

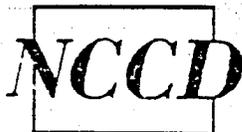
**Evaluating the Impact of Ohio's  
Community Corrections Programs  
Public Safety and Costs**

**FINAL REPORT**

**Prepared by**

**James Austin, Ph.D.  
Peter Quigley  
Steve Cuvelier, Ph.D.**

December 1, 1989



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## Executive Summary

The following study reviews the impact of the State of Ohio-subsidized, county-operated Community Corrections Act programs (CCA), Intensive Diversion Units (IDU), and Community-Based Correctional Facilities (CBCF).

The major results of this study can be summarized as follows. First and foremost, it is clear that offenders placed in Ohio's Community Corrections Programs have:

- 1) Been sentenced for more serious crimes;
- 2) Possess more lengthy criminal histories; and
- 3) Have higher levels of program needs than traditional felony probationers. The Pilot Probation Programs including Intensive Diversion Units (IDU) and Community-Based Correctional Facilities (CBCF) offenders' criminal and demographic characteristics are similar to offenders sentenced to prison for Class 3 and 4 determinate sentences.

It is therefore concluded that Ohio's Community Corrections Programs and, in particular, the IDU and CBCF programs do serve to divert offenders from prison. The Community Corrections Act (CCA) program has less impact on diverting offenders from prison but does, at a minimum, select the more serious cases typically placed on felony probation. If CCA did not exist, there would be increases in prison admissions and less flexibility for local corrections to supervise and service the more serious felony probationers.

With respect to service needs, Community Corrections Program offenders have extremely high levels of service needs, especially in the areas of substance abuse, vocational training, and employment. Considerable effort needs to be made to ensure these offenders are being properly diagnosed as to need and that their needs are being addressed.

This aspect of the Community Corrections Programs (program need assessment and service delivery) needs to be strengthened via staff training, greater utilization of existing service providers, and creation of additional service providers especially in the areas of substance abuse, employment, and vocational training.

Finally, the larger question of whether Community corrections Programs positively impact public safety and are cost-effective is answered. The re-arrest rates for offenders placed in the IDU and CBCF are well below a matched group of offenders sentenced to prison, and these programs produce substantial savings in operational costs when compared to even short term prison confinement. As a group, these offenders typically are incarcerated for less than one year. In the present study, the prison group averaged about 10 months of incarceration. The CBCF

group is presently averaging about four months in the community facilities, while the IDU and CCA groups are not incarcerated as a condition of the program.

These results demonstrate that carefully screened offenders can be diverted from prison to controlled community supervision settings without compromising the safety of the community. In fact, it appears that the diverted offenders, when compared to a similar group of incarcerated offenders, have significantly higher success rates.

The criteria for deciding diversion eligibility is crucial. Incarceration remains an appropriate sanction for serious offenders: Indeed, to the extent which diversionary programs are safe and effective for selected offenders, these programs will help alleviate crowded prison conditions which could otherwise result in the early release of more dangerous offenders.

According to Ohio Statute, only non-violent 3rd and 4th degree offenders can be admitted into the CCA Program. Unlike CCA programs, the IDU and CBCF programs afford the court greater discretion as to the type of offenders who may participate in the programs. There are only three types of offenders who are prohibited by statute for placement in an IDU or CBCF program. They are as follows:

- 1) A dangerous offender as defined in section 2929.01 of the Ohio Revised Code.
- 2) A drug dependent person as defined in section 3719.011 (3719.01) of the Revised Code.
- 3) An emotionally disturbed person.

Although individuals who do not fall in the above categories and are probation eligible can be admitted to the IDU and CBCF programs, many of the programs by policy have restricted their offender population to 3rd and 4th degree non-violent offenders. These policy restrictions are limiting the potential of the IDU and CBCF programs to have a dramatic impact on prison admissions. Our time series analysis shows that counties participating in the community corrections programs are committing a lower number of 3rd and 4th degree offenders than would otherwise occur if the programs did not exist. However, the impact is marginal at this time largely because the program is modestly funded. A more ambitious program would certainly increase the program's impact on prison admissions.

Based upon the findings of this study, NCCD makes the following recommendations:

- o The current Community Corrections programs intended for prison diversion (CCA, IDU, and CBCF) be continued and significantly expanded;

- o Expansion of the current program should include not only the addition of other counties to the program but also result in the expansion of offenders from 3rd and 4th degree felons to include 2nd degree offenders with longer expected periods of incarceration but who also pose a low risk to public safety;
- o Conversely, any efforts to expand program eligibility for misdemeanor or other offenders now being controlled at the local level should be rejected since the impact of these offenders on the state prison system is negligible;
- o That the proposed offender risk assessment instrument be adopted and implemented by all programs to guide not only program selection but also the delivery of differential levels of community supervision;
- o That the current CCA data base be modified to include (1) the recording of specific services and their outcomes, (2) the proposed risk instrument, and (3) adjustments to current intake and release variables.

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**CHAPTER 1**  
**INTRODUCTION**

Background to The Study

In recent years, correctional population management has become the most critical issue facing corrections. Prison and jail populations have risen faster than the resources available to effectively handle the increase. Spurred by resultant prison crowding, as well as costs associated with secure facilities and recent Federal Court decisions regarding the totality of conditions in correctional institutions, states have, in increasing numbers, sought alternatives to traditional methods of dealing with offenders.

As alternative programs and procedures have been developed to deal with increased numbers of cases, so has the need for decision making systems which identify offenders who can be safely supervised in community-based settings. As a result, the use of risk assessments for both release and diversion decisions has increased markedly in recent years.<sup>1/</sup>

In July 1979, the Ohio legislature enacted a state-wide Community Corrections Act (CCA). As with many other state programs of this nature, Ohio's CCA was intended to divert the "non-dangerous"

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<sup>1/</sup> See for example Vincent O'Leary and Todd R. Clear, Directions for Community Corrections in the 1990's (Washington DC: National Institute of Corrections) 1985.

offender from prison and provide intensive supervision and individualized services while under the court's jurisdiction. In so doing, the CCA was expected to: (1) reduce the need for additional prisons and (2) decrease the likelihood that offenders diverted into the CCA will continue their criminal careers. Consequently, the two primary justifications for the CCA are cost savings and public safety. By diverting prison-bound offenders and/or providing enriched community-based sanctions, CCA will reduce the imprisonment costs to state government and also reduce the amount of crime that would have occurred had CCA not existed.

In 1990, Ohio will spend over \$14 million per year on a variety of county and other subsidized community corrections programs. Approximately \$9,896,901 of these funds are subsidies provided to counties which agree to participate in the Community Corrections Programs which include Community Correction Act programs and Pilot Probation Programs (IDU, CBCF). Under Community Correction Act programs, each county is expected to establish a Local Corrections Planning Board which submits a plan for accepting and handling targeted offenders.

Ohio's statutes, governing the CCA are fairly specific in listing the type of offenders to be diverted as well as the expectations of the CCA. Section 5149.31(B) of the Public Welfare code lists the offenses which shall disqualify an offender from eligibility in the CCA and also affirms its intention "to reduce the number of persons committed to state penal and reformatory institutions." Ohio's Department of Rehabilitation and Correction

(DRC) is directed to administer the program and set the standards for county participation. More significantly, the DRC is also responsible for evaluating the effectiveness of the CCA and preparation of an annual report summarizing evaluation findings (Section 5149.31E,F).

It is this final requirement which leads to the purpose of this research report. DRC's Division of Parole and Community Services (DPCS) is directly responsible for administration of the CCA and Pilot Programs. Concerned with the rising prison population and associated fiscal allocations for both imprisonment and the CCA, the DPCS has been desirous of conducting a major evaluation of the CCA and Pilot Probation to determine their current impact and how best to improve their overall cost-effectiveness.

#### A Brief Overview of Ohio's Community Corrections Programs

Similar to many community based corrections programs, Ohio's Community Corrections Programs embody a diverse array of community supervision and service models, plus, various forms of short-termed local incarceration. Currently, the Ohio Community Corrections Program operates in 18 counties representing a diverse mix of rural and urban settings. In 1990, these programs will be expanded to seven new counties. Usually only persons convicted of Felony 3 and 4 offenses are eligible, which generally means that only persons convicted of non-violent crimes may be diverted.

Ohio's Community Corrections Program is legislatively separated into two state funded components: (1) a generalized CCA and (2) Pilot Probation Subsidy Program. However, the Pilot Probation Subsidy actually consists of two separately state funded components: Intensive Diversion Units (IDU) and Community Based Corrections Facilities (CBCF). The generalized CCA is more broadly defined in terms of its mandate to augment existing local probation services, and does not statutorily establish funding for the IDU or CBCF programs. The latter programs are intended to provide more structured supervision and local imprisonment for offenders who otherwise would likely be sentenced to state prison terms. The CBCF in particular allows the county to construct a local facility where these offenders can be sentenced and receive a wide array of local services commensurate with offender needs. In summary, there are actually three major components being analyzed (CCA, IDU, and CBCF) which are discussed in greater detail below.

For most offenders, admission into one of the three Community Corrections Programs occurs after the court sentences the offender to prison to help ensure that diversion of cases likely to be committed to prison is occurring. Offenders originally recommended by probation staff for commitment to state prison but eligible by law for Community Corrections Programs are then screened by CCA personnel for possible placement into the programs. Although the offense levels noted above represent the statutory restrictions for CCA programs, each county has developed a more refined criteria which limits the number of eligible offenders. For example, youth-

ful offenders (age 18-24) and non-repeat property offenders are other factors used for screening purposes by some jurisdictions.

If an offender is selected for more generalized CCA, the following intervention strategies can be applied:

- o Residential Placement
- o Work Release
- o Restitution
- o Community Service

The intention of these sanctions is to both enhance existing probation services and encourage counties to handle some offenders in the local community who might otherwise go to state prison. How these programs are structured and services delivered are generally left to the discretion of local criminal justice officials with some oversight from the state.

As noted above, the state also administers the Pilot Probation Subsidy Program (PSP) which includes both the IDU and CBCF components. The IDUs operate in seven counties (Lucas, Montgomery, Cuyahoga, Franklin, Licking, Marion, and Muskingum). The IDU provides intensive probation supervision (weekly contacts) to diverted offenders for 12 months followed by regular probation for approximately 24 months.

The CBCF program currently operates in two counties but will be expanded to three new counties in 1990. Offenders admitted to the CBCF experience a short period of imprisonment in a county facility funded by the state. Once released from the CBCF, a period of regular probation supervision and specialized services follows.

Diverted offenders can be sentenced to the CBCF for as long as six months, followed by 12 months of community supervision. In actuality, offenders are believed to be spending an average of four months in these local facilities. While incarcerated, the offender must participate in a well defined treatment program consisting of work release employment, community service, and behavior modification or therapy. Failure to comply with these conditions can result in a re-sentencing to prison for violation of the conditions of probation.

\*Description of the Study Samples

Background and intervention data were collected on offenders admitted into the three Community Corrections Program components during the 1986 Fiscal Year. These CCP study samples were supplemented with samples of offenders placed either on (1) regular felony probation or (2) sentenced to prison. Both the probation and prison samples were limited to offenders sentenced in those counties participating in the Community Correctional programs and who were convicted of Class 3 or 4 felony level crimes. The intent was to implement a quasi-experimental design (non-equivalent sample) to determine if CCP was in fact accepting cases who otherwise would have a strong possibility for prison commitment. Once follow-up data are collected for all five sample groups (Probation, CCP, IDU, CBCF and Prison), it will also be possible to compare these court dispositional groups with respect to recidivism and cost-effectiveness.

### The Three CCP Samples

Participating CCP counties are required to complete a detailed "admission" code sheet on each offender admitted to its various programs. This "admission" code sheet collected basic data on the offense for which the offender had been convicted, his/her prior criminal record, social and demographic data, and an assessment by program staff of the offender's service needs (i.e., drug treatment, education, etc.). These forms were forwarded to DPCS staff for an initial review and audit. Thereafter, the data are entered onto a customized management information system designed and installed by NCCD which operates on the Department's micro-computer.<sup>2/</sup>

A second code sheet is also completed for offenders either at the point of termination, or six months following CCP admission, or six months after the prior follow-up form was submitted. This document contains information describing what services the offender participated in, the date of termination and the reason for terminations. From these data it is possible to assess what types of services CCP offenders received, length of CCP participation, and the reason for termination.

In summary, the final design consists of five samples representing a total of approximately 2,100 offenders sentenced for

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<sup>2/</sup> This automated system (PROBER) is a menu driven offender tracking system designed for MS-DOS operating systems. In addition to queries, the system provides several management reports to aid the DPCS in monitoring the CCP in each county.

felony crimes from the participating CCP counties and who received one of five possible court dispositions. In the next section, analysis is made to assess how these groups differ or are similar with respect to key criminal and socio-demographic attributes.

### Research Objectives

If prison diversion programs are to become an important part of the overall approach to the problems of crime and prison overcrowding, it must be demonstrated that (1) public safety has not been compromised and (2) that the programs are a cost effective alternative to the more traditional incarceration -approach. The Ohio Department of Rehabilitation has contracted with the National Council on Crime and Delinquency (NCCD.) to study these issues. The objectives of the study were to:

Determine the success/failure rates of the diversion programs;

Compare that rate to the success/failure rates of a cohort of prison releases and a cohort of typical probation and community supervision cases;

Devise a Risk Assessment scale based upon data forms submitted to the Department on all diversion and probation cases.

Estimate the impact of the diversion programs on prison populations and resulting savings from cost of incarceration.

CHAPTER 2

RECIDIVISM AND RISK ANALYSIS

This chapter presents the recidivism rate for offenders sentenced to the three major alternatives to incarceration (CCA, CBCF, and IDU). These rates are then compared with recidivism rates for offenders placed on regular probation and those committed to state prison for 3rd and 4th degree determinate sentences. Also presented in this chapter is the risk assessment instrument which NCCD developed using the recidivism data.

Description of Data Collected

Data for the ongoing operation of the programs were recorded on two forms. The first was the Intake form completed by program personnel at the time the offender entered the program. The second was the Termination/Assessment form completed by program staff and submitted every six months or when the offender completed the program. The data were entered into a data base designed by NCCD specifically to enable Department of Rehabilitation staff to evaluate and monitor the various programs as they were implemented around the state. The Intake forms captured demographic, needs and criminal history data on each offender entering the programs. The

Termination/Assessment form captured status, treatment, contact and outcome information.

Data was submitted to the Ohio Department of Rehabilitation administrative offices located in Columbus, Ohio through two principal methods. First, the paper forms were forwarded to Columbus for entry into the NCCD designed data base. Under the second method, data were entered at each local program site. Periodically, data were extracted from the local data base, copied to diskette and forwarded to Columbus. Once there, a NCCD data base utility read the files from the diskette and copied them into the statewide data base. This second method offers the advantages of each locality having access to and maintaining its own data; data entry is located at the source of the data making corrections easier, and a statewide system is maintained without duplicate data entry.

Outcome information for the follow-up analysis was gathered in an intensive data collection effort. Specially trained data collectors searched files, criminal justice arrest (RAP) sheets and the Bureau of Criminal Investigation (BCI) data base to obtain the complete arrest and incarceration history (pre and post program entry) for offenders entering during the programs between July 1, 1985 and June 30, 1986. The NCCD data base in Columbus was modified to store an offender's entire arrest history. As the arrest history of each offender was completed, the data were forwarded to Columbus for entry. A similar data base and arrest

history was completed for a cohort of prison releases to provide a comparison group for the IDU and CBCF prison diversion programs.

A total of 5,400 arrest records were obtained for the CCA study population. Of that total, 4,067 occurred prior to the study period, 1,240 during the two-year follow-up period, and 93 occurred beyond the two-year cut off point. For the prison cohort, a total of 2,991 arrest records were obtained, 423 of which occurred in the two-year follow-up period.

It must be noted that an unanticipated data collection problem occurred with the arrest information. Using the BCI data base, a high percentage of arrest records showed unknown dispositions. The percentage for the Community Corrections study group was 46 percent and for the Prison cohort group 37 percent. As noted below, the lack of dispositional information limited the outcome scale to a simple measure of the number of arrests, rather than a more comprehensive measure of arrests and severity of sanction such as -an incarceration.

Unlike the Community Corrections programs, the prison data base had only the prisoner's release date and his/her arrest history. However, since no data comparable to the Intake and Assessment forms were recorded on the prison population, they are excluded from the following profiles.

In total data were collected on 1,699 cases admitted between July 1, 1985 and June 30, 1986. The admissions were divided among the programs in the following manner: Probation (469), CCA (584), IDU (457) and CBCF (189).

In addition, follow-up data were also gathered on 426 prisoners admitted to prison during 1985 from the counties participating in the CBCF and IDU programs. The cases were selected by the Ohio Department of Rehabilitation and Correction's research staff.

A 24-month follow-up period was used for all cases. The two-year follow-up period effectively reduced the number in the prison sample to 308. Thus, any releases after December 1986 were eliminated from the analysis because collection of the arrest data was terminated in January of 1989. Releases after December 1986 would not have been at risk for the required 24-month period, violating a major design parameter of the study. Data were collected regarding revocations, arrests, convictions and prison incarcerations. However, the high rate of missing dispositional data limited the use of this data.

Tables 2-1, 2-2 and 2-3 summarize the characteristics of the four populations at the time they were admitted to the program. Data gathered at intake reflected an offender's demographic background, an assessment of his/or her need for supportive services, and criminal history. These data have been grouped into three separate tables representing these data groups.

Table 2-1

Demographic Data at Intake by Program

	Probation (N=469)	CCA (N=584)	IDU (N=457)	CBCF (N=189)
<b>Age at Admission</b>				
32 or older	30%	25%	27%	13%
22 through 31	44%	48%	50%	43%
18 through 21	25%	27%	23%	44%
<i>Average Age</i>	<i>29 yrs</i>	<i>27 yrs</i>	<i>28 yrs</i>	<i>24 yrs</i>
<b>Sex</b>				
Male	73%	81%	87%	65%
Female	27%	19%	13%	35%
<b>Race</b>				
American Indian	0%	0%	0%	0%
Black	44%	31%	54%	30%
Hispanic	1%	1%	2%	0%
Oriental	0%	0%	0%	1%
White	55%	67%	44%	69%
Other	0%	0%	0%	0%
<b>Employed when Arrested?</b>				
Yes	47%	44%	31%	27%
No	52%	56%	69%	73%
<b>Highest Academic Level Attained</b>				
0 through 7	2%	3%	4%	5%
8 through 11	51%	46%	59%	67%
Graduated/G.E.D.	40%	40%	29%	24%
13 and up	7%	11%	8%	4%
<b>Live with Spouse or Family?</b>				
Yes	69%	80%	74%	72%
No	31%	19%	26%	28%
<b>Length of Residence at Current Address</b>				
Under 12 months	26%	42%	53%	57%
12 - 14 months	22%	19%	19%	13%
25 - 36 months	29%	8%	9%	6%
37 - 48 months	7%	3%	5%	3%
49 - 60 months	16%	28%	15%	21%
<b>Psychiatric or Psychological History?</b>				
Yes	7%	8%	12%	22%
No	93%	92%	88%	78%

Table 2-2

Needs at Intake by Program

	Probation (N=469)	CCA (N=584)	IDU (N=457)	CBCF (N=189)
<b>Need Employment Assistance?</b>				
Yes	49%	47%	59%	84%
No	51%	53%	41%	16%
<b>Need Academic Assistance?</b>				
Yes	36%	45%	49%	85%
No	64%	55%	51%	15%
<b>Need Financial Assistance?</b>				
Yes	21%	37%	41%	63%
No	79%	63%	59%	37%
<b>Need Domestic Relations Assistance?</b>				
Yes	11%	24%	27%	57%
No	89%	76%	73%	43%
<b>Need Emotional/Mental Health Assistance?</b>				
Yes	11%	17%	30%	63%
No	89%	83%	70%	37%
<b>Need Substance Abuse Assistance?</b>				
Yes	35%	49%	59%	80%
No	65%	51%	41%	20%
<b>Need Living Arrangement Assistance?</b>				
Yes	4%	14%	14%	29%
No	96%	86%	86%	71%

Table 2-3

Criminal History Factors at Intake by Program

	Probation (N=469)	CCA (N=594)	IDU (N=457)	CBCF (N=189)
<b># of Offenses Committed Under a Prior Supervision</b>				
None	83%	75%	51%	43%
One or More	17%	25%	49%	57%
<b># of Offenses Involving Drugs/Alcohol</b>				
None	69%	47%	43%	37%
One	21%	28%	22%	26%
Two or More	10%	25%	35%	37%
<b># of Offenses for Auto Theft</b>				
None	93%	87%	82%	86%
One or More	7%	13%	18%	14%
<b># of Prior Arrests During Past 5 years</b>				
None	64%	39%	19%	20%
One or Two	27%	31%	29%	31%
Three or More	9%	30%	52%	50%
<b># of Prior Prison Terms</b>				
None	88%	82%	67%	85%
One	9%	12%	21%	11%
Two or More	4%	6%	12%	4%
<b># of Offenses Involving Use of Weapon</b>				
None	87%	84%	65%	98%
One	11%	11%	25%	0%
Two or More	2%	5%	9%	2%
<b># of Offenses Involving Serious Injury</b>				
None	92%	85%	72%	99%
One	8%	12%	22%	1%
Two or More	0%	3%	6%	0

## Offender Profiles

The four programs evaluated in this project display a clear distinction in group characteristics. The distinctions are the result of the various eligibility criteria for the respective programs. Probation and CCA represent the typical community supervision cases, while IDU and CBCF are more characteristic of prison populations.

## Demographic Data

While the eligibility criteria for the different groups were based mostly on past and present criminal behavior, the demographic differences among the groups are revealing. The CBCF group, for example, is younger (44 percent are 18 to 21), has the lowest percentage of high school graduates (28 percent), the highest unemployment at time of arrest (73 percent), the highest rate of psychological problems (22 percent) and the greatest residential instability (57 percent under 12 months at current address). By contrast, the probation population was older (30 percent over age 32), had the lowest unemployment rate (52 percent), had a high school graduation rate of (47 percent) and the lowest residential instability (26 percent under 12 months at current address). Clearly, social stability factors such as age, employment, education and residential stability distinguish the probation and CCA populations from the IDU and CBCF populations. It should be noted that for this study, the CBCF population was limited to the one county which was participating during the study period. That

county is the only CBCF program having a female component, and the proportion of females in that population was 35 percent. ..

#### Offender Program Needs Data

As one would expect from the differences in demographic data, the needs assessments consistently distinguished the populations. For example, 49 percent of probationers were assessed as needing employment assistance, while 84 percent of the CBCF population was rated as needing such assistance. The CBCF-population consistently had the highest rated needs, while the probation population had the lowest rated needs with the exception of "Employment Assistance" where the CCA population was slightly lower. On most of the need items, two of the groups would show similar ratings. For "Living Arrangement Assistance", the CCA and IDU groups had identical rates. For "Employment Assistance", the CCA and probation populations had nearly identical rates. The significantly high rates of need identification among the CBCF group may be the result of the intensive 30-day assessment period that is part of the program. This extensive time period may permit CBCF staff to collect better information about their program participants than the other programs which had much less time available to complete their needs assessments.

However, there are two need items that clearly differentiate the four groups. For "Substance Abuse Assistance", the need for the probation population was 35 percent, for CCA 49 percent, for IDU 59 percent, and for CBCF 80 percent. In a similar manner for

Table 2-4

Comparison of Key Offender Characteristics:  
 Probation, CCP, IDU, CBCF, Prison

Background Items	Felony Probation (N=471)	Community Corrections			Prison	
		CCP (N=569)	IDU (N=423)	CBCF (N=113)	3 & 4 Determinate (N=400)	3 & 4 Indeterminate (N=168)
<b>Prior Felony Convictions</b>						
0	62.6%	57.8%	27.2%	34.7%	33.8%	21.4%
1	18.9%	16.7%	15.6%	21.2%	21.6%	17.3%
2	7.9%	11.8%	20.8%	18.1%	16.8%	16.7%
3+	10.6%	13.7%	36.4%	26.0%	27.8%	44.6%
<b>Current Offense</b>						
Person	12.3%	6.5%	19.9%	3.1%	9.5%	19.5%
Property	69.6%	72.2%	67.3%	84.5%	69.6%	68.0%
Drugs	17.8%	21.3%	12.8%	12.4%	17.0%	10.0%
Other	1.1%	0.7%	2.1%	2.1%	3.9%	2.5%
<b>Convicted of Multiple Crimes</b>	11.8%	24.2%	30.6%	20.2%	23.6%	54.1%
<b>Sex - Male</b>	72.8%	81.2%	85.6%	64.3%	80.5%	80.1%
<b>Race</b>						
Black	45.5%	29.8%	53.7%	30.1%	50.6%	61.9%
White	53.4%	68.8%	43.7%	68.9%	48.9%	36.4%
Hispanic	0.6%	0.9%	1.9%	0.0%	0.5%	1.7%
<b>Age</b>						
16 - 19	9.9%	13.6%	9.4%	21.2%	7.0%	1.7%
20 - 24	31.3%	30.2%	26.9%	40.4%	24.9%	25.1%
25 - 29	20.6%	25.1%	23.7%	18.7%	24.3%	23.4%
30 - 34	18.2%	14.7%	19.9%	10.4%	18.4%	20.8%
35 - 39	7.9%	9.0%	10.6%	5.2%	13.2%	15.2%
40+	12.2%	7.4%	9.6%	4.2%	12.2%	13.8%
<b>Employed at Arrest?</b>	48%	44.6%	28.2%	26.4%	21.5%	23.8%
<b>Mental Health History?</b>	6.6%	7.9%	11.4%	22.4%	12.2%	18.2%
<b>Academic Level</b>						
0 - 7 Grade	1.9%	3.0%	4.3%	4.7%	2.0%	3.5%
8 - 11 Grade	50.4%	46.5%	60.2%	66.8%	56.7%	55.0%
GED/High School	40.0%	38.9%	28.9%	23.8%	26.8%	29.4%
13 +	7.7%	6.6%	6.6%	4.7%	14.5%	12.1%

2. CBCF offenders are less likely to be convicted of crimes against the person, younger, and female than prison sentenced inmates. However, these differences apparently reflect a selection criteria which focuses on the younger serious property offender.
3. Indeterminate sentenced 3rd and 4th Degree offenders are clearly the more serious offender group as evidenced by the proportion with 3 or more prior felony convictions for crimes against a person and multiple convictions. They also contain larger proportions of older and Black offenders.

In general, these comparisons clarify the question of whether CCA cases represent prison bound offenders. All three categories of CCA offender groups are "heavier" than offenders typically sentenced to probation. Both the IDU and CBCF offender groups reflect characteristics of prison bound 3rd and 4th Degree Determinate Sentenced Offenders.

#### Summary of Selection Process

In general, the profile data suggests that the legal and policy criteria for admission to the respective programs are in fact being followed. The intake data provides a good picture of the respective populations. The probation and CCA populations are closest to one another, while the IDU and CBCF populations tend to resemble one another in many respects. The probation population is clearly the most socially stable, requiring fewer services and having the least extensive criminal history. Conversely, the CBCF group is the least socially stable, requiring high levels of services and having relatively extensive criminal histories; the 3rd and 4th degree prison admissions look very similar to the CBCF and IDU

admissions. While some degree of net widening is occurring, it appears to be quite minimal. This issue is discussed in greater detail in Chapter 4.

### Recidivism and Risk Analysis

Analyses were conducted to determine if any set of factors collected for the study could be combined to predict arrest outcomes among offenders in the four programs. These efforts were guided by NCCD's extensive experience in risk scale development as well as reviews of other scale development projects conducted in recent years.<sup>4/</sup> Our experience, as noted earlier, generally indicates that a combination of multivariate and bivariate techniques yield the best results. Hence, the analysis relied heavily on simple crosstabulations of outcomes and social or criminal history factors as well as the more traditional multivariate approaches.

### Measuring Outcomes

The first step in the analysis was to determine which measure of outcome would be used as the primary dependent variable. In order to assess the relative value of the different programs, an outcome variable must be defined. Outcome data were collected by gathering the entire arrest history of each individual in the different programs and of

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<sup>4/</sup> Baird, C. Risk Assessment in Parole Decision Making. National Council on Crime and Delinquency (1984).

the cohort sample of offenders released from prison between October 1985 and December 1986. A uniform follow-up of two years was used to maintain a consistent time at risk among all offenders. For the program offenders, the two-year period was measured from their date of admission. For the prison cohort, their period was measured from their date of release. As noted earlier, data were collected on revocations, arrests, convictions and incarcerations over a 24-month follow-up period.

Initially, it was hoped that a comprehensive outcome scale could be devised based upon dispositional data as follows:

<u>Score</u>	<u>Meaning</u>
0 =	No new arrests, no revocations (Success)
1 =	No new arrests, but a revocation recorded (assumed to be a rules violation)
2 =	One or more new arrests, no prison
3 =	Arrest resulting in prison.

However, as noted earlier, high rates of unknown arrest dispositions rendered the construction of an comprehensive outcome scale questionable. Instead, outcomes were measured based on the number of arrests, disregarding the disposition of the arrest.

No outcome index effectively incorporates all of the complexities involved in accurately measuring behavior on a relational basis. Given these difficulties, it is our position that simple measures over a uniform follow-up period provides the best overall assessment of success or failure.

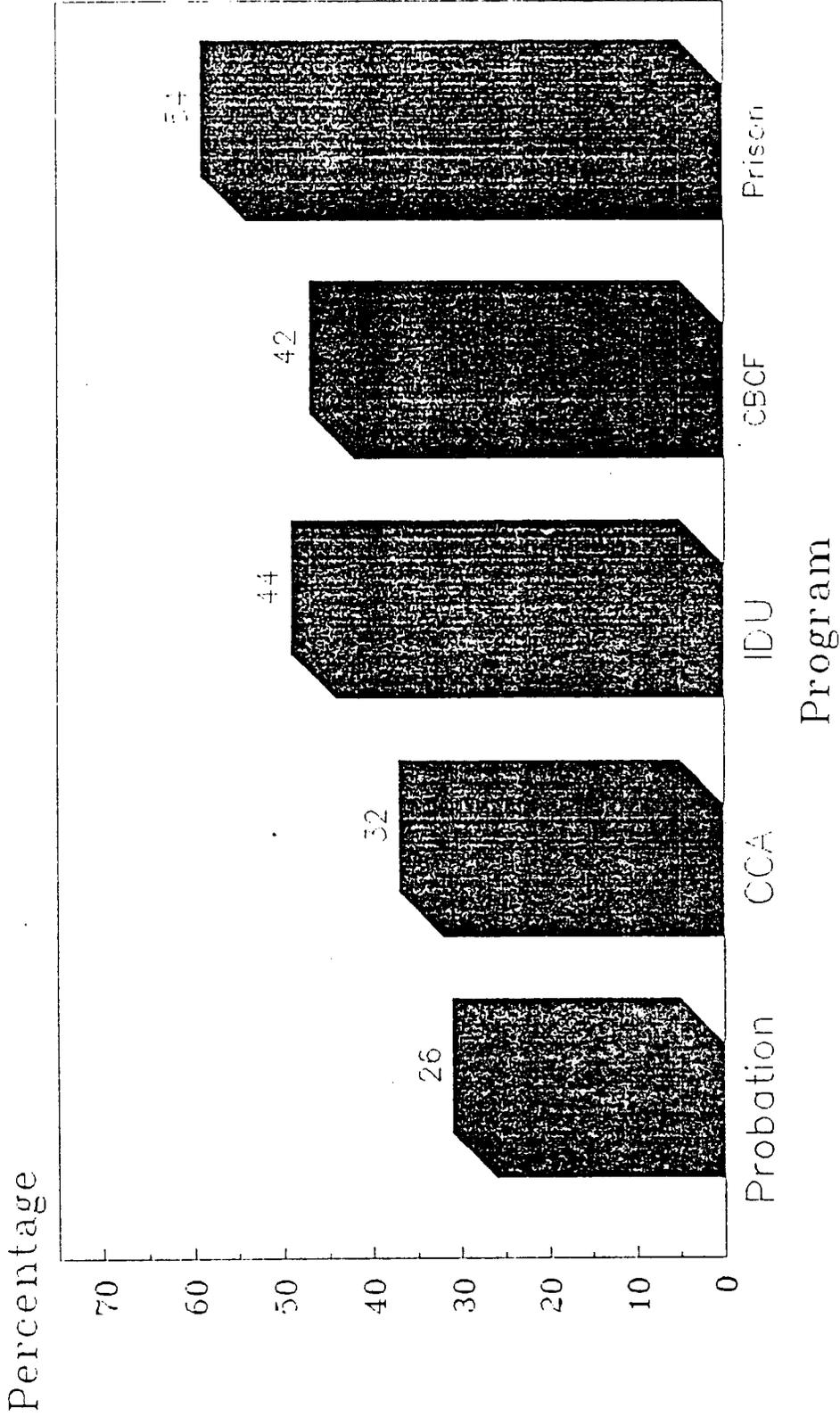
#### Comparison of 24 Month Re-Arrest Rates

Figure 2-1 shows that offenders in the prison diversion programs had significantly fewer arrests when compared to a prison cohort. This is expected given that the prison admissions reflect a more serious profile than the diversion populations. However, the differences between the IDU, CBCF, and prison admissions are comparable on the key variables of prior felony convictions, current offense, conviction of multiple crimes, employment at arrest, mental health history, and academic level. While one would expect significantly higher arrest rates than the traditional probation population (Probation and CCA), it is encouraging that the CBCF and IDU populations have re-arrest rates 10-12 percent below the prison admissions.'

#### Policy Issues in Risk Assessment

The rapid expansion of the use of risk assessment instruments in correctional decision making reflects a fundamental change in correctional philosophy in recent years. Initially, the impetus for structured decision making systems in the late 1960's and early 1970's came from advocates of the "just desserts" approach. Their goals were to enhance equity and consistency in sentencing and parole decisions.

# Ohio Prison Diversion Project Failure Rate by Program



% re arrested within 2 years

Figure 2 --

They argued that incarceration and release decisions should be based principally on the nature of the instant offense. If other elements are considered, these should be limited to the offender's criminal history. The introduction of other factors (i.e. social histories, substance abuse, etc.) would only increase disparity and punish offenders for factors not directly related to the crime committed, or even more importantly, characteristics over which offenders have little or no control. Under the "just desserts" or punishment model, risk assessment has no role in decision making. Using risk assessment means decisions are partially based on the potential for continued criminal activity rather than acts already committed.

Opponents of risk argue that risk assessment instruments are based on group statistics which are difficult to relate in any meaningful way to decisions regarding individual offenders. Furthermore, even the best risk instruments can result in many prediction errors.<sup>5/</sup>

Although risk assessment instruments rely heavily on criminal history factors, many also incorporate measures of substance abuse, community stability, and employment histories.

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<sup>5/</sup> All prediction instruments will misclassify some individuals. When a behavior (in this case, a crime) is predicted to occur, but the individual remains crime free, the error is termed a "false positive". When no crime is predicted, but the individual commits a new offense, the error is labeled a "false negative". Most instruments tend to over-predict failures (new crimes); generally, the lower the base rate of new offenses, the greater the degree of over-prediction.

Use of such measures introduces a potential for racial and economic class bias. Since educational and employment opportunities are less available to minorities, minority offenders will generally "rate" as higher risks than will white offenders: Blacks and other minorities, in general, have much higher rates of unemployment and lower levels of educational attainment.

In total, these problems constitute some rather powerful arguments against the use of risk in correctional decision making. Proponents of risk assessment, however, counter with arguments which emphasize correction's mission of public protection and the need to optimize effective use of limited resources. At worst, according to advocates, risk assessment explicitly identifies how social history factors influence decisions rather than allowing each decision maker to arbitrarily use these criteria. Risk assessment, then, does not eliminate discrimination, but promotes systematic application of factors used and thereby increases consistency.

Despite the fact that most of the controversy has focused on use of social and stability factors decision making, criminal histories can be equally discriminatory: Minority members are more likely to be arrested and once arrested, more likely to be convicted and often receive harsher punishments than their white counterparts. Thus, even systems which rely only on criminal histories and severity of offenses to guide decisions may be inherently biased against specific offender

groups. Furthermore, the fact that prior record is closely linked to risk is not lost on decision makers. As O'Leary and Clear state so clearly in Directions for Community Corrections in the 1990's, "This circumstance makes it possible to maintain a posture that risk prediction ought not to influence sentencing decision, while a salient risk variable--prior offense history-- is allowed to influence punishment."<sup>6/</sup> Such ambiguity--justice to some theorists, crime control to others--obscures goals and does little to promote equity.

#### Issues in Scale Construction/Validation

A review of currently used instruments indicate that the following factors most often appear as risk predictors:

- Number of Prior Convictions
- Number of Prior Incarcerations
- Age at First Commitment, Conviction, or Arrest
- Drug Abuse History
- Convictions for Burglary, Forgery, Theft
- Alcohol Abuse History
- Employment History
- Probation/Parole History

These instruments were developed through a variety of means ranging from heavy reliance on research from other jurisdictions (sometimes supplemented by some additional data analysis) to comprehensive original studies. The level of sophistication of statistical techniques used also varies considerably among studies. Despite the type of analysis conducted, however, the results in terms of predictive

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<sup>6/</sup> O'Leary and Clear, Directions for Community Corrections in the 1990's (Washington D.C.: NIC), 1985

capabilities and item identification are remarkably similar. The fact that different levels of analysis produce similar results was first documented by Stephen and Don Gottfredson for the National Institute of Corrections in 1979 in a study entitled Screening for Risk: A Comparison of Methods. The study assessed the efficiency and accuracy of varying mathematical methods of risk prediction, comparing complex procedures with simpler methods. After an exhaustive analysis, the authors concluded that none of the approaches (combining bivariate analyses--Burgess Scaling, Multiple Regression, or Predictive Attributes analyses) offered advantages over the others.

NCCD's recent efforts in risk prediction (California, South Carolina, Alaska, Louisiana) have generally indicated that combining the results of simple bivariate analysis (guided by results of multivariate analysis) to create a scale have produced the best results. This is probably due to correctional data base problems, principally that of missing and incomplete data.<sup>7/</sup> Including factors that would be eliminated using multivariate techniques (due to

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<sup>7/</sup> The fact that combining highly correlated variables benefits predictive accuracy may also reflect on inconsistencies in our criminal justice system that disrupt "normal" patterns of events. For example, arrests for similar offenses may result in different conviction patterns due to a number of criteria. Hence, while the two variables may be highly correlated, using one (rather than both) may eliminate important data on some offenders.

multicollinearity<sup>8/</sup>) incorporates a degree of redundancy that in other fields would be useless (and violate the principle of parsimony). In criminal justice prediction, redundancy appears to be beneficial.

### Methodology

NCCD used a combination of bivariate and multivariate statistical techniques to 1) ascertain the predictive capabilities of the potential risk scale<sup>9/</sup>; 2) determine what changes could be introduced in items, weights assigned to items, and cut-off scores to increase scale validity; 3) determine if the scale is predictive for various subgroups (and, if not, what changes are required for these groups).

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<sup>8/</sup> Many of the factors selected represent, to some degree, the same characteristics or behavior. For example, academic level, employability, and intelligence are all interrelated. Low IQ individuals are likely to have experienced limited progress educationally, and because of a lack of education, they have limited employment possibilities. While all three items may be highly correlated with failure on parole, using one of these factors, rather than all three, to predict outcomes, may well produce equivalent results.

Statistical procedures can be used to "sort out" all of the interrelationships between potential risk predictors and select the best combination of predictive factors- In other words, if employability is identified as a primary determinant of risk, the analysis will select other factors which add predictive power, sometimes bypassing items which are also highly correlated with outcome, but represent a measure similar to employability.

<sup>9/</sup> This analysis will focus on the initial risk scale only. A reclassification scale contains measures of offender adjustment, and, as such, is based more on "just desserts" than on prediction. In essence, levels of supervision are increased or decreased based on offender behavior.

In previous studies, NCCD has found the following steps to provide the best overall methodology for scale construction and validation:

1. The sample was divided into two equal groups - the first to be used to construct a scale, the second used for validation purposes. The use of construction and validation samples allows a scale to be developed on one population and tested on another. In general, scales best "fit" the population used for development. Validating the scale on a separate population better indicates how a risk assessment instrument will perform when actually implemented. The amount of predictive power lost from construction to validation sample is termed "shrinkage". Some shrinkage is normal and fully expected; excessive shrinkage invalidates the scale. No rule on allowable shrinkage is applicable to all situations; each analysis must be viewed in the context of the base rate and outcome definitions.
2. Simple correlations are developed between each background factor collected and measures of outcome.
3. Items with significant correlations (.05 level) with any of the outcome measures are selected for further analysis.
4. Multiple linear regression analysis was conducted to help guide selection of best combination of predictive items. This analysis provides some insights as to which items should receive primary consideration for inclusion (based on low collinearity). However, additional variables are included in subsequent steps.
5. Crosstabulations (with a number of associated statistics such as chi squares and Pearson correlations) are completed to further determine relationships between outcomes and all potential scale items. These analyses help to determine 1) how values of each independent factor could best be combined to maximize the variable's relationship to the various outcome measures; and 3) how outcome values should be combined (e.g. three or more arrests as a single outcome value).

6. Variables are recoded, based on the above analysis, and the crosstabulations, chi squares, and correlations are repeated. Item weights are selected based on 1) the ability of each to discriminate between each factor and 2) outcomes reported during the follow-up period.
7. Items are selected for scale inclusion based on both the results of the crosstabulations and the regression analysis.
8. The created scale is crosstabulated with outcomes to determine overall predictive capabilities and optimal cut-off points for each identified level of risk. Items are added and deleted from the scale, and these crosstabulations are repeated to test various combinations of factors.
9. The best combination of factors is selected and the scale is completed.
10. The scale is tested against the validation sample to determine the degree of shrinkage.

#### Classifying the Population

The data used to construct the scale were from completed forms submitted for offenders in each of the four community supervision programs. The prison comparison sample did not have the same information available, so the risk potential of that group is unavailable for comparison. When the scale items were applied to the CCA, IDU, and CBCF populations as a whole, without regard to program, the risk scale proved very effective at separating risk categories.

The ability to predict events is critical to any scientific inquiry. However, the frequently occurring events often can be predicted with relative ease; rare events, on the other hand, are extremely difficult to predict. Thus in risk assessment studies, the rate at which specific behaviors occur (the "base rate") is of great importance. Of the 1699 cases

used in the study, 592 had one or more subsequent arrests. This results in a base failure rate of 35 percent for the population as a whole. Classification based upon risk factors demonstrates how the population can be differentiated into distinct groups with significantly different rates of failure.

The population was classified according to the proposed risk assessment instruments. (See Figure 2-2). The scale ranges from 0 to 14 points. By comparing scores to outcome results (no arrests, one or more arrests), classification categories can be defined to group offenders into low, medium and high risk groups. The cutoff points between any two levels of classification are determined by how many offenders fall into the category and the overall success rate of the group. The most appropriate distributions were Low Risk, 0 to 3 points; Medium Risk, 4 to 7 points; and High Risk, 8 to 14 points.

# Figure 2-2

## Proposed Risk Scale

### Age at Admission

32 or Older	0
22 through 31	1
18 through 21	2

### # of Offenses Committed Under Previous Supervision

None	0
One or More	1

### # of Offenses Involving Drugs/Alcohol

None	0
One	1
Two or More	2

### # of Offenses for Auto Theft

None	0
One or More	1

### # of Prior Arrests

None	0
One or Two	1
Three or More	2

### # of Prior Prison Terms

None	0
One	1
Two or More	2

### Need Substance Abuse Assistance

Yes	1
No	0

### Employed when Arrested?

Yes	1
No	0

### Need Academic Assistance?

Yes	1
No	0

### Need Financial Assistance?

Yes	1
No	0

As shown in Table 2-5, the success/failure rate varies significantly among the classification groups. The Low Risk group had a 16 percent failure rate; the Medium Risk group failed at a 31 percent rate; and the High Risk group failed at a 54 percent rate (see Table 2-5). The Low Risk group has a failure rate that is less than half that of the CCA, IDU and CBCF populations (16 percent/36 percent). The Medium Risk group has a failure rate slightly lower than the general population (31 percent/36 percent). The High Risk group has a failure rate that is more than 50 percent greater than the general population (54 percent/36 percent). Clearly these three populations can be differentiated along a risk of re-offending dimensions. The correlation coefficient between the risk score and the outcome variable (number of arrests) is .2936, demonstrating a strong relationship between the items comprising the scale and the potential for continued unlawful behavior.

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Table 2-5

Outcome by Classification

	Low Risk (0-3) (N=412)	Medium Risk (4-7) (N=828)	High Risk (8-12) (N=559)
<b>Outcome</b>			
Success . . . . .	84%	60%	46%
Failure . . . . .	16%	31%	54%

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The current cutoff points are, to some extent, arbitrary. Adjustments up or down can be made to increase or decrease the number of offenders falling into the respective groups. For example, Low Risk could be defined as ranging from 0 to 4 points. This would increase the number of offenders in the group, but also increase the expected failure rate of the group. Thus, the risk assessment instrument can be used as a system to distribute the population among different classification categories.

When the risk assessment instrument was applied to the different program populations, it showed remarkable consistency (see Table 2-6). Regardless of program type, the High Risk group had failure rates of between 52 percent and 5.7 percent. Similarly, the Low Risk failure rate ranged from 13 percent for probationers to 21 percent for IDU. Only 7 persons in the CBCF program were rated as low risk, too small a number to produce reliable failure rates. Only the Medium risk IDU group showed a deviation from the pattern.

Table 2-7 shows the distribution of classification by program on a statewide basis. Probation had the greatest percentage of Low Risk offenders (40 percent) while CBCF had the least (4 percent). IDU also had a small proportion of Low Risk offenders (15 percent) and was second only to CBCF in the proportion of High Risk offenders (IDU - 38 percent, CBCF - 50 percent). This suggests that both formal criteria and informal assessments are placing offenders of varying risk in the

Table 2-6

Risk Classification by Outcome - Program Data

<b>Probation</b>						
	Low Risk		Medium Risk		High Risk	
	N	Pct.	N	Pct.	N	Pct.
<b>Success Rate</b>						
Success	163	87%	160	68%	22	46%
Failure	24	13%	74	32%	26	54%

<b>CCA</b>						
	Low Risk		Medium Risk		High Risk	
	N	Pct.	N	Pct.	N	Pct.
<b>Success Rate</b>						
Success	123	82%	212	73%	61	43%
Failure	27	18%	80	27%	81	57%

<b>IDU</b>						
	Low Risk		Medium Risk		High Risk	
	N	Pct.	N	Pct.	N	Pct.
<b>Success Rate</b>						
Success	54	79%	119	55%	83	48%
Failure	14	21%	96	45%	91	52%

<b>CBCF</b>						
	Low Risk		Medium Risk		High Risk	
	N	Pct.	N	Pct.	N	Pct.
<b>Success Rate</b>						
Success	3	43%	63	72%	44	46%
Failure	4	57%	24	28%	51	54%

different programs. It also suggests that adopting a formalized risk assessment instrument as part of the screening process may improve the screening process by directing lower risk offenders to the least restrictive and least costly forms of supervision, while directing the higher risk offenders to more restrictive and intensive forms of supervision.

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Table 2-7

Risk Classification by Program - Statewide Data

Classification	Probation		CCA		IDU		CBCF	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Low Risk	187	40%	150	26%	68	15%	7	4%
Medium Risk	234	50%	292	50%	215	47%	87	46%
High Risk	48	10%	142	24%	174	38%	85	50%
Total	469	100%	584	100%	457	100%	189	100%

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## CHAPTER 3

### IMPACT OF CCA ON PRISON INTAKE

#### Introduction

A fundamental goal of Ohio's Community Corrections Act (CCA) is to divert selected groups of felons from the state prison system. This part of the evaluation examines prison intake data along with demographic and crime data for a six-year period (from 1983 through 1988) to assess whether or not participation in Community Corrections programs has had an appreciable effect on reducing the number of prison commitments.

This evaluation will address four questions: (1) Is the program's presence being felt in the system, (2) Is it focused upon the intended population, (3) Is it widening the correctional net and (4) What is the program's impact on prison commitments? The questions of presence, focus, net widening, and impact require a brief introduction.

Presence. Well designed and implemented programs can fail their intended goals if implementation falls short of the magnitude of the problem. If we cannot identify the effects of a program amongst the effects of other forces at work in the system or the random 'noise' generated by stochastic influences, we cannot evaluate the program's impact. In such an instance we must conclude that the program has no measurable effect. If the CCA is sufficiently up to scale, we should detect some changes in commitment patterns that occur concomitantly with, and are logically attributable to, the implementation of the program.

Focus. Whenever a program is implemented, a target population is defined as the focus of the program's efforts. The CCA, for example, has targeted 3<sup>rd</sup> and 4<sup>th</sup> degree felons who would otherwise be committed to prison. If the CCA programming is properly focused, a significant portion of these would-be prison commitments will be diverted into community based programs.

Net widening. Whereas the analysis for focus examines the extent to which targeted populations are admitted into the program, net widening examines the number of admitted cases that are not part of the targeted population. Net widening most usually refers to cases in which programs intended to reduce the severity of punishment for one class of offenders become the vehicle for increasing the severity of punishment for less-serious classes.

Impact. Programs are intended to effect changes in a system. Assessing the impact of a program is generally the process of determining the extent and direction of change attributable to the program. For the present evaluation, the CCA will have had a positive impact if we can demonstrate with confidence that would-be 3<sup>rd</sup> and 4<sup>th</sup> degree prison commitments have been diverted -into community based programs.

### Problems Inherent to Evaluating Diversion Programs

When attempting to assess the number of prison commitments prevented, one must face the dilemma of measuring something that did not occur. While direct observation is not possible, the impact may be inferred by comparing the commitment rates of CCA participant counties against non-participating counties which are similar in demographics and other key factors to the participating counties (comparison groups), or by assessing the discontinuity of trends between the pre-CCA and post-CCA periods.

Good matching is critical to comparison group studies, and the problems of assessing the appropriateness of the comparison groups poses considerable difficulty. Matches may be created upon the basis of quantifiable similarities, but frequently qualitative differences exist that defy prior evaluation. For example, criminal justice policy decisions are typically sensitive to the prevailing political climate. The respective political histories of otherwise similar counties can radically affect the degree to which the behavior of one will reflect the behavior of the other. This is also true of events occurring during the time period under investigation which may influence behavior in ways that are atypical of counties with similar characteristics.

Pre/post trend analysis, such as interrupted time series analysis, is a powerful tool in program evaluation. While circumventing the difficulties of finding good comparison groups, this analytical form cannot control for outside influences that may change performance characteristics and erode comparability of pre- and post- periods. Finally, since trends are established as a function of time, there is a need for extensive experience data upon which trends may be established.

#### Limitations of this Analysis

Beside coping with the foregoing problems, this analysis is laboring under data limitations. Data collection has been

hampered in two fundamental ways. First, the introduction of a bifurcated sentencing structure in the early 1980s (S-B. 199) has so altered the prison commitment patterns as to render comparisons of pre-S.B. 199 and post-S.B. 199 commitment patterns a tenuous undertaking. Secondly, with only three years of experience, the CCA program has yet to accrue sufficient data to allow the analysis of trends with confidence.

Statistical significance in the present context /is a function of the magnitude of group differences and the number of data points in the analysis. As differences between groups become small, the number of data points necessary to establish a positive finding increases. To say the findings are not significant is to say that we cannot be confident that the observed differences between groups were due to "real" effects, as opposed to random chance.

### Methodology

This evaluation has been designed to address the questions of the presence, focus, net widening and impact of the CCA implementation in Ohio. Before addressing these issues, it is necessary to establish comparison groups so counties with a CCA program may be compared to similar, non-participating counties (referred to hereafter as "Non-CCA" counties). Included in this preliminary analysis is some comparative data regarding the population, prevalence of crime, and commitment rates for Ohio, CCA and Non-CCA county groups.

While extrapolating trends seems beyond the reasonable limits of these data, we can engage a comparative analysis, matching groups upon the time dimension and assessing the differences in means or rates. A summary of comparative analyses used in this evaluation are outlined in Table 3-1. Validation refers to assessing the pre-CCA prison commitment data for matched CCA and Non-CCA counties to determine if there is a significant difference in the proportions of felony levels 3 and 4 commitments (LOW felony group). If the initial matching process was successful, there should be no significant differences between CCA and Non-CCA groups, regarding their rates of commitments.

Presence will be established if the numbers of cases committed to the CCA program represent a significant proportion of the total commitments. Focus is determined by the degree to which the observed changes in system performance are attributable to changes in the disposition of the targeted population. For the CCA program, felony levels 3 and 4 (LOW felony group) are the targets. Net widening analysis will attempt to establish whether or not a significantly larger proportion of 3<sup>rd</sup> and 4<sup>th</sup> degree felons comprise the sentenced population (prison and CCA program commitments) for CCA counties compared to their Non-CCA counterparts. If this is observed, it may be due to CCA programs serving as a more restrictive commitment for lower level offenders, rather than

Table 3-1

Summary of Analyses Used to Evaluate  
Ohio's Community Based Corrections Act

<b>Analysis</b>	<b>Procedure</b>
<b>Validation</b>	Compare CCA and Non-CCA commitments of F3/F4s, 1983-1985
<b>Presence</b>	Compare prison to CCA and prison commitments in CCA counties, 1986-1988
<b>Focus</b>	Evaluate the LIFE/F1/F2 and F3/F4 commitments for CCA counties, 1983-1988
<b>Net Widening</b>	Compare CCA and Prison commitments to Non-CCA commitments, 1986-1988
<b>Impact</b>	Compare CCA prison to Non-CCA prison commitments of F3/F4s, 1986-1988

as a less-restrictive diversion for those who would otherwise have gone to prison.

Impact analysis will attempt to establish the effect of the CCA program in preventing a significant number of 3<sup>rd</sup> and 4<sup>th</sup> degree felony prison commitments. If the CCA program is operating as intended, we should observe a lower rate of 3<sup>rd</sup> and 4<sup>th</sup> degree prison commitment in participating counties compared to non-participating counties.

All felons were classified as either of a HIGH or LOW felony level. HIGH felony levels included Death, Life, F1 and F2. LOW felony levels included F3 and F4 determinate and indeterminate, comprising those felony levels that are targeted by the CCA program.

Paired t-tests are used to evaluate the differences between groups in this study. Whenever the rates or proportions are being compared, (for example:  $(F3s+F4s)/total$  commitments), a logit transformation will be performed prior to the analysis to linearize the data. While necessary for proper analysis, this transformation changes the values of proportions to natural logs which makes the reported mean values difficult to interpret. The reader should be cognizant of this when reviewing the analysis results.

#### Grouping CCA and Comparison Counties

Grouping CCA counties and matching them with Non-CCA counties must be based upon relevant parameters that will

account for substantial proportions of the variation observed across the 88 Ohio counties. A survey of the commitment patterns by county shows that similarities run most strongly according to the population density of the respective counties.

Since the commitment rate varies substantially by population density, the counties have been matched according to their population. Table 3-2 shows the county groupings used for this analysis.

In addition to matching cases by population, this analysis attempts to minimize the differences between counties by comparing per capita rates rather than raw numbers. Hence, the numbers of index offenses will be measured as the number per 100,000 population, and the prison commitments will be measured as the number per 100,000 index offenses.

When comparing by felony level, the number of 3rd and 4th degree felons committed annually to the Ohio Department of Rehabilitation and Corrections (DRC) for each county was divided by the county's total annual felony commitments to the DRC. If individual counties' sentencing practices differ, comparing F3 and F4 commitments as a proportion of total commitments by county should provide a more comparable measure than raw numbers.

Validation. The counties were initially organized into matched groups of CCA and Non-CCA counties according to population. This was intended to enhance comparability since population density was observed to be related to differences

Table 3-2

Group Identification of CCA Program  
Counties and Their Matched  
Non-Participating Counterparts

Group	CCA	Non-CCA
1.	Lucas Montgomery Cuyahoga Franklin	Hamilton
2.	Mahoning Marion Summit	Allen Clark Stark
3.	Licking	Fairfield
4.	Pike Ross	Scioto
5.	Portage	Lake Trumbull

in commitment patterns between counties. Our first undertaking is to determine the extent to which our matched groups are similar on their respective proportions of 3<sup>rd</sup> and 4<sup>th</sup> degree (hereafter called LOW) felony level prison commitments.

By examining the three years prior to the institution of CCA programs, these counties may be compared without CCA exerting an influence on commitment patterns. The following results were obtained from a series of paired t-tests for the aggregate, and for each of the five county groups, respectively (Table 3-3).

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Table 3-3

A Comparison of CCA and Non-CCA County 3rd and 4th Degree Felony Commitment Rates by County Groups During the Pre-CCA Period, 1983 to 1985

Group DF	Mean Diff.	Paired t	
Aggregate	2    -.051	-1.619	> .1
Group 1	2    -.077	-1.706	> .1
Group 2	2    .111	4.952	< .02*
Group 3	2    -.212	-1.094	> .1
Group 4	2    -.047	-0.246	> .4
Group 5	2    .106	0.467	> .1

\* significant

With the exception of Group 2, the CCA and Non-CCA counties do not differ significantly on the proportion of LOW prison commitments during the pre-CCA period, 1983 through 1985. Group 2 shows a significantly larger proportion of LOW prison commitments among the CCA counties than the Non-CCA comparison group (.631 compared to .579 average).

Population and Prevalence of Crime in Ohio, CCA and Non-CCA Counties

As a means of controlling for differences between criminal justice practices in individual counties, we examined the population levels and index offenses for all counties in Ohio, and by CCA and Non-CCA county groupings. Tables 3-4, 3-5 and 3-6 show the data for Ohio, CCA and Non-CCA county groups, respectively. The 1988 Uniform Crime Report for Ohio's counties was not available at the time of this writing, forcing the 1988 data out of this analysis.

It may be noted from these tables that the crime rate in the CCA counties is consistently higher per capita than in the Non-CCA counties or in Ohio as a whole from 1983 through 1987.

Evaluating for Presence: Comparative Analysis of Aggregate Prison Commitments by Year

Since prison commitments are dependent upon the number of offenders apprehended, convicted, and sentenced to prison. The best available adjustment factor to 'normalise' prison intake between counties and across time is the number of index offenses committed within a county group. Prison commitments will be expressed as a number per 100,000 reported index offenses. We must assume that crime reporting and clearance rates remained stable within counties across the six years being examined.

**Table 3-4**

**Population, Index Crimes, and Crime Rate for  
the State of Ohio, 1983 to 1987**

Year	Population	Index Crimes	Crimes per 100,000
1983	10,096,697	455,955	4,516
1984	9,742,117	425,124	4,364
1985	9,781,406	416,371	4,257
1986	9,672,233	424,373	4,388
1987	9,555,683	443,636	4,643
1988	n/a	n/a	n/a

**Table 3-5**

**Population, Index Crimes, and Crime Rate in  
the CCA Counties, 1983 to 1987**

Year	Population	Index Crimes	Crimes per 100,000
1983	4,349,317	254,987	5,863
1984	4,264,029	240,494	5,639
1985	4,189,900	233,007	5,561
1986	4,238,883	246,082	5,805
1987	4,187,987	258,976	6,184
1988	n/a	n/a	n/a

**Table 3-6**

**Population, Index Crimes, and Crime Rate in  
the Non-CCA Counties, 1983 to 1987**

Year	Population	Index Crimes	Crimes per 100,000
1983	2,083,580	96,643	4,638
1984	2,031,972	89,598	4,409
1985	2,078,000	98,814	4,322
1986	2,015,265	87,420	4,338
1987	2,002,801	88,831	4,435
1988	n/a	n/a	n/a

Tables 3-7 through 3-9 show the index offenses, prison commitments and commitments per 100,000 offenses for Ohio, the CCA counties and the Non-CCA counties, respectively.

While trend analysis cannot produce stable measures of change given the limited time frame for these data, certain observations may be made. First, the prison commitment rates in the CCA counties relative to Non-CCA counties increased at a fairly comparable rate (64.8 per year for CCA counties 45.3 per year for Non-CCA) with CCA counties either converging or remaining below Non-CCA commitment rates.

This pattern is noteworthy, in that the points of convergence occurred prior to the advent of the CCA (CCA counties show an average growth rate of 81 commitments per year ( $R^2 = .895$ ) while Non-CCA counties grew an average of 72.5 per year ( $R^2 = .488$ ) from 1983 to 1985). In the two years following the inception of the CCA, the prison commitment rates in CCA counties have stabilized, whereas the Non-CCA counties have experienced an average growth of 149.5 ( $R^2 = .991$ ) commitments per 100,000 index offenses per year from 1985 to 1987.

Lower commitment rates in CCA participant counties are to be expected if the program is having a positive impact on prison commitments. When commitments are adjusted to include the CCA participants (1,216 in 1986 and 1,315 in 1987), we find that the commitment rates for CCA counties increases by about 500 commitments per 100,000 index offenses. A paired t-test

Table 3-7

Index Crimes, Prison Commitments, and  
Commitment Rates for Ohio

Year	Index Crimes	Actual Commitments	Commitments per 100,000
1983	455,955	10,210	2,239
1984	425,124	9,635	2,266
1985	416,371	10,000	2,402
1986	424,373	10,438	2,460
1987	443,636	10,942	2,466
1988	n/a	n/a	n/a

Table 3-8

Index Crimes, Prison Commitments, and  
Commitment Rates for CCA Counties

Year	Index Crimes	Actual Commitments	Commitments per 100,000
1983	254,987	5,123	2,009
1984	240,494	4,910	2,042
1985	233,007	5,058	2,171
1986	246,082	5,372	2,183
1987	258,976	5,607	2,165
1988	n/a	n/a	n/a

Table 3-9

Index Crimes, Prison Commitments, and  
Commitment Rates for Non-CCA Counties

Year	Index Crimes	Actual Commitments	Commitments per 100,000
1983	96,643	1,979	2,048
1984	89,598	2,015	2,249
1985	89,814	1,970	2,193
1986	87,420	2,069	2,367
1987	88,831	2,214	2,492
1988	n/a	n/a	n/a

of the CCA county commitment rates (linearized by logit transformation) with and without program participants was performed. The results show this to be a significant increase in commitments (Paired t = -53, 1 DF, p < .005). This increase causes the CCA county commitment rate to exceed the commitment rate in the Non-CCA counties.

To summarize, we have seen that the growth rate in the number of prison commitments per 100,000 index offenses was fairly similar between CCA and Non-CCA counties prior to the advent of the CCA program (81 per year for CCA counties, 72.5 for Non-CCA counties). From 1985 through 1987, we have seen no growth in the commitment rate for CCA counties, whereas the Non-CCA counties grew by 149.5 commitments per 100,000 index offenses per year across that same period. With the introduction of CCA in 1986, CCA counties showed an increase of some 500 commitments (to both prison and programs) per 100,000 index offenses over 1985 levels. By comparison, Non-CCA counties showed an increase of 174 per 100,000 index offenses. We conclude that this marginal increase is due to the presence of the CCA program.

Evaluating for Focus: A Comparative Analysis of Prison Commitments by Felony Levels by year

While the preceding analysis has offered evidence to support the presence of the CCA program in system performance, it does not address the issue of whether the changes have focused upon target population of the CCA program, (3rd and 4th

degree felons). The present analysis will examine the distribution of felony levels for CCA and Non-CCA counties.

What we have seen so far is a lower commitment rate for CCA counties which increases significantly when CCA program participants are included. What we do not know is whether or not the lower prison commitment rate in CCA counties is due to a decrease in the number of LOW felony commitments, an increase in the number of HIGH felony commitments, or both. An increase in the number of HIGH felony commitments would negate the assumption that the CCA program was diverting LOW cases from the prison system.

At the state level, Ohio's prison commitments are increasingly of LOW felony levels. Table 3-10 shows the prison commitments and the proportion of LOW commitments for Ohio from 1983 to 1988. Linear regression has established the rate of change (non-standardized beta) to be .0209 (R = .99). This means that the proportion of LOW felony level commitments has increased by an average of 2.09 percent per year from 1983 to 1988. The regression coefficient of .99 indicates a very consistent pattern of increase across the six years.

In comparison to the state trends, Tables 3-11 and 3-12 show the prison commitments for CCA and Non-CCA county groups by year. Note the slight divergence in the proportion of LOW felony levels being committed to prison across the six years between these groups. CCA counties are showing an average annual growth of 0.0219 (R = .96), while the Non-CCA counties

### Table 3-10

Ohio Prison Commitments by Felony Groups,  
Total Commitments, and Proportion of 3rd and 4th Degree  
Felons to Total Commitments, 1983 to 1988

Year	Life/F1/F2	F3/F4	Total	Prop F3/F4
1983	4,124	6,086	10,210	0.596
1984	3,668	5,967	9,635	0.619
1985	3,600	6,400	10,000	0.640
1986	3,697	6,741	10,438	0.646
1987	3,537	7,405	10,943	0.677
1988	3,661	8,805	12,466	0.706

\* Average annual rate of change = 0.0209, R = .99

### Table 3-11

Ohio County Prison Commitments by Felony Groups,  
Total Commitments, and Proportion of 3rd and 4th Degree  
Felons to Total Commitments, 1983 to 1988

Year	Life/F1/F2	F3/F4	Total	Prop F3/F4
1983	2,208	2,915	5,123	0.569
1984	2,041	2,869	4,910	0.584
1985	2,024	3,034	5,058	0.600
1986	2,064	3,308	5,372	0.616
1987	2,054	3,554	5,608	0.634
1988	2,104	4,672	6,776	0.689

\* Average annual rate of change = 0.0219, R = .96

### Table 3-12

Non-CCA County Prison Commitments by Felony Groups,  
Total Commitments, and Proportion of 3rd and 4th Degree  
Felons to Total Commitments, 1983 to 1988

Year	Life/F1/F2	F3/F4	Total	Prop F3/F4
1983	872	1,130	2,002	0.564
1984	771	1,243	2,014	0.617
1985	700	1,271	1,917	0.645
1986	719	1,350	2,069	0.652
1987	791	1,523	2,214	0.688
1988	668	1,671	2,339	0.715

\* Average annual rate of change = 0.0279, R = .98

are increasing their proportion of LOW felony level commitments at a 0.0279 annual average rate ( $R = .98$ ).

In contrast to the dynamics of the LOW felony level, the HIGH levels have shown no significant change across the six year period (for CCA counties,  $p > .025$ , for Non-CCA counties,  $p > .1$ ). This eliminates the HIGH felony level as a possible explanation for the changes in commitment rates between the CCA and Non-CCA counties.

The CCA counties are shown to run somewhat below the state average for the proportion of LOW felony level commitments, whereas the Non-CCA group runs almost concurrent with the state average. If CCA is effective, one would expect the CCA group to commit proportionally fewer LOW level felons to prison, since these are the ones targeted for CCA programs.

When we add the CCA program participants into the LOW felony level prison commitments, we find that the CCA counties' commitments converge with the proportions of the Non-CCA group. Table 3-13 shows the CCA county group with program participants factored into the 1986 through 1988 commitment figures.

By adding the CCA commitments (program participants plus prison commitments), the proportions of LOW felony levels are elevated above those for the Non-CCA counties and the state average for the years 1986 through 1988.

Table 3-13

CCA County Prison and CCA Commitments  
by Felony Groups, Total Commitments,  
and Proportion of 3rd and 4th Degree Felons  
to Total Commitments,  
1983 to 1988

Year	Life/F1/F2	F3/F4	Total	Prop F3/F4
1983	2,208	2,915	5,123	0.569
1984	2,041	2,869	4,910	0.584
1985	2,024	3,034	5,058	0.600
1986	2,064	3,947	6,011	0.687
1987	2,054	4,286	6,340	0.703
1988	2,104	5,465	7,569	0.743

\* Average annual rate of change = 0.038, R = .99

programs, which produced nearly significant ones. If current trends continue, the accrual of more data is likely to show a significant association between CCA programs and some degree of net widening.

Evaluating for Impact: Statistical Analysis of Observed Differences Between CCA and Non-CCA Counties

The CCA objective that is the central concern for this analysis is the diversion of 3rd and 4th degree felons from prison. A significantly lower proportion of LOW felony prison commitments in the CCA counties for the three years the CCA program has been active will be indicative of a positive impact of the CCA program (consideration is necessary in interpreting the findings for Group 2, given the pre-CCA commitment rate for CCA counties was significantly higher than for their Non-CCA counterparts). Table 3-15 shows the paired t--test results for the impact analysis.

With the exception of Group 1, CCA programming is not associated with a significant proportional reduction of LOW felony level prison commitments. More optimistically, CCA was associated with a significantly lower rate of LOW felony prison commitments for the county group representing 51.8 percent of all CCA participants to date. The CCA program was not associated with significantly higher prison commitment rates in any group.

## Summary

This evaluation set out to address four aspects concerning the implementation of Ohio's Community Corrections Act: first, to ascertain whether its presence could be identified in the performance of the criminal justice process; second, to determine whether the focus of the CCA programs were targeting the populations for which they were intended; third, to ascertain the level of net widening; and fourth, to assess the impact of the program on prison commitments in Ohio.

Comparing the prison commitment rates per 100,000 index offenses, we have shown that (1) during the pre-CCA period (1983-1985) there were no significant differences between CCA and Non-CCA counties in their commitment rates for LOW felony levels, with the exception of Group 2 where CCA counties have committed proportionally more; (2) During the post-CCA period (1986-1988), CCA counties committed fewer to prison than their Non-CCA counterparts; (3) When CCA program participants are included, CCA counties show a higher commitment rate than Non-CCA counties.' We have further shown that the addition of CCA participants to the prison commitments produces a significantly higher commitment rate than prison commitments alone. This was offered as evidence that the CCA program's presence was being felt in the system.

Table 3-15

Differences in Prison Commitment Rates  
Between CCA and Non-CCA Counties  
for 3rd and 4th Degree Felonies by Group, 1986 to 1988

Group	DF	Mean Diff.	Paired t	P
Aggregate	2	-.986	-3.970	< .059
Group 1	2	-.119	-8.920	< .013*
Group 2	2	.038	0.740	< .538
Group 3	2	-.254	-1.470	< .280
Group 4	2	.335	2.560	< .125
Group 5	2	.039	0.510	< .663

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\* significant

Our examination of CCA's focus upon felony levels 3 and 4 (called LOW in the analysis), showed that the pattern observed in the foregoing analysis was attributable to increases in the number of commitments at the LOW felony level (both prison and CCA programs) across the six-year period. No significant change was observed in the number of HIGH felony commitments for either the CCA or Non-CCA groups.

The net widening analysis indicated that Group 4 and Group 5 were committing significantly higher rates of LOW felony levels than their counterparts. While this represents less than four percent of the total CCA involvement for the past three years, there is indication that, in the aggregate, the CCA counties are increasing their rate of LOW commitments (combining prison and programs) to a level that is nearly significant and higher than their Non-CCA comparison group.

The impact analysis showed that there was a significantly lower prison commitment rate of the LOW felony level associated with CCA program participation in Group 1 but in none of the other 4 groups. Group 1 constitutes nearly 52 percent of the total CCA program involvement in Ohio from 1986 through 1988.

Recognizing the limitations of the data, we conclude that the current implementation of Ohio's Community Corrections Act is having a demonstrable impact upon 3rd and 4th degree prison commitments. The program has had a significant impact in the more densely populated counties but has not produced a statistically significant impact elsewhere. Finally, there is

evidence suggesting that net widening is operative in the system, notably among the least populous counties with the smallest programs. As more data become available, it is likely that the both the program's impact on prison commitments and the net widening effect will become significant at the aggregate levels.

CHAPTER 4

THE COSTS OF ALTERNATIVES TO PRISON

The fact that IDU and CBCF are handling offenders who look similar to offenders sentenced to prison does not necessarily mean these CCA programs are less costly. In 1988, over 8,000 offenders were sentenced to prison for 3rd and 4th degree crimes. These offenders will now serve an average of 10 months in prison without any parole supervision. This translates roughly into a 6,666 inmate "stock" population which is about 20 percent of the Ohio 29,000 prison population.

It also represents a very short and inexpensive use of imprisonment. Diverting these types of offenders at these levels has only a minimal impact on prison population. In fact, if all the IDU and CBCF cases represented Determinate Class 3 and 4 offenders, the current 29,000 prison population would increase by about 540 inmates (650 IDU and CBCF cases per year x 10 months average length of stay). It is the indeterminate sentenced offender and especially those sentenced for Class 1 and 2 crimes which are having the greatest impact on prison population growth. Until these offenders are made eligible for the IDU and CBCF programs, minimal impact on prison crowding can be attributed to CCA.

Nevertheless, there is reason to believe that the CBCF and IDU components are cost-effective with respect to operational costs as presented in Table 4-1. If one assumes that all of

the CBCF cases and IDU cases who were originally sentenced by the court to a Class 3 or Class 4 prison sentence would have been admitted to prison, one can make some direct cost comparisons.

The annualized costs for offenders admitted into the CBCF program is \$20,254 or \$55.76 per day. This is significantly higher than the costs of imprisonment (\$38.73 per day) and IDU (\$4.88). The relatively lower cost for CBCF is even more impressive when compared to an un-equal economy of scale which provides a decided advantage for large scale and severely overcrowded prison systems.

During this study period, 190 offenders were admitted to the CBCF per year and spent an average of four months incarcerated in the CBCF facility followed by 32 months of regular probation at about \$50 per month per offender. Follow-up analysis also showed that the CBCFs generated approximately \$27 per offender in restitution and fines. This produces a total operational cost per CBCF offender of \$7,734, which compares favorably with the prison costs of \$11,619 (see Table 4-2). The major cost advantage for CBCF sanctions is the brief period of confinement (4 months) as compared to prison (10 months). The cost benefit for this sanction is significant despite the fact that CBCF offenders are supervised for an additional 32 months on regular probation whereas the prisoners incur no post release supervision costs. One can also see that as the number of diverted prisoners increase and reflect a longer period of

expected confinement (i.e., Class 1 and Class 2 prisoners) had the diversion not occurred, the cost benefits of CBCF will be even larger.

Since the IDU cases spend no time in local confinement and are estimated to be supervised for 12 months at a cost of \$4.88 per day followed by 24 months of regular probation (again estimated at \$50 per month), it represents the least costly sanction.

Finally, one must take into account the differential re-arrest rates for each group. Since the recidivism rates are lower for the IDU and CBCF groups, the overall cost benefit ratio are even higher for the IDU and CBCF groups, as those sentencing options produced less victim losses than imprisonment.<sup>10</sup>

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<sup>10</sup> / These findings support other studies showing that diverted prisoners can be expected to have lower re-arrest rates than those sentenced to prison. See Petersilia and Turner, 1985.

CHAPTER 5

POLICY RECOMMENDATIONS

The major results of this study can be summarized as follows. First and foremost, it is clear that offenders sentenced to CCP have (1) been sentenced for more serious crimes, (2) possess more lengthy criminal histories, and (3) have higher levels of program needs than traditional felony probationers. Within the CCP program components, the IDU and CBCF offenders criminal and demographic characteristics are similar to offenders sentenced to prison for Class 3 and 4 determinate sentences.

We therefore conclude that CCP and, in particular, IDU and CBCF programs do serve to divert offenders from prison. The CCA program has less impact on diverting offenders from prison but does, at a minimum, select the more serious cases typically placed on felony probation. If Community Corrections Programs did not exist, there would be increases in prison admissions and less flexibility for local corrections to supervise and service the more serious felon probationers.

With respect to service needs, Community Corrections Program offenders have extremely high levels of service needs, especially in the areas of substance abuse, vocational training and employment. Considerable effort needs to be made to ensure

these offenders are being properly diagnosed as in need and that their needs are being addressed.

This aspect of the CCP (program need assessment and service delivery) needs to be strengthened via staff training, greater utilization of existing service providers, and creation of additional service providers especially in the areas of substance abuse, employment and vocational training.

Finally, the larger question of whether community corrections programs positively impact public safety and are cost-effective is answered. The re-arrest rates for offenders placed in the IDU and CBCF are well below a matched group of offenders sentenced to prison. Both IDU and CBCF are 33 to 80 percent less expensive than short prison sentences even within an overcrowded prison system.

These results demonstrate that carefully screened offenders can be diverted from prison to controlled community supervision settings at substantial savings and without compromising the safety of the community. In fact, it appears that diverted offenders, when compared to a similar group of incarcerated offenders, have significantly lower re-arrest rates. The criteria for deciding diversion eligibility is crucial. Incarceration remains an appropriate sanction for serious offenders. Indeed, the extent to which diversionary programs are safe and effective will help alleviate crowded prison conditions which often result in the early release of more dangerous offenders.

Currently, the IDU and CBCF programs are restricted to 3rd and 4th degree felons. As a group, by policy rather than statute, these offenders typically are incarcerated for less than one year. In the present study, the prison group averaged about 10 months of incarceration. The CBCF group is presently averaging about four months in the community facilities, while the IDU group is not incarcerated as a condition of the program.

These policy restrictions are limiting the potential of the IDU and CBCF programs to have a dramatic impact on prison admissions and prison population growth. Our time series analysis shows that counties participating in the Community Corrections Program are admitting a lower number of 3rd and 4th degree offenders than would otherwise occur if the programs did not exist. However, the impact is marginal at this time largely because the program is modestly funded. A more ambitious program would certainly increase the program's impact on prison admissions. Conversely, if the program eligibility were to be expanded to include persons not convicted of Class 3 and 4 felony crimes and not sentenced to prison, the programs would have less impact on prison intake.

Based upon the findings of this study, NCCD makes the following recommendations:

- o The current Community Corrections Program prison diversion program (CCA, IDU and CBCF) be continued and significantly expanded;

- o Expansion of the current program should include not only the addition of other counties to the program but also result in the expansion of offenders from 3rd and 4th degree felons to include 2nd degree offenders with longer expected periods of incarceration but who also pose a low risk to public safety;
- o Conversely, any efforts to increase program eligibility for misdemeanor or other offenders now being controlled at the local level should be rejected. Misdemeanor offenses do not result in a prison sentence and any effort to include such offenders would alter the current objective of reducing prison intake;
- o That the proposed offender risk assessment instrument be adopted and implemented to guide not only program selection but also the delivery of differential levels of community supervision;
- o That the risk assessment instrument also be used as a screening device for exclusion of high risk offenders from prison diversion programs;
- o That the current Community. Corrections Program data base be modified to include (1) the recording of specific services and their outcomes, (2) the proposed risk instrument, and (3) adjustments to current intake and release variables.