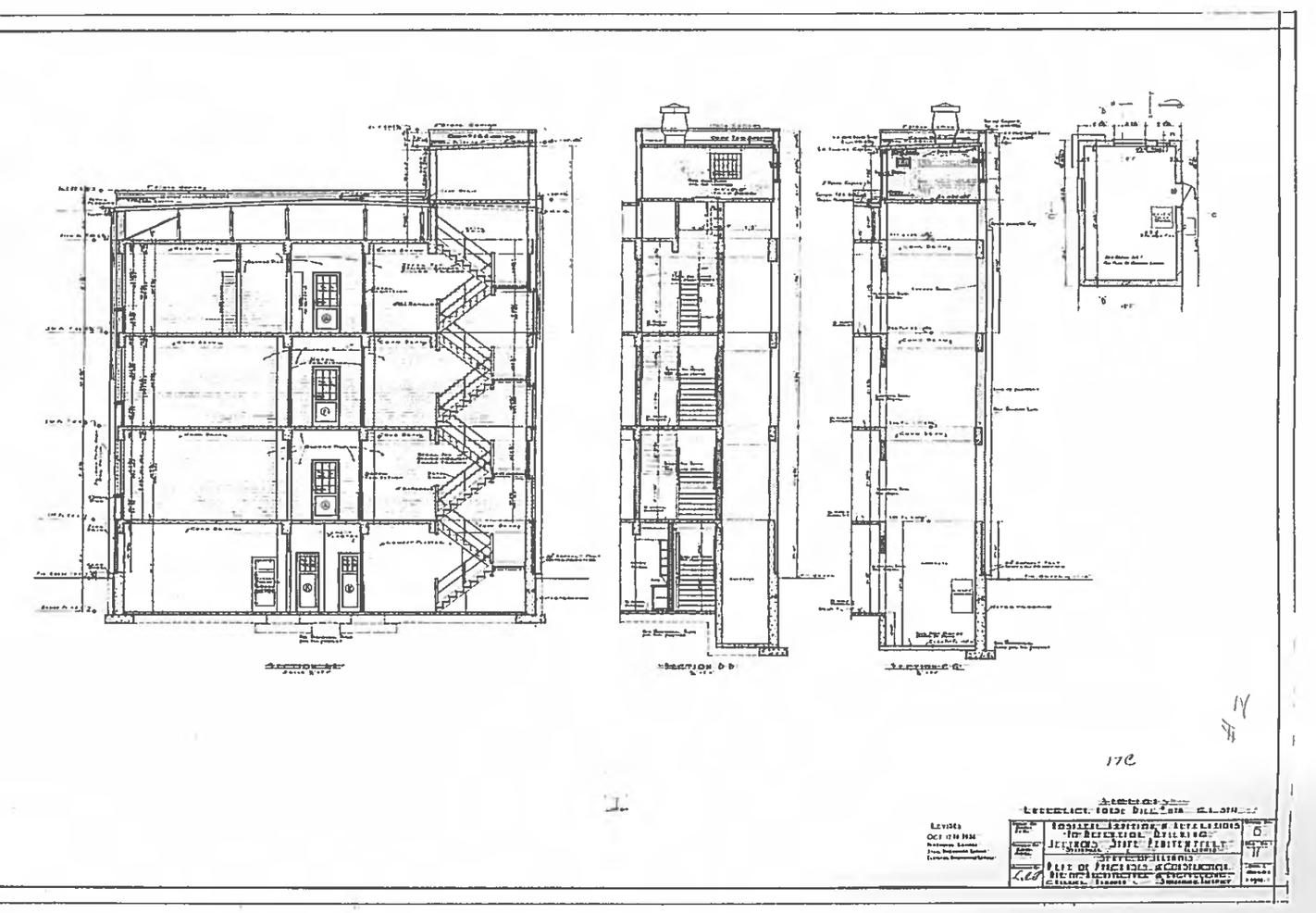

Section B-B thru Stairs, etc.
Elevation of West Wall of 1st Fl. N. & S. Corridor
Elevation of East Wall of 1st Fl. N. & S. Corridor
West Wall
East Wall
Elevations of Walls of 2nd Fl. N. & S. Corridor
Typical Section
Detail at 2nd Fl.
Section M-M.
South Elevation.
North Elevation
Section A-A
Section A-A
Plan of Landing betw. 1st & 2nd Flrs.
Stair Details
East Elevation
West Elevation.
Detention Building
New Illinois State Penitentiary
Statesville, Illinois
The Penitentiary Commission
James A Patten
Ira C Copley
Zimmerman, Saxe & Zimmerman
Architects
66 E. Van Buren Street, Chicago.
Sheet No. 2


ARCHITECTURAL SYMBOLS
ELECTRICAL SYMBOLS
FIRST FLOOR PLAN
SCALE 1/8"=1'-0"
FIRST FLOOR PLAN
FURNITURE FACTORY UNIT 'A'
ILLINOIS STATE PENITENTIARY
STATEVILLE ILL.
DEPARTMENT OF PURCHASES & CONSTRUCTION

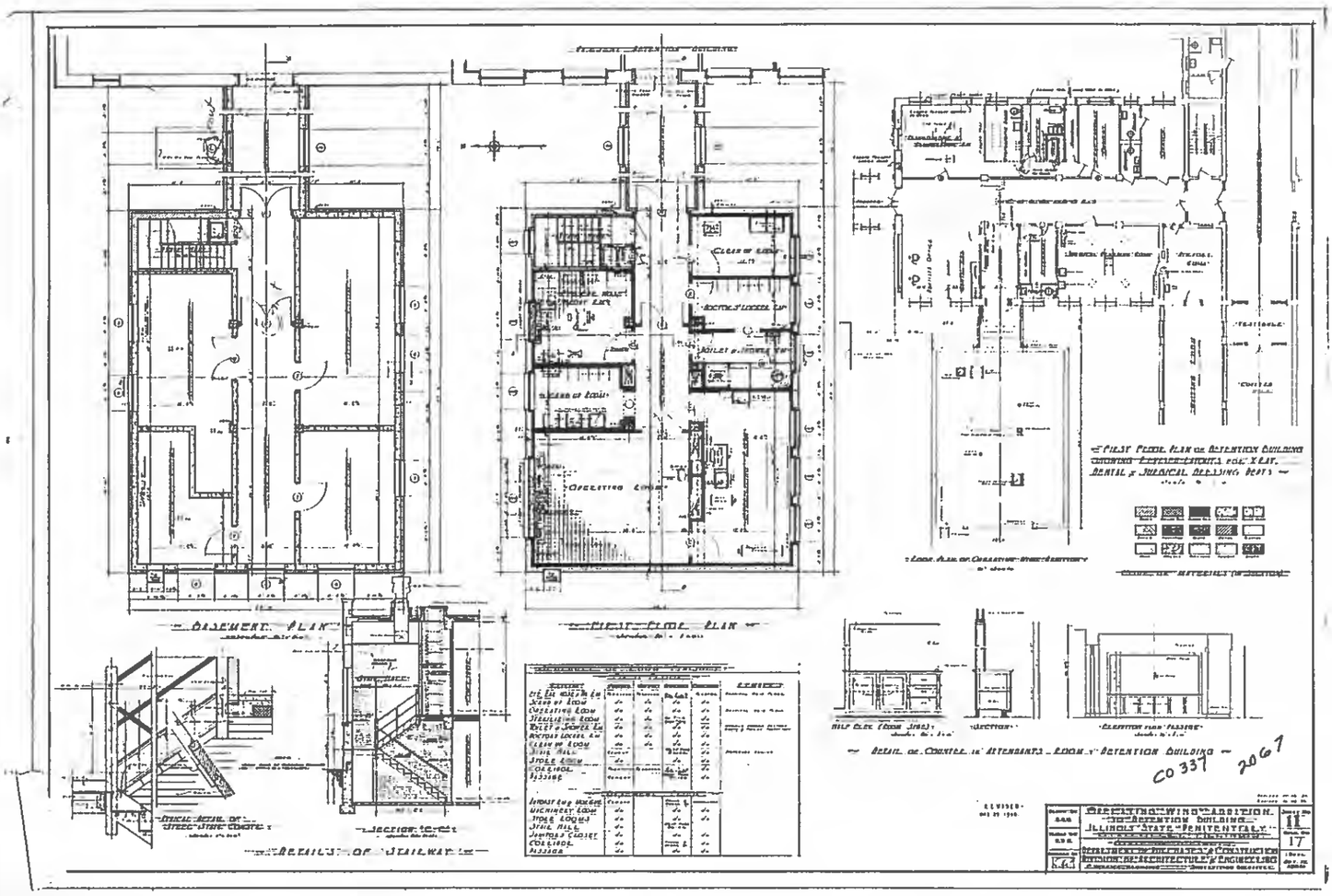

SECT ON A-A
SECTION B-B'
ELEVATION OF NORTH WALL OF SANDING ROOM. COL'S 38.5% 48 & 52
SECTION C-C
PLAN
DETAIL OF TOILET ROOM IN FITTING & ASSEMBLY ROOM
ELEVATION
ELEVATION OF WEST WALL OF MAIN ROOM COL'S 48 TO 52
SECTION D-D'
PLAN
DETAIL OF TOILET ROOM IN MAIN ROOM
ELEVATION
SECTIONS & ELEVATION
FURNITURE FACTORY UNIT 'A'
ILLINOIS STATE PENITENTIARY
STATEVILLE ILL.
DEPARTMENT OF PURCHASES & CONSTRUCTION

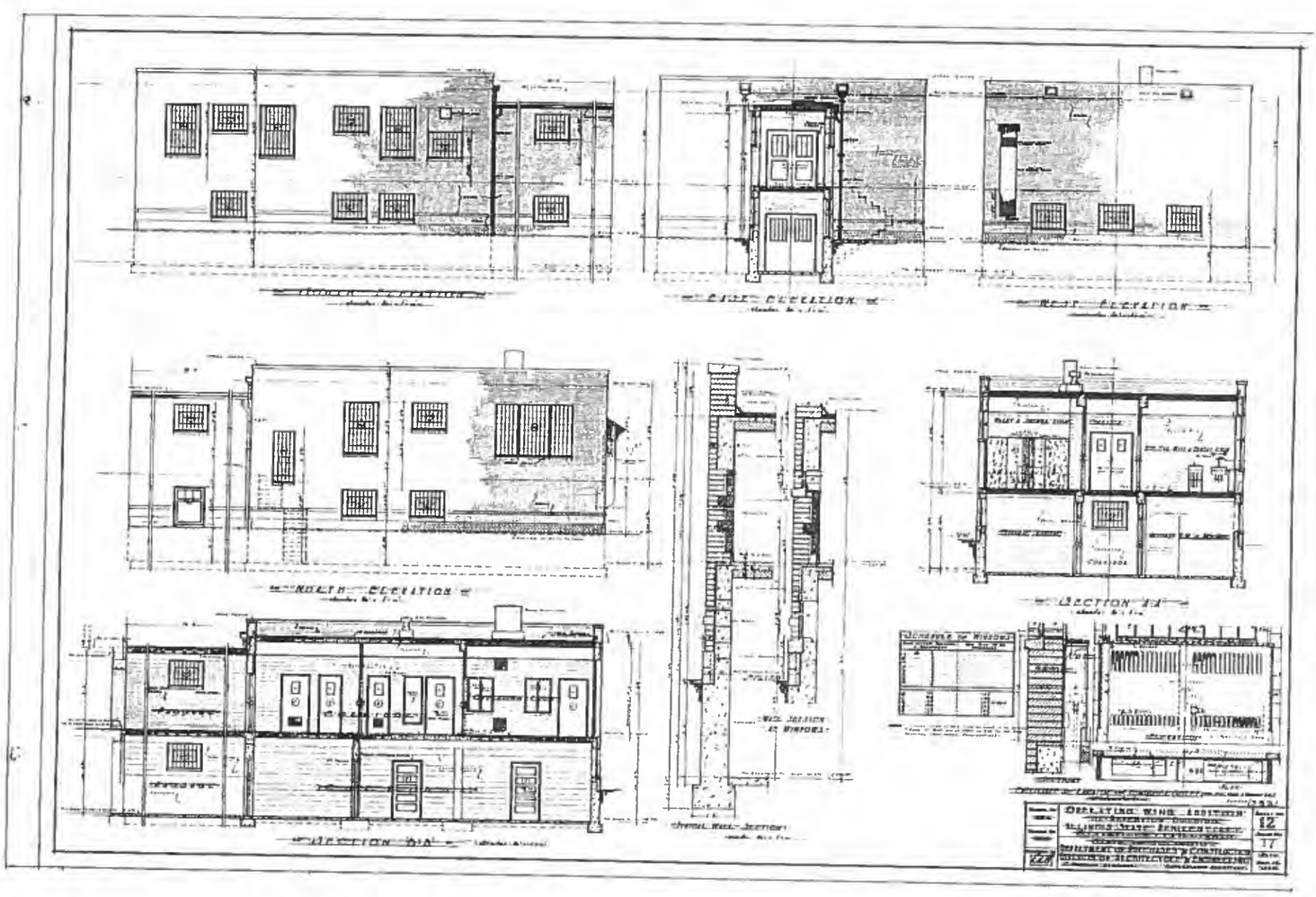


17C



17C


BASEMENT PLAN
FIRST FLOOR PLAN
DETAILS OF STAIRWAY
DETAIL OF COUNTER IN ATTENDANTS ROOM IN RETENTION BUILDING
CO 337 2067
REVISED
RECEPTION WING ADDITION
TO RETENTION BUILDING
ILLINOIS STATE PENITENTIARY
DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC WORKS & BUILDINGS
DIVISION OF ARCHITECTS & ENGINEERS
11
17


EAST ELEVATION
WEST ELEVATION
NORTH ELEVATION
SECTION AA
SECTION BB
RECEPTION WING ADDITION
TO RETENTION BUILDING
ILLINOIS STATE PENITENTIARY
DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC WORKS & BUILDINGS
DIVISION OF ARCHITECTS & ENGINEERS
12
17

South Elevation.

Section A-A.

North Elevation.

West Elevation.

Section of 3rd Story

East Elevation.

Revisions

Segregation Building
Illinois State Penitentiary
Joliet, Illinois

Department of Public Works and Buildings
Division of Architecture & Engineering

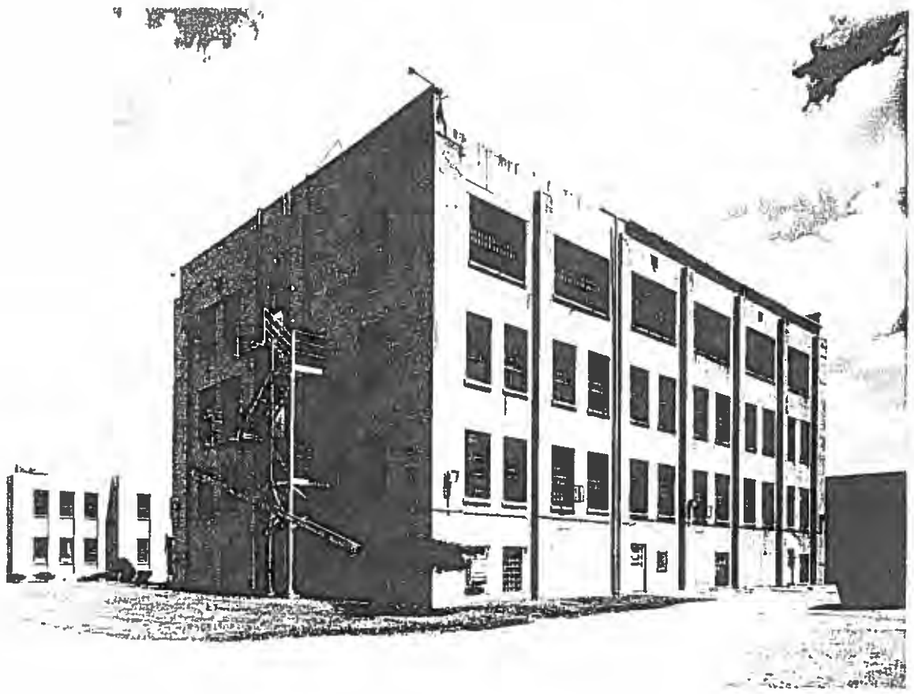
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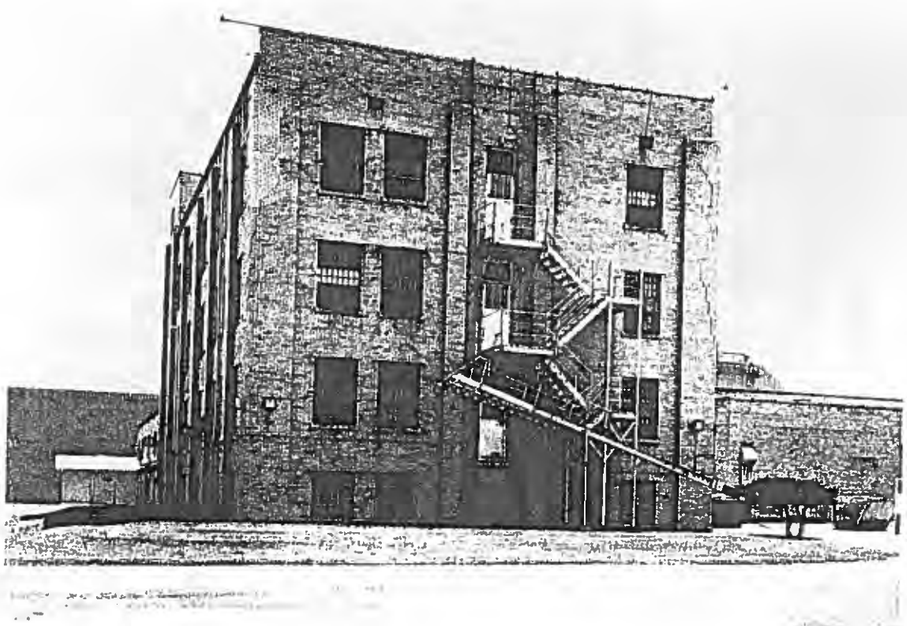
Revisions

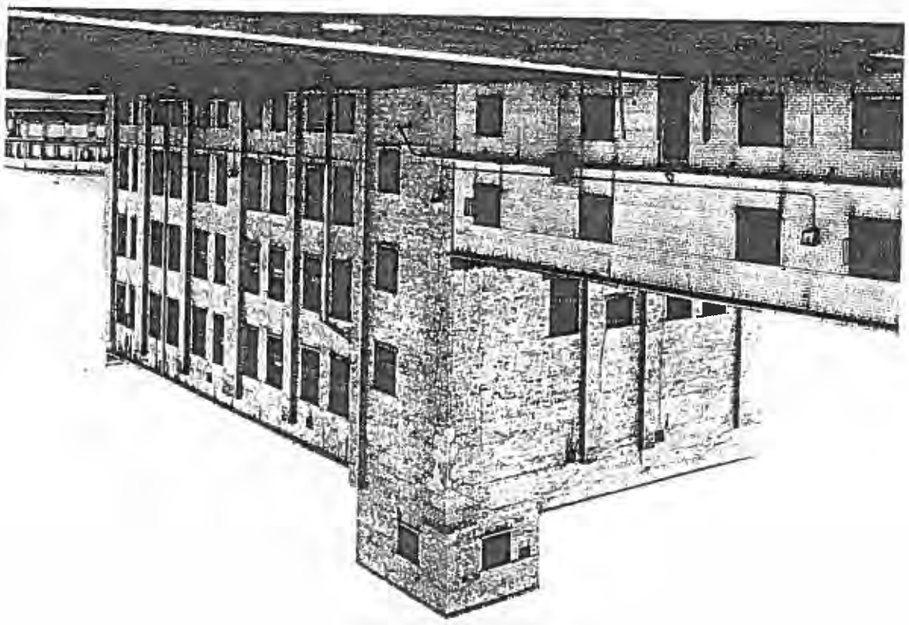
Segregation Building
Illinois State Penitentiary
Joliet, Illinois

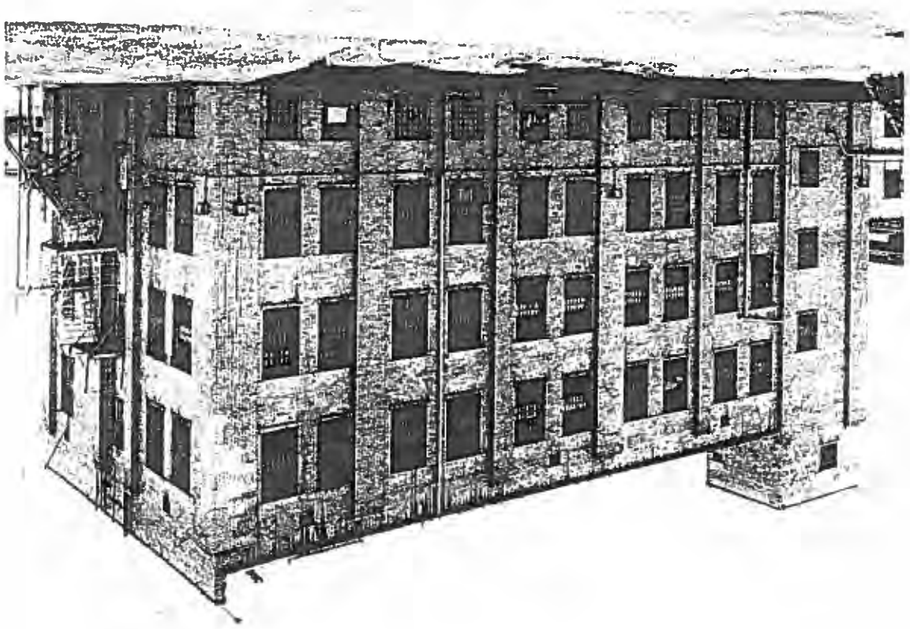
Department of Public Works and Buildings
Division of Architecture & Engineering

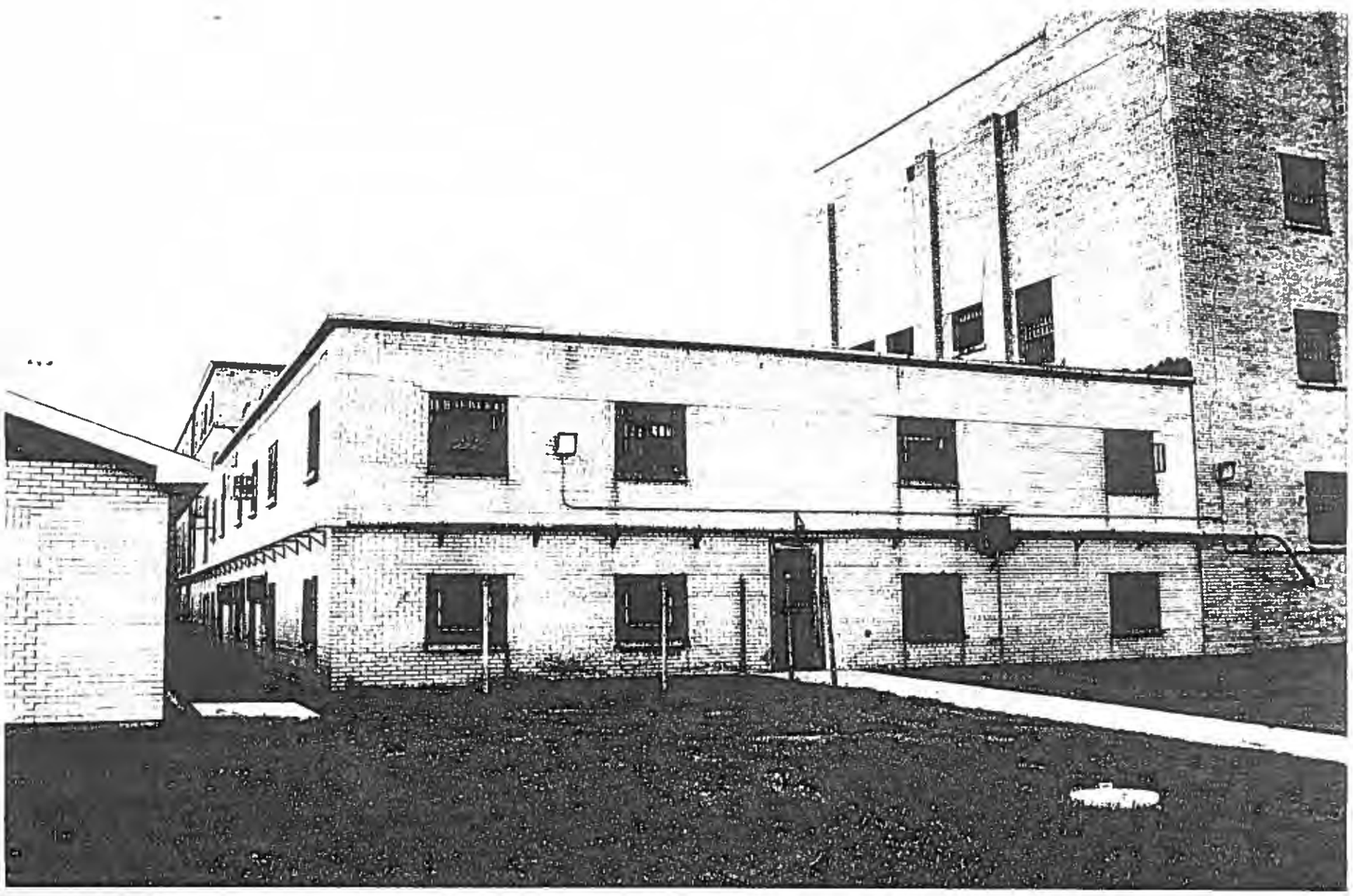
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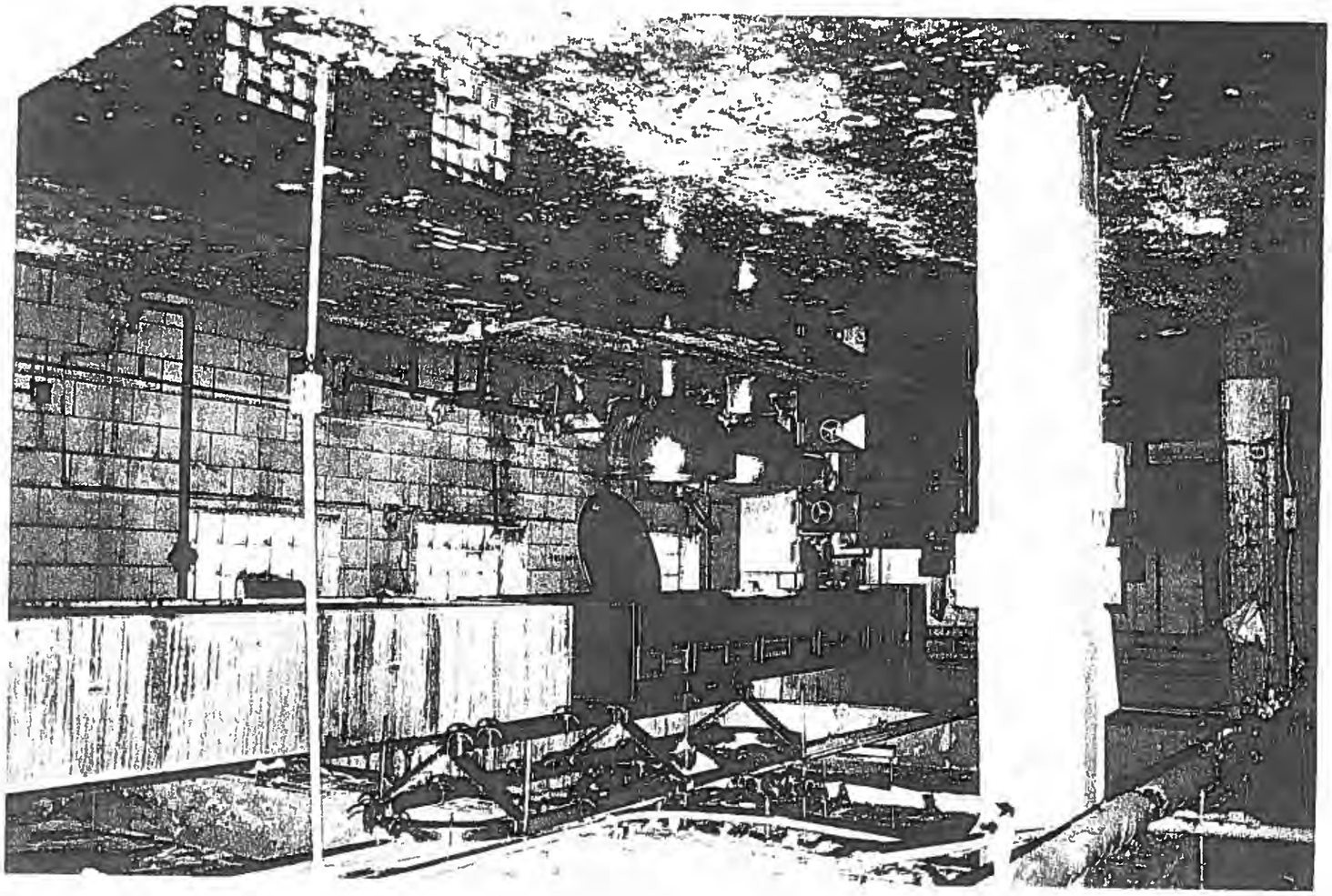


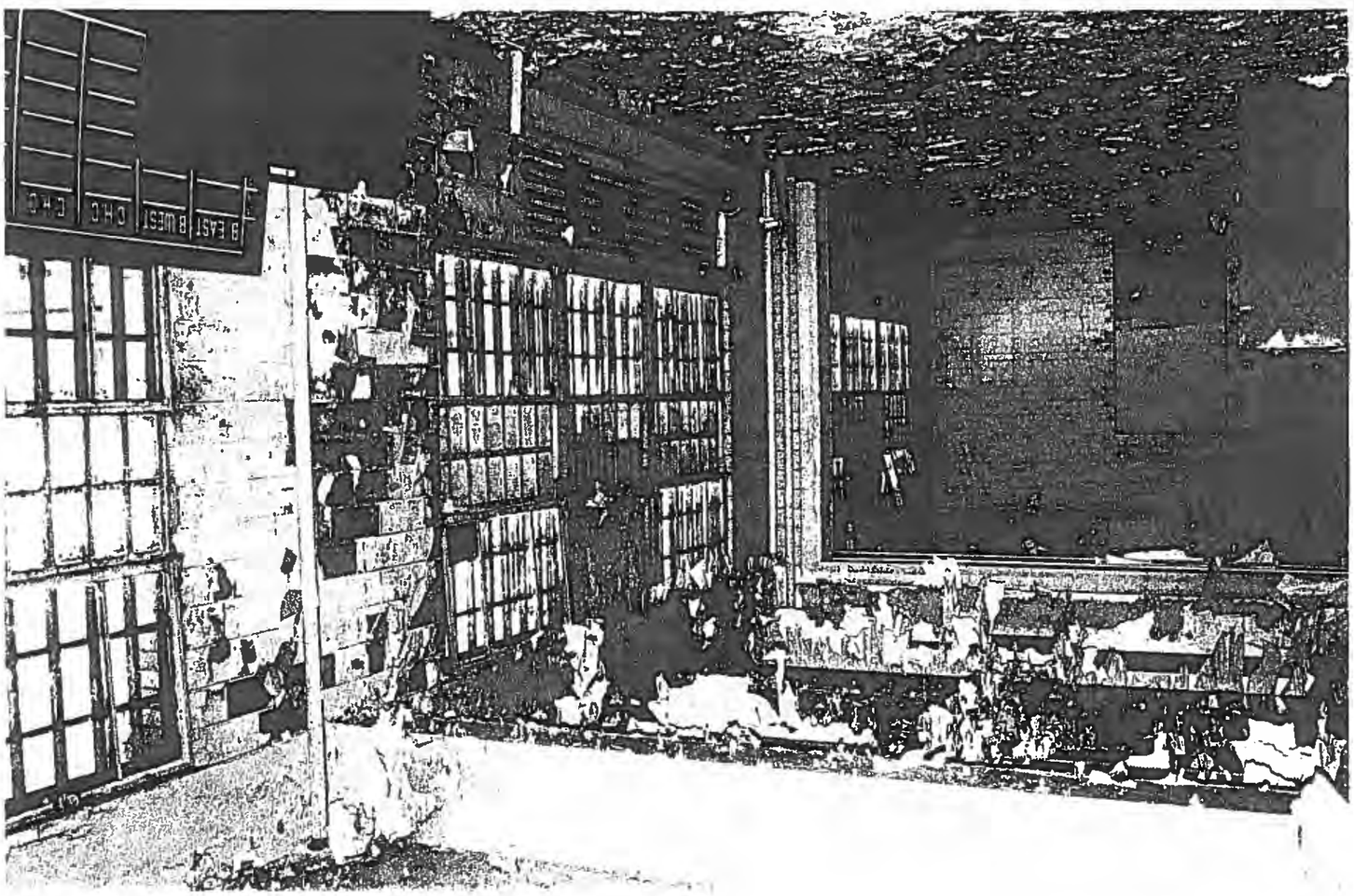











B EAST
B WEST
C H C
C H C