

AN ELECTED OFFICIAL'S GUIDE TO COMMUNITY CORRECTIONAL OPTIONS

Second Edition

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ELECTED GUIDE OFFICIAL'S



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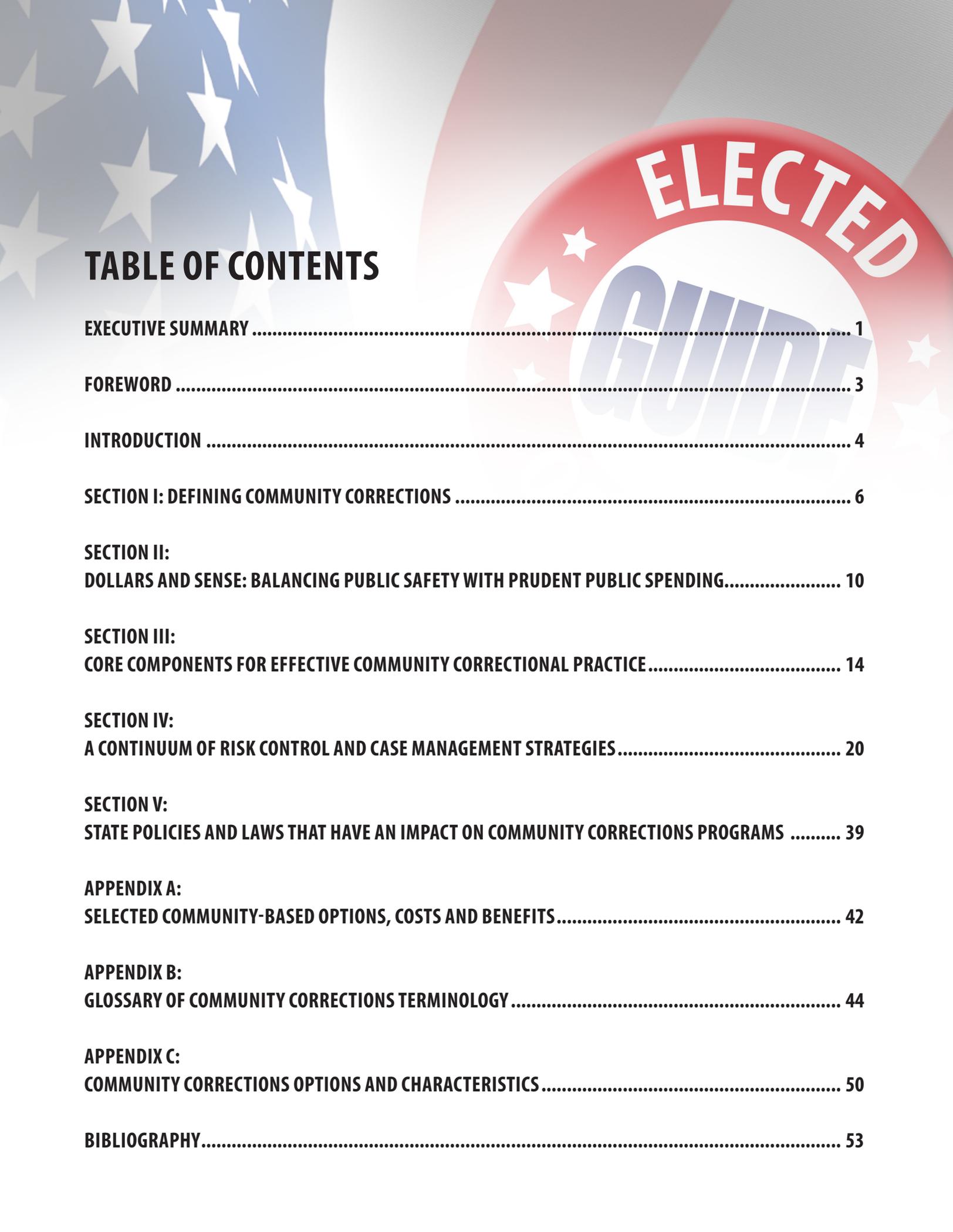


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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

In the past decade or so, there have been significant advances in community corrections research. There is evidence that community correctional options can and do protect the public. While serious, chronic, and violent adults (and juveniles) should be locked up, a large proportion of adult offenders and delinquent youth can be effectively and safely managed in the community through the utilization of research-based practices and strategies.

The Bureau of Justice Statistics routinely monitors correctional statistics. When they reported that the number of U.S. adults in prison had reached 1 in 100, the alarm finally sounded. More disquieting is the fact that 1 in 31 adults is under some form of correctional control. The Pew Center on the States announced these realities loud and clear in its March 2009 report, *One in 31: The Long Reach of American Corrections*.

Coupled with these numbers is the understanding that incapacitation of the adults and juveniles who offend against us has not necessarily improved the safety of our neighborhoods. A 2006 study looked at incarceration in all 50 states. In that study, Liedka, Piehl, and Useem (2006) suggest that the crime reduction benefits of incarceration are likely to be *reduced* as the number incarcerated reaches very high levels and may even reverse, such that very high levels of incarceration may actually increase crime. One implication of their findings may be that the elasticity of incarceration has reached its “tipping point” as incarceration rates in many states have approached and surpassed an effective deterrent level.

Sound funding decisions depend on an understanding of the current adult and juvenile justice environments. The most efficient justice systems are not created as separate components but as a continuum that involves judicial and corrections entities as partners with communities. At the corrections end of the system, research is pointing the way to safe and effective strategies.

Community corrections is a complex topic. It ranges from pre-trial options to secure detention within the community. In between are probation and parole and a myriad of tools and strategies to be considered. Research is firm in documenting the requirement for risk and needs assessments targeted at criminal behavior for every offender. A valid assessment provides a critical roadmap about the security and strategies that may be most effective for the individual.

Community corrections encompasses adult and juvenile systems. Strategies may be operated by the courts or executive branch, by state or local governments, or by private providers. Research has generated information about what strategies are most effective for certain populations. This evidence-based practice is critical if crime reduction is the goal.



FOREWORD

The Council of State Governments originally developed this Guide as a reference for elected officials responsible for policy and budget decisions. The aim was to provide practical and trustworthy information about community corrections practices that work, serving as a basis for discussing, debating, and developing safe and cost-effective strategies for state and local corrections options. The Guide's Second Edition provides elected officials, justice leaders, budget officers, policy analysts, educators, and others with current information and strategies that make community supervision sentences credible and effective.

ABOUT THIS HANDBOOK

Most of the recommended practices identified and described in this Guide are considered to be promising practices or have been evaluated and found to be effective. Most have been shown to produce a substantial return on investment. Many have been certified as “evidence-based” through a well-respected research organization. Based on the latest research available, the practices and strategies identified in this guide are viable, evidence-based options for reducing recidivism and preventing crime while managing costs.

INTRODUCTION

ELECTED

GUIDE

“After an extraordinary, quarter century expansion of American prisons, an unmistakable policy truth has emerged: We cannot build our way to public safety. The remarkable rise in corrections spending wasn’t fate or even the natural consequence of spikes in crime. It was the result of state policy choices that sent more people to prison and kept them there longer. The sentencing and release laws passed in the 1980s and 1990s put so many more people behind bars that . . . for the first time 1 in 100 adults is in prison or jail. Further, 1 in every 31 adults is under some form of correctional control.”

-The Pew Center on the States in its March 2009 report, *One in 31: The Long Reach of American Corrections*, p.2.

INTRODUCTION

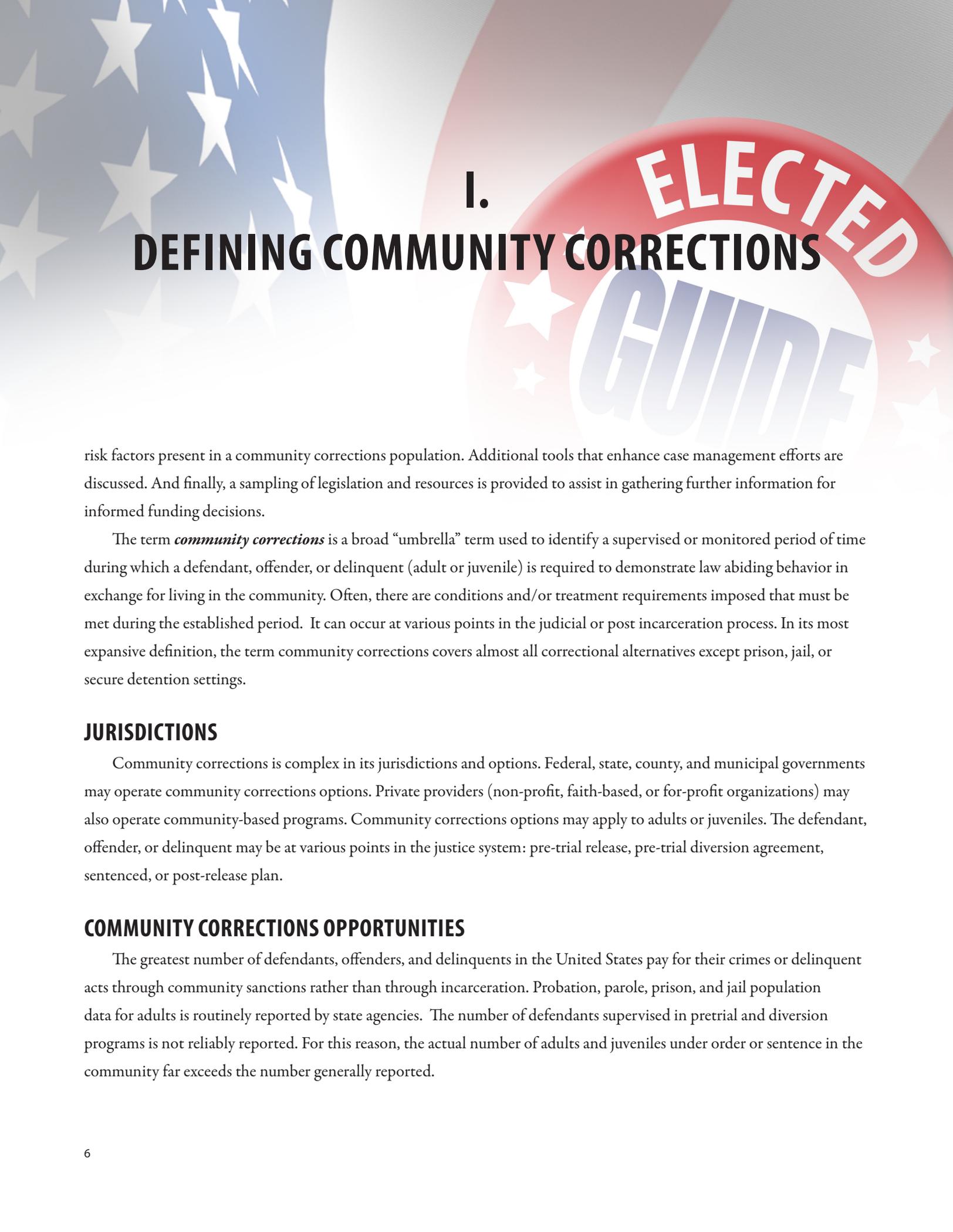
The majority of convicted offenders spend their sentences under some form of community supervision. Most offenders who are sent to prison will not remain incarcerated forever, but will be released back into the community. “Thus, there is a legitimate concern about how arrest, conviction, and imprisonment affect individuals and whether these experiences have long-lasting effects on the lives of ex-offenders” (MacKenzie, 2000, p.36). While most would agree that serious, chronic, or violent adults and juveniles require incarceration, not all offenders fall into this category. Many pre-adjudicated and adjudicated adults and juveniles will safely be sentenced to community correctional options. Pre-trial diversion, probation, parole, and other community corrections options can reduce recidivism *and* save taxpayer dollars.

Research over the past 20 years has provided a body of knowledge about “what works” in community corrections. The use of practices and programs that are evidence-based are at the core of effective community corrections. Evidence-Based Practice (EBP) is the body of research and replicable clinical knowledge that describes contemporary correctional assessment, programming and supervision strategies that lead to improved correctional outcomes such as the rehabilitation of offenders and increased public safety” (Serin, 2005, iiv). The fact is that correctional programs, ones that change

behavior, require more funding than is currently allocated to monitoring only tactics but far less than building prisons or incarcerating such a large segment of our population. With so many adults in the United States on probation, parole, or other community options—we will be investing in our neighbors.

It is estimated that 70% of the adult correctional population is under the jurisdiction of probation and parole officers and the nation's juvenile courts handled 1.7 million delinquency cases in 2005, many of which were placed under community supervision (Sickmund, 2009). In addition, an unknown number of adults and juveniles are carrying out pre-trial or diversion court orders. Allocating appropriate resources to evidence-based practices and strategies in the community is the key to reducing victimization and increasing public safety while simultaneously managing correctional costs (Glaze & Bonczar, 2009).

This Guide defines community corrections and reviews the dollars and sense issues regarding the investment in community corrections options. It will cover what the research says about core components of community corrections practice which must exist as a foundation for effective crime reductions. Key strategies are reviewed that target the priority



I. DEFINING COMMUNITY CORRECTIONS

risk factors present in a community corrections population. Additional tools that enhance case management efforts are discussed. And finally, a sampling of legislation and resources is provided to assist in gathering further information for informed funding decisions.

The term *community corrections* is a broad “umbrella” term used to identify a supervised or monitored period of time during which a defendant, offender, or delinquent (adult or juvenile) is required to demonstrate law abiding behavior in exchange for living in the community. Often, there are conditions and/or treatment requirements imposed that must be met during the established period. It can occur at various points in the judicial or post incarceration process. In its most expansive definition, the term community corrections covers almost all correctional alternatives except prison, jail, or secure detention settings.

JURISDICTIONS

Community corrections is complex in its jurisdictions and options. Federal, state, county, and municipal governments may operate community corrections options. Private providers (non-profit, faith-based, or for-profit organizations) may also operate community-based programs. Community corrections options may apply to adults or juveniles. The defendant, offender, or delinquent may be at various points in the justice system: pre-trial release, pre-trial diversion agreement, sentenced, or post-release plan.

COMMUNITY CORRECTIONS OPPORTUNITIES

The greatest number of defendants, offenders, and delinquents in the United States pay for their crimes or delinquent acts through community sanctions rather than through incarceration. Probation, parole, prison, and jail population data for adults is routinely reported by state agencies. The number of defendants supervised in pretrial and diversion programs is not reliably reported. For this reason, the actual number of adults and juveniles under order or sentence in the community far exceeds the number generally reported.

Diversions Programs

Diversions programs remove the defendant's case from further steps in criminal or juvenile justice case processing if the defendant participates in specified activities. Diversions programs operate at the "front-end" of criminal/delinquency processing by screening for appropriate participants. Diversion can take place along with community policing citation and release programs. It can operate through pre-trial services programs, probation, prosecutors, judges, or other supervised programs. Diversions programs incorporate rehabilitative elements such as drug treatment. Many drug courts, teen courts, and TASC (Treatment Accountability for Safer Communities) programs are diversion projects. The elements of diversion include early screening, referral to non-criminal justice agencies and programs, suspension of proceedings, or dismissal of case upon completion of requirements for diversion.

The National Criminal Justice Treatment Practices Survey of 2005 sampled a representative 72 counties and estimated that nationally, as many as one million adult offenders were under correctional supervision but not included in conventional probation or parole counts (Taxman, Young, Wiersema, Rhodes & Mitchell, 2007).

Probation

The terms probation and parole are often used interchangeably. While both terms refer to supervision of adults or juveniles in the community, the controlling authority is different. If the authority over the offender rests with a judge, it is generally a probation sentence (or some other type of diversion program) that allows the offender to avoid a lengthy sentence of incarceration. The largest number of adults and juveniles under supervision in the community are on supervised or unsupervised probation. **Probation** is generally a period in the community under conditions established by the court. Failure to satisfy the conditions (which may include the requirement for reporting to a supervision officer, paying fines and restitution, attending treatment, and maintaining law abiding behavior) may result in stricter sanctions or revocation of the right to remain in the community. While the judge maintains jurisdiction over the sentence, the supervision or monitoring may be provided by a government entity or by a private provider under contract to the governmental entity or the court.

The National Criminal Justice Treatment Practices Survey of 2005 sampled a representative 72 counties and estimated that nationally, as many as one million adult offenders were under correctional supervision but not included in conventional probation or parole counts (Taxman, et al. 2007).

Parole

Parole is a period of transition back into the community, with conditions, following a prison sentence. It is called by different terms in different jurisdictions. It is ordered by a releasing authority (e.g., parole board or release officer) and not by the judge. This period may also be called *Aftercare* especially when referencing juveniles. The terms *Supervised Release*, *Re-Entry*, or *Transition* are commonly used as well. The paroling or releasing authority or state agency generally has oversight of the supervising agents and the offender conditions. Violation of the conditions may result in additional sanctions or a return to incarceration.

OTHER COMMUNITY SANCTIONS

Other **community corrections** options may include residential and nonresidential placements that are treatment and/or surveillance oriented. Programs and technology may be included as conditions of probation or parole or may be ordered separately in lieu of incarceration or as pre-trial diversion. Examples of these are residential and nonresidential programs, educational and vocational requirements, substance abuse programs or testing, electronic monitoring, mental health counseling, community service, and others. These options are discussed in section IV. A glossary of terms is found in Appendix B at the back of this Guide.

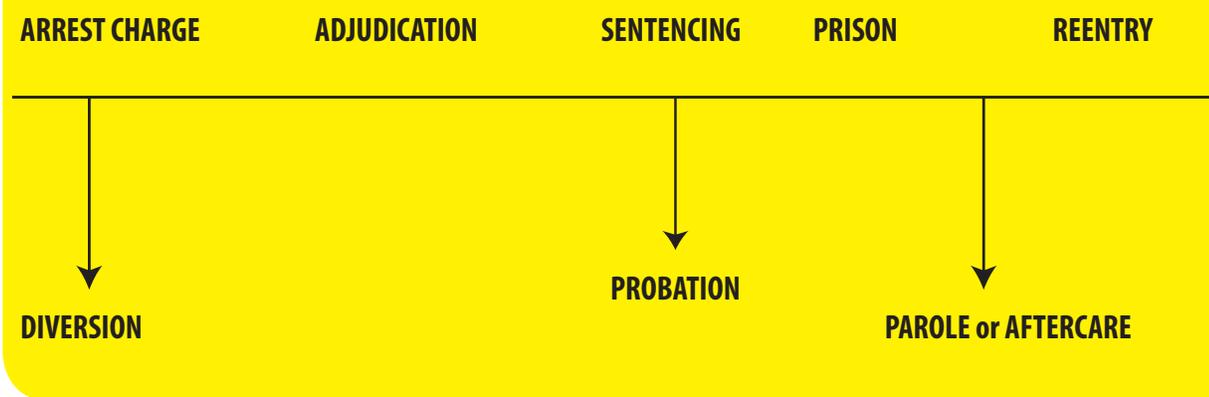
Adult or Juvenile Community Corrections

Both adults and juveniles are ordered to complete sentences in the community. The *criminal justice system* for adults assumes that the individual is capable of understanding right from wrong, and therefore can stand accountable for his/her own actions. The juvenile justice system was created as a way to avoid injustice to adolescents whose brain function is not fully developed. Recent research reveals that the early adolescent brain is only 80% developed (Ruder, 2008). The brain continues to develop through adolescence with complete maturation at about the age of 25 (Coalition for Juvenile Justice, 2006).

While the criminal justice system and the juvenile justice system are created differently, many of the supervision strategies are similar. The concepts of community corrections are at work for adults and juveniles. One key to recognizing whether information is referencing adult or juvenile corrections is the language used. When adults commit a crime they are *arrested*, may go to *jail pending the court process*, are *convicted*, and are *sentenced*. They may go to *prison* and are often referred to as *defendants*, *offenders*, or *inmates*. Juveniles are *taken into custody*, may go to *detention pending the court process*, and are *adjudicated*. They may go to a *juvenile facility* and are generally referred to as *delinquents*. To avoid confusion in this handbook, we will address adults and juveniles whether pre-adjudicated or adjudicated as offender. If there is a necessary distinction between adult and juvenile it will be so stated.

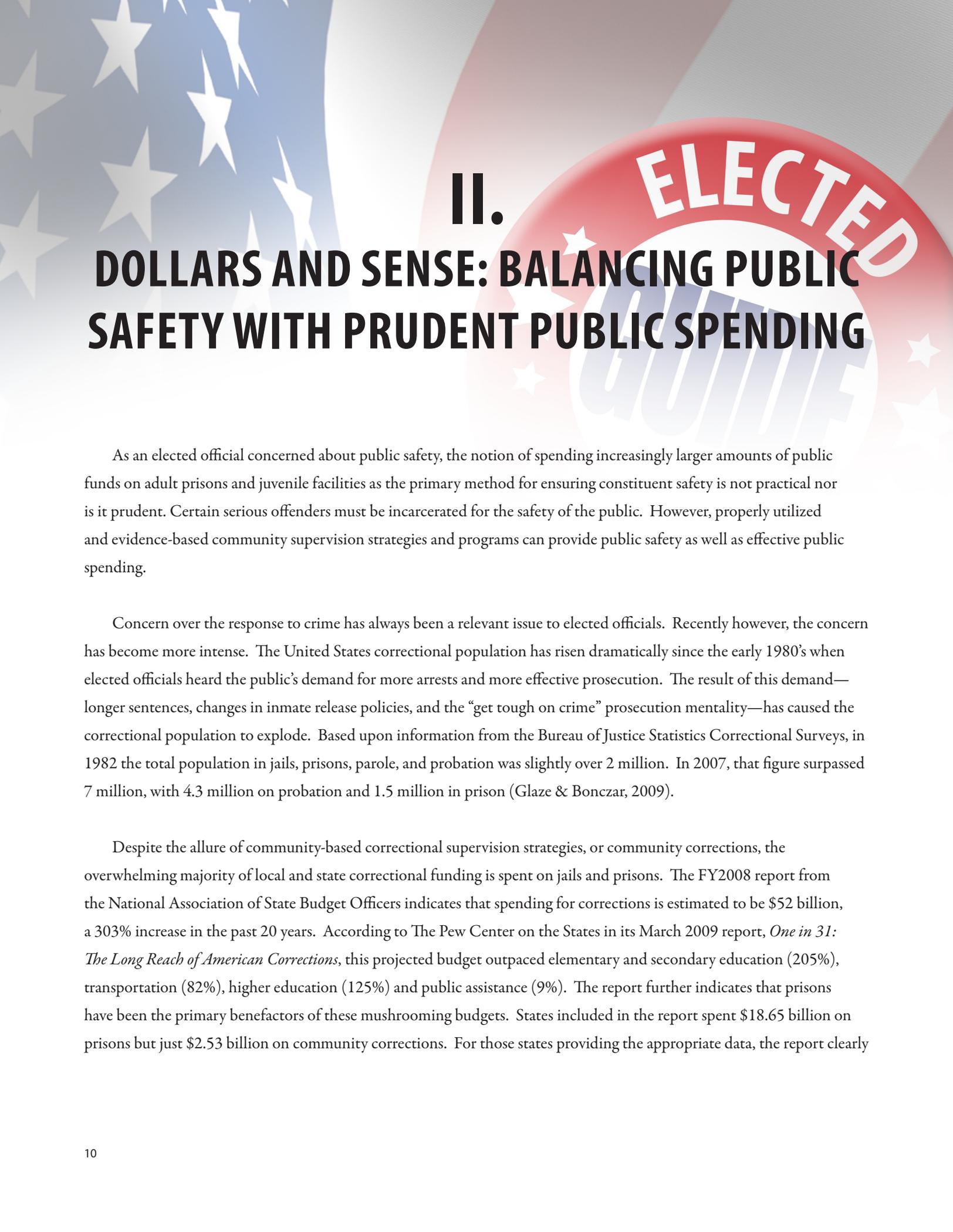
Figure I.1 on page 9 provides a very basic visual of the main points in the judicial process. The case flow from arrest to reentry is at the top. The offender options are matched below with the community corrections options that might occur from the initial arrest followed by the decision to file a charge, then the decision regarding guilt and the sentencing. The

FIGURE I.1. JUDICIAL PROCESS AND COMMUNITY CORRECTIONS OPPORTUNITIES



process may end there unless the individual is sentenced to jail or prison. As shown, a community corrections option may be ordered in lieu of processing in the jail. It might be ordered as a pretrial diversion in lieu of being processed further. However, the most prevalent use of community corrections options is in conjunction with a period of probation or parole.

Community corrections options are applicable to adults and juveniles, may occur at various points in the justice process, and are operated by different entities, for various jurisdictions. As an elected official, understanding how your jurisdiction operates is essential to effective decisions and allocation.



II. DOLLARS AND SENSE: BALANCING PUBLIC SAFETY WITH PRUDENT PUBLIC SPENDING

As an elected official concerned about public safety, the notion of spending increasingly larger amounts of public funds on adult prisons and juvenile facilities as the primary method for ensuring constituent safety is not practical nor is it prudent. Certain serious offenders must be incarcerated for the safety of the public. However, properly utilized and evidence-based community supervision strategies and programs can provide public safety as well as effective public spending.

Concern over the response to crime has always been a relevant issue to elected officials. Recently however, the concern has become more intense. The United States correctional population has risen dramatically since the early 1980's when elected officials heard the public's demand for more arrests and more effective prosecution. The result of this demand—longer sentences, changes in inmate release policies, and the “get tough on crime” prosecution mentality—has caused the correctional population to explode. Based upon information from the Bureau of Justice Statistics Correctional Surveys, in 1982 the total population in jails, prisons, parole, and probation was slightly over 2 million. In 2007, that figure surpassed 7 million, with 4.3 million on probation and 1.5 million in prison (Glaze & Bonczar, 2009).

Despite the allure of community-based correctional supervision strategies, or community corrections, the overwhelming majority of local and state correctional funding is spent on jails and prisons. The FY2008 report from the National Association of State Budget Officers indicates that spending for corrections is estimated to be \$52 billion, a 303% increase in the past 20 years. According to The Pew Center on the States in its March 2009 report, *One in 31: The Long Reach of American Corrections*, this projected budget outpaced elementary and secondary education (205%), transportation (82%), higher education (125%) and public assistance (9%). The report further indicates that prisons have been the primary benefactors of these mushrooming budgets. States included in the report spent \$18.65 billion on prisons but just \$2.53 billion on community corrections. For those states providing the appropriate data, the report clearly

indicates that nine out of every ten state correctional dollars went to prisons. So while prisons account for approximately 20% of the correctional population, 90% of the correctional budget is allocated for prisons.

When considering overall operations of a prison the structure itself—utilities, maintenance, staffing, medical, food, training—the average cost per inmate per day is \$79. This fact is the driving force behind a 90% funding rate for prisons. While the national funding rate equates to nearly \$48 billion of the previously stated \$52 billion budget, the cost of public spending doesn't equate to public safety. Further, the most frequently cited benefit of incarceration is that inmates seldom commit crimes while in prison. "...635,000 people in 2002 alone and at least that many in future years will be released from prison" (Petersilia, 2003, p.v).

Thus, simply stated, incarcerated criminals will return to the community. Without the benefit of education, prevention, and treatment, the hallmarks of evidence-based community corrections that are related to behavior change, recidivism rates for those inmates released into the community can be as high as 40%. As stated earlier, when viewed through the local and state funding lens, incarcerating an individual because they committed a serious felony crime is not debated here. Incarcerating a lower level or misdemeanor offender simply because they committed a crime is misguided when community corrections can provide sound public safety and sound fiscal decisions.

When officials consider balancing public safety with public spending, community corrections is a public safety asset that is worth the investment. The least expensive alternative to prisons, adult probation and parole supervision and programming is one of the promising methods of controlling crime. Further, when designed with evidence-based practices, adult and juvenile probation, parole, and other community-based programs, can prevent crime, increase offender accountability and competencies, and repair harm to both victims and neighborhoods.

With the use of community-focused correctional programs, elected officials can involve the community itself in the criminal/juvenile justice process. Citizen ownership can evolve as neighborhoods feel they have a voice in the justice process. Further, these programs can be multi-agency and interdisciplinary because they involve locally delivered services. Agencies and groups normally involved with community corrections include neighborhood associations,

"Very large increases in the prison population can produce only modest reductions in crime rates."

James Q. Wilson, *The Public Interest*, Fall, 1994, p.1

“Every time we keep a released inmate from re-offending, we keep an innocent person from becoming a victim, and we save taxpayer dollars.”

Colorado Governor Bill Ritter, State of the State Address, January 10, 2008

local governments, local employers, criminal/juvenile justice and educational professionals, faith-based and non-profit organizations, victims, victim advocates, offenders' families, and the offenders themselves. This broad partnership can address the offenders risk and needs, assess the gravity of the offense, and provide public safety considerations in a less intrusive and cost effective method.

Community-based programming can also provide immediate responses when probationers or parolees violate or comply with the conditions that allow them to remain in the community. These responses are graduated in nature from least restrictive to most restrictive, or minor recognition to early discharge, while attempting to keep the offender in the community. The least restrictive sanction is paired with a minimum supervision related offense, while the most restrictive sanction occurs when punishment or confinement are the most reasonable responses. The sanctions can be economic in nature such as restitution, fines, and support payments. They can require substance and mental health treatment. Sanctions can be work related by requiring the offender to perform community service activities. They can restrict freedom of movement via home confinement, curfew regulations, or additional face-to-face contact with the supervising officer. With any sanction, it is imposed as quickly as possible (quick and certain) and is based upon the severity of the offense (proportional). This process continues to address and change inappropriate behavior while saving the taxpayer dollar by keeping the offender in the community. Just as sanctions can be applied to address noncompliant behavior, rewards or incentives, (e.g., travel permits, early discharge) can be used to recognize and encourage compliant behavior.

“Currently we spend next to nothing on community corrections. We get what we pay for.”

Prof. John J. Dilulio, The Wall Street Journal, March 12, 1999

When properly funded, research clearly indicates that community corrections is successful in combining the concerns of public safety and public spending. However,

Without adequate resources and authority, community supervision agencies are hard pressed to fulfill their traditional case management workloads, let alone adequately handle their new responsibilities. The huge increase in corrections spending has favored prisons over probation and parole by nearly nine to one. Supervising 1 in 45 adults (under community corrections) and holding them accountable to victims will require that funding gap to narrow. The sheer scale of community supervision obliges policy makers to recognize the major role of probation and parole agencies in helping states protect public safety and control public spending (Pew Center on the States, 2009, p.14).



III. CORE COMPONENTS FOR EFFECTIVE COMMUNITY CORRECTIONAL PRACTICE

Successfully using community corrections to reduce crime requires adherence to evidence-based principles. Knowledgeable corrections professionals in the 21st century do not make correctional decisions based on historical ideology or custom. The cost to taxpayers is too high. Science has moved corrections far beyond the time when jurisdictions could create sanctions to meet unempirical local thinking on what works or what is available. Social research over the past several decades has proposed practices that must be present in community-based corrections for successful crime reduction. Unless the strategy reduces crime it cannot be cost effective.

The public official looking to fund community corrections will want to know what is currently in place in his or her jurisdiction and what the goal for appropriations will be. Few jurisdictions will be successful without certain core practices; those practices include, but are not limited to:

1. Using a *criminogenic risk and needs assessment* to identify those adults or juveniles most likely to put the public at risk.
2. Implementing *evidence-based practices* that have been studied and found to be effective.
3. Appropriately using *technology* as a tool to staff supervision.
4. Creating *incentives* for success.
5. Providing *immediate and proportionate* response to violations.
6. *Measuring* offender progress and program success.

These practices are the foundation for community corrections options that work. Determining that they are in use is critical. If the jurisdiction has not yet employed these core components, implementation should be considered prior to funding any continuum of community options. Finally, it should be said that research has shown that supervision/surveillance alone does not ensure successful outcomes (Berry & Anderson, 2001). Counting contacts between offenders and officers is not a roadmap to fewer victims.

1) Criminogenic Risk and Needs Assessment

It is the rare budget that can afford to fund *intensive* levels of supervision, monitoring, tracking, and programming for *all* adult offenders or delinquent youth. The good news is that there is no need to do so. The assessment of risk to public safety has evolved to the point that it is quite effective at sorting adults and juveniles at highest risk of criminal behavior. Risk tools vary in the focus of the risk behavior, comprehensiveness, time to administer, and whether they are privately or publicly owned. Privately developed tools often cost per assessment. Risk assessment tools in the public domain may be free to administer. Any tool selected must be reliable and validated for the population in question.

The use of criminogenic risk and needs assessment in community corrections can be likened to the actuarial risk calculations used by insurance companies to determine the cost of car insurance. The insurance company uses prior history and specific driver characteristics to determine the level of risk for accidents. Past accidents and characteristics such as gender and age may be evaluated as higher risk (think male under 25 with prior accidents); the higher the risk the higher the premium. Similarly, criminogenic risk tools use past offense history and personal characteristics that research has shown to be indicative of criminal behavior, to predict level of risk; the higher the risk the more potential for criminal behavior.

Risk assessment not only assists in public safety, it is an important factor in formulating supervision strategies and interventions that will change criminal and delinquent behavior. It is equally important in guiding efficient use of resources. It has been shown that over-supervising low risk individuals can actually harm the success of the outcome. Closely supervising low risk individuals has been shown to produce little if any positive effect and often picks up on minor rule violations which do not pose a harm to public safety. Further, over involvement in the justice process

SIDE BAR: WHAT ARE CRIMINOGENIC NEEDS?

Criminogenic needs are the individual risk factors most closely associated with criminal or delinquent behavior. They are dynamic because they can change over time. Using a reliable risk and needs assessment tool allows the worker to target the areas of the offender's behavior that if changed are likely to result in reduction or desistance in criminal behavior. Major criminogenic risk and needs factors include: history of anti-social behavior, anti-social personality patterns, anti-social cognition, anti-social associates as well as family and/or marital, school and/or work, leisure and recreation, and substance abuse problems.

(Andrews, Bonta, & Wormith, 2006, p.11)

EVIDENCE-BASED PRINCIPLES FOR EFFECTIVE INTERVENTIONS.

Evidence-based practice is defined as those initiatives and programs that research has proven to be effective. Eight evidence-based principles define the model,

1. Assess Risk/Needs
2. Enhance Motivation
3. Target Interventions
4. Use Cognitive Behavioral Treatment
5. Increase Positive Reinforcement
6. Engage Community Support
7. Measure Processes/Practices
8. Provide Measurement Feedback
9. Methods

(Bogue et al., 2004, p.3)

may fracture existing pro-social protective factors. Research supports the consensus that staff and program resources ought to target medium to high risk populations because they are more likely to benefit from treatment and supervision (Lowenkamp & Latessa, 2004).

Advances in risk assessment tools allow identification of risks and needs to better target the characteristics driving the criminal or delinquent behavior. These tools can more accurately predict those individuals likely to cause harm from those less likely to do so.

Criminogenic risk and needs assessment used prior to sentencing can assist in diverting lower risk offenders from prison (and lower risk juveniles from detention).

When the criminogenic risk assessment is used after the sentencing decision, it is useful in determining what level of supervision or monitoring is needed and the intensiveness and type of programs required.

2) Evidence-based Practices

Evidence-based practices are as important in corrections as they are in medicine or any other profession. Using research to make informed decisions helps to ensure success. “*Evidence-based practice* implies that 1) there is a definable outcome(s); 2) it is measurable; and 3) it is defined according to practical realities (recidivism, victim satisfaction, etc.)” (Bogue, et al., 2004, p.2).

For instance, research indicates that correctional resources are most efficiently used when focused on the higher risk offenders (Lowenkamp & Latessa, 2004). The higher risk offenders produce the higher percentage of serious and chronic criminal/delinquent behaviors. Thus this smaller percentage of offenders produces a larger percentage of the crime. Delivering more intensive monitoring and programming to this group produces more significant results in crime reduction. Building supervision policy for the organization in accordance with this evidence is, in fact, evidence-based practice. Indeed, as has been said, research has shown that providing intensive supervision and services to low risk offenders/delinquents can negatively affect their success.

Jurisdictions wishing to implement evidence-based practices may benefit from a review of *Implementing Evidence-based Practice in Community Corrections: The Principles of Effective Interventions* (<http://www.nicic.org/pubs/2004/019342.pdf>)

Another example of evidence-based practice is “front loading” the resources. For individuals released from incarceration or other residential programming, the first weeks out are an especially high risk period (Binswanger et al., 2007; Grattet, Petersilia, & Lin, 2008; Langan & Levin, 2002; National Research Council Committee on Community Supervision and Desistance from Crime, 2007; Travis, 2005). Designing systems that push services to the front of the supervision period when offenders are more likely to fail, has been shown to be effective. Researchers in one study assessed that the probability of re-arrest and violation in the first month is nearly double that of the fifteenth month (Rosenfeld, Wallman, & Fornango, 2005). This frontloading of resources to the riskiest cases can provide encouraging results whether the release is from prison or a detention facility.

3) Technology

The emergence of new technology tools provides unique opportunities in supervision and surveillance for community corrections. The industry of electronic supervision has expanded widely in the past fifteen years. A number of new applications have surfaced: global positioning satellites (GPS), electronic monitoring (EM), ignition interlock, field alcohol and drug testing, facial recognition, phone reporting, report kiosks, and others.

As technology tools provide additional possibilities, agencies must be willing to thoroughly evaluate their applicability to determine their place and cost benefit to the agency’s mission.

In general, technology has application in specific circumstances under certain conditions. For example, consider a scenario where electronic monitoring is used in the form of an ankle bracelet. The ankle monitor (radio frequency) might not be the appropriate device if the offender is required to stay away from a certain location. The device can alert the monitoring service that the individual is not at home but cannot determine where the individual is. In order to know where the individual actually went, GPS technology would be required. Although the GPS product would track the location, there are “dead zones” where the technology is not effective due to obstructive buildings, etc. And finally, there must be an immediate response by the officer to the violation signal to find and stop the individual from going to the location. **Even the most advanced technology will not prevent a crime from being committed. It is a tool to enhance supervision, not a stand-alone program.**

Technology can provide more intensive or less intensive community supervision and, although the cost can be greater, it is less expensive than incarceration. It can also assist

A thorough review of electronic monitoring technology can be found in the *Offender Supervision With Electronic Technology: Community Corrections Resource, second edition*. (www.appa-net.org/eweb/docs/appa/pubs/OSET_2.pdf)

CASELOAD SIZE MATTERS

The importance of caseload size to the effectiveness of probation and parole supervision cannot be overstated. Offender supervision is a human capital intensive activity. There is no technological or automated solution to this problem. While technological innovations have certainly transformed the work of the PPO (Probation and Parole Officer), they primarily have improved the monitoring capability of the officers and their access to information, but have done little to change the core correctional practices that comprise case management. People, in the form of PPOs are the core correctional resource (Burrell, 2006, p.2).

agencies in monitoring large numbers of low risk offenders through phone and kiosk technology. Most monitoring technology tools are an adjunct, not a replacement to human supervision and it may place significant demands on supervising officers.

4) Incentives for Success

It has been noted that most people respond better to the carrot than the stick. This is true as a principle in behavior change. Behavioral scientists suggest that high levels of random positive reinforcements are more successful in producing positive behavior (or avoiding negative behavior). Research indicates that increasing positive reinforcement to four times that of negative reinforcement can help individuals learn and maintain these behaviors (Latessa, Cullen, & Gendreau, 2002).

The idea of motivating behavior with incentives works with staff and agencies as well. It is a complete divergence from the standard for many people. This is especially true in the justice system where punishment and negative reinforcement have been the norm. However, since positive reinforcement is proven to be effective, agencies will do well to train their staff to model the behavior and use it with offenders. It is the act of being on the lookout for instances of positive, pro-social behavior and praising and rewarding that behavior. In short, correctional staff need to catch people doing things right. It does not, however, mean that negative behavior is overlooked.

5) Immediacy and Proportionality of Violation Response

Behavioral science tells us that in order to correct negative behavior there must be a consequence that is certain, proportionate, and immediate. Thus the response to a violation of a community corrections sentence should be immediate, certain to happen, and proportionate to the violation. This can only happen when supervision agents are vigilant and have the authority to impose a swift response. Two impediments to their ability to act are overwhelming workloads and the need to take the offender back through the court process (Burke, Gelb, & Horowitz, 2007).

Holding offenders/delinquents accountable for their choices is critical to the credibility of the case management process. However, immediacy

and certainty of response is directly related to the ability to know of the violation. Identifying and intervening with minor violations early may stop the behavior from escalating. A jurisdiction in which offenders are not monitored at levels which allow for the immediate knowledge of violations cannot expect swift and certain consequences. Under those circumstances, the consequence loses its value. For this reason, caseload size and workload are major issues to review for the jurisdiction interested in funding community corrections options that are effective.

6) Measure Progress

“Community corrections leaders need objective, real-time data on key outcomes to effectively manage their organizations and the offenders (delinquents) under their jurisdiction, and to demonstrate they are delivering results and creating public value” (Burrell & Gelb, 2007, p.4).

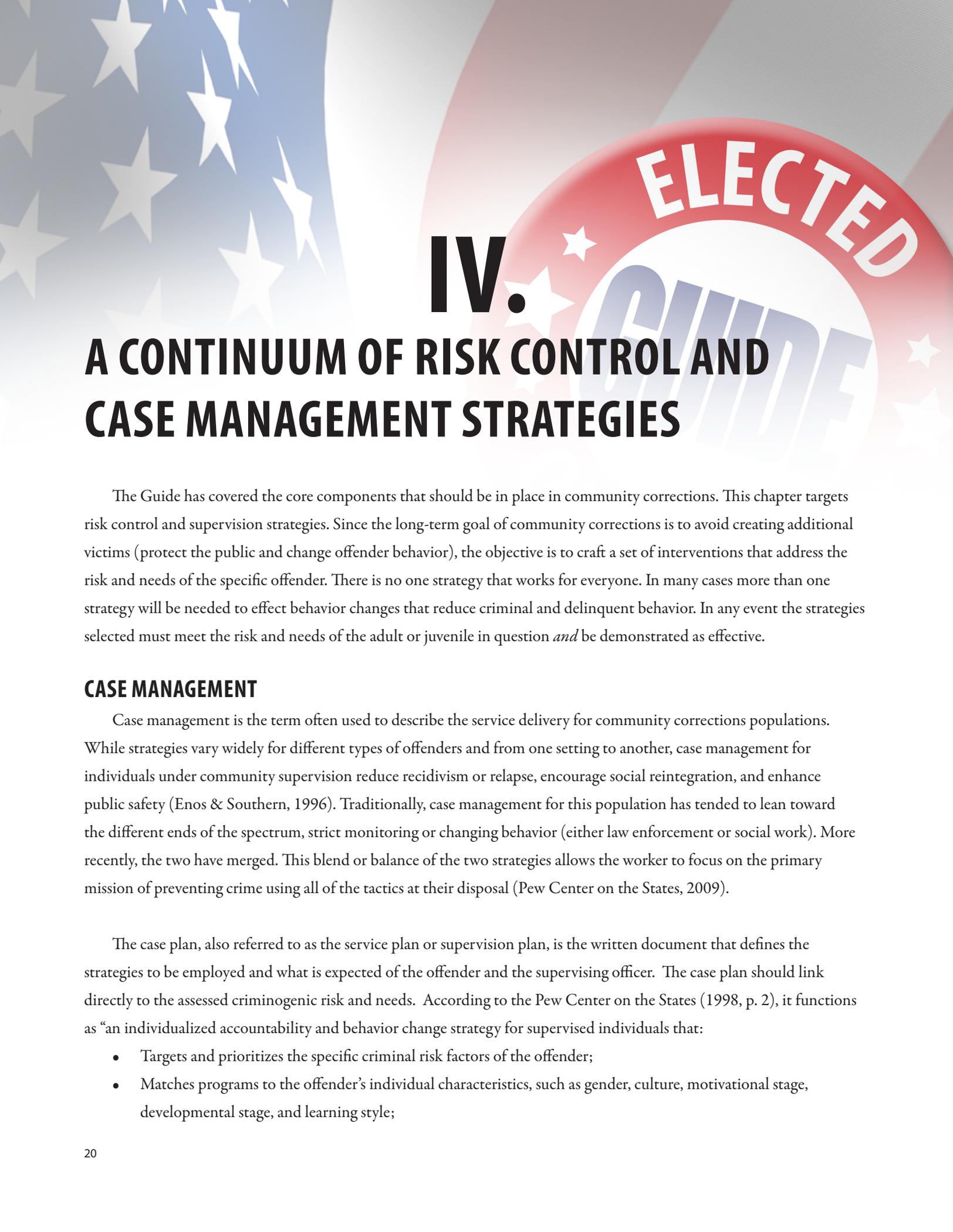
Mission clarity is a key to success. In the past, many community corrections organizations have defined their role as ensuring compliance of offenders/delinquents for the courts, releasing authority, or controlling entity. Public safety has always been a goal, but it was seen as the result of adequate monitoring.

Today's community corrections agencies are more broadly defining their role. Typically, public safety is achieved through crime reduction. The newer focus is on risk reduction and behavior change strategies (Solomon et al., 2008).

Clarity of mission is critical for agencies to set criteria for success and benchmarks for public safety outcomes and reduced victimization. Community corrections leaders must take ownership of recidivism reduction as a major focus. Setting benchmarks for recidivism reduction is a bold but necessary step to ensure integrity in community correctional options (Beto, Corbett, & Dilulio, 2000). Elected officials responsible for appropriating funding should expect outcome data to support their decisions. Even a small percentage decrease in crime or recidivism can result in significant cost avoidance for the future.

SUMMARY

The core components that are reviewed in this chapter may not be “business as usual” in every community corrections organization. However, knowledge of the research that supports the procedures should be well known and many jurisdictions are in the process of implementation. These practices are not fad programs. They are solid, evidence-based processes born of research. Elected officials with control of appropriations can influence crime reduction by tying funding to the implementation of these practices.



IV.

A CONTINUUM OF RISK CONTROL AND CASE MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES

The Guide has covered the core components that should be in place in community corrections. This chapter targets risk control and supervision strategies. Since the long-term goal of community corrections is to avoid creating additional victims (protect the public and change offender behavior), the objective is to craft a set of interventions that address the risk and needs of the specific offender. There is no one strategy that works for everyone. In many cases more than one strategy will be needed to effect behavior changes that reduce criminal and delinquent behavior. In any event the strategies selected must meet the risk and needs of the adult or juvenile in question *and* be demonstrated as effective.

CASE MANAGEMENT

Case management is the term often used to describe the service delivery for community corrections populations. While strategies vary widely for different types of offenders and from one setting to another, case management for individuals under community supervision reduce recidivism or relapse, encourage social reintegration, and enhance public safety (Enos & Southern, 1996). Traditionally, case management for this population has tended to lean toward the different ends of the spectrum, strict monitoring or changing behavior (either law enforcement or social work). More recently, the two have merged. This blend or balance of the two strategies allows the worker to focus on the primary mission of preventing crime using all of the tactics at their disposal (Pew Center on the States, 2009).

The case plan, also referred to as the service plan or supervision plan, is the written document that defines the strategies to be employed and what is expected of the offender and the supervising officer. The case plan should link directly to the assessed criminogenic risk and needs. According to the Pew Center on the States (1998, p. 2), it functions as “an individualized accountability and behavior change strategy for supervised individuals that:

- Targets and prioritizes the specific criminal risk factors of the offender;
- Matches programs to the offender’s individual characteristics, such as gender, culture, motivational stage, developmental stage, and learning style;

- Establishes a timetable for achieving specific behavioral goals, including a schedule for payment of victim restitution, child support, and other financial obligations; and
- Specifies positive and negative actions that will be taken in response to the supervised individual's behaviors.”

Case management in the community corrections setting raises a number of challenges not the least of which is how to manage the large number of cases to a successful conclusion. Depending on the jurisdiction, the case manager's workload may include intake, assessment, classification, referral, intervention, monitoring, evaluation, and advocacy. The case manager may also have time away for court, responding to victims, and other duties making the focus on the offender a competing priority for his or her time.

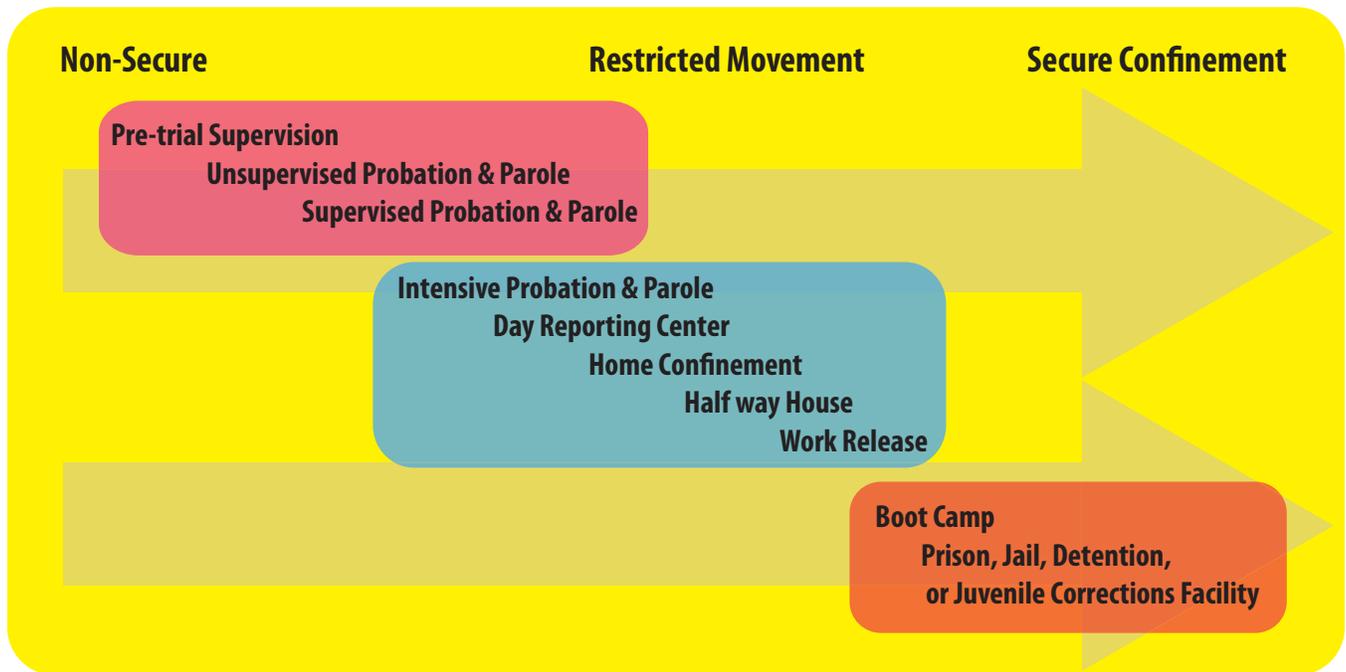
A CONTINUUM OF SUPERVISION STRATEGIES

Community corrections entities utilize a variety of supervision and intervention strategies as identified in the case plan. Whether the individual is on probation, parole, or some form of pre-trial diversion, the risk and needs assessment provides critical information regarding the necessary strategies for success. Public safety is always a primary concern. One way to think about community corrections interventions is to divide the decision into two parts. First, what is the risk—how much security is required to maintain public safety? And secondly, what are the needs—what strategies and tools will be needed to assist the offender in behavior change to avoid future criminal/delinquent behavior?

In general, the level of security identified by the risk assessment should be matched to the level of monitoring or custody provided. The local jurisdiction will have policy to define how low, medium, and high risk individuals will be monitored. Low risk offenders or delinquents do not require a high level of oversight. Medium to high risk and more serious offenders need increasingly closer oversight. The intensiveness or level of supervision can range from no reporting requirements all the way to residential control.

The second consideration is to determine the criminogenic needs of the individual. The risk/needs assessment will identify the needs of the individual related to reoffending. Examples may be lack of education, unemployment, or substance abuse concerns. All of these life areas have been shown to potentially lead to continued criminal or delinquent behavior. If not addressed, the probability of failure on supervision is elevated.

Some community corrections interventions combine supervision with programming and treatment. A conceptualization of a graduated continuum of restrictiveness is in the diagram on page 22. The intervention becomes more restrictive as the individual moves across the continuum. The initial intervention will be guided by the assessed risk. In a well developed continuum, the individual will be able to access services that respond to their criminogenic needs at any point in the continuum regardless of their supervision level.



Diversions or Pre-Trial Programs

Description: To help manage growing case dockets, courts have turned to alternatives to traditional adjudication for defendants charged with nonviolent crimes. These alternatives, known as diversion programs, offer appropriate targeted interventions for criminal behavior and free up court resources for more serious criminal matters. Milwaukee County and the Unified State Court of Kentucky are two jurisdictions that use alternative dispute resolution (ADR)—a mainstay of civil courts—to resolve certain criminal cases. Courts also have made greater use of “problem-solving” initiatives such as drug courts, mental health initiatives, and community-based sanctions for quality of life crimes that address underlying issues or problems that contribute to criminality. Research suggests that these alternatives, when implemented properly, effectively address the root causes of criminality. However, these alternatives most often are applied to limited defendant populations. For example, research suggests that each year, only 7% of drug-abusing or drug dependent arrestees meet drug court eligibility requirements, and less than 4% become drug court participants (Bhati, Roman & Chalfin, 2008).

For the past 50 years, pretrial supervision programs have helped assure that defendants appear for court proceedings without wasting costly jail beds on defendants who can safely be released. Pretrial supervision programs play an important role in helping judges make more informed bail decisions by providing comprehensive information on each defendant. Through the use of research-based instruments to assess a defendant’s likelihood to appear in court, remain arrest-free while on pretrial release, and need mental health or substance abuse treatment, pretrial services programs provide a cost-effective and safe method for recommending release into the community. Once judges reach their pretrial release decision, pretrial services programs supervise the defendant in the community and notify the courts of any violation of release conditions.

There are a variety of diversion alternatives and pre-trial programs used in different jurisdictions. One example of a diversion program for juvenile offenders is youth courts. Youth courts, also known as teen courts, peer courts, and student courts, are one of the fastest growing crime intervention and prevention programs in the nation. Youth volunteers under the supervision of adult volunteers may act as judges, jurors, clerks, bailiffs, and counsel for youth who are charged with minor delinquent and status offenses, problem behaviors or minor infractions of school rules, and who consent to participate in the program. These courts engage the community in a partnership with the juvenile justice system, youth programs, schools, attorneys, judges, or police departments who work together to form and expand diversionary programs responding to juvenile crime and problem behavior (Mullins, Heward, & Spina, 2000).

Youth courts offer program services and sentencing options that hold youth accountable, repair harm to the victim and community, and contribute to public safety. They promote prosocial attitudes, activities, and behaviors to help create and maintain vital communities where crime and delinquency cannot flourish. Youth court practices provide a foundation for crime prevention and community justice initiatives that embrace the principles of restorative justice.

Drug courts, mental health courts, DWI courts, and other problem solving courts are examples of specialized courts that divert adult offenders to treatment and other programs and services. Community corrections agencies are involved in many of the almost 2,000 drug courts now operating in the United States. Drug courts speed up case management and ensure early placement in drug treatment programs. Frequent court appearances and drug testing also are components of drug court programs. Drug courts focus on sustaining abstinence and preventing relapse using a range of problem solving techniques.

Costs: As with all cost estimates, costs for youth courts vary widely depending on where they are implemented, the size and scope of the program. The Youth Policy Forum has estimated the cost per youth to be between \$430 and \$480 (Pearson & Jurich 2005).

Surveys completed by treatment providers indicate that the annual cost of treatment services for drug court participants differs widely based on many factors. These factors include the target population treated in the program and the type of treatment services provided (which range widely in availability, cost, and application; i.e., intensive outpatient, medically monitored inpatient, methadone maintenance, therapeutic communities). In addition, annualized treatment costs may include ancillary services offered such as job training, anger management counseling, drug testing, and case management (American University, 2001).

A Bureau of Justice Assistance report gives cost estimates from \$8 to \$14 per day for substance abuse treatment in drug courts (Office of Justice Programs Drug Court Clearinghouse, 2004).

Evidence: Youth court programs provide state and local jurisdictions an alternative approach to working with juvenile offenders who commit low-level offenses. The appeal to these programs stem from the ideal of holding young offenders accountable for their actions in a manner that promotes the philosophy of the juvenile justice system of handling youth from a least-restrictive approach. Youth courts are typically able to interrupt offending behavior and respond quickly through a system of meaningful responses. Because of these benefits, state and local jurisdictions are embracing youth courts as researchers continue to document their effectiveness and develop recommendations for future policy and practice (Butts & Buck, 2000).

A report by the American University Drug Court Clearinghouse and Technical Assistance Project (2003) concluded that adult drug court programs substantially reduce crime by lowering re-arrest and conviction rates among drug court graduates well after program completion, providing overall greater cost/benefits for drug court participants and graduates than comparison group members.

According to a study released by the National Institute of Justice (NIJ) in 2003 from a sample of 17,000 drug court graduates nationwide, within one year of program graduation, only 16.4 % had been rearrested and charged with a felony offense (Roman, Townsend, & Bhati, 2003). A 2000 Vera Institute of Justice report concluded that “the body of literature on recidivism is now strong enough, despite lingering methodological weaknesses, to conclude that completing a drug court program reduces the likelihood of future arrest” (Fluellen & Trone, 2000, p.6).

Administrative Probation or Parole

Description: Administrative or unsupervised probation or parole is the least restrictive form of supervision. The offender lives at home, and is required to keep his/her address current with the supervising agency. It generally requires little or no face-to-face reporting. This form of supervision is used for offenders/delinquents who determined, through a risk and needs assessment, unlikely to pose a threat to the community. Offenders are provided a list of supervision requirements and instructions on how to prove a satisfactory completion of supervision conditions for a successful termination of supervision. If the offender is not compliant, a bench warrant may be issued.

Cost: The cost for unsupervised or administrative supervision varies widely. The cost to the agency is generally significantly less than supervised probation. The cost can increase or decrease if kiosk or other reporting technology is used depending on how staff are utilized. Often the offender bears the costs through fees.

Evidence: Administrative or unsupervised probation or parole avoids over supervision of individuals who do not pose a risk to the community and saves public funds. A validated risk and needs assessment and not just the level of offense, is required to identify those individuals most likely to be successful on this type of monitoring. The use of administrative or unsupervised probation or parole for low risk offenders allows greater attention to be paid to medium and high risk offenders.

Supervised Probation or Parole

Description: Supervised probation and parole strategies allow the defendant to continue to live at home and work in their community while repaying any judicially ordered fines, fees, or restitution. Supervised probation or parole requires a range of periodic reporting to an officer or caseworker and monitoring of the individual at the offender's home or place of employment or education to track progress with and completion of imposed conditions. Probationers and parolees (adult or juvenile) may have committed misdemeanors or felonies. Drug testing, electronic monitoring, treatment programs, and educational programs may all be utilized, as indicated, based on the individual's needs and the level of risk he or she presents to the public.

Cost: The costs for managing an adult offender in the community averages \$3.42 per day for probation and \$7.53 per day for parole (Pew Center for the States, 2009). Additionally, adult offenders who remain in the community pay fines, fees, and restitution. Supervision fees can offset the cost of probation supervision. These offenders may also pay child support and state and federal taxes.

Evidence: Supervision in the community when implemented well can produce double-digit reductions in recidivism and save states money along the way; however, "If policy makers want this type of result, they will have to invest in the overburdened system of community corrections" (Pew Center on the States, 2009, p.2).

Intensive Probation or Parole

Description: Intensive probation or parole supervision or intensive supervision programs (ISP) requires more frequent reporting and surveillance and generally includes smaller offender to officer caseloads. Most ISP offenders/delinquents are high risk. The offender lives at home with close monitoring. Components include daily to weekly contact between the officer and defendant, home visits, employment verification and contacts, curfew checks, use of electronic supervision tools, and required checks with any treatment providers. Depending on the substance

PLACE-BASED SUPERVISION

Place-based supervision has strong theoretical grounding. Many experts agree that the greatest power to shape offender behavior lies not with the officer but in the network of natural and informal supports in one's neighborhood (Solomon, et al., 2008, p.18). In Maryland, as a part of its Proactive Community supervision (PCS) model, parole agents are placed in the neighborhoods where parolees live. Research indicates that arrest rates for parolees who are a part of this program are 31% lower than for traditional parole (Taxman, 2007).

use assessment, participation in other offender treatment programs and frequent evidence of compliance such as drug testing may be required.

Cost: Intensive probation has been reported to cost an average of \$10.14 per day (Criminal Justice Institute, 2003). When factoring in the costs of re-arrests, incarceration, and crime costs for the percentage of those who reoffend, the average cost per offender is half to three-quarters that of prison.

Evidence: The evidence continues to be mixed as to whether intensive probation supervision reduces recidivism. However, a growing number of second generation ISP's are re-thinking the traditional surveillance-only oriented focus by individualizing treatment and avoiding unnecessary surveillance. To the extent that these programs are used as relapse prevention and treatment programs, and not merely surveillance, they can have significant public safety benefits. Intensive probation provides more supervision and treatment for probationers and parolees. It has been argued that there are increased revocations of probation or parole because violations are detected earlier (Petersilia & Turner, 1990). This may in turn reduce crime on the street.

Day Reporting

Description: Often offenders/delinquents need the daily support of a structured and closely monitored environment to aid in the development of stability. The day reporting center (DRC) provides a milieu for such offenders. When properly created, organized, staffed, and funded, day reporting centers can be an effective community corrections resource. Offenders enrolled in day reporting centers live at home and initially report to the center each day. The adult or juvenile may be ordered to work or be enrolled in classes, seek employment, pay restitution (if required) and participate in community service work. Other program components will depend on the identified needs of the offender (e.g., attendance at group sessions, classes, therapy, drug treatment or other programs).

Cost: The average cost of day reporting centers is about \$20 per day per individual. although some have reported costs under \$10 per day (Parent, Byrne, TsArfaty, Valdade, & Esselman, 1995). This estimate does not include costs associated with re-arrest and co-located services that may not be funded by the program but are accessed by clients.

Evidence: An evaluation of the Multnomah County (OR) DRC indicates that successful completion of the DRC can contribute to reduction in future crime (Rhyne, 2005). Day reporting centers connect offenders to treatment, health, employment, and other community services that will provide stability and assistance after probation ends. They also make it possible for offenders or delinquents who are employed to attend programs during their nonworking or non-school hours.

Home Confinement

Description: Home confinement provides a short-term restrictive option for individuals who have been in detention

or need close supervision. The offender is required to remain at home with the exception of approved travel to work, school, or treatment programs. It is often used in conjunction with electronic monitoring and drug testing. The offender may also be required to phone in at periodic intervals. Advantages that home confinement offers over incarceration is that it allows adult offenders to maintain employment, which reduces the public tax burden, and requires juveniles to stay in school so their schooling is uninterrupted (Development Services Group (DSG), n.d.a).

Cost: Home confinement is less costly than some more restrictive strategies. The cost varies widely depending on whether it is used with or without electronic supervision. For examples, one estimate places the cost of electronic monitoring to be between \$2 and \$4 per day, compared with around \$150 per day average cost of incarceration (DeMichele & Payne, 2009). The basic cost of home confinement with electronic supervision includes agency supervision costs, re-arrest, and revocation costs which make it about the same as traditional supervision. All other strategies incorporated (e.g., drug tests, counseling, treatment) add to these costs.

Evidence: Studies indicate that home confinement, whether it is used with or without electronic monitoring, is an effective, low-cost alternative to incarceration. Research shows that home confinement consistently results in low recidivism rates for both adults and juveniles, when used as a pretrial intervention or post-adjudication sentence. Further, home confinement allows an offender to continue working and/or attending school, reducing social costs while preserving the social networks and supports that promote successful rehabilitation (DSG, n.d.a).

Intermittent Confinement or Work Release

Description: Intermittent confinement involves the periodic use of detention in a jail or other facility to allow defendants to be employed during the week and serve time on the weekend. It may be used as a deterrent to offender behavior or to relieve jail crowding. It allows the individual to maintain family, community, work, or educational obligations and it limits the time, length of stay, and circumstances of incarceration according to a specified plan.

Cost: Intermittent confinement costs are similar to other secure and residential facilities, \$54 per day depending on the facility (Maguire & Pastore, 1994). Additional costs may accrue for treatment or other correctional programming. In many cases, offenders are required to pay a fee to get work release privileges from jail.

Evidence: Intermittent confinement and work release provide highly structured periods within a supervision plan. It has been used to relieve jail crowding during peak periods. Work release and intermittent confinement allow offenders to be employed and serve time on weekends and holidays. Unless coupled with evidence-based practices and programming to address

An example of a successful halfway house is the Reentry Partnership Housing effort in Georgia. For more information see the Georgia Reentry Partnership Housing effort at www.dca.state.ga.us/housing/specialneeds/programs/rph.asp.

For a good review of correctional boot camps see the *National Institute of Corrections, Research for Practice Series, Correctional Boot Camps: Lesson from a Decade of Research*. 2003. www.ncjrs.org/pdffiles1/nij/197018.pdf.

offenders' needs, neither reduced recidivism nor long-term behavior change should be expected.

Halfway House

Description: Halfway houses, also known as residential, pre-release, or diversion centers among other titles, involve structured group living and restrictions on movement. This type of community corrections option provides staff-secure to facility-secure residential placement. Some require the resident to work in paid employment or attend school in the community while living there. Others provide 24/7 confinement with no outside employment. Their use has ranged from providing a residential 24-hour secure facility in the community for the defendant who would otherwise be incarcerated to providing a step-down for individuals returning from incarceration. Other halfway houses are established specifically for drug and alcohol rehabilitation, mental health, or sexual offenders. Halfway houses also provide shelter for offenders/defendants who are homeless.

Cost: Halfway houses average \$31.47 per individual per day (Klein-Saffran, 1995). Actual costs depend on the additional interventions and strategies employed while the defendant or offender is in residence.

Evidence: Combining the restrictiveness of the living environment with evidence-based practices and strategies for behavior change may increase the likelihood of a reduction in recidivism.

Community Detention Centers

Description: Detention centers provide short-term incarceration within a community near where the offender resides, and are often used when an offender violates his or her community supervision order. In many communities the local jail is called a detention center.

Cost: Daily offender costs for detention facilities is similar to that of jail.

Evidence: They can be effective in behavior change to the degree that they assess criminogenic risk and needs and provide therapeutic and evidence-based programs to meet the needs. As previously noted, incarceration by itself does not reduce criminal behavior over time.

Boot Camp

Description: Also known as shock incarceration, boot camps employ relatively short-term incarceration in a highly regimented group living facility. They generally employ a military-style discipline and have come been criticized for the tough, in-your-face style that some adopted. Both adult and juvenile boot camps exist.

Cost: The cost of boot camps is similar to that of prisons. The inclusion of intensive programming and staffing that is required for effective behavior change may increase the cost beyond a normal daily prison cost.

Evidence: “Boot camps generally had positive effects on the attitudes, perceptions, behavior, and skills of inmates during their confinement. With limited exceptions, these positive changes did not translate into reduced recidivism” (Parent, 2003, p.1). These results were true for adults and juveniles.

Adult Prison and Jail / Juvenile Detention Facilities and Juvenile Correctional Facilities

Description: With few exceptions, adult prisons and jails, and juvenile detention facilities in the United States tend to be holding facilities. Although originally intended to be places of rehabilitation, tightened budgets and calls for retribution have caused many adult facilities to remove programs and treatment intended to help the individual avoid future criminal behavior. Most juvenile correctional facilities, by the nature of the juvenile justice system, are still intended to assist the youth in furthering education and positive behavior changes.

Cost: The cost of prison in the United States averages \$78.95 a day per offender (Pew Center on the States, 2009).

Evidence: One of the most frequently cited benefits of incarceration is that individuals cannot prey on the public while locked up. Prisons, jails, detention centers, and juvenile correctional facilities incarcerate dangerous and violent offenders as they should, but they also hold individuals who are not deemed dangerous or violent. The Pew Center on the States (2009) suggests that prisons in many states have reached the “tipping point” or the point of diminishing returns in regards to prisons effect on crime reduction.

We are not only locking up the serious, chronic, and violent offenders we are now incarcerating the second and third and tenth tier offenders who are less likely to commit as many crimes (Pew Center on the States, 2009, p.18).

CORE STRATEGIES

As has been discussed, crime reduction is a result of behavior change. Many juveniles desist in their delinquent behavior naturally as they grow beyond the adolescent years. Criminal activity also declines as adults age. However, for a large portion of the defendant, offender, and delinquent population, programs that address criminogenic risk and needs and promote the development of new patterns of behavior are needed. Once the match has been made between the risk of the individual and the appropriate restrictiveness of the setting or supervision needed, it is time to consider the strategies that will bring about behavior change. Research has shown repeatedly that supervision and incarceration alone, no matter how structured, do not reduce future crime (Gainsborough & Mauer, 2000; Petersilia & Turner, 1993).

Creating case plans that are successful is as much about the strategies selected as it is about delivery. Strategies, programs, and practices designed to rehabilitate delinquent youth or adult offenders include a variety of approaches

to change behaviors and attitudes and build competencies. But, not all strategies/programs are created equally. Even programs by the same name will vary in effectiveness. A successful strategy/program must have skilled and committed staff and be delivered with integrity using the practices outlined as effective and with the population for which they were designed.

Effective or promising strategies/programs will target the risks and criminogenic needs identified by the risk and needs assessment tool. Certain treatment programs, such as cognitive-behavioral interventions, substance abuse treatment, and education and job assistance have been proven to contribute to crime reduction (Aos, Miller, & Drake, 2006) by addressing the primary risk and needs areas of offenders and delinquents. If a jurisdiction must select among all of the strategies/programs that it funds, major consideration should go to providing programs in these four specific areas.

1) Substance Abuse

The correlation between crime and the abuse of alcohol and illegal substances is well documented. Estimates range between half to three-quarters of offenders have some connection to illegal drugs and/or alcohol. This connection may be the commission of a drug offense or an offense to obtain drugs, an active addiction, or a history of abuse and/or addiction (National Center on Addiction & Substance Abuse, 1998).

Substance abuse prevention and treatment programs in community corrections: 1) educate offenders about potential harm caused by abuse of alcohol and other illegal substances, and 2) work toward changing behaviors that lead to addiction. Most community corrections strategies include screening, assessment, diagnosis, and progressive or phased treatment approaches. Probation and parole provide a critical function in screening clients and referring them for substance abuse treatment. Community corrections agencies may perform the screening or it may be provided by a private or public substance abuse agency. A growing number of probation and parole agencies have addiction services and provide referrals where detoxification, residential care, or other health-related services are needed.

The advent of the Magnetic Resonance Imaging (MRI) has proven that addiction to alcohol and other drugs is a brain disease with the potential for chronic relapse (National Institute on Alcohol Abuse and Alcoholism, 2004). Comprehensive programs recognize the biological and social origins of substance abuse.

Strategies used within community corrections should address the complex needs of drug-involved offenders for housing, education, vocational rehabilitation, health care, family stability, and other interventions. Relapse prevention strategies, individual motivation, peer and family support, physical and mental health, and detoxification are all components of such programs and require coordination of services between justice agencies and treatment professionals. Substance abuse prevention and treatment programs in community corrections include mutual-help groups, medical interventions, behavior modification, residential programs, and a variety of other approaches directed to specific addictions or related problems.

Many community corrections programs are coercive rather than voluntary. A growing number of researchers believe that coerced treatment is effective considering:

- offenders will stay in treatment longer,
- offenders have increased abstinence, and
- offenders who are coerced into treatment commit fewer or less serious new offenses than offenders who voluntarily participate in treatment (Salmon & Salmon, 1983; Schnoll, Goldstein, Antes & Rinella, 1980).

Cost: Residential drug treatment can cost \$3,132 per offender, per admission. Drug treatment has been estimated to save \$7 in health and justice costs for every dollar invested (Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration, 2003).

Evidence: Research shows that treatment in prison followed by aftercare treatment is most effective in reducing recidivism as well as results in cost savings versus incarceration alone (McCollister et al., 2004).

2) Learning and Educational Programs

A high percentage of offenders and ex-offenders (up to 70%) are high school dropouts, and as many as half do not have basic literacy skills (Holzer, Raphael, & Stoll, 2003). Offenders who experience difficulties acquiring an education often exhibit learning, behavioral, and motivational problems that lead to criminal conduct. There are structured classes and individual academic programs for juveniles and adults to raise literacy and address other academic deficits. In community corrections, such programs are available through adult learning facilities, special programs, and volunteers who work as mentors and tutors. Additionally, many community corrections programs require offenders to obtain a high-school general equivalency degree or attend school. Educational programs include curricula and learning activities designed to improve skills, behaviors, and capacities in a number of areas. Effective educational programs are taught by trained personnel at a level consistent with the abilities and learning styles of the student.

Evidence: A 5-year evaluation of the career academy concept for youth (the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention alternative school model) covering nine schools and 1,900 students found that, compared with their counterparts who did not attend, at-risk students enrolled in career academies were 1) one-third less likely to drop out of school; 2) more likely to attend school, complete academic and vocational courses, and apply to college; and 3) provided with more opportunities to set goals and reach academic and professional objectives (Kemple & Snipes, 2000 as cited in DSG, n.d.b).

3) Cognitive Behavioral Interventions

Cognitive behavior interventions (CBI) are programs designed to restructure the thought processes of offenders in order to positively influence decision-making and problem solving skills. The premise of CBI programs is that an internal

behavior (thinking) controls external behaviors (actions). These programs go beyond the stage of knowledge transfer by coupling the curriculum with activities designed to allow participants to practice the new skills they acquire. Ideally, participants engaged in CBI programs learn and practice new skills that will lead to changes in their thought processes and, thereby, changes in their behavior and actions with the ultimate goal of reducing criminal/delinquent behavior (Sullivan, 2001).

Cost: In one example, cognitive facilitator training can cost around \$900 per person (National Curriculum & Training Institute, 2009). After initial training is accomplished, costs are similar to other group programs. After training, costs per offender average \$105 per individual.

Evidence: Research indicates that cognitive-behavioral therapy (CBT) can be an effective treatment for adult and juvenile offenders. In reference to CBT, Lipsey, Landenberger, & Wilson (2007, p. 4) state:

Reviews of the comparative effectiveness of different treatment approaches have generally ranked it in the top tier with regard to effects on recidivism (e.g., Andrews et al., 1990; Lipsey & Wilson, 1998). It has a well-developed theoretical basis that explicitly targets “criminal thinking” as a contributing factor to deviant behavior. And, it can be adapted to a range of juvenile and adult offenders, delivered in institutional or community settings by mental health specialists or paraprofessionals, and administered as part of a multifaceted program or as a stand-alone intervention. Meta-analysis consistently indicated that CBT can have significant positive effects on recidivism.

Multisystemic Therapy (MST) aims to promote behavioral change through intensive family-based treatment. Research indicates that MST is effective at reducing rates of criminal activity and institutionalization, as evidenced in a study by Henggeler, Melton, & Smith (1992) which reported youth receiving MST programming reported significant reductions in criminal activity than those youth not receiving MST programming. Additionally, follow-up results showed that 2.4 years later, the percentage of youth not receiving MST programming who recidivated was double that of the youth who did receive MST programming (Henggeler et al., 1993).

4) Job Assistance Programs

Locating a job can be difficult for offenders due to the assortment of individual characteristics that may impinge upon their employability and earnings capacity including low levels of educational attainment, limited experience in the workplace, and substance abuse and health problems. The attitudes and choices that they make may also limit their employment opportunities. Additionally, offenders may be restricted from continuing in the profession that they are trained for since some licensure precludes convicted felons. Employer attitudes also have much to do with the equation (Holzer, Raphael, & Stoll, 2003).

Efforts to link offenders to the labor market currently encompass a wide range of activities, including case

management services, substance abuse treatment, education or training activities (especially on soft skills or those related to the needs of specific employers), assistance with the collection of necessary documentation for employment (such as social security cards), paid transitional work experience, job placement assistance, and post employment supports (e.g., transportation, job coaching, services to employers, etc.).

Evidence: Employment training, job readiness, and work programs develop pro-social behaviors and increase offender skills in entering the workplace. Originally conceived as career development and education programs, today's programs use cognitive behavioral approaches to change offender perceptions, behavior, and strategies with respect to the workplace. Offender training, job skills, and job placement in community corrections is associated with decreased recidivism and increased earning potential. Educational programs focus on work habits, communication skills, employability, job training, job placement, and career planning. Curriculum should be delivered by professionals and be appropriate to the learning style and abilities of the participant (Travis, Solomon, & Waul, 2001).

ADDITIONAL CORRECTIONAL TOOLS & INTERVENTIONS

In addition to the core program types listed above, community corrections practitioners use a variety of tools and interventions to assist the offender in successful behavior change and completion of conditions. These options are incorporated into a case plan, as needed, to meet the individual risk and needs of the adult or juvenile. Because cost is so varied and changes over time, it is not included extensively in this section.

Treatment Accountability for Safer Communities

The Treatment Accountability for Safer Communities (TASC) program model works to link criminal justice supervision with drug and alcohol treatment interventions. TASC was initiated in 1972 with Federal funding under the Drug Abuse and Treatment Act, and since that time, has been replicated in communities throughout the United States to intervene with non-violent, drug-addicted offenders to break the cycle of drug abuse. TASC is a program model, meaning its components can be replicated in various jurisdictions (rural, urban, suburban), among specialized populations (e.g., females, juveniles), and can be implemented during any stage of criminal justice involvement including pretrial, probation, and parole (Bureau of Justice Assistance, 1995).

The TASC program model utilizes four primary components to target criminal justice and treatment interventions. The first component is early identification of non-violent, drug addicted offenders. Ideally, early identification would occur at the pretrial level, but identification is possible at any stage of criminal justice processing. Next, identified offenders are assessed to identify individualized treatment needs. Third, offenders are referred to treatment programs, appropriate for targeting needs identified through the assessment. Assessment and referral processes are guided by clearly defined protocols and guidelines which streamline the process of identifying appropriate agencies to make referrals to, thus resulting in offenders entering treatment programs more expediently. Finally, offenders are monitored through a process of continuous case management, which links the criminal justice and treatment systems to monitor supervision compliance

and treatment progress. Through the continuous case management system, success and failures are communicated immediately which allows for the criminal justice or treatment provider to provide immediate responses to the offender (e.g., sanction or reward). This linkage between the two systems also promotes communication between supervision agencies and treatment providers to make certain that offenders are receiving the appropriate dosages of treatment to combat their drug addiction and that, if necessary, changes can be suggested, agreed upon, and implemented if deemed ineffective with a particular offender (Bureau of Justice Assistance, 1995).

Evidence: Advantages of the TASC approach include less reliance on governmental solutions to problems and better resource utilization through communities. TASC increases community capacity by targeting services and fitting them to clients' needs and risks. This improves system responses and communications through regular use of treatment, case management, and interventions.

TECHNOLOGY TOOLS

Electronic Supervision Technology

The term electronic supervision technology refers to an array of processes using various electronic tools to acquire information on offender behaviors and includes, but is not limited to, reporting kiosks, phone reporting, remote alcohol detection devices, ignition interlock systems, identity verification systems, and global satellite positioning to help detect an offender's compliance with restrictions or track his or her location.

Electronic monitoring (EM) is generally associated with ankle bracelets and a telemetry technology that allows remote measurement and reporting of information, used as a supervision tool for juvenile or adult offenders. New technology and new uses continue to be developed. These tools can be used at all stages of the community corrections continuum. Incorporating them into a supervision strategy requires that the responsible agency have case management systems, trained staff, caseworkers, and procedures for sanctions in place in order to effectively respond.

Evidence: Electronic supervision technologies are still in the initial evaluation stages, so it is difficult to determine their effectiveness. DeMichele and Payne (2009, p.20) suggest that community corrections professionals keep "an open-mind about electronic supervision technologies, and realize that all of these tools have specific strengths and concerns." If behavior change is the anticipated goal, it is important to remember that these are tools and not stand-alone programs and must be incorporated into a case plan that targets the individual's assessed risk and needs.

Drug or Alcohol Testing

Alcohol and drug testing relies on a range of technologies to provide information concerning offender use of alcohol and drugs. Technology includes urinalysis, skin sweat patch, hair, and breath testing. Test results are monitored by probation/parole officers and the strategy is often used as a response for noncompliance of supervision requirements. Just

as with electronic supervision technology, alcohol and drug testing technology is a tool and not a stand-alone program. To be used most effectively, drug and alcohol testing strategies should be utilized randomly.

Drug testing can cost \$5 to \$25 per test or more depending on the type of test, number of drugs tested for, and verification procedures. In addition to the testing costs, there are other administrative and facility costs. For example, drug testing may require staffing to collect and process the samples and modifications to facilities to permit collection and storage of samples. The cost of testing may be the responsibility of either the offender or the supervising agency depending upon agency policy or sentencing court mandates.

Evidence: Drug and alcohol testing can be an effective surveillance technique and can support treatment interventions. Drug and alcohol tests are a reliable indicator of substance use, a solid source of evidence for violation of community supervision conditions, and a tool that may encourage offenders to remain drug and alcohol free. Evaluations indicate that testing alone is not an effective deterrent to crime. However, it is thought by many that testing combined with treatment and sanctions can reduce recidivism significantly (McVay, Schiraldi, & Ziedenberg, 2004; Gendreau & Goggin, 1996; Aos, Phipps, Barnoski, & Lieb, 2001).

Ignition interlock

Ignition interlock is primarily used to prevent an offender who has a history of alcohol abuse and has been convicted of driving while intoxicated from operating a certain vehicle. The program uses technology (similar to a breathalyzer) to limit or prohibit vehicle entry or vehicle operation if the offender is intoxicated and keeps a log of activity on the device to track violations.

Evidence: Sentencing patterns indicate that ignition interlock is often enforced as a condition of supervision (DeYoung, Tashima, & Masten, 2004; Neugebauer, 2002). Ignition interlock will prevent an offender from driving while under the influence of alcohol if the vehicle is equipped with the technology; however, it does not prevent a defendant from operating a vehicle that does not have the technology installed in the vehicle. To be effective, ignition interlock must be used in conjunction with case management and other core programs such as alcohol abuse treatment.

FINANCIAL PENALTIES

Means-Based Fines

Also known as “day fines,” these economic sanctions are monetary penalties that take into consideration the severity of the offense and the offender’s ability to pay. Prior to imposing means-based fines, the offender’s earnings history is investigated and the amount of the fine is often determined through the use of a sliding scale. Since the fine is based on the offender’s ability to pay, the need for community corrections staff to invest time and energy into coercive collection and enforcement techniques is often reduced. In addition, the offender often builds a record of reliability by making incremental payments.

Evidence: Evaluations of fines reveal that they are more likely to be paid if they are proportional to the ability of the defendant to pay and the harm that occurred (Hillsman & Greene, 1988). Although used widely in Europe, means-based fines are seldom used in the United States; however, they may be an option to consider for low-risk offenders in the United States.

Forfeiture and impoundment

Economic sanctions operate in an increasing number of jurisdictions to punish criminals and curb white collar crime or drug trafficking. These sanctions involve the seizure of assets or property as a penalty for a crime. Asset forfeiture may be used to reimburse law enforcement or other state agencies. Impoundment may involve holding a vehicle or other assets until a fee or costs have been paid. Forfeiture and impoundment may involve small administrative costs to the agency, but it can provide a source of revenue to the agency for all types of public purposes from victim's compensation, to community corrections, to education.

Evidence: There is no evidence that forfeiture and impoundment changes criminal behavior. It is generally considered punitive rather than rehabilitative. However, asset forfeiture funds and impounded property can be used or sold for all types of public purposes.

License Suspension

This option removes the privilege of operating a vehicle or engaging in a profession or occupation that requires a license. Similar to forfeiture and impoundment, agency administrative costs may be involved in this program. Additional staffing costs may also be necessary to enforce the license suspension process.

Evidence: Regardless of the type of license suspended it may create a "time out" for the offender. It is considered punitive not rehabilitative. There is little evidence that the suspension creates a change in the behavior that lead to the suspension. If it revokes a license needed to carry out employment, it can have serious negative impact on the offender, the offender's family, and the ability to pay taxes.

VICTIMS' AND COMMUNITY SERVICES

Victim-Offender Dialogue

Victim-Offender Dialogue can serve to humanize the justice experience for the victim and the offender. It is a concept within the Restorative Justice model. It is a face-to-face meeting, in the presence of a trained mediator, between the victim of a crime and the person who committed that crime. The practice is also called victim-offender mediation, victim-offender conferencing, or restorative justice dialogue. In some practices, the victim and the offender are joined by family and community members or others.

In the meeting, the offender and the victim can talk to each other about what happened, the effects of the crime on their lives, and their feelings about it. They may choose to create a mutually agreed upon plan to repair any damages or pay for any losses that occurred as a result of the crime. Offenders have an opportunity to take responsibility for what they have done. They learn the impact of their actions on others. They take an active role in making things right, for example, through restitution, apology, or community service.

Evidence: Research shows that offenders who participate in victim-offender mediation feel they were treated more fairly than those who do not, and have a higher rate of restitution completion than those who do not participate. Research also has found high levels of participant satisfaction in victim-offender mediation, conferencing, and circles (Umbreit & Roberts, 1996).

Research indicates that victims who participate in these processes receive more restitution than those who do not and feel safer and less fearful afterwards than those who do not participate. Successful mediation can reduce community tensions, restitution is negotiated and the victim can gain financial and emotional recovery. Crime victims perceive that they have been fairly treated and offenders are more likely to complete payment of restitution (Umbreit & Greenwood, 2000).

Restitution

Restitution involves payment to victims or communities by the offender for the harm that has occurred. The payment can be monetary, material, or in-kind service. It is a sanction that considers the concerns of victims, community, and the offender. It may be monitored as a special or mandatory condition of probation or parole. Every state recognizes restitution and authorize its administration (Office for Victims of Crime, 2002). In most jurisdictions, restitution will receive priority over any other form of judicially required payments. The offender may also pay court costs and fees which are separate from the restitution.

Evidence: Although restitution does impose economic sanctions on the offender and helps hold them accountable for their actions, it provides a huge benefit to crime victims as well by helping victims receive reimbursement for monetary losses they incur as the result of a crime. Studies suggest payment of restitution can increase victim satisfaction with the criminal justice process (Smith, Davis, & Hillenbrand, 1989). In the context of victim-offender dialogue, restitution can be meaningful by allowing the offender to make reparation for the harm done.

Based on a study involving a large sample of juvenile probation cases in Utah, there is also evidence to suggest that when juvenile offenders are court-ordered to pay restitution, they are less likely to return to court for new offenses than

For more information, a bulletin entitled *Restitution: Making It Work* is available from the Office for Victims of Crime at <http://www.ojp.usdoj.gov/ovc/publications/bulletins/legalseries/bulletins/ncj189193.pdf>.

similar juveniles who are not ordered to pay restitution (Butts & Snyder, 1992).

Community Service Work

Community service work is a component of a judicial sentence that requires the offender to complete a designated number of unpaid work hours. The work is often manual in nature and may be completed at government agency sites or for the benefit of non-profit groups. Offenders may work community service in lieu of jail or a fine or as a means of reducing jail time.

The administrative and program costs for community service are minimal. When work crews are utilized, a paid crew leader(s) must be on hand. Additional liability insurance coverage may also be required. However, many community service hours are performed by offenders under the direction of nonprofit agencies that assume oversight responsibilities.

Evidence: Community service that is based in reparation has the ability to be restorative. It allows the offender to pay back to the victim or community for the harm done. Occasionally, it may provide work experience to the offender that can translate into assistance in securing a job. In cases where the work is menial and punitive and is not relevant to the crime committed or the offender, it is not a crime reduction strategy.

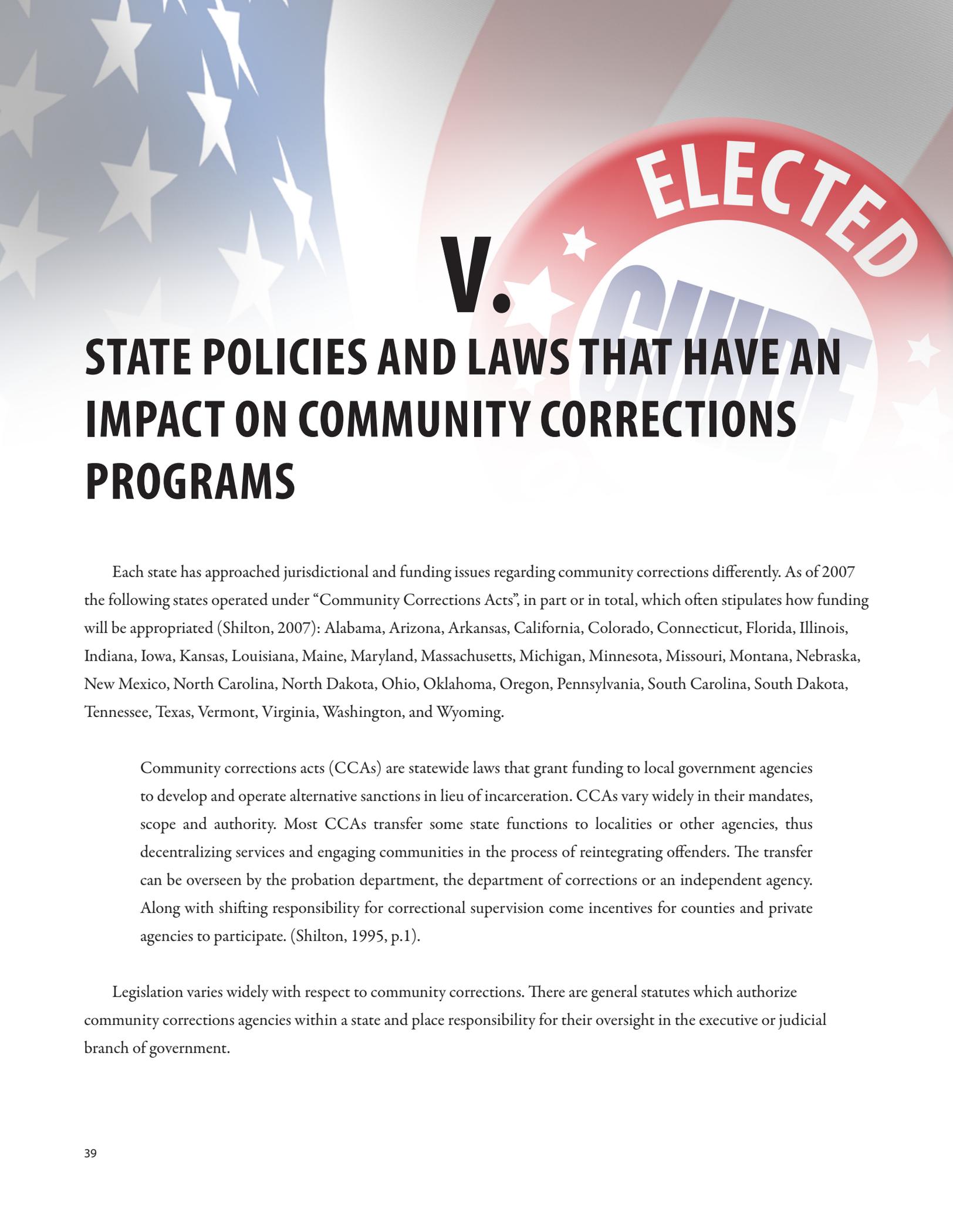
Sentencing Circles And Community Boards

Sentencing circles or sentencing boards have some of the same characteristics as the victim/offender dialogue process. Community sentencing circles and sentencing boards operate once there has been an admission or determination of guilt to guide the terms of community supervision, restitution, and resolution. Operating under the jurisdiction of a court, mediators are chosen by the primary parties (e.g., the district attorney, the victim and the offender) involved in the case. Community members, families of the victim and offender, defense counsel, and judge also may be involved.

The mediators will meet with the parties involved to discuss the crime, question each party regarding their involvement in the crime, and develop a mutually agreed upon resolution that is presented to the governing court. Since most sentencing circles provide an agreed upon resolution to the court, the funds required for a criminal trial or juvenile processing can be used to support the new process.

Evidence: Sentencing circles and boards allow all of the individuals involved in or affected by a crime to feel they have more influence in the outcome, and therefore, a greater degree of involvement in the final court decision. Further, the resolution is most likely linked to the needs of the victim or the community as opposed to an arbitrary standard of justice.

A reference table of community corrections options with the components is included in Appendix C.



V. STATE POLICIES AND LAWS THAT HAVE AN IMPACT ON COMMUNITY CORRECTIONS PROGRAMS

Each state has approached jurisdictional and funding issues regarding community corrections differently. As of 2007 the following states operated under “Community Corrections Acts”, in part or in total, which often stipulates how funding will be appropriated (Shilton, 2007): Alabama, Arizona, Arkansas, California, Colorado, Connecticut, Florida, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Louisiana, Maine, Maryland, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Montana, Nebraska, New Mexico, North Carolina, North Dakota, Ohio, Oklahoma, Oregon, Pennsylvania, South Carolina, South Dakota, Tennessee, Texas, Vermont, Virginia, Washington, and Wyoming.

Community corrections acts (CCAs) are statewide laws that grant funding to local government agencies to develop and operate alternative sanctions in lieu of incarceration. CCAs vary widely in their mandates, scope and authority. Most CCAs transfer some state functions to localities or other agencies, thus decentralizing services and engaging communities in the process of reintegrating offenders. The transfer can be overseen by the probation department, the department of corrections or an independent agency. Along with shifting responsibility for correctional supervision come incentives for counties and private agencies to participate. (Shilton, 1995, p.1).

Legislation varies widely with respect to community corrections. There are general statutes which authorize community corrections agencies within a state and place responsibility for their oversight in the executive or judicial branch of government.

For example, in California, adult and juvenile probation is county-based. In Georgia, adult felony probation, adult parole, and juvenile aftercare are state operated but juvenile probation and misdemeanor adult probation are county operated. All manner of combinations exist. The table on page 43 provides information for referencing CCAs in other states.

Mandatory and structured sentencing

Community corrections agencies are affected by structured sentencing statutes, mandatory sentencing, and other procedures that limit the use of alternative sentences. By 1994, all 50 states had adopted one or more mandatory sentencing laws. Mandatory sentences limit who is eligible for community corrections. Examples include sentencing elements such as:

- Three-strikes and you're out laws
- Increased sentences of incarceration.
- Elimination of parole, work release, and transitional release.
- Mandatory drug sentences.
- Elimination of judicial authority to modify or nullify a sentence.
- Elimination of judicial authority to consider individual circumstances of the offender in sentencing (e.g., age, family status, health).
- Mandatory waivers of juveniles to adult criminal court.

Although mandatory and structured sentencing statutes can sound good at face value, they don't come without their share of unintended consequences. For example, the mandatory sentencing law known as three-strikes and you're out law that was passed in California in 1994 has had a profound impact on the state politically, socially, and economically "by decreasing judicial discretion in lieu of strict mandatory sentencing laws, displacing minority communities through mass incarceration and depleting financial resources from other government funded programs" (Thompson, 2002, p. 17).

There are, however, alternatives to mandatory minimum sentencing provisions, such as presumptive sentences, that will still protect sentencing policy, preserve legislative control, while still offering the opportunity for tough sentences for repeat violent offenders. Presumptive sentences are guidelines set by statute that specifies an appropriate or "normal" sentence for each offense that judges can use as a baseline when making decisions. Other possible alternatives to mandatory minimum sentencing provisions include (Parent et al., 1997, p. 2):

- Directing mandatory sentencing laws at only a few especially serious crimes and requiring "sunset" provisions.
- Subjecting long mandatory sentences to periodic administrative review to determine the advisability of continued confinement.
- Including a funding plan in sentencing legislation to ensure awareness of and responsibility for long-term costs.
- Developing policy that makes more effective and systematic use of intermediate sanctions.

Community Corrections Acts by State

State	Title	Citation
Alabama	Alabama Community Punishment and Corrections Act of 1991	ALA. CODE secs. 15-18-170-186
Arizona	Community Punishment Program, Community Correctional Centers	ARIZ. REV. STAT. ANN. secs. 12-299-299.05 ,12-267,41-1613,48-4021
Arkansas	Community Punishment, Transitional Housing	ARK. CODE ANN. secs. 16-93-1201-1210,16-93-1601-1603
California	Community-Based Punishment Act of 1994, Substance Abuse, Crime and Prevention Act	CAL. PENAL CODE secs. 8050-8093, 1210.1-1306.31
Colorado	Community Corrections Programs, Presentence	COLO. REV. STAT. secs. 17-27-102-108 ,16-11-102
Connecticut	Community Corrections Services	CONN. GEN. STAT. ANN. sec. 18-101h-101k
Florida	Community Corrections Partnership Act	FLA. STAT. ANN. secs 944.026-944.033,948.001-948.50
Illinois	Probation and Probation Officers Act, and Probation Community Service Act	730 ILL. COMP. STAT. 110/0.01-110/15, and 730 ILL. COMP. STAT. 115/0.01-115/1
Indiana	Community Corrections	IND. CODE ANN. Secs 11-12-1-1—11-12-10-4
Iowa	Community-Based Correctional Program	IOWA CODE ANN. secs. 905.1-14
Kansas	Community Corrections Act	KAN. STAT. ANN. secs 75-5290-75-52, 113
Kentucky	Community Corrections Program	KY. REV. STAT. ANN. secs. 196.700-196.735
Louisiana	Community Rehabilitation Centers	LA. REV. STAT. ANN. secs 15:1131-1136
Maine	Community Corrections	Maine REV. STAT. ANN. tit. 34-A sec. 1210-A
Maryland	Community Adult Rehabilitation Centers	MD. CODE ANN. Correctional Services, secs. 11-301-320
Massachusetts	Office of Community Corrections	MASS. GEN. LAWS ANN. ch. 211F secs 1-6
Michigan	Community Corrections Act	Act 511 of 1998, 791.401-414 (MICH. COMP. LAWS ANN. secs. 28-2354(1)-(14)
Minnesota	Community Corrections Act	MINN. STAT. ANN. secs 401.01-16
Missouri	Community Corrections Program	MO. REV. STAT. secs 217.777
Montana	Montana Community Corrections Program	MONT. CODE ANN. secs 53-30-301-326
Nebraska	Community Correctional Facilities and Programs Act	NEB. REV. STAT. secs 47-601-618
New Mexico	Adult Community Corrections Act, and Juvenile Community Corrections Act	N.M. STAT. ANN. secs. 33-9-1-10 (Supp. 2001), and N.M. STAT. ANN. 33-9A-1-6
North Carolina	North Carolina State-County Criminal Justice Partnership Act	N.C. GEN. STAT. secs. 143B-272
North Dakota	Penalties and Sentencing	N.D. CENT. CODE sec. 12.1-32-07
Ohio	Community-Based Correctional Facilities and Programs	OHIO REV. CODE ANN. secs. 2301.51-99
Oklahoma	Oklahoma Community Sentencing Act	OKLA. STAT. ANN. tit. 22 sec. 988.9
Oregon	Oregon Community Corrections Act	ORS 423.500-423.560
Pennsylvania	Community Corrections	42 PA CSA Sec,9806,99033t seq.
South Carolina	Community Corrections Incentive Act	S.C. CODE ANN. secs. 2-48-10-80 , 24-23-10
South Dakota	Adult Community Corrections Facilities	24-11A-1-24-11A-20
Tennessee	Tennessee Community Corrections Act of 1985	TENN. CODE ANN. secs. 40-36-101-306
Texas	Community Justice Assistance Division	TEX. GOV'T. CODE ANN. secs. 509.001-014
Vermont	Supervised Community Sentence	VT. STAT. ANN. Public tit. 28 secs. 351-374
Virginia	Community Correctional Facilities and Programs	VA. CODE ANN. secs. 53.1-177-179
Washington	Sentence Reform Act of 1981	WASH. REV. CODE sec. 9.94A.010-9.94A930
Wyoming	Community Corrections	WYO. STAT. ANN. secs. 7-18-101-115

(Shilton, 2007).



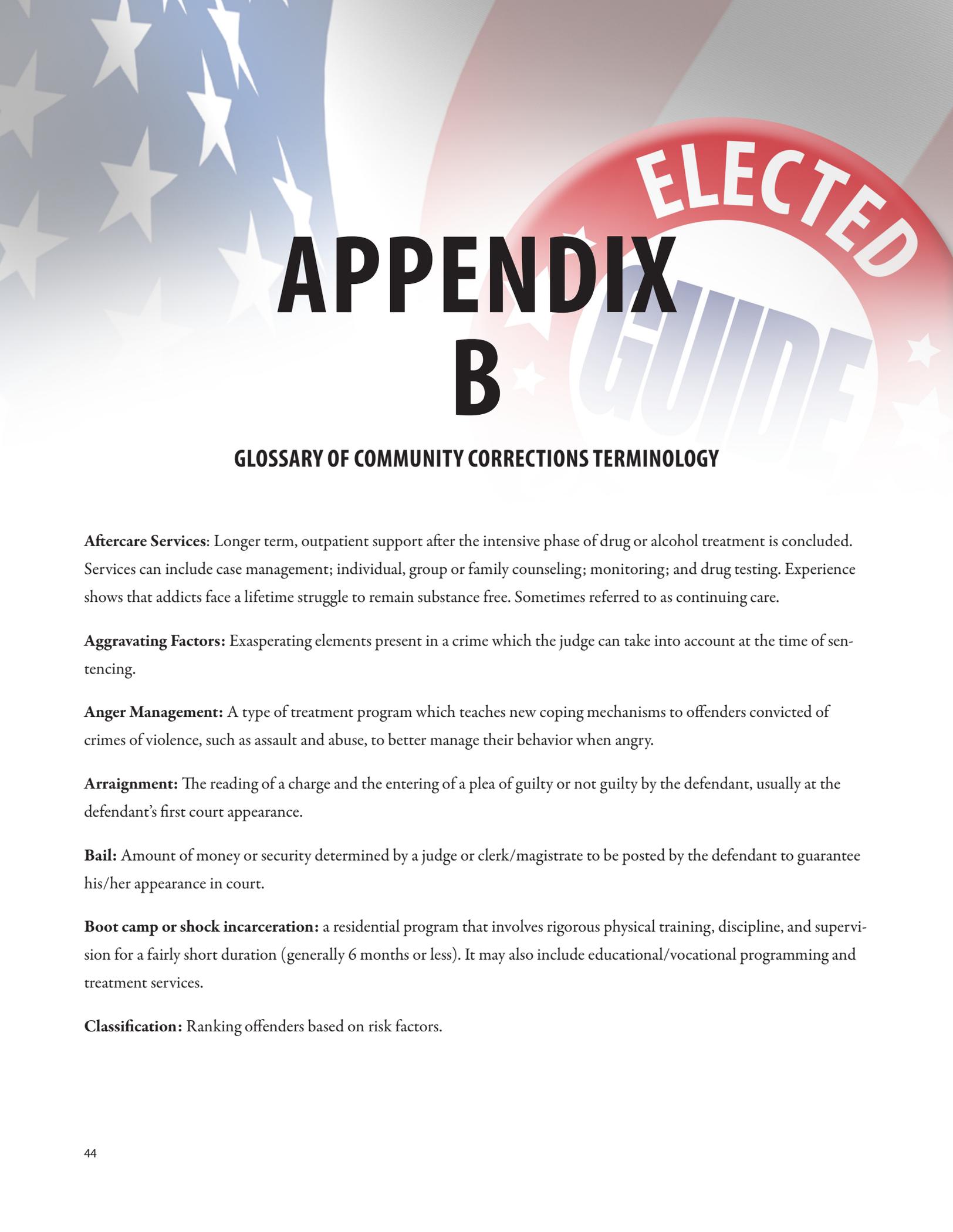
APPENDIX A

SELECTED COMMUNITY-BASED OPTIONS, COSTS, AND BENEFITS

OPTION	COST PER OFFENDER	BENEFITS
Prison	\$29,000/year ¹	punitive, incarcerate
Jail	\$19,903/year ²	punitive, incarcerate
Substance abuse treatment in drug courts	\$8 to \$14/day ³	reduced drug consumption, crime and health costs
Residential drug treatment	\$3,132/admission ⁴	rehabilitates addict, reduces arrests
Cognitive-behavioral therapy	\$105/offender ⁵	fewer arrests
Job and employment training	\$400/offender ⁵	fewer arrests, higher productivity
Probation	\$3.42/day ¹	rehabilitate offender, relieve jail crowding
Parole	\$7.53/day ¹	monitor offender, detect early problems, save taxpayer dollars, relieve prison crowding, rehabilitate offenders
Intensive Probation	\$7,150/year ⁶	
Day reporting centers	\$20/day ⁷	treat high-risk offenders, relieve jail crowding, concentrate services, provide aftercare
Home confinement with electronic monitoring	\$2-\$4/day ⁸	punishment, monitoring, confinement, relieve prison crowding
Halfway house	\$31.47/day ⁹	rehabilitate, punish, educate, relieve crowding, confinement
Electronic monitoring to off-set jail time	\$870 (savings) ⁵	surveillance, punishment
Drug treatment in the community	\$574/offender ⁵	compliance, treatment
Work release	\$54/day ¹⁰	deterrent, relieve crowding

Footnotes

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- ¹⁰ Maguire, K., & Pastore, A. L., eds. (1994). Sourcebook of criminal justice statistics 1993. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice, Bureau of Justice Statistics. Retrieved from <http://www.albany.edu/sourcebook/>



APPENDIX B

GLOSSARY OF COMMUNITY CORRECTIONS TERMINOLOGY

Aftercare Services: Longer term, outpatient support after the intensive phase of drug or alcohol treatment is concluded. Services can include case management; individual, group or family counseling; monitoring; and drug testing. Experience shows that addicts face a lifetime struggle to remain substance free. Sometimes referred to as continuing care.

Aggravating Factors: Exasperating elements present in a crime which the judge can take into account at the time of sentencing.

Anger Management: A type of treatment program which teaches new coping mechanisms to offenders convicted of crimes of violence, such as assault and abuse, to better manage their behavior when angry.

Arraignment: The reading of a charge and the entering of a plea of guilty or not guilty by the defendant, usually at the defendant's first court appearance.

Bail: Amount of money or security determined by a judge or clerk/magistrate to be posted by the defendant to guarantee his/her appearance in court.

Boot camp or shock incarceration: a residential program that involves rigorous physical training, discipline, and supervision for a fairly short duration (generally 6 months or less). It may also include educational/vocational programming and treatment services.

Classification: Ranking offenders based on risk factors.

Client-specific planning: Development of an individualized sentence, usually by defendant's counsel, to fit the crime committed, the risk the defendant poses to the community, and particular activities geared to the defendant's needs and community safety. The plan is then recommended for consideration by the judge.

Cognitive behavioral training and treatment: Educational and/or treatment programs that address crime-related behaviors, thoughts, and attitudes by teaching and practicing skills such as anger management, work habits, and substance abuse prevention techniques.

Community-based correctional option: Penalty served in the location where the offender resides such as home confinement, residential facility, community service work, or day reporting programs.

Community corrections programs: A variety of local, state, or federal activities involving punishment and management of offenders within their local communities through such programs as community service, restitution, day reporting centers, drug and alcohol treatment, and electronic monitoring.

Community courts: Pioneered in New York City, these courts provide speedy adjudication of minor crimes and misdemeanors, as well as restitution and supervision of offenders. These courts are neighborhood-based courts that focus on creative partnerships and problem solving to address local problems in the justice system.

Community detention centers: Short-term, locally-based incarceration facility close to where the offender resides.

Community sentencing circles and sentencing boards: Method of resolving a dispute or a criminal or delinquency case using appointed community representatives, prosecutors, defense attorneys, victims, and the offender(s) via mediation, restitution, or other conditions.

Community service work: Performance of labor without pay for the benefit of a community, non-profit organization, or government agency as required by a sentence or condition of supervised pretrial release for a specified period of time. In some jurisdictions, offenders can perform volunteer service in lieu of paying a fine or serving jail time. May be individually tailored or as part of a work crew.

Criminogenic: Pertaining to criminal activity.

Day reporting: Nonresidential treatment facility where offenders are required to attend meetings, submit to drug testing, participate in educational and/or treatment programs, and comply with other community requirements.

Determinate sentencing: Decreased use of judicial discretion in individual sentencing cases in an effort to make sentencing more equitable overall.

Diversionsary programs: Interventions that remove a defendant's case from further prosecution provided that the defendant participates in specific activities and conditions.

Drug courts: Specialized courts dedicated to processing drug abuse cases and engaging offenders in treatment while under justice supervision.

Drug or alcohol testing: Routine administration of testing technologies, such as breath analysis, urinalysis, hair analysis, skin patch, and others, to detect the use of alcohol or other specific illegal substances.

Educational programs: Structured learning activities such as basic education, General Equivalency Diploma, life skills, individualized learning, trade skills, or literacy. This option may also include offense-specific educational programs.

Electronic monitoring: Strategies designed to monitor offenders. The technology may include electronic radio transmitting bracelets, video, telephone, satellite, remote alcohol detection, or other technologies designed to monitor the offender.

Employment readiness and work programs: Employment readiness and job skills, apprenticeship, on-the-job training and employment placement activities used to increase offender employability and ability to pay support, fines, and fees.

Fees: Payments that offenders are ordered to make to a court, probation department, or other agency for services.

Felony: Generally, a crime that can be punished by a sentence of a year or more of incarceration or community corrections supervision.

Fines: Court-ordered or statutorily required payments to a designated agency, such as court administration, as part of a criminal penalty or diversion program.

Forfeiture and impoundment: Economic penalties that involve permanent or temporary seizure of assets or personal property. Asset forfeiture and seizure can support special funds, individual restitution, or other general government purposes.

Halfway house: Structured residential or group living with restrictions on movement during all or part of any day that may include educational and treatment services.

Home confinement: Punitive measure restricting offenders to their residences for a specified period. Home confinement is often paired with electronic monitoring.

Ignition interlock: A monitoring and electronic locking device that may limit access to or prohibit motor vehicle operation if the driver has been drinking. This mechanism also logs activity on the device to help track violations.

Intensive supervision probation: Community supervision of an offender that requires daily or frequent reporting to a probation or parole caseworker, along with participation in other programs and adherence to other monitoring requirements. This program involves more direct interaction between the offender and caseworker than regular probation.

Intermediate punishment or sanction: Sentence options that are less restrictive than incarceration and more demanding than unsupervised probation.

Intermittent confinement: Part of a sentence requiring the offender to be in a jail or other residential facility that is limited in time, duration, or frequency.

Jail: Local detention center operated by counties where adult offenders are held before trial and serve sentences after trial (usually less than one year).

Juvenile detention facility: A secure facility for juvenile delinquents. Generally reserved for the more serious and chronic youth.

Juvenile holdover: Juvenile offenders are monitored in a safe and secure location when taken into custody by law enforcement while their parents are located or a placement situation can be arranged. This concept ensures that juveniles are not subjected to secure detention for minor infractions that do not warrant it or simply because the guardians cannot be located.

License suspension: Removal of an offender's privilege to practice a profession or operate a vehicle.

Literacy and basic education: Program where teachers or volunteers assist offenders to overcome educational deficits or assist them in attaining educational goals, such as earning a General Equivalency Diploma.

Means-based fines or day fines: Economic sanction where the amount offenders pay is based on the severity of the offense. The amount is often determined through the use of a sliding scale.

Mediation: A process which brings disputing parties together in the presence of an impartial third party, who helps the disputants work out an agreement. The disputants, not the mediator, decide the terms of this agreement. Mediation often focuses on terms of restitution and on future behavior. Mediation may be used to divert offenders from criminal prosecution, resolve civil disputes, or as a component of civil or criminal adjudication.

Misdemeanor: A crime that can be generally punished by a sentence of no more than twelve months of incarceration or community corrections supervision.

Parole or supervised release (also called aftercare, reintegration, or reentry): A period of supervision following secure confinement. Parole and supervised release may require offenders released under parole or supervised release supervision to participate in programs administered or monitored by correctional agencies. Generally, release conditions are set by a parole board or releasing authorities. Release may be revoked, when conditions are violated.

Per Diem: Reimbursement cost rate for an offender's stay or involvement for a day in a facility or program.

Presentence or predispositional investigation: Preparation of a written report presenting offender background data and assessment information to assist the court in determining an appropriate sentence or sentencing conditions and follow-up treatment or services.

Pretrial services: A system of screening services and investigation which may lead to community supervision, including electronic monitoring, for selected individuals who otherwise would be in jail while awaiting trial.

Probation: Penalty ordered by the court that permits the offender to remain in the community under supervision. Probation may include serving time in a jail, payment of fines, or other alternative sanctions. Unsupervised probation is the least restrictive community supervision penalty. Supervised and some unsupervised probation requires predetermined reporting and ongoing proof of meeting other requirements.

Prison: Secure facility generally operated by a state or the federal government in which adult felons are incarcerated. Private companies may also run prisons under the regulatory oversight of a government entity.

Recidivism: There are a number of definitions for recidivism, including: the incidence of an offender returning to correctional supervision; commitment of a criminal act; a new arrest; conviction of a new crime; and violation of the conditions of probation or parole.

Restitution: The requirement of payment to victims or communities by the offender to offset or mitigate the loss or damage that has occurred as the result of the crime.

Residential drug treatment: Any number of treatment facilities where offenders are required to reside for a period of time.

Restorative justice: Restorative justice emphasizes the way in which crimes hurt relationships between people who live in a community. Crime is seen as something done against a victim and a community—not simply as a violation against the state. In restorative justice, the offender becomes accountable to those he or she has harmed. Justice is done for victims, victimized communities, and offenders. Restorative justice involves the community in preventive and intervention programs, and requires the offender to take responsibility for his or her actions.

Revocation: A legal process by which the court, hearing officer, or parole board determines whether the probationer or parolee should have his or her sentence or release conditions modified to include jail or prison if the offender is not complying with his or her conditions.

Risk assessment: An assessment of an offender's risk of re-offending using actuarial evidence-based factors proven to indicate potential for criminal/delinquent behavior to assist in making offender classification (e.g., low, moderate, high risk) and supervision level decisions.

Substance abuse education and treatment: Interventions that provide prevention education, medical, psychological, and other types of assistance to combat substance abuse and prevent relapse.

Supervised release: A period of monitoring for released offenders who have been in custody, served time, and have been placed on probation or parole.

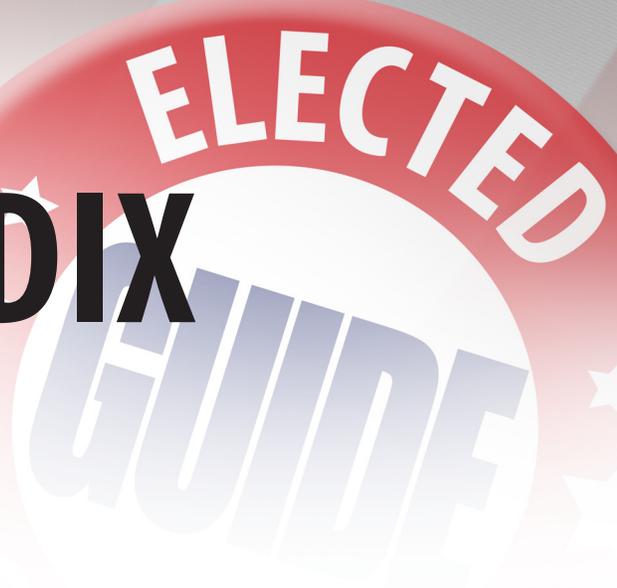
Technical violation: A violation of conditions of probation and parole, but not a violation of criminal statute. Violations are reported to the sentencing judge, a hearing officer, or a parole board who assess the seriousness of the violation.

Unsupervised/administrative probation—A period of time set by the court where a person convicted of a criminal offense must abide by conditions set by the court, in lieu of a period of incarceration, without probation monitoring.

Victim/offender dialogue program: An intervention in which the victim and offender meet face-to-face, in the presence of a trained mediator, to discuss the crime and the impact it has had on their lives in order to determine a mutually agreed-upon plan to assist in the reparation of the harm that occurred.

Work release: A program where offenders in secure or non-secure residential facilities are permitted to be employed, look for employment, or participate in other educational programs, but return to the facility when not working.

APPENDIX C

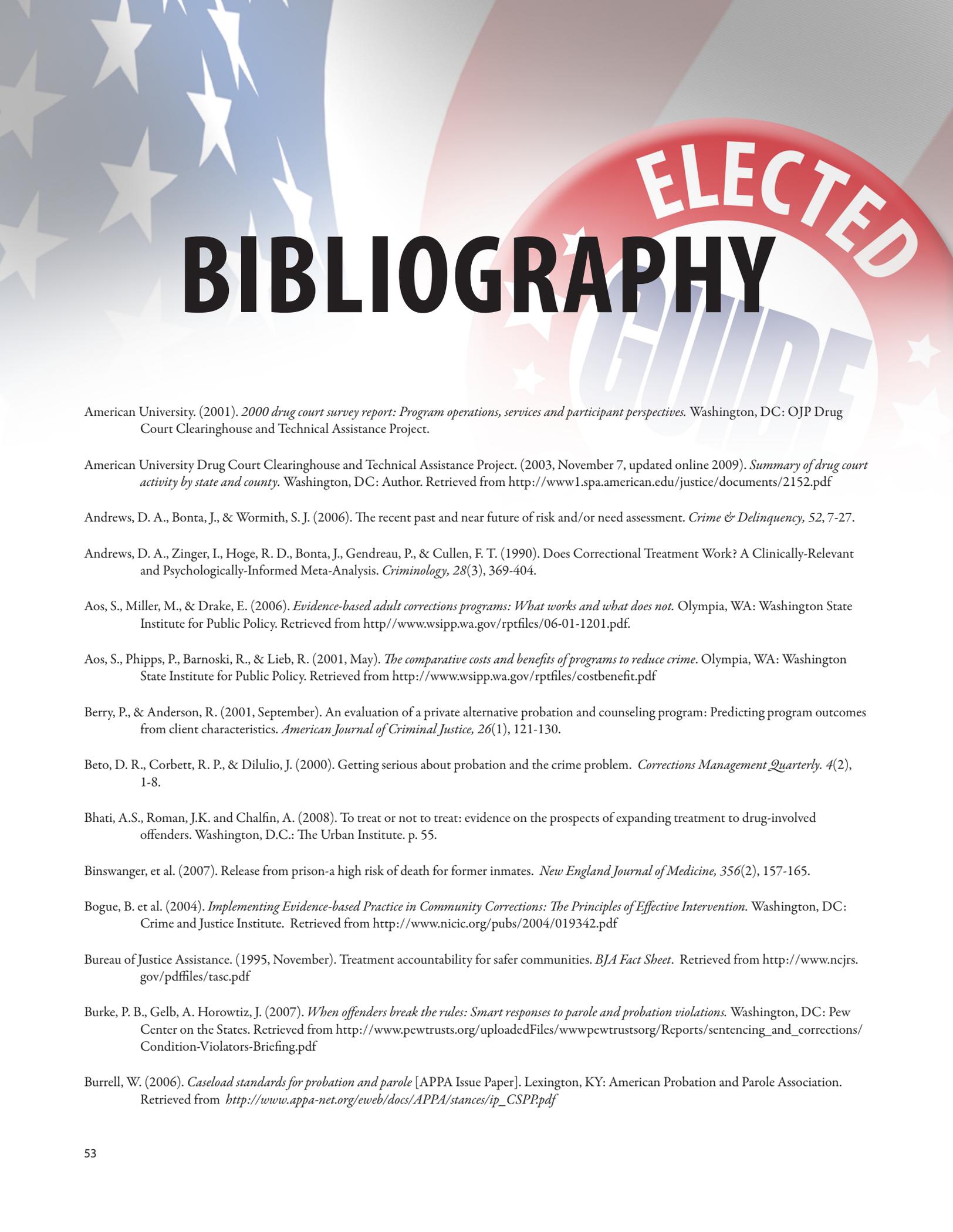


COMMUNITY CORRECTIONS OPTIONS AND CHARACTERISTICS

Cognitive behavioral interventions	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• goal-oriented• focused on behavior change• stress perceptions• monitor reactions• teach strategies & skills• involve practice of newly learned skills• build on positive experience• provide incentives for change
Job readiness and work	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• emphasize individual ability• increase motivation• improve communication skills• stress reliability• build job seeking and keeping skills
Literacy and basic learning	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• reading and math tutoring• classes• assessment and testing for a high-school General Equivalency Diploma• remedial learning• English as a second language
Diversionary programs	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• pre-trial screening• release from jail• citation or conditional disposition• performance of required activities by the defendant• expunged record or deferred prosecution of case

PROGRAM OPTION	CHARACTERISTICS
Unsupervised probation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • pretrial assessment and report • conditions of probation • proof of satisfaction of conditions • termination of supervision • issuance of bench warrant if not compliant
Supervised probation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • pre-trial assessment and report • conditions of probation • proof of satisfaction of conditions • termination of supervision • issuance of bench warrant if not compliant
Intensive probation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • conditions of supervised probation • daily to weekly contact with probation officer • proof of participation in other offender treatment programs • contacts with employer • more frequent evidence of compliance such as drug testing
Day reporting	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • conditions of supervised probation • requires attendance at group meetings, classes, therapy, drug treatment, or other programs operated in a single facility • requires work, restitution, education, or community service
Home confinement	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • restricts offenders to their residence • limited release into the community for work or treatment • used in conjunction with electronic monitoring and probation visits
Intermittent confinement	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • used to reduce reliance on excessive incarceration • permits offenders to maintain family, community, work or educational obligations, and to reduce crowding in a detention facility • limits the time, length of stay, and circumstances of incarceration according to a specified plan
Work release	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • incarcerated offenders become employed • establishment of program participation and work habits • earnings support families • pay fines and fees • offenders reside in facility and whereabouts are monitored
Halfway house	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • structured group living • restrictions on movement outside • supervised treatment, counseling, and education programming • job skills, employment, and life skills training • employment readiness • probation case management
Community detention centers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • provides short-term incarceration • maintains community ties
Boot camp or shock incarceration	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • structured military-style regimen • education, treatment, and work skills • group living detention facility

PROGRAM OPTION	CHARACTERISTICS
Electronic monitoring	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • reporting through telemetry or other technologies • use of device such as transmitter, telephone or ankle bracelet • used with probation, house arrest, or supervised release
Drug or alcohol testing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • employs chemical testing technologies such as urinalysis, skin patch, hair, and breath testing • reports are monitored • used with sanctions for noncompliance
Ignition interlock	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • uses technology to limit vehicle entry if intoxicated • reports violations • used with treatment and sanctions
Parole options	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • tailored to offender risk and need such as casework, monitoring, education, work, and other components • combines a range of options with supervision and surveillance
Means-based fines or day fines	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • investigates earning history • investigates case history • builds record of reliability by incremental payments
Forfeiture and impoundment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • hearing on action • withholding of property • use of assets or property to offset cost of crime
License suspension	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • a hearing for suspension or revocation of license • enforcement procedure • procedure for license reinstatement
Victim/offender mediation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • interviews of people involved • face-to-face or separate mediation meetings • presentation of proposal for resolution • agreement or rejection of proposal • reconciliation actions taken
Restitution	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • voluntary or compulsory payment (monetary, material, or in-kind)
Community service work	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • community service sometimes in lieu of jail or fine • specified number of hours or days of work • work performed for community, nonprofit, or charitable organization • work supervised by probation or responsible agency
Community sentencing circles and sentencing boards	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • an appointed or representative group considers the loss or damage and what can be done to mitigate the damage



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