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AN EVALUATION OF THE DOUGLAS COUNTY DAY REPORTING CENTER

A Thesis

Presented to the

Department of Criminal Justice

And the

Faculty of the Graduate College

University of Nebraska

In Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree

Master of Arts

University of Nebraska at Omaha

By

Dae-Young Kim

June, 2005

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THESIS ACCEPTANCE

Acceptance for the faculty of the Graduate College, University of Nebraska, in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Arts, University of Nebraska at Omaha.

Committee

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Bill Wakefield

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Chairperson (signature) Cassia Spohn Date 6-13-05

ABSTRACT

AN EVALUATION OF THE DOUGLAS COUNTY DAY REPORTING CENTER

Dae-Young Kim, MA

University of Nebraska, 2005

Advisor: Dr. Cassia Spohn

The purpose of the present study was to understand the nature of the DRC's clients and the roles of the DRC as a mechanism of informal social control in the context of the Nebraska State/Douglas County Criminal Justice System. More specifically, as a preliminary evaluation of the DRC, this research will determine whether the program has been working as intended. The current study pursued two main goals: (1) identifying the demographic and case variables that determine successful completion of the program (i.e., graduation) and recidivism and (2) identifying the types of effective and ineffective treatment for an offender's reintegration. In addition, this study analyzed the DRC's client targeting and net-widening and the effectiveness of the DRC's risk assessment.

The current research is composed of a two-phase study; an analysis of termination and an analysis of recidivism. Specifically, each part of the two-phase study consists of three sub-sections; the descriptive statistics, the bivariate correlations, and the multivariate analyses. A sample of 273 DRC's for the analysis of the termination clients have been collected since the DRC began operation in 2001. Through 2003, 273 clients either graduated successfully (189) or terminated (84) from the DRC. Additionally, the analysis of the recidivism was conducted based on 189 clients who graduated successfully.

Based on the bivariate and multivariate analysis, the present study revealed several dynamic relationships with important policy implications among variables (i.e., employment, length of stay, participating in the DRC programs). Employment in the dynamic relationships with the other variables decreased the likelihood of termination and recidivism by building a client's social capitals in a community. In addition, as a comprehensive evaluation of the DRC, this current study identified a number of the criminogenic factors of the DRC's clients (i.e., felony, criminal history, age, undereducation, unemployment). Finally, the issues of the DRC's role as a mechanism of informal social control, the issues of the DRC's targeting and net-widening, and the issues of the DRC's risk assessment procedure were also analyzed in the chapter of discussion.

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Finally, if I can contribute to the DRC through my research, it would give me intrinsic rewards. This thesis is dedicated to the DRC's clients who were sharing their lives with me and who are dreaming their new lives and struggling to get them straight in order to be new members of our community. Also, I would like to appreciate the DRC staff who greeted me with hospitality into the DRC.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

According to the Douglas County Criminal Justice System Assessment, which was conducted by the Institute for Law & Policy Planning (ILPP) (1998), since the early 1990's there has been a substantial increase in arrest rates under the county's "zero tolerance policy." Douglas County has been struggling with overworked criminal justice systems, especially overcrowding in the jail. This, in turn, led to a number of related problems, such as growing housing costs, jail management, and other internal services problems. Moreover, a large portion of the inmates incarcerated in the jail are pretrial inmates, rather than sentenced inmates, and female inmates, rather than male inmates. To avert a crisis, the Douglas County Commission has turned its attention to less expensive and more efficient alternatives to simply expanding the capacity of the current jail by providing special/individualized treatment services to offenders who have special needs (ILPP, 1998). During the pretrial period, offenders primarily need to avoid the labeling effects of formal social control. Females, who have been largely ignored to date in the criminal justice system, need more specialized treatment to enhance their economic independence and parenting skills. It is important for females to maintain ties with their children during the pretrial period and during incarceration. Community-based corrections plays an important role in addressing these problems.

Community-based corrections, also called intermediate sanctions or graduated sanctions, is the general term used to refer to a variety of sanctions and non-institutional correctional programs for criminal offenders (McCarthy and McCarthy, Jr,

1997). Although the goals of those who lobby for and implement intermediate sanctions vary, generally they are designed to accomplish five objectives: community protection, just-deserts, rehabilitation, reintegration, and cost-effectiveness (McCarthy and McCarthy, Jr, 1997). Intermediate sanctions can be traced back to the 1950's and 1960's. In the early periods, they were conceptualized as rehabilitative programs. During the 1970's, they were viewed as an alternative to imprisonment designed to reduce prison overcrowding. In the 1980's, they were considered as punishments located on a continuum between prison and probation (Tonry, 1997). Today, community-based corrections seeks various objectives of punishment such as the continuum of sanctions, rehabilitation, and reintegration in the pursuit of both community protection and cost-effectiveness.

In the Douglas County Department of Corrections, community programs (i.e., pretrial diversion, work release, house arrest, and a day reporting center) have been developed as alternatives to jail sentences. The day reporting center (DRC) plays a substantial role in community protection and in offender reintegration. Because offenders are required to participate in the DRC every day or on a regular basis, the DRC can secure community protection and also provide individualized treatments as a sentencing alternative to the offenders (e.g., drug offenders and female offenders) who have special needs.

As an intermediate sanction, the day reporting center can be defined as a "facility to which offenders are required...to report on a daily or other regular basis at specified times for a specified length of time to participate in activities such as counseling, treatment, social skills training, or employment training" (Clarke, 1994:6). DRCs emerged in England in the early 1970s in response to a recognition that traditional individual casework approaches were ineffective for many chronic

offenders who lacked social skills and were dependent on illegal substances (Parent, 1990). These early DRCs directly influenced the development of DRCs in the United States during the 1980's (Parent et al., 1995). Moreover, jail overcrowding accelerated the emergence of the DRC as an alternative to incarceration (Parent et al., 1995). In the United States, the first DRCs were established in Connecticut and Massachusetts in 1985 and the concept expanded rapidly during the 1990's (Parent and Corbett, 1996). DRCs developed in correspondence to each local situation, so there is considerable variety in terms of the target population, the eligibility criteria, the services offered as part of the program, and length of the program (Marciniak, 2000).

Proponents of the DRC assert that the DRC can fulfill all five rationales of punishment - retribution, deterrence, incapacitation, rehabilitation, and community protection - which the existing dichotomized systems (i.e., incarceration and probation) cannot meet effectively (Marciniak, 2000). Highly structured supervision, which is provided by daily participation at the DRC, satisfies in part the rationales of retribution, deterrence, incapacitation, and community protection. An offender's daily participation at the DRC functions as a punishment by restricting an offender's freedom, and, on the other hand, serves the objective of incapacitation by depriving an offender of opportunities to commit crimes during their participation. Second, intensive treatment programming provided on- or off-site contributes to offenders' rehabilitation and reintegration (Marciniak, 2000). On the other hand, the DRC also contributes to cost-effectiveness through utilizing all available resources of communities and charging program fees to offenders.

As a preliminary evaluation of the Douglas County Day Reporting Center, this study will determine whether the program has been working as intended. This study will identify the individual and case variables that determine successful completion of

the program (i.e., graduation) and recidivism. The present study, which will identify the types of effective and ineffective treatment for an offender's reintegration, has important policy implications.

This research seeks to evaluate the DRC in terms of appropriate target selection and termination/recidivism and to understand the roles of the DRC in the context of the Nebraska State/Douglas County Court System. The following sections discuss the literature on intermediate sanctions and day reporting centers, methodology, findings, and discussion. First, *in the literature review*, theoretical perspectives and other background for the research are discussed to understand in depth the roles of the DRC and characteristics of the DRC's clients. Second, *in the methodology section*, methodological and conceptual issues are discussed, such as data collection, research design, and analytic strategies. Third, *in the findings section*, results of the analyses are reported. Fourth, *in the discussion section*, the findings are interpreted in light of theoretical background, previous studies, and practical implications. Policy implications and recommendations for the DRC are discussed along with the current study's limitations.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW OF RESEARCH

OVERVIEW OF NEBRASKA/DOUGLAS COUNTY COURT SYSTEM

"Day Reporting Center in the Context of the Court System"

The Nebraska judicial system has one important characteristic that distinguishes it from other state judicial systems. Nebraska has an indeterminate sentencing system in which the legislature set minimum authorized sentences and judges have broad discretion to choose from among various penalties, such as imprisonment, intermediate sanctions, and probation sentences (Kansas Sentencing Commission, 1997).

According to the Citizen's Guide to Nebraska's Courts (2000), the Nebraska judicial system consists of three ranked entities established by the Nebraska State Constitution. In addition, there are two special courts: separate juvenile courts and a statewide Workers' Compensation Court[1]. The *Supreme Court* is responsible for hearing appeals from lower courts. This court has administrative leadership of all state courts and controls the practice of law in Nebraska. The *Court of Appeals* is responsible for all cases that are appealed from the district or county courts except cases involving the penalty of death, life imprisonment, and the constitutionality of a statute. If the case involves a sentence of death/life imprisonment or the constitutionality of a statute, it can be appealed to the Supreme Court without going through the Court of Appeals. The third layer of courts includes the *district/county*

[1] According to the Citizen's Guide to Nebraska's Courts (2000), only three counties - Douglas, Lancaster, and Sarpy - have specialized juvenile courts. In other counties, juvenile cases are handled in the county courts. They also have jurisdiction over juvenile matters involving neglected or delinquent children. On the other hand, the Workers' Compensation Court has jurisdiction on the matters of workers' compensation caused by industrial accidents.

courts. The district courts are grouped into 12 judicial districts to serve the 93 counties in the State of Nebraska. The number of counties for each district varies from one to nine. These courts are responsible for all felony crimes[2] and for equity cases. Although district courts have concurrent jurisdiction on misdemeanor cases, county courts usually have jurisdiction on misdemeanor cases, traffic and municipal ordinance violations, preliminary hearings in felony cases, and other juvenile matters. In the case of felonies, county courts hold the preliminary hearings to decide whether there is enough evidence to bind offenders over for trial in the district court.

According to the Institute for Law & Policy Planning (1998), Douglas County comprises the 4th Judicial District. There are 12 judges in Douglas County Court. As mentioned above, the county court is responsible for misdemeanor cases, initial hearings for felonies, and all traffic-related cases. The county court has limited jurisdiction over felony cases; judges in these courts are not allowed to accept pleas in felony cases. On the other hand, the district court has 14 authorized judges and has authority to handle all felony cases bound over from the county court.

As shown in Table 1, the Douglas County correctional population in 2004 included 1,112 (51%) jail inmates and 1,053 (49%) offenders in community programs. A large portion (56%) of the jail population was composed of pretrial detainees. The remainder of the jail population consisted of offenders serving jail sentences (24.7%) and federal offenders (19.3%). Defendants who were on pretrial release constituted the largest proportion (88.3%) of the community corrections population. In addition, there were 45 offenders (4.3%) who were on work release, 43 (4.1%) who were on house arrest, and 35 (3.3%) who were assigned to the day reporting center.

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[2] According to criminal procedure laws, offenses can be classified into two categories on the basis of the place of imprisonment or length of imprisonment. A crime punishable by death or imprisonment *in the state prison* or for *more than one year* is a felony; any other crime (i.e., any crime punishable only by imprisonment *in a local jail* or *less than one year*) is a misdemeanor.

-Table 1 about here-

In the context of the Nebraska State/Douglas County court systems, how does the Day Reporting Center interact with them? How do those court systems influence the operation of the DRC at the intake level of clients, and, in turn, how does the DRC influence the decisions of judges in the court system? The understanding of caseflow into the DRC will be helpful to understand in depth the operation of the DRC.

Case Flow in the Douglas County Criminal Justice System

The understanding of caseflow is critically important in identifying the importance of a component system (e.g., sub-program or system) in the whole criminal justice system (McCarthy and McCarthy, Jr., 1997:431). The following caseflow chart is helpful to understand the role of the DRC in the context of the Douglas County Criminal Justice System because all justice agencies are interrelated at the process of decision-making. As seen in Figure 1, Douglas County District Court judges have sentencing options such as fines, probation, and incarceration (jail/prison). In Douglas County, community-based corrections are utilized as a back-end strategy to reduce jail overcrowding or to reintegrate offenders into communities rather than as a formal sentencing alternative. Practically, judges have the authority to approve the placement of offenders from the jail to community-based corrections. In this sense, community-based corrections can be considered a sentencing alternative in that the disposition of offenders in the community programs is determined by the judge.

-Figure 1 about here-

In the context of the Douglas County Department of Corrections, as seen in Figure 2, community programs are managed and supervised by the community services program coordinator. Each community program is managed by the program

manager under the control of the coordinator. The coordinator manages organization with his own budget, but he is still influenced by the director and the board of corrections in Douglas County.

-Figure 2 about here-

Community programs in Douglas County are utilized as a transitional stage from confinement to the community. Clients remain inmates and serve the remainder of their sentences in the community programs. This conditional release of offenders is a privilege, not a right. Therefore, the Department of Corrections still has jurisdiction over them and can return inmates to jail or prison if they violate program rules or commit new crimes.

Of the community programs, only the Day Reporting Center can be used for both pretrial and sentenced offenders. House arrest and work release can only be used for sentenced offenders. Offenders can be admitted to the DRC in two ways. First, during trials or at sentencing, the intake process begins with an offender's request to serve his sentence at the DRC. Second, in response to jail overcrowding, community program staff screen offenders to determine who is an appropriate candidate for participation in the DRC. In addition, the DRC is utilized at many stages through the criminal justice systems. After initial appearance in court, Offenders can be admitted to the DRC. As a condition of pretrial release, if defendants spend their time in the DRC without any violations and successfully participate in the program curriculum, judges may sentence felony offenders to community programs; these are offenders who otherwise would have gone to the jail or prison. Therefore, in the felony cases, judges have broad discretion in determining the types and length of punishment for felony offenders. Finally, as a back-up sentence, the DRC can be also utilized for the revocation of probation. Offenders can be only admitted to the DRC through the jail.

Utilizing the jail as a transitional stage to the DRC have advantages in reducing overcrowding in jail and preventing net-widening. In sum, the DRC provides alternatives to formal social controls and, as an informal social control, plays an important role in strengthening offenders' informal social bonds to communities. This subject will be discussed in depth from the developmental theory.

"Net-widening" is the most important criticism of community-based corrections (Marciniak, 1999:207). Generally speaking, net-widening refers to widening the net of social control through substituting the unwarranted and expansion of discretion as a informal social control (e.g., diversion programs) for the formal social control (e.g., incarceration) (McCarthy and McCarthy, Jr, 1997). Moreover, in Douglas County, where sentences are indeterminate, there is an even greater likelihood of net-widening. This is because judges have considerable discretion to determine the type of sentence. Therefore, the focal concerns[3], such as blameworthiness, dangerousness/community protection, and practical constraints, that influence sentencing play an important role under the indeterminate sentencing system. Accordingly, judges' subjective perceptions of the focal concerns vary considerably and can lead to different sentencing outcomes. The judges have discretion for the felony case in the imposition of sanctions between incarceration and probation. Especially, it is more problematic

[3] According to the focal concerns theory (Steffensmeier et al., 1998), three focal concerns play substantial roles in judicial decision making as the determinants of sentencing outcomes. The three focal concerns are the offender's blameworthiness, dangerousness/community protection, and practical constraints and consequences. The first, blameworthiness is associated with the retributive philosophy of punishment in that the punishment should fit the crime. Blameworthiness is usually gauged in terms of seriousness of the offense, such as the culpability of the defendant and the harm caused by the offense. This focal concern is a more historically relevant standard focusing on the offenders' past behaviors. The second, dangerousness/ community protection focuses on the incapacitation of the offender; therefore judges pass sentences on the offender based on the risk of their recidivism considering the nature of the offense (e.g., violent or property) and their attributions such as drug dependency, education, employment, or family history. Contrary to blameworthiness, it focuses on the offender's future behavior. The third, practical constraints and consequences also have an effect on judicial sentencing decisions in both an individual and an organizational way. Practical consequences for individual offenders in the judge's sentencing decisions are concerns about the offender's health condition, the disruption of family ties, and other factors. Organizational concerns include maintaining working relationships among courtroom members, keeping the stable flow of cases, ensuring rational use of correctional resources.

when community corrections are utilized as only an alternative to the probation. Therefore, the problem of "net-widening" seems more critical in the Douglas County Court System. However, in order to reduce jail overcrowding by pretrial offenders, as indicated in Table 1, the target population of the DRC is restricted to non-violent and felony offenders, who otherwise would have gone to jail or prison, by the Douglas County Community Corrections Center's eligibility policy. On the other hand, most misdemeanor offenders might be released through many diversion programs such as release on recognizance (ROR), paying their bail, or holding bondsmen, so very few misdemeanor offenders who otherwise would be released by diversion programs involve the DRC for pretrial release. That obvious eligibility policy at the intake process constrain the probability of "net-widening" by choosing appropriate offenders (i.e., non-violent felons) who were originally intended to be sentenced to the day reporting center, and by screening out an inappropriate offenders (i.e., misdemeanors) who are supposed to be released in the community by other diversion programs.

ORGANIZATIONAL ANALYSIS OF THE DOUGLAS COUNTY DAY REPORTING CENTER

In the Douglas County Department of Corrections (DCDC), there are three types of sanctions for bridging the gap between incarceration and probation: work release, day reporting, and house arrest. In order to describe the function of the day reporting program precisely, it is also necessary to mention the other programs. The DRC shares staff and clients with those programs and is also provided with many services by them. The community programs are managed under the control of the DCDC. Therefore, the resources and budget of the jail influence the operation of community-based corrections. If the jail encounters the problem of overcrowding, the

DCDC seeks to release some offenders by using community programs. This section will focus on the organizational analysis of the DRC in the context of the Douglas County judicial and correctional system to understand the organic relationship between the DRC and other justice agencies.

This section will be categorized into seven sub-sections: first, the legal basis of the DRC; second, description of the DRC; third, communication with the pretrial release division at the intake process; fourth, communications with the house arrest division in the surveillance process; fifth, communications with the work release division in the alternative/emergency process: sixth, communications with the community; and seventh, risks/needs assessment in the DRC.

Legal Basis of the Day Reporting Center

Before discussing the DRC, it is necessary to describe the legal basis, which provides the DRC with the legal justification for its operation. In terms of sentenced offenders, the Nebraska state statute specifies the legal basis for the operation of both house arrest and work release programs. This state statue directly addresses the legal basis for both programs:

> *Sentenced to a city or county jail; permission to leave; when; sentence served at other facility; house arrest. (1)..... (2) Any person sentenced to a city or county jail upon conviction for a misdemeanor or nonpayment of any fine or forfeiture may be granted the privilege of serving the sentence or a part of the sentence at a house of correction, community residential center, work release center, halfway house, or other place of confinement properly designated as a jail facility..... (NE ST § 47-401).*

This Nebraska state statute does not mention the DRC or provide legal justifications for the operation of the DRC. The legal background of the DRC can be inferred indirectly from other statutes. The legal basis of DRC activity differs depending on offenders' legal statuses (i.e., sentenced clients or pretrial clients). For sentenced offenders, the operation of the DRC is legally based on the house arrest clause previously mentioned (*NE ST § 47-401*). Legally, the DRC in Douglas County operates under the provisions for house arrest; it can be considered as one of the house arrest programs through day reporting supervision and electronic monitoring. This is different from the generally acknowledged idea that house arrest is utilized only under electronic monitoring. For pretrial detainees, the operation of the DRC is legally based on the following statutory provisions, which are related to personal recognizance release:

> *Any bailable defendant shall be ordered released from custody pending judgment on his or her personal recognizance unless the judge determines in the exercise of his or her discretion that such a release will not reasonably assure the appearance of the defendant as required..... (1) Place the defendant in the custody of a designated person or organization agreeing to supervise the defendant; (2)..... (NE ST § 29-901).*

During trials or at sentencing, the intake process for the DRC begins with an offender's request or the community program staff's initial screening. Those processes are influenced substantially by the community program's policies regarding such things as target population and eligibility standards and by practical constraints such as budgets and resources. However, the disposition of the DRC is finally determined by the exercise of the judge's discretion in order to reduce jail overcrowding and also to promote the offender's rehabilitation. Although there are no

legal restrictions on judges' discretion in the placement of offenders to the DRC, the DRC does require offenders to be subject to structured surveillance and intensive programming (e.g., daily physical reporting, electronic monitoring, participating in many programs, etc).

Consequently, the DRC's legal status is not clear because, currently, a legal basis for the operation of the DRC does not exist. As mentioned above, the DRC's strict surveillance also is imposed on offenders, especially offenders on pretrial release, without any legal basis. Therefore, it is necessary to enact the legal background for the operation of the DRC to prevent any potential lawsuits by offenders in the future.

Description of the Day Reporting Center[4]

The DRC's population includes defendants who would otherwise be detained in jail prior to trial, as well as offenders who are serving their sentences at the facility. The DRC is a pretrial release alternative for non-violent offenders who are not qualified for release on recognizance or who cannot pay the amount of bail set by the judge. Such defendants are the first priority for the DRC. Non-violent offenders who have been sentenced to jail are the second prioritized group for the DRC. Offenders who are deemed appropriate candidates for the DRC, based on their risks/needs factors, serve their sentences at the DRC. Douglas County judges approve the intake of all offenders in the DRC; this includes both defendants who are awaiting trial and those who have been convicted and sentenced to the DRC.

Certain types of offenders are ineligible for placement at the DRC. These include offenders who are charged with a violent crime, a weapons offense, or

[4] This section is mostly based on the Douglas County DRC procedure manual (2001), interviews with the DRC staff, and other miscellaneous documentation (e.g., communication letters with the Douglas County Department of Corrections).

manufacture of a controlled substance. Other who are ineligible include offenders on hold by another governmental agency and offenders who were convicted of a violent crime, a weapon offense, or delivery of a controlled substance within the preceding three years. Defendants with a bond in excess of $500,000 are also ineligible.

Offenders are required to fulfill specific requirements for participation in the DRC. First, they must have an approved residence with a working phone. Second, if not approved for the DRC with an electronic monitor, they must agree to be housed at work release and to attend all DRC programming. Third, they must agree to comply with the terms of the client contact. Fourth, they must have an adequate support system. Fifth, they must agree to participate in programming. Sixth, they must agree to random drug testing and pay for the drug screen. Seventh, they must be able to provide their own transportation to and from DRC. Eighth, they must agree to any other conditions outlined in the client contract. In addition, the most clients have been placed at the work release residential program instead of in the community with electronic monitoring devices. The DRC in Douglas County is utilized as a variation from the original model of DRCs. Practically, the DRC have been operated as one of the work release residential programs. As discussed in the previous sub-section, legally the DRC can be considered as one of the house arrest programs.

Program staff take both the offender's financial situation and the need to protect the community into consideration in determining eligibility for the DRC. By requiring the clients to pay for their program participation (electronic monitoring and programming: $3 daily fee) and drug screening fees ($9), they seek to maximize cost-effectiveness in the operation of the DRC. On the other hand, they do not want to compromise community protection with cost saving for the jail operation. Therefore, the risks assessment at the intake process includes a comprehensive review of the

client's criminal history, institutional records, and other risk factors. As mentioned above, only drug/alcohol and property related offenders, not violent offenders, can be admitted. The majority of DRC participants are arrested for traffic-related crime, possession of a controlled substance, or driving under the influence (DUI). The other most frequent charges involve crimes against property such as burglary, theft, and shoplifting. Consistent with the DRC's entry requirements, there are no participants who had been arrested for a crime against a person.

Offenders are required to report physically every day that the DRC is open and to submit a weekly itinerary to the program manager for their next week's activities. Offenders are only allowed to leave their residence for specific purposes under an officer's approval. Weekly itineraries function not only as suppressors to inhibit offenders' recidivism but also as facilitators in training offenders to be productive citizens. Preparing itineraries in advance provides offenders with a psychological burden to follow their schedule, which, in turn, trains offenders to be held accountable for their behavior. They are also required to be monitored electronically. This "piling up" surveillance is designed to secure the safety of communities and to ensure the offender's appearance in court. If offenders fail a drug test, fail to comply with the rules of the programs, or escape, they are terminated from the DRC.

According to the DRC procedure manual (2001), the program has adopted *a three-phase system,* the goal of which is to motivate clients for rehabilitation. There are three distinctive stages, based on an offender's developmental nature. The first stage, *orientation,* occurs during the first three weeks of the program. This stage provides more control-oriented service than any other stage. Accordingly, the client's activities are strictly restricted except for participation in the DRC program. During this initial phase, the client is given a general orientation to the DRC. S/He also is

subjected to random drug tests. Offenders are required to complete a 24-hour itinerary and, with electronic monitoring, physically report to the DRC Monday through Friday from 9am to 5pm. The second phase, *intensive programming*, lasts four weeks. The DRC focuses more on treatment-oriented service by providing more intensive treatments as well as structured controls. At this stage, offenders begin to participate in self-help groups such as Alcoholics Anonymous (AA), Narcotics Anonymous (NA), Cocaine Anonymous (CA), or Methamphetamine Anonymous (MA). They are subject to less restrictive control than during the first stage; they are allowed to get part-time jobs and to travel to designated grocery stores, laundries, or churches. They continue to be subject to random drug testing. They also begin to perform a mandatory 10 hours of community service as community restitution. The third phase, *community reintegration,* starts once required classes during phase two have been completed and lasts until the sentence is completed. The offenders prepare for reintegration into the community in this period. They look for full-time employment and continue working on educational goals (e.g., General Equivalency Diploma). However, they are still required to complete a 24-hour itinerary, participate in DRC three times per week, and submit to random drug testing.

Typically, an offender will progress from one stage to the next based on the length of time s/he has been in the DRC. The program manager determines whether the offender will move to the next phase by evaluating the offender's institutional behavior. In order to motivate offenders for rehabilitation, it is necessary to introduce a task-oriented phase system, rather than a system based simply on the time served. If the offenders successfully participate in the program curriculum and complete the requirements of the programs, they can quickly progress into the next phases. This task-oriented phase system will increase an offender's accountability consistent with

the freedom offered. The three-phase system based on the task-oriented program is designed to contribute to offenders' reintegration into a community by training the offenders to be productive community members.

Communication with Pretrial Release Division at the Intake Process

The DRC usually communicates with the pretrial release division during the intake process. The pretrial release division conducts the risks/needs assessment for the DRC's clients. Decisions at the intake process are substantially influenced by informal communications between the pretrial release manager and the DRC manager, as well as by the formal process.

The process of placing offenders in the DRC can be classified into seven steps. The first step is *the application for entrance into the DRC.* If offenders in the jail want to apply for the DRC, they must submit a request to correctional officers for an interview with a DRC staff member. After screening out inappropriate offenders, correctional officers send qualified offenders' interview requests to the DRC. The second step is *initial screening.* The DRC manager reviews an offender's current charges, criminal history, and other risks/needs factors to determine eligibility for the DRC. The third step is *re-examination.* Those requests approved by the DRC manager are transferred to the pretrial release division. Part-time student employees from Creighton University Law School do risks/needs assessments based on individual and case characteristics to confirm the prior risks/needs process. The fourth step is *comprehensive reexamination.* Re-examined information goes to the manager in charge of the pretrial release division. He investigates criminal histories through the NCIC (National Crime Information Center)[5] information system as a comprehensive

[5] NCIC is operated by the Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI) and, as a computerized index of

screening and double checking process. Before finally deciding whether the client is eligible for the DRC, the manager also considers a judge's previous decisions to check whether he can get a judge's approval on his decision. Every judge in Douglas County has a different sensitivity and responsiveness to the different types of crime or criminals. The fifth step involves *the final internal decision.* The DRC manager functions as a final decision maker in the DRC. She determines whether the offenders are admitted into the DRC through a final internal decision making process. The sixth step involves *the client interview.* A part-time student employee conducts an interview with the client using a relevant questionnaire and fills out a day reporting order. The seventh step is *the judicial decision.* If the pretrial release manager submits all relevant documentation, the judge then decides whether the offender is released on the condition of the DRC participation or stays in jail during the trial. In the case of sentenced offenders, placement at the DRC requires a sentencing judge's approval.

-Figure 3 about here-

Communications with House Arrest Division During the Surveillance Process

The DRC's clients are also required to be monitored electronically. The house arrest officers monitor and track the DRC's clients as well as the house arrest clients. The house arrest program utilizes a passive monitoring system. A computer program is used to call the offender randomly during the hours designated for home confinement, except for special or imminent situations such as work, hospitalization, or other reasonable cases. The client is hooked up with an anklet as a verifier to confirm his presence in the residence. If clients need to change their schedules or leave the designated areas, they call the officers and ask permission by explaining

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criminal histories and other crime information, provides federal, state, and local law enforcement and other criminal justice agencies with state-wide information about crimes and criminals (FBI, 2004).

their situation. For example, if a client needs to go to hospital, the officer checks out the information and calls the doctor to confirm the client's truthfulness.

The house arrest program consists of four officers. In addition to electronic monitoring, officers are assigned to visit the houses of the clients randomly, visiting around 10 houses every day. Each officer's district is divided into four geographic areas: northeast, northwest, southeast, and southwest. The house arrest program in Douglas County reinforces community protection by increasing the number of officers supervising the offender. The DRC thus develops a structured surveillance mechanism in combination with house arrest's strengthened control functions. This system might reflect public attitudes toward community protection and cost-effectiveness. Finally, the Douglas County Department of Corrections seeks to maximize cost effectiveness and work effectiveness in the operation of correctional organization through sharing staff, programs, and other resources with each program in the community correctional center.

Communications with Work Release Division at the Alternative/Emergency Process

The Douglas County Department of Corrections operates a work release program to help reintegrate offenders into the community as well as to reduce jail overcrowding. In addition, they seek cost-effective alternatives to incarceration. They save costs by requiring the offenders to pay a daily fee of $12 for staying in the work release program. This facility has a housing capacity of 100. A 75-bed unit exits for the males while a 25-bed unit is available for the females. Both units are located in separate areas of the same facility.

The DRC shares part of the work release staff and resources to control the DRC's clients. There are two areas of cooperation between the DRC and the work release division. First, as an *alternative to electronic monitoring,* DRC approved offenders who refuse to be subjected to electronic monitoring can stay at the work release residential program instead of in the community with electronic monitoring devices. At night, they follow the work release officer's control and order, while during the day they participate in all required programming of the DRC. Second, *during movement/emergency after 5pm or on weekends,* when the DRC staff are off work, work release officers are considered DRC staff and their requests to offenders are considered direct and official orders.

Communications with the community

The DRC provides intensive treatment for offender rehabilitation as well as highly structured surveillance. In order to meet these rehabilitative components of the DRC, a facility and program designed to meet the treatment needs of the clients are required. However, limited budgets and resources hinder the development of a facility that can provide comprehensive program services and the training of staff who can serve offenders effectively. So, it is imperative to operate the DRC and also provide program services in a cost-effective way through utilizing community resources.

Today, program services offered in the DRC are provided by the staff of the Douglas County of Department of Corrections or through community resources (e.g., Catholic Charities, Child Saving Institution, Heartland Family Service, and Salvation Army). These treatments and services are usually provided on site. The most important thing is that the outsourcing staff plays a critical role as a link to connect individuals with community resources for a continuum of care even after the clients'

release, as well as a facilitator in helping the clients' reintegration during their sentence.

Program services can be classified into three groups: life skills education, alcohol/other substance abuse education, and specific individual treatment. First, life skills treatments provide offenders with various legitimate means to live a productive life as an independent entity. They focus on providing educational opportunities through which the offenders can obtain legitimate life skills. The types of life skills treatments provided in the DRC are reactive behaviors, cognitive thinking, General Equivalency Diploma (GED), stress management, HIV education, parenting, domestic violence therapy, relationship skills, and social skills. Second, alcohol/other substance abuse treatments provide general education for the offenders. These substance abuse education programs include chemical dependency, addictions, and relapse prevention classes. Third, specific individual treatments provide offenders with more personalized treatments. Program staff diagnose the offenders' special needs for treatment through an evaluation. Offenders then receive individual therapies at an on-site facility. In contrast to the other education classes, individual therapies are provided as face-to-face counseling between a therapist and an offender.

In addition to the regular classes, clients also participate in self-help groups such as Alcoholic Anonymous (AA), Narcotics Anonymous (NA), Cocaine Anonymous (CA), and Methamphetamine Anonymous (MA). Under the guidance of instructors, clients are required to participate actively in these meetings to solve their substance abuse problems.

Risks/Needs Assessment of Douglas County Community Programs

The Pretrial Release Division has different risk assessment systems for DRC

clients, as compared to the pretrial release clients who are bonded out or released on their own recognizance (ROR). During the risks/needs assessment, the pretrial release staff check an offender's risks/needs level and determine whether the offender is an appropriate client for the DRC. This decision is usually based on risk factors, rather than need factors, because the DRC in Douglas County focuses more on pretrial releases than on sentenced offenders. Thus, they do not want to compromise community protection with other correctional objectives. Guaranteeing the offenders' presence at trial, while also keeping them from committing new crimes, might be the most important considerations in the process of risks/needs assessment. The operation of risks/needs assessment is conducted by a points system with a scale beginning at zero. The more risk factors offenders have, the more positive points they have.

Risks/needs assessment can be classified into four categories. The first category is *age*. The crime and age curve shows that crime rates increase gradually during childhood, increase strikingly during adolescence, peak out in the late teens or early twenties, and then steadily decrease throughout the life course (Vold et al, 1998). Age also plays an important role as an index predicting a client's appearance in court. If the clients are under 22, they will earn four points. If they are over 22, they will just get one point. The second category is *sex*. Sex also functions as an index to predict the client's appearance in court. Females usually have tighter bonds with the family, school, and community (Alarid et al., 2000; Huebner and Betts, 2002). Women's strong attachment to such a social network can be attributed to socialization processes through informal social control, rather than to any innate trait of women (Miller, 1991). So, female clients get a deduction of one point from their risk scale. In contrast, if they are male, they do not have any deduction in the risk assessment. The third category involves *community ties*. The stability of residence can be an appropriate

index for assuring the offender's presence at trial. If offenders have no stable housing they are less likely to appear in court. As seen in the Risk Assessment Scale Form, the length of stay in a community (e.g., Omaha, Douglas County etc.) can be an indirect index for measuring community ties because a stable residence increases the informal social ties within the neighborhood and community. So, if an offender has lived in Omaha for less than five months, he/she will earn five points. The fourth category entails *other criminogenic factor*s: a prison term within the last 12 years; house arrest or work release revoke within last three years; behavioral problems in jail; board of mental health warrants; other warrants; felony violent, sexual or threat charges/convictions; all other misdemeanor charges/convictions. The seriousness of prior crimes plays an important role in the risks/needs assessment. Current offenses are not included in this risk assessment because they are considered and screened out during the application process for the DRC in the jail. Therefore, risk points differ according to the type and seriousness of the prior offense. Overall, points assigned to offenses are grouped into four categories: violent offenses, sexual offenses, threat, and other general offenses. For example, an offender who committed violent crimes will receive more risk points as opposed to any other group. In addition, the pretrial release staff distinguish charges from convictions and assign risk points differently. For example, if the offenders were convicted of prior offenses, they will get roughly double the points as charges that did not result in convictions.

Finally, through these processes, if the risk points exceed 75, the offenders are not eligible for the DRC. If the risk points fall in the range between 0 and 75, they will be eligible for the DRC and move to the next steps for the admission into the DRC. Risks/needs assessment in the Douglas County Department of Corrections does not include many indices for identifying an offender's treatment needs, so they focus

more on risk factors than on need factors. In addition, risks/needs management is also used to detect an offender's changes through periodic diagnoses. Appropriate treatments provided by the periodic diagnoses will be more sensitive and responsive to their changes and accordingly will be more effective for the offender's reintegration. Conducting risks/needs management allows staff to identify the criminality of a client precisely, and provide appropriate treatment for them to reduce identified risk factors through effective individual based treatments.

THEORETICAL PERSPECIVES

Developmental Theory as an Interdisciplinary and Problem-solving Theoretical Perspective

"Developmental Applications to the DRC's clients"

Human beings are constantly changing. Therefore, we can not fully explain the way in which criminal behavior changes over time by the traditional cross-sectional theories (Sampson and Laub, 1993). In addition, in terms of criminal policies, traditional theories only focusing on formal social control (e.g., arrest and imprisonment) are not enough to respond to crimes drawn from complicated and complex factors (e.g., biological, psychological, sociological factors, or interactions among these factors) (Sampson and Laub, 1993). It is necessary to develop the best theoretical perspectives to understand the nature of crime and prevent crimes for the DRC's clients.

Traditional theories have tried to explain the nature of crimes and criminals by their own disciplinary theoretical perspectives such as biological, psychological, and sociological forces. However, each of these variables might only be sufficient causes[6]

[6] According to Henry and Milovanovic (1996:125).Generally causality of events can be defined thus:

of crime, not necessary causes. Moreover, the sequence between causes (i.e., criminogenic factors) and events (i.e., crimes) can be explained by dialectical causality[7], as opposed to simple linear causality. Vila (1994) stated that biological, psychological, and sociological factors (i.e., causes) have reciprocal relationships with crimes (i.e., events) in the production of crimes and criminals. The interactions of these variables work by mediation of process variables. The effect of process variables varies according to the immediate situation in spite of the same individual characteristics and structural backgrounds. It is necessary to study process variables, which are very changeable or unpredictable according to the immediate situation in depth. Process variables will be discussed in greater detail from the psychological perspectives.

Vila (1994:315) also suggested the need for a model of synthesis that not only "has its roots in the 'interdiscipline' of evolutionary ecology, but also uses a problem-oriented, rather than a discipline-oriented, approach to understanding criminal behavior." Theory should work towards a problem-oriented approach by transforming the explanatory frame of each discipline into more flexible frameworks in order to understand and explain the nature of crimes, rather than trying to explain crime and criminal behavior only through their discipline's explanatory frame. Consequently, it is imperative to introduce the developmental theory as an interdisciplinary and

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"the basic notion of causality is expressed by the idea of independent cause in which an event A produced an event B, such that either B cannot occur without A (in which case A is a necessary cause) or B will be produced by A but can also occur without it (in which case A is a sufficient cause)."

[7] Einstadter and Henry (1995) tried to explain the sequence of causes and crimes in the construction of crimes and suggested four types of causality between criminogenic factors and crimes: linear, multiple, interactive, and dialectical causality. First, linear/interdependent causality refers to a "sequential chain in which each subsequent occurrence of an event produces the conditions for the next event, until the final criminal event occurs" (Henry and Milovanovic, 1996:125). Second, multiple causality refer to the idea that any one cause or two or more causes simultaneously can influence the occurrence of crimes, but, unlike the linear causality, these variables do not require the sequence of events. Third, interactive/reciprocal causality can be defined by "vicious circle" of events. This causality involves reciprocity between one cause and one result. Fourth, Dialectical/codetermination causality refers to relationships between several causes and results. In an interactive or dialectical causality, causes and outcome form a reciprocal relationship, not unilateral impacts from causes to outcomes.

problem-solving theoretical perspective, which can explain the dynamic relations of all factors in the making of crimes.

Three distinctive components, presented by developmental theorists, will be discussed in relation to the DRC's clients. First, developmental theory tries to combine all three theoretical perspectives (i.e., biological[8], psychological[9], and sociological[10] theories) to explain the nature of crimes. Each of these theories has its own explanations for a variety of crimes, but as a general theory, none is adequate to explain all crimes. Delinquent behaviors are influenced by various biological, psychological, or structural factors (Sampson and Laub, 1993). These factors have an indirect effect on crime through which process variables mediate the effects of individual characteristics and structural backgrounds (Sampson and Laub, 1993). In

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[8] Biological theorists reveal the relationships between the crime and biological factors through making an advance in genetics, brain functioning, neurology, and biochemistry, rather than simply speculating over the individual's biological makeup (Akers and Seller, 2004). In terms of many current studies of biology and its relation to crime, biological factors provoke criminal behaviors by interacting with psychological and sociological variables (Rowe, 2002; Walsh, 2000).

[9] Psychological theories state that antisocial behaviors are caused by abnormal emotional adjustment in early childhood socialization (Barak, 1998). In addition, they assume that there exists a high level of stability or consistency in antisocial behaviors across the individual life and in turn this antisocial tendency in adulthood can play a role in creating an antisocial environment for their children through the cumulative continuity of disadvantages (Barak, 1998).

[10] Sociological theories seek the cause of crimes in social factors which have an external effect on the individuals. Sociological theories can be grouped into three theoretical frameworks (Barak, 1998): First, crime and social organization, which assumes that consensus about society's norms contributes to social integration, while conflict about norms leads society to be disorganized (Barak, 1998). In turn, a disorganized or anomic environment is conducive to antisocial behaviors, while an organized or integrated environment leads to conformity of the individual (Barak, 1998). These theories consider ecological factors such as industrialization, urbanization, and rapid social changes as a causality of crime (Vold et al., 1998). These factors contribute to the occurrence of crime through undermining of the social consensus which supports traditional values and norms (Vold et al., 1998); Second, crime and social process, which states that the individuals learn antisocial behaviors by interacting with others (Barak, 1998). In order words, crimes are the result of social interaction with others over the individual's life course. Criminal behaviors are one of the behavior patterns with which the offender reacts through interacting with one another in the context of the social environment. It is a part of the psychological disciplinary perspectives. Third, crime and social structure, which argues that societies are based on a conflict of values among groups, unlike other theories which argue that societies are based on a consensus of members (Barak, 1998). These theories try to account for such structural variables as social class, sex, and power, contrary to social organization theories emphasizing ecological characteristics of society. They attempt to answer the question "Why do we have crime?" to explain the origin or the subjectivity of law. Crimes refer to the values and interests of groups that do not have power to control the society, while laws represent the value and interests of groups that have power to control the society (Vold et al., 1998). Consequently there are inverse relationships between power and crime (Vold et al., 1998). The people who do not have power to control the society are more likely to commit crimes or to be defined as criminals.

addition, these various causal factors have bidirectional effects on antisocial behavior as follows (Thornberry et al., 1991:30):

> "The initially weak bonds lead to high delinquency involvement, the high delinquency involvement further weakens the conventional bonds, and in combination both of these effects make it extremely difficult to reestablish bonds to conventional society at later ages. As a result, all of the factors tend to reinforce one another over time to produce an extremely high probability of continued deviance."

Traditional theories assume that individual or sociological backgrounds contribute to crime in the same way across the life course (Vold et al. 1998). In contrast, developmental theory assumes that these factors influence the offenders differently at each stage of life. For instance, some factors (e.g., biological, psychological, social factors or interaction effects among those factors) influence the onset of delinquent behavior in adolescence, while other factors (e.g., biological, psychological, social factors or interaction effects among those factors) influence the frequency of criminal behaviors in adolescence or the continuity of criminal behaviors in adulthood (Vold et al., 1998). The question what factors influence the onset of delinquency or the continuity of criminal behaviors can arise. It is not possible and meaningless to distinguish those factors because it is extremely different depending on an individual and situational context. For example, biological (e.g., mental deficiency, hormones, etc.,), psychological (e.g., antisocial personality disorder, impulsivity, etc.,), or social factors (e.g., families, peers, poverty, etc.,) have an effect not only on the onset of delinquency but also simultaneously on the continuity of criminality. In essence, different variables influence offenders' criminality at various stages in their lives (Vold et al., 1998). The effects of these variables are also changeable through interaction with other internal or external variables.

For the DRC's clients, it is necessary to approach offenders using interdisciplinary treatments, not one specific treatment based on a disciplined-oriented perspective (e.g., biological, psychological, or sociological theories). Depending on the client's age, the DRC might reinforce offender's social bonds to different conventional institutions (e.g., education, family, marriage, peer, etc.). For example, the DRC would take parents' traits, disruption of the family, and poor education into account in reintegrating very young offenders into the community. On the other hand, reinforcement of employment, marriage, and parenthood would be important for adult offenders' reintegration.

A second component of developmental theory is the continuity of antisocial behavior across the individual life course (Sampson and Laub, 1993). The offender's criminality is very stable from childhood to adulthood as a result of the effects of interactional or cumulative continuity. Antisocial behavior weakens the social ties to conventionality and, in turn, these weakened social ties lead to more serious criminal behavior (Vold et al., 1998). This stability or continuity is independent of social structural variables such as social class, family, and school (Vold et al., 1998). However, the occurrence and strength of this stability might reflect an offender's social demographic backgrounds, such as social capital.

This stability in delinquent behavior is supported by empirical research (Sampson and Laub, 1993). Gottfredson and Hirschi (1990) noted that delinquency and criminality are likely to be stable over life, and early delinquency and a lack of self control play key roles as causes of crimes in adulthood. Moreover, Robins (1978:611) concluded that "adult antisocial behavior virtually requires childhood antisocial behavior." More specifically, Thornberry and his colleagues (1991) suggested that antisocial behavior in childhood influences current behavior directly as

well as having an indirect effect on criminal behavior through process variables.

Unlike the second assumption, the third important concept of the developmental theory is an offender's change from an anti-social trajectory to a pro-social trajectory or vice versa. In 1972, Wolfgang et al. traced the criminal histories of 10,000 Philadelphia juveniles from birth to age 18. They found that crimes committed by youths were not evenly distributed in the sample. Only one third of the juveniles committed one crime or more (Wolfgang et al., 1972). Moreover, one sixth of the delinquents were responsible for more than half of all crimes committed by all delinquents in the sample (Wolfgang et al., 1972). Those chronic offenders can be explained by the age and crime curve.

The age and crime curve refers to the fact that crime rates increase gradually during childhood, increase strikingly during adolescence, peak out in the late teens or early twenties, and then steadily decrease throughout the life course (Vold et al, 1998). Traditional theories argued that the declining number of crimes committed by career criminals after roughly age 20 was due to decreases in the crime frequency of each offender as offenders grow older. The number of offenders who commit crimes, in other words, remained the same. On the other hand, in terms of the developmental theoretical perspective, the declining number of crimes after reaching adulthood is explained by the assumption that the overall number of offenders decrease while a small portion of the offenders still commit crimes at a high rate (Vold et al., 1998).

Gove (1985:123) stated that juvenile delinquents do not usually become adult criminals later. The question thus arises as to why they desist from their antisocial behaviors. Gottfredson and Hirschi (1988)'s theoretical perspective argued that experiences such as marriage, job, and parenthood do not significantly influence criminal behavior in adulthood; rather, crime rates decrease as offenders grow older.

In contrast, developmental theories stated that the socialization of the individual in adulthood has a substantial impact on criminality, rather than simply aging causing the decrease in crime rates (Sampson and Laub, 1993). So, the developmental theory can account for a career criminal's desistance from crimes by the occurrence of life events. This developmental theoretical perspective has critically important policy implications for the DRC's clients because it implies that career criminals can be changed by life events. This suggests that it would be important to provide career criminals, who are strongly committed to unconventional social values, with "turning points" through participating in the DRC.

Developmental theorists contend that the introduction of changes called "turning points" can account for the desistance from crime. They emphasize the importance of an informal social bond to the normative society to change the offender into a law-abiding citizen, rather than formal social control mechanisms (e.g., arrest, imprisonment, etc). The informal social bonds are developed through social relationships with other individuals and social institutions (Sampson and Laub, 1993). For example, if the social bond to normative society strengthens as the individual grows older, criminal behaviors are more likely to be reduced over the life course. In contrast, if the social bond to society is weakened, it will cause more frequent or more serious crimes.

Most control theories state that juveniles who are more closely attached to their parents or friends, regardless of their criminality, are less likely to commit crimes. However, developmental theory emphasizes the quality of social bonds as an important predictor of antisocial behaviors. Thus, this theory states that the conventionality of the subjects to which the youth is bonded plays an important role in the desistance from crime as well as its onset. If the objects of attachment are

criminals, even though individuals are closely attached to parents or friends, attachment can not reduce or eliminate criminalities that are relatively stable in their life course. Therefore, Loeber and Le Blanc (1990) argued that the quality of social bonds is more important than the simple occurrence of social ties. An important factor in forming quality social bonds is closeness, which is characterized by obligations and expectations, among productive people (Sampson and Laub, 1993).

These informal social bonds can be called "social capital" or "social investment" (Sampson and Laub, 1993). Social capital is built by quality social relationships, such as parent/child, teacher/student, and employer/employee (Vold et al., 1998). Regardless of the stability of antisocial behaviors, increasing social ties during adulthood reduces individual criminality that is established in childhood (Vold et al., 1998).

"Social support", proposed by Colvin and colleagues (2002), might be consistent with "social capital" because this social support is built upon positive networks of human relations. They also emphasized the importance of quality social support. As mentioned above, both social capital and social support pay much attention to psychological communication (e.g., obligation and expectation) among persons.

Cumulative continuity of disadvantages (e.g., poverty and a lack of education) or cumulative continuity of social capital (e.g., marriage and employment) has differential effects on criminality by interacting with race and social status (Hagan, 1991; Jessor et al., 1991). This happens because there are extreme variations between objective realities and subjective perceptions (Rutter, 1989). The person who is in a disadvantaged racial and social position is more likely to be affected by the cumulative continuity of disadvantages and less likely to be responsive to the social

capital (Laud and Sampson, 1993). Those offenders' continuity and desistance of crimes might be applicable to the gender and age variable. Usually, young males who have weak social ties to a family, a school, and a community are more subject to cumulative continuity of disadvantages and less likely to respond to conventional social capital.

In addition, Braithwaite's (1995) reintegrative shaming theory might support those assumptions by stating that reintegrative shaming of the offender as a social response will reduce the likelihood of antisocial behavior. For example, a reintegrative response of a community to juvenile delinquents focusing on changing their values, beliefs, and behaviors will direct them into more normative trajectories by increasing informal social bonds. These changed attitudes will increase the individual's social capital among persons.

Sampson and Laub (1993) asserted that the importance of and the types of various mechanisms of informal social control vary across the life course. During childhood, social relationships with parents play a critical role, followed by the social relationship with school (Sampson and Laub, 1993). In adulthood, marriage, job, and parenthood play a primary role in defining the interpersonal social relationships of the individual (Sampson and Laub, 1993). This theory can also explain the late onset of criminal behavior in adulthood by the concept of transition from a normative trajectory to an antisocial trajectory, as well as the early onset of delinquency (Sampson and Laub, 1993). If individuals who did not display criminality during childhood are isolated from conventional values and people while aging, this weakens social capital by reducing informal social bonds. The weakened social capital in turn contributes to the onset of criminal behavior in adulthood.

In terms of the DRC's clients, the large majority of the participants have been arrested for illicit drug use and possession and public-order offenses (e.g., driving under the influence (DUI) and other traffic offenses). The next most common charge involves property related crimes, which include burglary, theft, and shoplifting.

There are two characteristic types of offenders in the DRC population: the specialist and the felony offender. First, "specialists" repeat the same crime for which they were just arrested or incarcerated (Langan and Levin, 2002:9). Among the DRC's clients, degrees of specialization differ more or less according to the types of offenses. A client who is involved in substance abuse offenses, traffic offenses, or property offenses is more likely to be a specialist. As indirect evidence, Langan and Levin (2002) found that property and drug offenders are more likely to be arrested for other same crimes rather than violent offenders do. Besides, substance abuse crimes and traffic crimes are often committed as ancillary crimes or play a role as a facilitator for main crimes. Second, the primary target of the DRC is felony offenders who are secluded from informal social bonds and who have a high- to moderate-risk to recidivate. According to Kennedy (2004:7), the intensity of treatment should be tailored to the offender's criminality. Intensive treatments are more effective for high-risk offenders rather than low-risk offenders. On the contrary, intensive programming for the low-risk offenders causes some side-effects by disrupting an offender's social bonds and, in turn, increases the risk of recidivism. Given these theoretical perspective, the DRC's structured surveillance and intensive programming might be effective in reducing the DRC clients' recidivism. The high-risk offenders among DRC clients need highly structured surveillance and intensive programming to restore their social capital. Participating in the DRC has the potential to not only enhance offenders' informal social bonds to conventionality but also to eliminate offenders'

strong anti-social bonds. Social capital or social support raised by informal social ties may provide the DRC offenders with turning points toward conventionality.

More specifically, this developmental theory can be applied to the DRC's clients who are chronic offenders with substance-abuse problems. Mazerolle (2000) stated that substance abuse behaviors will progress from minor to more serious. For example, addiction to alcohol plays a role as a catalyst towards marijuana addiction, which in turn progresses towards cocaine abuse (Yu and Williford, 1994). There is evidence that substance abuse behaviors progress through four stages: alcohol or cigarettes, marijuana, other illicit drugs, and medically prescribed drugs (Kandel, Yamaguchi, and Chen, 1992). However, these relationships between the progressive stages are not deterministic, but facilitative (Mazerolle, 2000). Therefore, marijuana users do not necessarily become more serious drug users (Akers, 1992). White and Bates (1995) argued that offenders may cease their drug use due to some life events (e.g., marriage, parenthood, and law-abiding peer relationships). Warr (1998) also confirmed that marriage and peer association have inhibitory effects on marijuana use. Thus, it is necessary to help offenders commit to pro-social bonds through providing structured surveillance and intensive treatment, as well as to help offenders discontinue the relationship with other anti-social persons.

Non-developmental theories have been unable to explain delinquency and adult criminality because they try to explain dynamic phenomena through a static viewpoint. However, developmental theory, by selecting a dynamic viewpoint concerning crime and the criminal, has increased explanatory power. These theories suggest that criminal justice agencies should develop various pathways that people can use as "turning points" out of their criminal behaviors and into a positive environment, and eventually integrate them back into the community.

Reconsidering Labeling Theory through the Developmental Theoretical Perspective

From the perspective of labeling theory, how can developmental theory be applied to the DRC's clients in Douglas County? In the Douglas County correctional system, the DRC that has been utilized as an alternative to Pretrial detention plays a substantial role in enhancing an offender's reintegration into the community by reducing the effect of stigmatization, which is drawn by incarceration or pretrial detention, on an offender's self-identity. Labeling theorists[11] emphasize the societal reaction, especially official labeling processing, to the criminal through symbolic interactions, which produce a negative self-identity (Vold et al., 1998). They also explain the continuity and desistance of criminal behavior through the changes in social reactions to individuals over the life course (Vold et al., 1998).

However, labeling theory has been criticized on several grounds. First, it is argued that this theory overlooks the role of informal labeling by overemphasizing the importance of formal labeling (Vold et al., 1998). Developmental theory emphasizes the role of the informal social control process by introducing the concept of process variables such as the labeling of a peer, parent, and school, which traditional labeling theory ignored. Labeling theory has also been criticized for its failure to consider the initial acts of criminality generated by biological, psychological, and sociological factors (Akers and Sellers, 2002). In contrast, developmental theory acknowledges the contributions of all factors over the continuity and desistance of criminal behaviors, as well as cumulative or interactive effects among these factors.

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[11] According to Lemert (1951), two distinctive processes are classified in the production of crimes. First, primary deviance refers to the initial acts of criminality. He asserted that almost everyone commits primary deviance by biological, psychological, or social factors, but he did not explain the cause of crimes because he considers it temporary events. Second, the redefinition of self by social reactions allows the offenders to commit to the career criminal course. An offender's negative self identity plays a more important role in generating criminal behaviors than biological, psychological, and social factors.

Consequently, developmental theory has power to explain the labeling of offenders through process variables. Process variables discussed in the developmental theory might correspond to symbolic interactions in the labeling theory. Process variables function as a mediator between individual and structural variables, as symbolic interactions have the same function in the labeling theory. "Disintegrative shaming"[12] of offenders by formal or informal control agencies has a negative impact on an offender's self-identity, which in turn reinforces their criminality. This "vicious circle" in combination with other biological, psychological, and sociological variables creates a chronic criminal who is responsible for a substantial portion of all crimes committed by all offenders. Being involved with a DRC as a condition of pretrial release thus has the potential to prevent labeling effects (e.g., disintegrative shaming) through minimizing an offender's involvement in the formal process; participating in the DRC also has the potential to reduce informal deviant labeling. In addition, the intensive programming found in the DRC may contribute to a decrease in individual risk factors and enhance an offender's protective factors in order to prevent the offender from becoming a career criminal.

Cost-Effectiveness as a Constraint Rationale

As demonstrated in the previous sections, there are a number of reasons to expect that the DRC could be an effective alternative to incarceration. There are other advantages of the DRC. For example, the DRC as a diversion program also contributes to the cost-effectiveness of the Douglas County Department of Corrections, which has been struggling to cope with a lack of capital and other

[12] According to Braithwaite (1995), reintegrative shaming theory refers to punishment and other social reactions to the offenders which should create genuine remorse and accountability of the offenders in the community, and allow them to be reintegrated into the community. On the other hand, disintegrative shaming shaped by negative social reactions only increases recidivism through influencing the offender's self-images.

resources. In response to these problems, cost-effectiveness is introduced as a new rationale in the criminal justice system. This cost-effectiveness factor plays an important role as a constraint rationale in achieving other correctional goals (e.g., deterrence, incapacitation, rehabilitation, reintegration, retribution). In other words, the rationale of cost-effectiveness functions as a financial restriction in fulfilling other correctional goals.

As an intermediate sanction, the DRCs are expected to manage or control offenders at a low cost, while ensuring other goals of punishment (McCarthy and McCarthy, Jr., 1997). Apparently, even though community-based corrections seem to be more cost-effective than incarceration, it is difficult to determine whether intermediate sanctions really provide more cost savings than imprisonment (McCarthy and McCarthy, Jr., 1997). The matter of cost-effectiveness is interwoven with other problems such as program policies, target population, and revocation rates. Therefore, it still remains to be seen whether intermediate sanctions are more cost-effective than incarceration (McCarthy and McCarthy, Jr., 1997).

McCarthy and McCarthy, Jr. (1997: 6) suggest three criteria to be useful in assessing the cost effectiveness of intermediate sanctions. The first consideration, which is related to the problem of "net-widening" discussed earlier, is *normative sanctions and programs*. This criterion considers the dispositions (e.g., incarceration, probation, etc.) normally received by offenders currently being placed in community-based corrections. If intermediate sanctions are utilized for offenders who otherwise would have gone to prison or jail, it will be conducive to the goal of cost-effectiveness. On the other hand, if intermediate sanctions are used for offenders who otherwise would be sentenced to probation, they will not result in cost savings in the criminal justice system.

The second consideration involves *external costs and savings.* This criterion considers all the potential costs or benefits accompanying intermediate sanctions when comparing the cost-effectiveness of incarceration and intermediate sanctions. Community-based corrections might save the costs of social welfare such as child care and Social Security through maintaining parents in the community. On the other hand, community programs without a process for identifying appropriate clients are more likely to put a community in danger and increase overall costs due to new crimes being committed by offenders.

The third consideration focuses on the *marginal costs of incarceration.* In order to reduce the costs of imprisonment, it should be assumed that prison and jail space that is vacated through the placement of an offender in community-based corrections might not be occupied by other offenders. If dispositions of offenders in the community programs do not make an empty bed in the prison or jail, there is no cost savings by using community-based corrections. For example, a study of King County Seattle jails (Broom et al., 2003) identified four primary cost drivers. The first factor involved growth in the inmate population. The second factor involved *the Hammer settlement* between King County and the American Civil Liberties Union which specifies staffing levels and operational practices in the jail. The third factor involved facility designs which demand higher staff- to- inmate ratios. The fourth factor involved fast-rising costs for jail health services. This study revealed that cost-effectiveness is determined by numerous factors, as mentioned above. Staffing patterns, operational practices, facility design, and policy decisions sometimes create inefficiencies and function to drive costs up (Broom et al., 2003). Consequently, even though the operation of community-based corrections provides some empty beds in the jail, this might not be directly transferred to cost savings because the jail may have

to keep the same security staffing levels for the security of the inmates (Broom et al., 2003).

In addition to McCarthy and McCarthy, Jr.'s (1997) three criteria of cost-effectiveness, three practical factors in the operation of DRCs may have a substantial impact, either positively or negatively, on cost savings. The first factor is *revocation rates of a program.* High revocation rates in the DRC undermine the goal of cost-effectiveness because offenders are sent back to jail when they break a rule of the program (Marciniak, 1999). The second factor is *an offender's payment of operational fees.* Some of the DRC programs require the offenders to pay daily fees for participation in the program. The payment of the operational fees helps alleviate the budgetary problems that criminal justice systems have faced. The third factor involves *outsourcing programs from the community.* The DRCs seek to utilize community resources for offender treatments on- or off- site. This factor also plays an important role in relieving the tightened budget of the DRC.

As discussed above, when considering the cost-effectiveness of the DRC, it is necessary to take into account all factors that are related to the operation of the program. Finally, in order to obtain the desired result of a cost-effective organization, it is also necessary to eliminate other factors that operate to increase the costs of the DRC.

PREVIOUS RESEARCH

There is relatively little empirical research evaluating the effectiveness of the DRC, which has been developed only recently (Craddock and Graham, 2001:82). Since the first DRCs began operating in Connecticut and Massachusetts in 1985, the number of DRCs has grown rapidly (Parent and Corbett, 1996). Approximately, 114

DRC's had been operational by 1994 (Parent et al., 1995). However, not enough time has elapsed to evaluate their effectiveness. At the same time, there are also other practical constraints, such as poor record management and a lack of resources, augmenting difficulties in evaluating the program.

There are two characteristics of the DRCs that are operational in the U.S. (Parent et al., 1995). First, most of the programs are operated by local correctional agencies or by private agencies. Second, there are jurisdictional differences among the DRCs in such things as program goals, target population, and services offered. In terms of the target population, the main clients of the DRC are usually alcohol or drug users; this reflects the fact that the DRCs provide structured controls and intensive treatments (Parent et al., 1995). In spite of the DRCs' diversity, all DRCs have common conditions for clients who participate in the program. Clients submit daily itineraries to a program manager, participate in the DRC for receiving treatment services offered everyday or on a regular basis, adhere to curfews, are subject to random drug tests, and attend school or work (Roy, 2002). Some offenders are required to participate in community services and/or victim restitution as conditions of DRC participation (Roy, 2002). In addition, offenders are subject to electronic monitoring as a condition of DRC participation in some Massachusetts programs (Craddock and Graham, 2001).

Previous evaluations have discussed the types of programming that were operational in the DRCs. According to Parent and his colleagues (1995), program services provided in the DRCs differ depending on the locations of service and the types of funding. The most common program services offered by the DRC are job seeking skills, drug abuse education, group counseling, job placement services, education, drug treatment, life skills training, individual counseling, transitional

housing, and recreation and leisure (Parent et al., 1995).

There are no consistent results showing the DRC's intensive treatment programming reduces recidivism. There is, however, indirect evidence: during probation, offenders who receive treatment services as well as structured surveillance are less likely to recidivate than those who only receive structured surveillance without treatments (Petersilia and Turner, 1990). On the other hand, Marciniak (2000) stated in her study that the addition of day reporting to intensive supervision probation did not reduce offenders' recidivism rates; she attributed this to the fact that the combined controls by both officers exposed offenders to heightened supervision. This resulted in higher termination or recidivism rates. Therefore, these strengthened supervisions counterbalanced the effect of the DRC's intensive treatments (Marciniak, 2000).

It is difficult to determine which programs individually had a more positive effect on offender reintegration into communities. Therefore, advanced statistical analysis is necessary to see how the programs effect the offender's criminogenic characteristics. As alternative indices, other evaluations of community-based corrections play instructive roles for speculating about the effects of the DRC programs (Craddock and Graham, 2001). As seen in Table 2, research cited by Latessa and Allen (2003:512-513) identified effective and ineffective types of programs for substance abusing offenders. They found similar findings from the research on other offender types (Latessa and Allen, 2003:512).

-Table 2 about here-

Four distinctive policy implications can be inferred from the information presented in Table 2. First, the table shows that relapse prevention is effective for drug offenders. It is very hard to transform an offender who has an antisocial personality

into a productive citizen because antisocial personality is highly stable across the individual life. Therefore, for short period treatment of the DRC, it is better to train the offenders to avoid the situations that drive them to commit crimes rather than to seek to eliminate their antisocial personality all at once. Second, directive counseling is more effective than non-directive counseling for drug offenders. In cases of drug offenders, a counselor needs to take the initiative in the treatment rather than listening to the offender's problems passively. The counselor helps the offender recognize what creates problems for him, so offenders can discover solutions by themselves. Third, it is necessary to develop treatments according to the offender's cognitive development. If the treatments do not correspond to the offender's cognitive ability, they can not respond and follow those treatments. Fourth, self-help meetings do not work. Like directive counseling, an instructor's direct guidance is necessary to direct offenders in the meetings.

Some studies have investigated the DRC clients' "exit status," which refers to whether they successfully completed the DRC programs. The graduation rates of the clients vary from 13.5 percent to 84 percent depending on jurisdiction (Roy, 2002). As indicated in Table 3, previous studies cited by Roy (2002:46) show that it is impossible to simply compare the graduation rates of each DRC because the graduation rates vary dramatically from one agency to another.

-Table 3 about here-

Graduation rates are influenced by various factors such as program goals, target selection, program quality, and staff turnover. These factors vary in the context of agencies' organizational or community culture. For example, according to Marciniak (1999), the lower graduation rates (13.5%) in the southeastern North Carolina DRC can be accounted for by three program characteristics. The first is the length of the

program. The 12-month sentence in this DRC is long compared to other DRCs. The longer the clients are involved in the program, the more they are likely to be terminated from the program. This occurs because the longer length of the program provides them with opportunities to be confronted by strict controls (Marciniak, 1999). As evidence of this statement, six DRCs in Massachusetts, which were evaluated by McDevitt and Miliano (1992), have shorter average terms, from six to eight weeks, and higher graduation rates (79%) than that of the southeastern North Carolina DRC. This difference between the programs shows that the average length of stay has a substantial impact on the client's termination rate.

The second reason is target selection. Chronic offenders are the main target of the DRC in the Southeastern North Carolina DRC. These clients, who would otherwise be in prison, are more likely to be terminated than other DRC clients who would otherwise get probation or other less serious sanctions in the community. Moreover, 92% of the DRC clients had a substance abuse problem before being involved in the program. This alcohol or drug abuse problem facilitates an offender's recidivism (Lipton, 1995). The third characteristic involves the "piling up" of sanctions. These clients receive the day reporting treatment/control as a condition of regular or intensive supervision probation. The piling up of sanctions increases the likelihood of violating internal control rules (Blomberg and Lucken, 1994).

In addition, some studies have examined the reasons why the clients were terminated from the DRC (Roy, 2002). Humphrey (1992) classified the reasons for termination into four categories: failure of a drug test, escape from the DRC, the violation of program rules, or the instability of the residence. In the case of the North Carolina DRC, Marciniak (1999:216) revealed that the largest proportion (31%) of offenders were terminated from the DRC for three-strikes violations. The North

Carolina DRC adopts the three-strike system in which if offenders' rule violations accrue three times, they are to be terminated from the program (Marciniak, 1999:213). A probation revocation (29%) automatically leads to termination from the DRC because day reporting programs are sentenced as a condition of probation. Third, early non-compliance (12.3%) with the program rules, such as missing an appointment during phase one, results in the offenders being terminated from the DRC before accruing three strikes. Consequently, there are considerable differences in the reasons for termination between the various agencies.

Some researchers have studied the demographic factors that influence an offender's termination rates. Using a multivariate analysis, Marciniak (1999) investigated the criminogenic factors that influenced the likelihood of termination from the DRC. She found that the offender's age, gender, marriage, and race did not significantly affect the likelihood of termination from the DRC. However, education, employment, and living situation factors did significantly contribute to a reduction in the likelihood of offenders' termination from the DRC. Interestingly, Marciniak (1999) found that clients who lived alone were more likely to complete the DRC programs successfully than clients who lived with other people like parents, a spouse, or others. She explained that a "living situation may not necessarily represent the existence of social bonds, but rather self-sufficiency or lack thereof. Self-sufficiency and responsibility are an essential to completing this rigorous long-term program" (p222).

A study of the Vigo County Day Reporting Center, Roy (2002) categorized all variables influencing the likelihood of termination into three groups and studied their effects on the termination rates; individual characteristics, case characteristics, and program characteristics. First, among individual characteristics, age, living situation,

marriage, and alcohol/drug abuse history function as significant predictors of termination from the DRC. Clients who were younger, unmarried, lived with boy/girl friends or relatives, or who had a long substance abuse history were significantly more likely to be terminated than clients who were older, married, or lived with families (e.g., spouse, children, and/or parent) or alone, and who had no history of substance abuse. In terms of the living situation, this study confirms Marciniak's (1999) findings mentioned above. The fact that clients live with others does not necessarily increase informal social bonds that in turn reduce the likelihood of termination from the DRC. The living situation that plays a role as an informal social bond is influenced by the quality of the relationships between people, not simply by adding the number of housemates. These findings are consistent with the assumption of developmental theory that quality relationships- not simply the occurrence of any relationship- are critically important in enhancing offenders' social bonds with conventionality.

The evaluations of the DRCs also revealed that a number of case characteristics affected termination from the program. Being charged with a felony or with multiple charges and having a prior conviction predict the probability of termination. Offenders who commit felony crimes, are non-probation clients, have multiple charges for the current crime, or have more prior convictions have a higher probability of being terminated from the DRC programs. Third, in terms of program characteristics, the length of sentences is an important variable in predicting unsuccessful termination. The longer the clients stay under the surveillance of the DRC, the more frequently they fail to complete the program. This finding also confirms Marciniak's (1999) explanation for higher termination rates in the North Carolina DRC. Clients who are sentenced to longer periods have a greater likelihood

of failure due to higher exposure to strict controls.

Craddock and Graham (2001) compared recidivism rates (i.e., rearrest rates) between DRC program completers (i.e., clients who graduated from the DRC) and noncompleters (i.e., clients who were terminated from the DRC) and between DRC clients and other probationers. They also investigated personal factors associated with an offender's rearrest. First, when comparing rearrest rates between DRC completers and DRC noncompleters, results differ according to the location of the DRC. The DRC completers have lower rearrest rates than noncompleters in both rural and urban programs. However, only in the urban program, the DRC completers were significantly less likely to be rearrested compared to noncompleters. Second, Craddock and Graham (2001) compared recidivism between the DRC clients and two subgroups of probationers; the full comparison group (i.e., DRC eligible probationers) and the high risk/need comparison group. In the rural program, only the DRC completers were significantly less likely to commit new crimes compared to the high risk/need comparison group. On the other hand, in the rural/urban program, there were no significant differences in the likelihood of rearrest between all of the DRC clients (including the DRC noncompleters) and the other comparison groups. In the rural/urban program, overall, DRC completers were likely to commit less serious crimes than the other comparison groups (Craddock and Graham, 2001). This study identified five factors that played an important role in predicting offender recidivism; completion of the DRC, current crime, income, age, and prior criminal record.

Consequently, it is hard to generalize all findings discussed above because there are considerable variations between one agency and another. Moreover, due to the DRCs' recent development, very few studies have been conducted across all counties. Future studies should cover all counties and take into consideration their individual

situations such as program goals, target population, and program quality.

DESCRIPTION OF THE PRESENT STUDY

Based on the literature review in the previous chapters, the present study will evaluate the Day Reporting Center in the Douglas County Court System. More specifically, this study will evaluate how offender, case, and program characteristics affect the likelihood of offenders' termination/recidivism. As a localized evaluation for Douglas County, the present research has some distinctive components. First, the present study will explain the characteristics of the DRC's clients from the developmental theoretical perspective and discuss strategies for their reintegration into the community. Second, the current study will identify which kinds of programs might reduce the likelihood of clients' termination/recidivism. This process will provide valuable information for practitioners in the development of programs. Third, as an important variable, this study will utilize risk points, assessed by the division of pretrial release, to determine how effectively risk assessment functions in predicting the offender's unsuccessful termination or recidivism.

Consequently, this evaluation will have policy implications for the DRC staff in investigating criminogenic factors that have an effect on clients' termination/recidivism. By developing treatments accordingly, the DRC can be more effective in ensuring an offender's rehabilitation or reintegration. Finally, understanding the DRC in the context of the Douglas County justice system will be a cornerstone in developing the DRC's policy and contribute to the work- and cost effectiveness of the DRC operation.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

Based on the previous literature review, the present study will evaluate the effects of demographic, case, and program characteristics on an offender's termination and recidivism. In other words, the current study will estimate the effects of those variables on the likelihood that offenders are terminated from the DRC or recidivate after their release. This research also will seek to investigate how well the risk assessment, which has been conducted in the Douglas County Community Programs, predicts offenders' termination or recidivism. As a localized justice evaluation, the present study will focus on the Day Reporting Center's effectiveness in (1) ensuring that its clients successfully complete the program, (2) protecting the safety of the community, and (3) promoting offenders' reintegration into the community.

DATA SOURCE

The data for the present study have been collected by the program manager since the Day Reporting Center began operation in 2001. Through 2003, 273 clients[13] either graduated successfully (189) or were terminated (84) from the DRC. In addition, the data that were not included in the original computerized database were collected in other ways. The data entailing offender recidivism were obtained through the computerized network of the Douglas County Department of Corrections. Other missing data were obtained through case files at the DRC. Cases that had missing data were deleted in order to estimate precise results and forecast an offender's termination

[13] Of 279 total cases, 6 cases are deleted in this analysis because of missing data and incorrect information.

and recidivism in the future.

Overall, four types of data were available for the current study: individual characteristics, case characteristics, program service characteristics, and risk points. First, individual-level data include information about clients' age, race, gender, and employment. Second, case characteristics include an offender's legal status, type of offense for which the offender is detained prior to trial or sentenced to the DRC (felony/misdemeanor), and length of stay at the DRC. Third, there are 20 variables available in this analysis for the types of programs operational in the DRC (See page 21). Fourth, the total risk points for offenders are included in this analysis to measure the effectiveness of the risk assessment instrument in predicting program completion and post-program recidivism.

VARIABLES

For the purpose of data analysis, some of the dependent and independent variables are recoded. Two dependent variables, termination and recidivism, are utilized for measuring the effectiveness of the DRC. Independent variables are grouped into 4 categories as mentioned above. Independent variables function to predict the likelihood of offender termination and recidivism.

Dependent Variables

As seen in Table 4 and 5, the two dependent variables used in this study are termination and recidivism (i.e., re-arrest). In the present study, it is necessary to delineate the meanings of graduation and termination because they substantially influence the rates of these outcomes. The broader the scope of graduation, the lower the termination rate. In other words, termination rates are negatively related to the

scope of graduation. There is substantial variation in the definitions of graduation and termination depending upon the goal and target population of agencies.

Given that this DRC mostly focuses on pretrial released offenders, graduation simply means that the DRC's clients spent their time in the DRC without any violation of program rules, while waiting for pending trials, regardless of their completion of the program. Therefore, no matter whether offenders received a term of probation, received time served, bonded out, are sentenced to the prison, or are released on their own recognizance(ROR) or ordered out by the court, if they do their time without an infringement of the DRC rules, they are considered to be graduated, and are coded 0. For the sentenced clients, graduation means that they successfully participated in the program curriculum during the sentence. This is also coded 0. On the other hand, if offenders fail a drug test (UA) or an alcohol-sensor test, escape, or violate the major rules of the programs, they are terminated from the program and sent to jail or prison. Those cases are coded 1. Recidivism is defined as an offender's re-arrest after their release. Of the 189 clients who graduated from the DRC, those who were re-arrested during a one-year follow-up period are considered recidivists and are coded 1.

Independent Variables

The independent variables utilized in the current study are classified into four groups: individual characteristics, case characteristics, types of program service, and risk points (See Table 4). First, individual characteristics include: age (continuous variable), employment (0=unemployed, 1=employed), gender (0=females, 1=males), and race (0=white, 1=non-white). All racial minorities are coded 1 because very few non-black offenders (i.e., Latino, Asian, and Native American) have been involved in

the DRC. Second, case characteristics include an offender's legal status (0=pretrial released, 1=sentenced), the type of offense for which the offender is detained prior to trial or sentenced to the DRC (0=misdemeanor, 1=felony), and length of stay at the DRC (continuous variable). Third, Participation in each type of program is recorded (0= the client is not participating, 1= he or she is participating). Fourth, risk points are measured as a continuous variable. In order to determine the effects of each program on an individual client's rehabilitation, each program is included in the regression equation, rather than grouped into main categories.

ANALYTICAL STRATEGY

There are three problems in evaluating the effectiveness of community programs: research design and implementation (that is, the difficulty in designing a random assignment of offenders to treatment groups and control groups), difficulty in controlling for the effects of other variables, and defining recidivism (Latessa and Allen, 2003:468). It is necessary to minimize those problems which have the potential to undermine the quality of the research. When evaluating the effectiveness of DRCs, it is also necessary to consider the primary purposes that DRCs are designed to achieve, since the program objectives vary between agencies. So, different standards are needed to evaluate the effectiveness of DRCs, such as the establishment of a follow-up period, the definition of recidivism, and the quality of programs. Consequently, the present study has developed a research design that is tailored to the DRC in Douglas County.

The DRC in Douglas County focuses primarily on pretrial detainees who have short stays in the program. Accordingly, the length of the DRC's intensive programming is not enough to transform career criminals into law abiding citizens.

They also cannot control other programs' effects in the jail or prison after their trials. In other words, it is difficult to decide which programs have been the most effective in offender reintegration at different stages (Latessa and Allen, 2003). However, based on the assumptions that human beings change through a developmental process, each treatment at a different stage functions as a cornerstone (foundation) for the next treatment and has a cumulative effect on offender reintegration. So, an offender's successful reintegration can be ascribed in part to the DRC's programs within the continuum of treatment. The intensity and duration of treatment are critical in rehabilitating high-risk offenders who have been isolated from normative social bonds (Simpson et al., 2004).

The current study chooses re-arrest as an indicator of recidivism. An arrest, rather than a court-ordered disposition, is an appropriate index for measuring an offender's recidivism in the evaluation of programs because it functions as the best available indicator for an offender's involvement in crime, (Craddock and Graham, 2001:89). On the other hand, taking the recent implementation of the DRC into account, it is necessary to limit the length of the follow-up period to one year. According to the Bureau of Justice Statistics (2002:3), the first year[14] after release is the critically important period for offenders to be reintegrated into the community. Moreover, given that two-thirds of all recidivism of the first three years occurs during the first year, a one year follow-up period is a reasonable range in tracking offenders' recidivism. Both the definition of recidivism and the terms of follow-up may have a significant impact on recidivism rates (Latessa and Allen, 2003).Therefore, in the present study, recidivism indicates the record of offenders' rearrest for a one year

[14] According to the Bureau of Justice Statistics (2002:3), more specifically, the recidivism of former prisoners mostly occurs within three years of their release from prison. Within the first six months, 30% of prisoners released were rearrested. Re-arrest rates amount to 44.1% cumulatively within the first 12 months and within the first two years, 59.2%. Within the first three years, the total percentage of re-arrest is approximately 68%.

follow-up period.

In terms of the methodology, the current study replicates in part the studies conducted by Marciniak (1999), Craddock and Graham (2001), and Roy (2002). Those studies investigated the effect of personal and case characteristics on the probability of an offender's termination or recidivism. The current study extends this research by seeking to estimate how well risk assessment predicts a client's termination or recidivism and evaluate the effectiveness of programs offered in the DRC.

Overall, the present research is composed of a two-phase study: the effects of the DRC on an offender's termination and the effects of the DRC on an offender's recidivism. The first phase identifies the offender, case, and program characteristics that affect the likelihood of termination from the DRC. More specifically, it identifies the offender and case characteristics that influence the likelihood of termination from the DRC, as well as the types of programs that have been effective in assimilating DRC clients into programs without violating the DRC's rules. This has substantial policy implications for targeting clients for the DRC, because Douglas County uses the day reporting program more for clients pretrial release rather than for sentenced offenders. It will maximize community protection as well as other correctional purposes such as rehabilitation and reintegration through appropriate target selection. In this context, the second phase investigates what kinds of offender and case characteristics affect the likelihood of an offender's recidivism. It also identifies the types of programs that have an effect on an offender's recidivism.

For research purposes, four statistical steps are employed in the present study: descriptive statistics, bivariate correlations, multivariate regression for eliminating multicollinearity problems, and logistic regression. First, the descriptive statistics

show the basic information (e.g., frequency, standard deviation, and mean) of all the variables. Second, in the bivariate correlations, it is indicated how all the independent variables are related to the dependent variables (termination/recidivism) and also the other independent variables. This step also shows us preliminary indications of multicollinearity problems (Studenmund, 1997). Third, multicollinearity should be addressed before conducting the logistic regression because it distorts the prediction equation (Mertler and Vannatta, 2002). Fourth, in order to evaluate the effect of all the independent variables on dependent variables, logistic regression[15] is utilized for the present study due to the dichotomous nature of the dependent variables. Based on the logistic model, multivariate analyses are employed to control for the other independent variables. Finally, considering that the analysis has a large number of independent variables and a small sample size, there is a greater likelihood of multicollinearity problems (e.g., linear combination) (Roncek, 2005). Backward selection will be employed in conducting the logistic regression for double-checking the multicollinearity problems. According to Roncek (2005), backward selection is a preferred method for curing for the multicollinearity problems when there are a large number of independent variables and there are no other reasons to choose other methods. Moreover, it is more appropriate to find the precise regression equation in forecasting or predicting the likelihood of an event occurrence (e.g., termination and recidivism), not testing a hypothesis for theories (Roncek, 2005).

METHODOLOGICAL LIMITATIONS

Before executing and interpreting the statistical analysis, several

[15] Logistic regression has two distinctive advantages over the multivariate regression (Tabachnick and Fidell, 1996). First, all the independent variables in the logistic regression are not required to be normally distributed or linearly related. Second, all types of independent variables such as continuous, discrete, and dichotomous are available in the logistic regression.

methodological limitations of the present study should be taken into account. One limitation involves the difficulty in controlling for other programs' effects in jail or prison after sentencing because the Douglas County DRC focuses on pretrial released offenders. It is, therefore, impossible to measure the direct effects of the DRC on offenders' reintegration, but from the developmental theoretical perspective, an offender's successful reintegration can be ascribed in part to the DRC's programs on the continuum of treatment.

The second limitation of the current study pertains to the short follow-up period for the analysis of offenders' recidivism. One year may not be enough time to measure precisely an offender's recidivism or rehabilitation. As mentioned above, this is because two-thirds of all recidivism occurs during the second and third year following release (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2002:3). However, a one year follow-up period serves as the best alternative, considering the practical constraints (i.e., the short term of the DRC implementation).

Finally, considering the small number of cases and other cultural variations (e.g., the goals of the DRC, target population, the definition of termination/recidivism, etc.,), it will be difficult to generalize the current study's results to other jurisdictions. Therefore, all findings must be analyzed and interpreted in the context of Douglas County Justice Systems.

CHAPTER FOUR

FINDINGS

Based on the theoretical framework presented in the previous chapter, this chapter evaluated the effects of the DRC on offenders' termination and recidivism. Some of the previous research has studied the effects of offenders' demographic and case characteristics on termination or recidivism (Marciniak, 1999; Craddock and Graham, 2001; Roy, 2002). However, these studies do not address the nature of the DRC's clients and the role of the DRC in the context of jurisdictional culture. This chapter is composed of a two-phase study; an analysis of termination and an analysis of recidivism. In addition, each part of the two-phase study consists of three sub-sections; the descriptive statistics, the bivariate correlations, and the multivariate analyses.

PHASE ONE: AN ANALYSIS OF TERMINATION

Descriptive Statistics

Before moving on to more advanced statistical techniques (i.e., bivariate and multivariate statistics), it is necessary to summarize the data (e.g., independent and dependent variables) to understand the basic nature of all variables (e.g., central tendency, variability, etc.,) and then to determine an appropriate statistical technique for the intended research (Mertler and Vannatta, 2002).

Dependent Variable

The dependent variable employed in the first phase study is a client's termination. As seen in Table 4, the descriptive statistics indicate the basic information (i.e., frequencies and percentages) of the dependent variable. All clients in the analysis of termination are either classified as "terminated" (N=84, 31%) or "not terminated" (N=189, 69%) according to their successful completion of the DRC program or their successful stay in the DRC during a pretrial release.

As seen in Table 3, the termination rate of the Douglas County DRC is considerably lower than other jurisdictional DRC agencies. Most of all, the lower termination rate can be accounted by the terminology of "graduation." Since the DRC has been operated as an alternative to the pretrial detention, the definition of "graduation" necessarily included those who were transferred to a jail or prison regardless of program completion. This is because compliance with the DRC's rules may be considered, in terms of developmental perspective, the first step of treatment for their rehabilitation. Therefore, this study classified the DRC's clients who spent their time in the DRC without any violation of program rules during their pretrial detention as a graduate. In addition, structured control provided by the DRC, mostly utilized for clients as a residential facility, and intensive programming also may lead to the lower termination rate.

Independent Variables

Individual Characteristics

As shown in Table 4, the descriptive statistics indicate basic demographic characteristics such as age, race, gender, and employment status. First, the average age of the DRC's clients is approximately 32, with a range from 18 to 55. Second,

regarding the employment variable, the number of employed clients is 82 (30 %), while 191 clients (70%) were unemployed at the time of graduation or termination from the DRC. Third, the data on the clients' gender reveal that 197 clients (72.2 %) are male, while female clients comprise only a small portion of the population (N=78; 27.8%). Finally, of the 273 DRC clients, 153 (56 %) are white, while 120 (44%) can be classified as non-white (i.e., Black, Hispanic, or Native American).

Case Characteristics

The case characteristics of the DRC's clients are classified into three categories; legal status (i.e., sentenced or pre-trial release), length of a stay (i.e., the length of the DRC participation), and type of current crime (i.e., felony or misdemeanor). The risk points (i.e., the points given to offenders in the process of risk assessment) are also included in this subsection. First, regarding the legal status of offenders, a large number of clients (N=232; 85%) were placed in the DRC as a condition of pre-trial release whereas only a small portion of the clients (N=41, 15%) were offenders sentenced to the DRC through the jail. Obviously, this statistic reflects the fact that the DRC is mainly utilized as pretrial diversion for coping with overcrowding in the jail, rather than as a sentencing option or a back-end strategy. Second, the length of stay is measured as a continuous variable. The range is from 1 to 229 days and the average is 59.84 days. Third, regarding the type of current offense, 173 clients (63.4%) are involved in the DRC for felony cases and 100 (36.6%) for misdemeanors. Fourth, the risk points range from 1 to 78, with a mean of 24.5 points. Interestingly, two clients who exceeded the maximum limit (75 points) of risk points were admitted to the DRC.

Program Characteristics

Twenty types of programs are included in this analysis. Some of the programs offered in the DRC are excluded from the analysis either because these programs were not operational at the time of this study or because very few clients (i.e., less than 40) participated in them. However, the domestic violence class, which only 29 clients completed, is included in the analysis because this class is still operational and is meaningful for the DRC's clients who are in relationships with a family as an informal social tie.

As seen in Table 4, program services can be classified into four groups: life skills education, alcohol/other substance abuse education, specific individual treatment, and self-help groups. In addition, variables related to community service are included in the analysis. First, of the life skill services, cognitive thinking (N=146, 53.5%), money management (N=145, 53.1%), and reactive behaviors (N=140, 51.3%) are the most frequently utilized programs for the DRC's clients. Second, as for the alcohol/other substance abuse education programs, a substantial portion of the DRC's clients (N=145, 53.1%) completed the chemical dependency class. Third, most of clients (N=171, 62.6%) received individual therapy through face-to-face counseling between a therapist and an offender. The average length of an individual's therapy was 2.71 hours, with a range from 0 to 46 hours. Most clients (94%) received fewer than ten hours of therapy (SD=4.44). Fourth, the number of hours of AA meetings (mean=4.28) and NA meetings (mean=2.37) in which clients participated are included in the analysis. Finally, all clients were required to participate in community service as restitution to the community. One hundred fifty clients (54.9%) participated in the community service. The range of service hours was from 0 to 320, with an average of 11.83 hours (SD=29.59).

Bivariate Analysis

Before identifying a causal relationship between independent variables and dependent variables, it is necessary to present bivariate correlations among all the variables (i.e., among independent variables and between independent variables and dependent variables) (Mertler and Vannatta, 2002). This section estimated the association between two variables and the Pearson correlation coefficient (r) was employed to show the degree of the relationships. The bivariate analysis[16] also functions as a preliminary step for detecting a multicollinearity problem (Studenmund, 1997). Multicollinearity should be addressed before conducting the multivariate analysis because it distorts the regression equation (Mertler and Vannatta, 2002). When a simple correlation coefficient between the explanatory variables is equal to or greater than 0.80, problems of severe multicollinearity are potentially, but not necessarily, present (Studenmund, 1997). Finally, the bivariate correlations can be considered only as suggestive because this analysis does not control for the effects of other variables.

Correlations among Independent Variables

Table 5 reports a number of significant relationships among the independent variables included in the analysis of termination. These findings are categorized into two analytic groups: correlations within each category and correlations across categories. Within each category, some independent variables had significant relationships with other independent variables. Among individual characteristics, there is a significant relationship between employment and gender (r =.175). Male

[16] All tests of correlation coefficients (r) reported the probability of severe multicollinearity among the three explanatory variables: between cognitive thinking and reactive behaviors (r = .898); between cognitive thinking and chemical dependency (r = .933); and between reactive behaviors and chemical dependency (r = .934).

clients were more likely to be employed than female clients. Within the category of case variables, the legal status of clients has a positive relationship with risk points (r =.165). Clients who were sentenced offenders had more risk points than those who were pretrial detainees. There also is a positive relationship between the type of offense and the length of stay (r =.178). In other words, offenders are charged with or convicted of felonies had longer lengths of stay. Within the category of program variables, overall, participation in each of the programs is positively related to participation in the other programs. This is because DRC clients are encouraged to participate in all programs for more structured control and intensive treatment.

Furthermore, across the categories of variables, several relationships with important policy implications appear in the correlation matrix. It is necessary to investigate dynamic relationships between employment, length of stay, and program participation. Length of stay has a statistically significant and positive association with clients' employment (r =.625). That is, the longer clients remained in the DRC, the more likely they were to be employed at the time of graduation or termination. An interesting finding from this analysis is that the clients' employment status is also significantly correlated with all other program variables: cognitive thinking (r =.514), domestic violence (r =.292), GED/ABE (r =.375), HIV education (r =.521), job skills (r =.381), know yourself (r =.370), money management (r =.487), parenting (r =.326), reactive behaviors (r =.558), relationship skills (r =.238), social skills (r =.344), chemical dependency (r =.551), relapse prevention (r =.335), personal evaluation (r =.416), individual therapy (r =.340), individual therapy hours (r =.233), community service (r =.448), community service hours (r =.266), AA meetings (r =.264), and NA meetings (r =.238). Therefore, when the DRC's clients participated in programs offered by the DRC, the likelihood of employment increased substantially.

In addition to the clients' employment, the length of stay is also significantly correlated with the all of the program variables: cognitive thinking (r =.718), domestic violence (r =.324), GED/ABE (r =.488), HIV education (r =.662), job skills (r =.582), know yourself (r =.567), money management (r =.675), parenting (r =.451), reactive behaviors (r =.751), relationship skills (r =.281), social skills (r =.426), chemical dependency (r =.750), relapse prevention (r =.444), personal evaluation (r =.562), individual therapy (r =.470), individual therapy hours (r =.467), community service (r =.597), community service hours (r =.503), AA meetings (r =.343), and NA meetings (r =.322). Not surprisingly, the longer clients stayed at the DRC, the more likely they were to participate in these programs.

Correlations between the Dependent Variable and Independent Variables

As seen in Table 5, a number of independent variables are significantly related to the DRC clients' "exit status" (i.e., the likelihood of clients' termination). Of all variable categories, only some of the case and program variables are significantly correlated with the likelihood of clients' termination. None of the demographic variables are significantly related to the probability of clients' termination. Case variables significantly correlated with the clients' termination include type of offense and length of stay. Specifically, as for the type of offense, offenders who were charged with or convicted of felony cases were more likely than those charged with or convicted of misdemeanors to be terminated (r =.193). In addition, the length of stay is negatively related to clients' termination (r = -.171). In other words, the longer the clients remained in the DRC, the less likely it was that they would be terminated.

Program variables significantly related to clients' termination include the following: cognitive thinking, HIV education, money management, parenting,

reactive behaviors, social skills, chemical dependency, relapse prevention, had-evaluation, individual therapy (hours), and AA meeting (hours). Specifically, offenders who participated in cognitive thinking (r = -.173), HIV education (r = -.149), money management (r = -.121), parenting (r = -.133), reactive behaviors (r = -.160), social skills (r = -.169), chemical dependency (r = -.152), relapse prevention (r = -.253), and personal evaluation (r = -.182), had lower odds of termination. The number of hours of individual therapy (r = -.120) and attendance at AA meetings (r = -.172) also had negative relationships with termination. Overall, then, persons who participated in the programs were less likely to be terminated from the DRC.

Multivariate Analysis

Based on the logistic model, multivariate analyses were employed to investigate the effects of the predictor variables (e.g., individual, case, and program characteristics) on the dependent variable (e.g., termination), while controlling for the other independent variables. Before executing the logistic regression, multivariate regression was employed to identify multicollinearity problems. Data screening[17] led us to eliminate three variables that had multicollinearity problems: reactive behaviors (VIF = 10.68), cognitive thinking (VIF = 9.12), and chemical dependency class (VIF = 14.69). These three explanatory variables statistically have multicollinearity with other variables. Although the three variables have high VIF values, this does not mean that they do not have any effect on an offender's reintegration into the outside world. The findings (i.e., only the significant independent variables) are reported in Table 8 and are interpreted in terms of the probability differences[18] and the odds ratio.

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[17] There are no formal criteria for VIF values, but, as a common rule of thumb, if VIF>5, the multicollinearity must be considered to be severe (Studenmund, 1997).

[18] The probability differences were calculated from the following formula (Hanushek and Jackson,

The Effects of Individual, Case, and Program Variables on Offenders' Termination

As indicated in Table 6, the results of the logistic regression model reveal that four variables are significant predictors of offender termination: length of stay, type of offense, GED/ABE class, and relapse prevention. Of the four significant independent variables, three (i.e., the length of stay, the type of offense, and relapse prevention) were also found to be significantly correlated to a client's termination in the bivariate analysis. None of the individual characteristics have significant effects on termination. As for case characteristics, there are two statistically significant independent variables. First, the length of stay is a significant predictor of termination from the DRC. The odds ratio for the length of stay (.991) reveals that the probability of termination decreases by 0.2% for every one-unit (i.e., day) change of the length of stay. Second, the odds ratio for *the felony variable* (3.307) indicates that felony clients were 3.307 times more likely to be classified as "terminated" than misdemeanor clients. The probability difference between a felony offender and a misdemeanor offender being terminated is 26.7 %. The felony offenders were 26.7% more likely than the misdemeanor offenders to be terminated from the DRC.

Furthermore, Table 6 shows that two program variables are significant predictors of termination. First, interestingly, the odds ratio for the GED/ABC class (2.265) indicates a substantial increase in the likelihood of termination for clients who completed that class. In other words, the DRC's clients who participated in the GED/ABE class were 2.265 times more likely to be classified as "terminated" than clients who did not. In terms of the difference in the probability of termination, the clients who participated in the GED class were 19.3% more likely than those who did

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1977): *Probability* = $\{[odds/(odds+1)]-.50\}$

not to be terminated from the DRC. Interestingly, most previous studies reveal that education is an important factor in reducing offenders' criminality; the current results suggest just the opposite. At first glance, this finding may appear counterintuitive, but the fact that clients participate in the GED/ABE class implies that these offenders do not have a high school diploma or failed a GED test. Therefore, the GED/ABE variable may function as an alternative index indicating the client's level of education. One interpretation, in other words, is that uneducated offenders are 2.265 times (Prob., 19.4%) more likely than educated offenders to be terminated from the DRC, rather than concluding the GED class facilitates offenders' termination or affect offenders' reintegration negatively. Second, those who completed the relapse prevention class were less likely to be classified as "terminated" than those who did not. The odds ratios in the likelihood of termination (0.181) decrease by the respective ratio when clients completed the relapse prevention class. The probability difference of termination for the relapse prevention class is -34.7%. DRC's clients who took the relapse prevention class were 34.7% less likely than those did not to be terminated form the DRC.

In summary, the DRC per se, interacting with other factors (i.e., programming and organizational culture), plays a positive role in decreasing clients' termination as an informal social control. Felony offenders were more likely than misdemeanor offenders to be terminated from the DRC. In addition, the present study discovered that DRC's clients who took the relapse prevention class were less likely than those did not to be terminated from the DRC. In terms of the GED class, the result can be interpreted literally that the clients who participated in the GED class were more likely than clients who did not to be terminated. However, the GED/ABE variable may function as an alternative index indicating the client's level of education in the

context of Douglas County because those who did not have a high school diploma or failed a GED test took the GED class. Finally, it will be discussed more in details in the context of Douglas County, based on the findings of the present research.

PHASE TWO: AN ANALYSIS OF RECIDIVISM

Descriptive Analysis

Phase two of this evaluation focuses on the likelihood of recidivism following completion of the DRC program. This phase of the study therefore includes only those clients (N=189) who were not terminated from the program. In terms of terminology, "DRC completers" should be interpreted carefully because the definition of DRC completers includes those who graduated from the DRC for administrative reasons (e.g., those who were transferred to a jail or prison) regardless of program completion.

Dependent Variable

As a dependent variable, "re-arrest" might better imply actual indices of DRC clients' reintegration rather than the variable of whether clients are terminated or not. All clients in the analysis of recidivism are either classified as "rearrested" (N=102, 54%) or "not rearrested" (N=87, 46%) during a one-year follow-up period after release from the DRC.

Independent Variables

Individual Characteristics

Table 7 shows the descriptive statistics for the analysis of recidivism. The demographic characteristics of DRC completers include their age, employment,

gender, and race. First, the ages of the completers range from 18 to 55, with a mean of 31.54. Second, of 189 DRC completers, 58 clients (30.7%) were employed, while 131 clients (69.3%) were unemployed when they were released from the DRC. Third, 56 clients (29.6%) were female, while 133 (70.4%) were male. Fourth, as for the race of the clients, 105 (55.6%) were white, while 84 (44.4%) were non-white.

Case Characteristics

The case characteristics of the DRC completers include their legal status, length of stay, type of offense, and risk points. First, 161 clients (85.2%) can be classified as pretrial detainees, while 28 clients (14.8%) were sentenced offenders. Second, the range of the length of stay is from one to 229 days, with an average of 66.22 days. Third, 81 clients (42.9%) were misdemeanor offenders, while 108 clients (57.1%) were felony offenders. Finally, as for risk points, the average number of risk points for DRC graduates were 23.48, with a range from one to 77.

Program Characteristics

As reported above, participation in 20 types of programs is also included in the analysis of recidivism. As shown in Table 7, program variables include: life skills education, alcohol/other substance abuse education, specific individual treatment, and self-help groups, and variables related to community service. With respect to life skills education, cognitive thinking (N=112, 59.3%), HIV education (N=98, 51.9%), money management (N=108, 57.1%), and reactive behaviors (N=107, 56.6%) were the programs in which DRC completers participated most frequently. Second, the chemical dependency class (N=110, 58.2%) was the most commonly-used program among substance abuse education classes. Third, 119 completers (63%) received

individual therapy through face-to-face counseling by a therapist. Moreover, a substantial number of the completers (N=76; 40.2%) were evaluated for their individual treatments. Fourth, the average number of hours of AA meetings (mean=5.35) and NA meetings (mean=2.99) are also reported in the results. Finally, 110 DRC completers (58.2%) participated in community service; the mean number of service hours was 13.67 (SD=33.54).

Bivariate Analysis

Table 8 reports bivariate correlations among the independent variables and between the independent variables and the dependent variable (i.e., recidivism). Also, the correlation matrix [19] indicates the possibility of multicollinearity among independent variables.

Correlations among Independent Variables

Only some of the important relationships among variables will be reported in this section. These findings are classified into two analytic groups: correlations within each category and correlations across all other categories. First, within the category of individual characteristics, the gender variable has a positive and statistically significant relationship with the offender's employment status (r =.205). As for the category of case characteristics, clients who have been sentenced to the DRC have more risk points than do pretrial detainees (r =.233). In addition, the type of offense has a positive relationship with the length of stay (r =.263). Finally, most of the programs within the category of program variables are positively related to the others.

[19] All tests of correlation coefficients (r) report the probability of severe multicollinearity among the three explanatory variables: between cognitive thinking and reactive behaviors (r = .881); between cognitive thinking and chemical dependency (r = .912); between money management and chemical dependency (r =.805); and between reactive behaviors and chemical dependency (r = .924).

Across the categories of variables, in the same context of the analysis of termination, the length of stay has a positive and statistically significant relationship with the client's employment (r =.632). That is, the longer clients remained in the DRC, the more likely they were to be employed during the program. As an intervening factor between the length of stay and employment, as shown in Table 7, all programs variables are highly correlated with employment: cognitive thinking (r =.458), domestic violence (r =.239), GED/ABE (r =.336), HIV education (r =.503), job skills (r =.321), know yourself (r =.299), money management (r =.437), parenting (r =.303), reactive behaviors (r =.513), relationship skills (r =.189), social skills (r =.310), chemical dependency (r =.494), relapse prevention (r =.417), personal evaluation (r =.413), individual therapy (r =.320), individual therapy hours (r =.179), community service (r =.424), community service hours (r =.256), AA meetings (r =.239), and NA meetings (r =.231). Therefore, when the DRC's clients participated in programs offered by the DRC, the likelihood of employment increases substantially.

Finally, the length of stay is significantly related to all program variables: cognitive thinking (r =.694), domestic violence (r =.282), GED/ABE (r =.470), HIV education (r =.659), job skills (r =.561), know yourself (r =.569), money management (r =.672), parenting (r =.426), reactive behaviors (r =.735), relationship skills (r =.221), social skills (r =.424), chemical dependency (r =.736), relapse prevention (r =.478), personal evaluation (r =.550), individual therapy (r =.475), individual therapy hours (r =.425), community service (r =.590), community service hours (r =.498), AA meetings (r =.286), and NA meetings (r =.322). The longer stay in the DRC provided clients with more opportunities to participate in the programs designed to enhance clients' social capital.

Correlations between a Dependent Variable and Independent Variables

Table 8 reports that a number of independent variables are significantly related to offenders' recidivism. Of the four individual characteristics, only one of the variables, client employment, is significantly related to client recidivism (r = -.237). Clients who were employed at the time they were released from the DRC, had a lower than those who were unemployed. All of the case characteristics are significantly related to clients' recidivism. First, as for the legal status of clients, when clients were sentenced offenders rather than pretrial detainees, the likelihood of recidivism decreases (r =.146). Second, as the length of stay increases, the likelihood of recidivism decreases (r =-.186). Third, in terms of the type of offense, clients who charged with or convicted of felonies had lower rates of recidivism than those charged with or convicted of misdemeanor (r = -.156). Finally, as the number of risk points given to DRC clients increased, the likelihood of recidivism also increased (r =.157). Furthermore, five program variables are inversely related to clients' re-arrest: money management (r = -.156), reactive behaviors (r = -.144), chemical dependency (r = -.158), community service (r = -.158), and AA meetings (r =-.150). That is, when clients participated in those programs, the odds of recidivism decreased (r =-.237).

Multivariate Analysis

This multivariate analysis employs the logistic model to explore the effects of individual, case, and program characteristics on clients' recidivism. Through data screening, three variables with multicollinearity problems (i.e., VIF > 5) were eliminated from the multivariate analysis: cognitive thinking (VIF = 7.31), reactive behaviors (VIF = 10.07), and chemical dependency (VIF = 12.75). In the same context of the analysis of termination, the results are reported in terms of the odds

ratio and the probability difference.

The Effects of Individual, Case, and Program Variables on offenders' Recidivism

As shown in Table 9, there are three significant predictors of client recidivism. Among all significant predictors in the multivariate analysis, two independent variables (i.e., employment and risk points) also turned out to have significant relationships with offender recidivism in the correlation matrix. Two individual characteristics are significant predictors of the clients' recidivism. First, age is a significant predictor of client re-arrest (Odds ratio=.964). The probability difference of recidivism for age is -0.9%; this means that the probability of recidivism deceases by 0.9% for each one-unit (i.e., year) change in age. Second, as for clients' employment, the odds ratio (.264) indicates that employed clients had a substantially lower likelihood of recidivism than unemployed clients. In terms of the probability difference, employed clients were 29.1% less likely than unemployed clients to be re-arrested.

In addition to the individual characteristics, one case variable turned out to be a significant predictor of recidivism. The odds ratio for the risk points (1.033) shows that DRC clients who receive higher risk points are slightly more likely to be rearrested than those who receive lower risk points. The probability difference for the risk points is 0.8%. Therefore, the probability of recidivism increases by 0.8 given a one-unit (i.e., point) change in the number of risk points. Risk assessment functions as a significant predictor in forecasting offenders' re-arrest. Finally, none of the program variables were significant predictors of clients' recidivism.

In summary, the second phase study revealed three significant variables for predicting offenders' recidivism. First, older clients are less likely than younger

clients to be re-arrested. Second, employed clients are almost 3 times less likely than unemployed clients to be re-arrested. A consideration employment status at the time of graduation may play an important role in predicting the likelihood of clients' re-arrest in the future. In terms of risk points, those who received lower risk points were more likely than those who received lower risk points to be re-arrested. Finally, it will be discussed more in details in the context of Douglas County, based on the findings of the present research.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION AND CONSCLUSIONS

This study modeled the effects of individual characteristic, case characteristics, and program participation on termination from the DRC program and on recidivism following successful completion of the program. In addition, the present research explored the roles of the DRC as an informal social control mechanism in the context of the Douglas County criminal justice system. This chapter includes five sections: first, an analysis of the DRC's role as a mechanism of informal social control; second, an analysis of the DRC's client targeting and net-widening; third, an analysis of the effectiveness of the DRC's risk assessment; fourth, a discussion of the strengths and limitations of the research; and, fifth, a discussion of policy implications for the DRC and recommendations for future research.

ANALYSIS OF THE DRC'S ROLE AS A MECHANISM OF INFORMAL SOCIAL CONTROL

"Effects of Individual, Case, and Program Characteristics on Clients' reintegration"

As indicated in Table 4, pretrial detainees and felony offenders comprise a large portion of the DRC population. As discussed in the literature review, most of these offenders have two criminogenic characteristics: they are specialists and they are high-risk offenders to recidivate. They have been isolated from normative society and, therefore, are more likely to recidivate due to a lack of informal social bonds (e.g., unemployment, undereducation etc.,). Considering the nature of DRC clients who have short stays in the program as a condition of pretrial release and who have a high

risk to recidivate as high-risk felony offenders, it is imperative to develop a new paradigm for DRC clients' reintegration.

Based on the developmental theory stating that human beings change through a developmental process (Sampson and Laub, 1993), each treatment at a different stage functions as a cornerstone (foundation) for the next treatment and has a cumulative effect on offenders' reintegration. Therefore, considering the short term of treatment (i.e., approximately 60 days), the DRC should seek a role as a transitional stage for offenders' reintegration. Through the participation of the DRC, the foundation for the next treatment should be established for the offenders' reintegration, which will facilitate the offenders' reintegration by building informal social ties.

There are a number of important findings produced by the present study. First of all, the analysis of termination identified two case factors that influence clients' termination. As seen in Table 6, persons who are felony offenders (Odds, .307; Prob., 26.8%) were more likely than misdemeanor offenders to be terminated from the DRC. This result confirms Roy's (2002) finding that felony offenders had almost a three times higher likelihood of termination from the DRC than did misdemeanor offenders. It may be because these clients have a high risk to recidivate owing to a lack of social capital (i.e., isolation from a normative institution and a lack of education).

In addition, the analysis of termination discovered that the length of stay in the DRC reduces the likelihood of offenders' termination (Odds, .991; Prob., -0.2%), rather than functions as a window to encounter friction due to DRC's structured controls. Basically, the DRC per se, interacting with other factors (i.e., programming and organizational culture), plays an important role in decreasing clients' termination as an informal social control. The results of this present study are intriguing because most of the previous studies (Roy, 2002; Marciniak, 1999) suggest that time in DRCs

is positively related to termination, but this study revealed the opposite. It may be that the DRC's structured control and intensive programming decreases the offender's termination through facilitating the establishment of informal social ties, rather than increases the termination through disrupting informal social ties.

Furthermore, the analysis of termination found that two programs significantly affect clients' "exit status" from the DRC. As reported in the bivariate analysis (see Table 5), overall participation in the programs, as an intervening component between the length of stay and termination, decreased the likelihood of termination. In addition, Table 6 revealed that two program variables were significant predictors of termination. First, the results indicate that persons who took the relapse prevention class (Odds, 0.181; Prob., -34.7%) were significantly less likely to be terminated from the program than those who did not. The present finding replicated indirectly previous studies in showing that the relapse prevention class is more effective in preventing offenders from recidivating by helping the offenders to avoid criminogenic situations, rather than seeking to eliminate their antisocial personality in a short term program. It may be because, in terms of developmental perspective, the compliance of DRC's rules will be the foundation for their reintegration. Second, the odds ratio for the GED/ABE class (2.265) indicates a substantial increase in the likelihood of termination when clients complete that class. In other words, the DRC's clients who participated in the GED/ABE class were 2.265 times (Prob., 19.4%) more likely to be classified as "terminated" than clients who did not. Interestingly, most previous studies reveal that education is an important factor in reducing offenders' criminality; the current results suggest just the opposite. At first glance, this finding may appear counterintuitive, but the fact that clients participate in the GED/ABE class, according to the DRC policy, implies that these offenders do not have a high school diploma or failed a GED test.

Therefore, the GED/ABE variable may function as an alternative index indicating the client's level of education. One interpretation, in other words, is that uneducated offenders are 2.265 times (Prob., 19.4%) more likely than educated offenders to be terminated from the DRC, rather than concluding the GED class facilitates offenders' termination or affect offenders' reintegration negatively. Therefore, consistent with Marciniak's (1999) findings, this study revealed that education plays an important role in alleviating an offender's criminality. However, considering that an average length of stay is approximately two months, there is not enough time to enhance an informal social ties or social capitals through education (i.e., GED/ABE class). That may be why, ironically, participating in the GED/ABE class increases the likelihood of clients' termination in the context of Douglas County DRC.

In the second phase of the study, the analysis of recidivism identified three significant variables, each of which has policy implications: age, employment, and risk points. First, as seen in Table 9, the likelihood of offenders' re-arrest decreases as age increases. In other words, older clients are less likely than younger clients to be re-arrested. This result of the present research is consistent with research regarding the crime and age curve (Vold et al, 1998). The current finding replicated Roy's (2002) finding that younger offenders are more likely than older offenders to be terminated. More exactly, aging has a positive effect on reducing offenders' criminality. This suggests that the DRC should focus its resources on younger offenders who have a high risk of recidivism and, even after completing the programs, to continue the treatment for younger clients in collaboration with a community. Second, employed clients were less likely to be re-arrested than unemployed clients. This finding is consistent with Marciniak's (2002) study of termination. Previous research has shown that employment plays a critical role in enhancing offenders' informal social ties to

conventionality (Vold et al, 1998) and, in turn, in facilitating the reintegration of the DRC's client into the community. A consideration of employment status at the time of graduation may function as a predictor in anticipating the probability of offenders' re-arrest in the future. Third, in terms of risk points, DRC clients who received higher risk points were more likely to be rearrested than those who received lower risk points. As discussed in the following section, the risk assessment tool used by the DRC is based primarily on offenders' criminal histories. Therefore, the criminal history functions not only as a determinant in determining risk points given to the offenders but also as a significant predictor of offenders' recidivism.

Consequently, as an index of offenders' reintegration, the findings of the analyses of termination and recidivism suggest the following two-level strategy for the DRC: a short-term strategy designed to prevent clients' termination and a long-term strategy designed to prevent clients' recidivism. As discussed above, the DRC functions as a mechanism of informal social control and having a positive effect on offenders' reintegration by providing intensive programs. First, as a short-term strategy, the DRC should provide clients with programs which function as structured control mechanisms to clients' activities and which eventually can also serve as a turning point for their lives. As for the types of programs, based on the current findings, it would be more effective to develop programs (i.e., relapse prevention) designed to help offenders avoid or control the situations that drive them to commit crimes, rather than simply seeking offenders' rehabilitation. This strategy would be more effective in preventing offenders' termination in the short term, in cooperation with the structured control of the DRC.

However, enhancing DRC clients' education and employability is also important, as a long-term strategy, for reducing clients' recidivism by building their

social capital. However, the utilization of the DRC for offenders' reintegration is limited to a short term as a transitional stage for the pretrial short term offenders. Although a client's education and employment might be enhanced during his/her stay in the DRC, offenders do not stay in the DRC long enough to amass sufficient social capital to be reintegrated into a normative community. Therefore, continuation of treatment in cooperation with a community agency is imperative for achieving offenders' reintegration. Collaboration with the community will complement the limited short-term programming of the DRC within the continuum of treatment. Strengthening social supports for the DRC and the clients are critically important issues which the DRC should solve in the future.

ANALYSIS OF THE DRC'S TARGETING AND NET-WIDENING

Based on the present findings, it is necessary to evaluate in depth the targeting of the DRC and to determine whether the DRC staff comply with the eligibility policy. In other words, it should investigate whether offenders who are originally targeted by the eligibility guidelines (i.e., felony offenders) are actually sentenced to the DRC. The level of compliance is also interrelated with the issues of net-widening (Marciniak, 1999). If the DRC is utilized as an alternative to other community programs (e.g., fine, probation, house arrest, or other diversion programs) there is a potential for net-widening by using unwarranted and expanded informal social control. In turn, net-widening is closely related to the issue of cost-effectiveness because DRCs can only produce cost-savings when net-widening is eliminated (Tonry, 1997). Therefore, clearly identifying the target population and increasing compliance with the eligibility policy is critically important in reducing net-widening and enhancing the cost-effectiveness of the Douglas County Department of Corrections.

Before analyzing the DRC's targeting population and the net-widening problem, it is necessary to consider the targeting criteria which the DRC staff use during the intake process. According to the DRC's eligibility policy, participation in the DRC is restricted to non-violent felony offenders who otherwise would have gone to jail or prison during the pretrial period. For the next step, it is necessary to investigate who is actually sent to the DRC. As indicated in Table 4, 85 % (N=232) of the DRC population is composed of pretrial detainees while sentenced offenders make up only a small portion of the population (N=41, 15%). Douglas County centralizes all resources to cope with overcrowding in the jail due to the influx of pretrial inmates. In terms of the type of offense, most (N=173, 63.4%) of clients are felony offenders, which is consistent with the eligibility policy. However, misdemeanor offenders also comprise a substantial portion (N=100, 36.6%) of the DRC population. More specifically, as seen in Figure 4, the correctional population of the DRC can be classified into four groups. First, pretrial detainees with felony charges constituted the largest proportion (N=148, 54.2%) of the DRC. Second, pretrial detainees with misdemeanor charges comprise 30.8% (N=84) of the DRC population. Finally, the remainder of the DRC population consists of sentenced offenders with felony charges (N=25, 9.2%) and with misdemeanor charges (N=16, 5.9%).

In sum, the DRC's target population is determined by two criteria: an offender's legal status and the type of offense. The most important criterion of the intake process is the legal status of the offender; that is, whether clients are pretrial detainees or sentenced offenders. As discussed above, the DRC focuses more on the pretrial detainees because Douglas County has been struggling with overcrowding in the jail due to the pretrial inmates. In this context, the second priority criterion is whether an offender's current crime is a felony or misdemeanor. Felony offenders are the priority

target population of the DRC because they are more likely to be detained during the pretrial period than misdemeanor offenders. This is because most misdemeanor offenders are released through diversion programs such as release on recognizance (ROR), paying their bail, or holding bondsmen. However, these two criteria at the intake process are only applied to nonviolent offenders. The criterion of offenders' non-violence has been strictly observed by the DRC staff for community protection.

The most unique characteristic of the Douglas County sentencing and correctional system is that all intake processes of DRC clients begin through the jail, not from judges' sentencing. By design, net-widening is less likely to occur in the context of the Douglas County Justice System, because offenders can be admitted into the DRC only through the jail under the approval of sentencing judges. Therefore, the design of Douglas County's caseflow that offenders can be only admitted into the DRC via the jail substantially decreases the likelihood of "net-widening."

Aside from the issue of net-widening, the question of whether or not misdemeanor offenders should be targeted for the DRC population in the future should be discussed because, according to the previous research (Latessa, 2003; Kennedy, 2004), an intensive intervention of the DRC for low-risk offenders (i.e., misdemeanor) may disrupt an offender's social ties and decrease his/her social capital. However, as seen in Table 8, the length of stay in the DRC has an positive effect on reducing the likelihood of an offender's termination (Odds, .991;Prob., -0.2%). This result is very intriguing in terms of the policy implications for the DRC. Most of the previous studies stated that the length of stay increased clients' termination due to the DRC's strict surveillance and control, but the present finding suggests opposite directional signs for the relationship between time in the DRC and termination. In terms of Douglas County, the DRC per se facilitates the reestablishment of offenders'

social capital through participation in the programs, rather than simply imposing strict controls on clients. The practical reason for this is that programs offered in the DRC work for clients' reintegration as intended. In addition, based on my internship experiences, "closeness" between DRC staff and clients strengthened the positive effects of the DRC on the establishment of the social capitals, starting with the relationships with the DRC staff, and this eventually contributed to the clients' rehabilitation. According to previous studies (Byrne, 1990; Marciniak, 1999), the interaction between staff and clients plays an important role in improving treatment compliance and eventually in building informal social bonds. In this context misdemeanor offenders in the DRC can be a second priority target population because the DRC functions as a facilitator for the development of social capital, rather than disrupting the informal social ties of misdemeanor offenders (i.e., low-risk offenders). However, it is recommended that the DRC focus more on the felony offenders who have a high risk to recidivate, considering the DRC's structured control and, also, felony offenders' negative effects on misdemeanor offenders (e.g., crime learning from the felony offenders, etc.,).

ANALYSIS OF THE DRC'S RISK ASSESSMENT PROCEDURES

Based on the bivariate analysis (see Table 8) and multivariate analysis (see Table 6 and Table 9), it is necessary to evaluate whether the risk assessment process has been working as intended. Risk assessment is based on four criteria: age, gender, community ties, and criminal history. Of the four criteria, this computerized data only includes age and gender as a criteria-relevant factor. First, as seen in Table 8, age is positively related to risk points ($r = .173$). In other words, older offenders are more likely than young offenders to have higher risk points. It is not consistent with the risk

assessment of the DRC specifying that young offenders (under 22) receive more risk points than do older offenders. This opposite directional signs between age and risk points is because the accumulated criminal history of the older offenders counterbalanceed the benefit of aging at the risk assessment. Second, as seen in Table 6, there are no significant relationships between sex and risk points. Even though female clients get a deduction of one point from the risk scale, female clients are not likely to have lower risk points. On the other hand, the other factors which are not included in the data, i.e., stability of residence and criminal history, are each responsible for approximately 13% (10 points) and 80% (60 points) of the maximum number (75 points) of points on the risk scale. However, the criterion of community ties was barely considered by the DRC staff. The risk assessment is, therefore, mostly determined by an offender's criminal history.

An interesting finding is that, as indicated in Table 4, two offenders who exceeded the maximum limit (75 points) of risk points were also admitted into the DRC. During the risk assessment, an offender's dangerousness can be counterbalanced by other considerations for specific correctional goals. Therefore, the offenders with higher risk points were allowed to participate in the DRC anyway, in consideration of their motivation for rehabilitation.

In addition, as seen in Table 8, race and legal status turned out to have significantly positive relationships with risk points. These variables may play a role as a criteria-irrelevant factor in the process of the risk assessment. Non-white ($r = .277$) and sentenced clients ($r = .165$) received more risk points than did white offenders and pretrial detainees. Possibly, these factors affect the risk assessment process in that, before finally deciding whether the client is eligible for the DRC, the manager considers the judge's previous decisions to check whether he can get a judge's

approval in this situation. This is because every judge in Douglas County has a different sensitivity and responsiveness to different types of crime or criminals. However, these correlations can be considered as potential, not necessary due to the statistical limitation of a bivariate analysis that does not control the effect of other variables.

Finally, as indicated in the multivariate analysis of termination and recidivism (see Table 6 and Table 9), type of offense (i.e., felony versus misdemeanor), GED class (i.e., education), age, and employment were significant predictor of clients' termination and recidivism. Therefore, these factors should be considered significant for predicting an offender's termination and recidivism during the process of risk assessment.

STRENGTHS AND LIMITATIONS OF THE RESEARCH

The present study has two important advantages over previous research. First, most studies identified only the effects of individual and case characteristics on an offender's termination and recidivism. These factors by themselves are not sufficient indicators of the DRC's influence on the offender's reintegration. Therefore, the present study identified the types of effective and ineffective treatment for an offender's reintegration, which will contribute to the efficiency of the DRC. Second, as opposed to previous studies, the current study attempted to understand the nature of DRC's clients through the perspective of developmental theories. This theoretical framework made it possible to understand and interpret the findings more precisely and, in turn, to be helpful in establishing new strategies for the DRC's clients' reintegration.

Three important limitations of the present research must be noted in terms of methodology. One limitation involves the difficulty of controlling for other programs' effects in jail or prison after sentencing because the Douglas County DRC focuses on pretrial released offenders. It is, therefore, impossible to measure the direct effects of the DRC on offenders' reintegration, but from the developmental theoretical perspective, an offender's successful reintegration can be ascribed in part to the DRC's programs on the continuum of treatment. The second limitation of the current study pertains to the short follow-up period for the analysis of offenders' recidivism. One year may not be enough time to measure precisely an offender's recidivism or rehabilitation. As mentioned above, this is because two-thirds of all recidivism occurs during the second and third year following release (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2002:3). However, a one year follow-up period serves as the best alternative, considering the practical constraints (i.e., the short term of the DRC implementation). Finally, considering the small number of cases and other cultural variations (e.g., the goals of the DRC, target population, the definition of termination/recidivism, etc.,), it will be difficult to generalize the current study's results to other jurisdictions. Therefore, all findings must be analyzed and interpreted in the context of the Douglas County criminal justice system.

CONCLUSION

In Douglas County, the most critically important issue is to secure financial savings by alleviating overcrowding in the jails. The concern of cost saving is prevalent all over the DRC as one of the philosophies in pursuits of developing now strategies. However, it is also imperative for the DRC to seek clients' reintegration as a guiding correctional philosophy under the financial constraint of the DRC. In order

to be more faithful to the philosophy of "rehabilitation," based on the findings of the present study, it is recommended that the DRC introduce and develop the following policies for offenders' rehabilitation.

First, the DRC should differentiate between a short-term program for reducing offenders' termination and a long-term program for decreasing offenders' recidivism. As discussed above, especially in terms of the long-term strategy, the continuum of treatment for improving education and employment is very important for accumulating offenders' social capital. However, the impact of intensive treatment provided in the DRC cannot be maintained without being in liaison with community stakeholders because this intensive programming of the DRC is restricted to the short-term during the pretrial period. Enhancing offenders' education and employment can not be achieved by an episodic approach. Rather, as a long-term strategy, it is necessary to continue the treatment in the community. Therefore, the DRC should collaborate with the community for post-release access to substance abuse treatment and other services.

Second, a risk/need assessment plays a critically important role in community-based corrections for offenders' reintegration and for community safety (Andrews, 1983, 1989; Bonta and Montiuk, 1985; Gendreau et al., 1996; Jones, 1996; Kennedy and Serin, 1997; Latessa, 2003). According to Hubbard et al. (2001), an actuarial risk/need assessment is capable of making staff work more efficiency, contributing to offenders' reintegration, and helping staff make better decisions. However, the DRC's current risk assessment uses categories and scales which are too simplistic to reflect the offender's risks and needs. The DRC should develop, reflecting the results of the present study, a more defined risk/need assessment that reflects the nature of DRC's clients in Douglas County. For example, the Level of Service Inventory-Revised (LSI-

R) is composed of 10 areas through 53 questionnaire items to assess offenders' characteristics: Criminal history, education and employment, financial status, family and marital status, accommodation, leisure and recreation, companions, alcohol and drug problems, emotional and personal status, and attitudes and orientation for treatment (Andrews and Bonta, 1995). Using the more defined questionnaires can specifically reflect the DRC's client's characteristics and, therefore, help the DRC staff develop programs or a client's reintegration. Finally, it is desirable to continue the performance of the risk/need assessment as a process during the programs, not just as a one-time event at the intake assessment (Latessa, 2003). Also, the assessment of DRC's clients should be designed to be responsive to changes of offenders' risks and needs contributing to offenders' reintegration.

Finally, the current evaluation of the DRC provides enough momentum for future evaluation: cost-effectiveness research and qualitative research for enhancing the effectiveness of the DRC. As a recommendation for further studies, there are two priority areas of future research for the DRC. First, it is necessary to evaluate the cost-effectiveness of the DRC, that is, how the utilization of the DRC contributes to cost savings for the Douglas County Department of Corrections. In Douglas County, the operation of the DRC contributes to cost savings by the design of case flow, which requires participants to be recruited from the county jail. Moreover, collaboration with other divisions maximizes the cost-effectiveness of the DRC. However, there are still several issues remaining for a comprehensive examination of cost-effectiveness. For instance, further research needs to investigate whether jail space that is vacated through the placement of an offender in the DRC may not be occupied by other offenders or whether or not there are staffing patterns, operational practices, facility design, and policy decisions creating inefficiencies and driving costs up. Second,

investigating qualitative data, which includes an offender's motivation or satisfaction to the DRC, can also be an important step forward in fully understanding the roles of the DRC. In addition, an evaluation of the DRC staff's responsivity and motivation will contribute to the effectiveness of the DRC in an offender's reintegration.

Table 1. Correctional Population in Douglas County: 2004

	Community Programs (N=1053, 49%)			Jail (N=1112, 51%)	
Offender's Status	N	%	Offender's Status	N	%
Work Release	45	4.3	Sentenced Offenders	274	24.7
DRC	35	3.3	Federal Offenders	215	19.3
House Arrest	43	4.1	Pretrial Detainees	623	56.0
Pretrial Release	930	88.3			
Total (N=2165)	1053 (49%)	100.0	Total (N=2165)	1112 (51%)	100.0

Source: created based on "Five Examples of Movement toward a more 'Restorative' Justice System", Nebraska Criminal Justice Review Vol. 5 No. 4, Dec. 2004

Table 2. Review of Drug Treatment Effectiveness by Lightfoot and Taxman

	Lightfoot's study	Taxman's study
The types of effective treatment	· Social learning based treatment · Aversion therapy · Covert Sensitization · Contingency management · Broad spectrum therapies · Individualized behavior therapy · Community reinforcement · Behavior self-control thinking · Relapse prevention	· Directive counseling · Behavior modification · Therapeutic community · Moral reasoning · Social competency cognitive behavior models · Emotional skill development · Cognitive skills · Behavioral skills
The types of ineffective treatment	· Acupuncture · Education · Lectures · Bibliotherapy · Self-help · Alcoholics anonymous · Narcotics anonymous · Al-anon · Adult children of alcoholics · Psycho-therapy · Supportive · Confrontational · Pharmacotherapies	· Nondirective counseling · Reality therapy · Psychosocial education · 12-step or other self-help groups · Psychoanalytical

Source: Lightfoot, L. (1997). "What Works in Drug Treatment." Presented at the International Community Corrections Association annual meeting. Cited by Latessa and Allen (2003:512), Corrections in the community, Anderson Publishing Co. Taxman, F.S. (2000). "Unraveling 'What Works' for Offenders in Substance Abuse Treatment Services." National Drug Coiurt Institute Review, Vol. Ⅱ ,2. Cited by Latessa and Allen (2003:513), Corrections in the community, Anderson Publishing Co.

Table 3. Graduation Rates of the Existing Day Reporting Centers

Graduation Rates	Location	Type of Operating Agency	Researcher
84 %	Orange County, Florida	Community Corrections Department of the Corrections Division	Diggs and Pieper, 1994
82 %	Worcester County, Massachusetts	Worcester County Sheriff's Department	McDevitt and Miliano, 1992
77 %	Norfolk County, Massachusetts	Norfolk County Sheriff's Department	McDevitt and Miliano, 1992
72 %	Metropolitan, Massachusetts	Private Program	McDevitt and Miliano, 1992
68 %	Hampden County, Massachusetts	Hampden County Sheriff's Department	Parent et. al., 1995
68 %	Maricopa County, Arizona	Maricopa County Adult Probation Service Center	Parent et. al., 1995
65 %	Connecticut	Connecticut Judicial Department Office of Alternative Sanctions	Parent et. al., 1995
61 %	Baraboo, Wisconsin	*	Craddock, 2000
61 %	Cook County, Illinois	Cook County Sheriff's Department	Lurigio et al., 1999
61 %	Upstate New York	*	Humphrey, 1992
50 %	Norfolk, Virginia	Norfolk Probation and Parole Offices	Lucas and Bogle, 1997b
46 %	Richmond, Virginia	Richmond Probation and Parole Offices	Lucas and Bogle, 1997a
41 %	La Crosse, Wisconsin	*	Craddock, 2000
13.5 %	Southeastern North Carolina	*	Marciniak, 1999

Source: Roy, Sudipto (2002:3). "Adult Offenders in a Day Reporting Center – A Preliminary Study." Federal Probation, Vol. 66, Issue 1, p44, 7 p, retrieved Aug, 13, 2004 from http://search.epnet.com/login.aspx?direct=true&db=aph&an=7315955 (p1-13)

Table 4. Dependent and Independent Variables used in the Analysis of Termination: Coding, Frequencies, and Percentages.

Variables	Coding	Frequencies	Percentages
Total Number of Cases		273	100.0
DEPENDENT VARIABLE			
Termination	0 = Not terminated	189	69.2
	1 = Terminated	84	30.8
INDEPENDENT VARIABLES			
Individual Variables			
Age	Continuous Variable (18 - 55)	31.60 (Mean)	9.51 (SD)
Employment	0 = Unemployed	191	70.0
	1 = Employed	82	30.0
Gender	0 = Female	76	27.8
	1 = Male	197	72.2
Race	0 = White	153	56.0
	1 = Non-White	120	44.0
Case Variables			
Legal Status	0 = Pre-trial Released	232	85.0
	1 = Sentenced	41	15.0
Length of Stay	Continuous Variable (1 - 229)	59.84 (Mean)	56.01 (SD)
Type of Offense	0 = Misdemeanor	100	36.6
	1 = Felony	173	63.4
Program Variables			
Life Skills Education			
Cognitive Thinking	0 = Not participating	127	46.5
	1 = Participating	146	53.5
Domestic Violence	0 = Not participating	244	89.4
	1 = Participating	29	10.6
GED/ABE	0 = Not participating	172	63.0
	1 = Participating	101	37.0
HIV Education	0 = Not participating	145	53.1
	1 = Participating	128	46.9
Job Skills	0 = Not participating	176	64.5
	1 = Participating	97	35.5
Know Yourself	0 = Not participating	188	68.9
	1 = Participating	85	31.1
Money Management	0 = Not participating	128	46.9
	1 = Participating	145	53.1
Parenting	0 = Not participating	200	73.3
	1 = Participating	73	26.7
Reactive Behaviors	0 = Not participating	133	48.7
	1 = Participating	140	51.3
Relationship Skill	0 = Not participating	232	85.0
	1 = Participating	41	15.0
Social Skills	0 = Not participating	200	73.3
	1 = Participating	73	26.7

Table 4. Continued.

Variables	Coding	Frequencies	Percentages
Alcohol/other Substance Abuse Education			
Chemical Dependency	0 = Not participating	128	46.9
	1 = Participating	145	53.1
Relapse Prevention	0 = Not participating	214	78.4
	1 = Participating	59	21.6
Specific Individual Treatment			
Personal Evaluation	0 = Not evaluated	179	65.6
	1 = Evaluated	84	34.4
Individual Therapy	0 = Not participating	102	37.4
	1 = Participating	171	62.6
Individual Therapy Hours	Continuous Variable (0 - 46)	2.71 (Mean)	4.44 (SD)
Self-help Groups			
AA Meetings	Continuous Variable (0 - 60)	4.28 (Mean)	9.33 (SD)
NA Meetings	Continuous Variable (0 - 91)	2.37(Mean)	7.98 (SD)
Community Service	0 = Not participating	123	45.1
	1 = Participating	150	54.9
Community Service Hours	Continuous Variable (0 – 320)	11.83 (Mean)	29.59 (SD)
Risk Point Variable	Continuous Variable (1 - 78)	24.5(Mean)	15.91 (SD)

Table 5. Zero Order Correlation Matrix For Variables Included in the Analysis of Termination.

	Terminati.	Age	Employm.	Gender	Race	Legal Status	Length of Stay	Type Offense	Risk Points	Cognitive Thinking
Termination	1.000									
Age	0.010	1.000								
Employment	0.031	0.053	1.000							
Gender	0.059	0.030	0.175**	1.000						
Race	-0.014	0.047	-0.113	-0.059	1.000					
Legal Status	0.008	0.004	-0.074	-0.036	0.102	1.000				
Length of Stay	-0.171**	0.088	0.625***	0.105	-0.126*	-0.116	1.000			
Typeof Offense	0.193**	0.101	0.199**	0.053	-0.092	-0.020	0.178**	1.00000		
Risk Points	0.053	0.173**	0.133*	0.038	0.277***	0.165**	0.148*	0.091	1.000	
Cognitive T.	-0.173**	0.109*	0.514***	0.043	-0.106	-0.101	0.718***	0.068	0.081	1.000
Domestic V.	-0.023	0.017	0.292***	-0.077	-0.017	0.021	0.324***	0.089	0.048	0.321***
GED/ABE	-0.017	0.044	0.375***	0.035	-0.128*	-0.088	0.488***	-0.000	-0.013	0.532***
HIV Edu.	-0.149*	0.097	0.521***	0.174**	-0.122*	-0.045	0.662***	0.120*	0.059	0.758***
Job Skills	-0.047	0.098	0.381***	0.000	-0.056	-0.076	0.582***	0.151*	0.158**	0.631***
Know Yourself	-0.088	0.028	0.370***	-0.005	-0.101	-0.083	0.567***	0.215**	-0.032	0.627***
Money M.	-0.121*	0.075	0.487***	0.071	-0.055	-0.077	0.675***	0.154*	0.094	0.771***
Parenting	-0.133*	0.189**	0.326***	-0.049	-0.068	0.024	0.451***	0.064	0.124*	0.530***
Reactive B.	-0.160**	0.118	0.558***	0.064	-0.140*	-0.123*	0.751***	0.110	0.081	0.898***
Relationship S.	-0.080	0.044	0.238***	0.123*	-0.041	-0.033	0.281***	-0.020	0.095	0.350***
Social Skills	-0.169**	0.015	0.344***	-0.012	-0.118	-0.022	0.426***	-0.073	0.033	0.530***
Chemical D.	-0.152*	0.135*	0.551***	0.038	-0.114	-0.118	0.750***	0.108	0.087	0.933***
Relapse P.	-0.253***	0.055	0.335***	0.068	-0.142*	-0.096	0.444***	-0.025	0.016	0.454***
Had Evaluation	-0.182**	0.096	0.416***	0.106	-0.175**	-0.088	0.562***	0.006	0.099	0.552***
Individual T.	-0.010	0.030	0.340***	0.111	-0.139*	-0.099	0.470***	0.135*	0.111	0.524***
IT Hours	-0.120*	0.159**	0.233***	-0.014	-0.167**	-0.002	0.467***	0.155*	0.025	0.455***
Community Ser.	-0.098	0.061	0.448***	0.160**	-0.073	-0.175**	0.597***	0.182**	0.124*	0.572***
CS Hours	-0.093	0.033	0.266***	0.077	-0.098	-0.074	0.503***	0.122*	0.100	0.331***
AA Meetings	-0.172**	0.160**	0.264***	0.003	-0.140*	-0.016	0.343***	0.011	-0.042	0.384***
NA Meetings	-0.116	-0.018	0.238***	0.045	-0.130*	-0.009	0.322***	-0.018	0.108	0.259***

* Significance level less than or equal to .05
** Significance level less than or equal to .01
*** Significance level less than or equal to .0001

Table 5. Continued

	Domestic Violence	GED/ABE	HIV Education	Job Skills	Know Yourself	Money Managem	Parenting	Reactive Behaviors	Relation Skill	Social Skills
Termination										
Age										
Employment										
Gender										
Race										
Legal Status										
Length of Stay										
Typeof Offense										
Risk Points										
Cognitive T.										
Domestic V.	1.000									
GED/ABE	0.277***	1.000								
HIV Edu.	0.295***	0.389***	1.000							
Job Skills	0.290***	0.223**	0.529***	1.000						
Know Yourself	0.281***	0.320***	0.573***	0.558***	1.000					
Money M.	0.228***	0.446***	0.706***	0.528***	0.520***	1.000				
Parenting	0.275***	0.325***	0.493***	0.398***	0.344***	0.434***	1.000			
Reactive B.	0.336***	0.504***	0.754***	0.677***	0.655***	0.729***	0.555***	1.000		
Relationship S.	0.088	0.230**	0.365***	0.116	-0.016	0.312***	0.186**	0.409***	1.000	
Social Skills	0.060	0.291***	0.493***	0.329***	0.255***	0.468***	0.308***	0.555***	0.533***	1.000
Chemical D.	0.323***	0.522***	0.779***	0.651***	0.631***	0.779***	0.551***	0.934***	0.394***	0.567***
Relapse P.	0.021	0.334***	0.416***	0.316***	0.358***	0.368***	0.306***	0.511***	0.302***	0.567***
Had Evaluation	0.125*	0.354***	0.555***	0.331***	0.328***	0.480***	0.258***	0.552***	0.364***	0.502***
Individual T.	0.143*	0.309***	0.482***	0.430***	0.404***	0.503***	0.312***	0.519***	0.197**	0.278***
IT Hours	0.290***	0.328***	0.387***	0.400***	0.418***	0.393***	0.351***	0.466***	0.112	0.289***
Community Ser.	0.073	0.434***	0.555***	0.410***	0.418***	0.550***	0.347***	0.575***	0.257***	0.397***
CS Hours	0.106	0.204**	0.341***	0.285***	0.382***	0.313***	0.196**	0.341***	0.095	0.028
AA Meetings	0.243***	0.210**	0.338***	0.305***	0.215**	0.284***	0.362***	0.391***	0.190**	0.337***
NA Meetings	0.024	0.223**	0.278***	0.076	0.248***	0.222**	0.129*	0.269***	0.120*	0.259***

* Significance level less than or equal to .05
** Significance level less than or equal to .01
*** Significance level less than or equal to .0001

Table 5. Continued

	Chemical Dependen	Relapse Preventio	Had Evaluatio	Individua Therapy	IT Hours	Communit y Service	CS Hours	AA Hours	NA Hours
Termination									
Age									
Employment									
Gender									
Race									
Legal Status									
Length of Stay									
Typeof Offense									
Risk Points									
Cognitive T.									
Domestic V.									
GED/ABE									
HIV Edu.									
Job Skills									
Know Yourself									
Money M.									
Parenting									
Reactive B.									
Relationship S									
Social Skills									
Chemical D.	1.000								
Relapse P.	0.493***	1.000							
Had Evaluation	0.588***	0.499***	1.000						
Individual T.	0.548***	0.313***	0.368***	1.000					
IT Hours	0.461***	0.317***	0.273***	0.469***	1.000				
Community Ser.	0.609***	0.368***	0.470***	0.411***	0.267***	1.000			
CS Hours	0.343***	0.062	0.231**	0.164**	0.126*	0.362***	1.000		
AA Meetings	0.389***	0.413***	0.287***	0.193**	0.313***	0.259***	0.158**	1.000	
NA Meetings	0.261***	0.229**	0.291***	0.211**	0.134*	0.219**	0.485***	0.239***	1.000

* Significance level less than or equal to .05
** Significance level less than or equal to .01
*** Significance level less than or equal to .0001

Table 6. Logistic Regression in the Analysis of Termination: Results of Backward Model Selection.

	B	SE	Odds	Prob. Diff.
Case Variables				
Length of Stay	-0.009	0.004	0.991*	-0.2%
Type of Offense	1.197	0.324	3.307**	26.8%
Program Variables				
GED/ABE	0.817	0.355	2.265*	19.4%
Relapse Prevention	-1.708	0.531	0.181**	-34.7%
Intercept	-1.174**	0.288		
-2 Log Likelihood	296.464			
Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square	40.550 (p<.0001)			
Maximum Rescaled R-Square	0.1947			

Note: The analysis included all individual, case, program variables, but this table only reports significant variables due to the nature of the backward model selection.

* Significance level less than or equal to .05

** Significance level less than or equal to .01

Table 7. Dependent and Independent Variables used in the Analysis of Recidivism: Coding, Frequencies, and Percentages.

Variables	Coding	Frequencies	Percentages
Total Number of Cases		189	100
DEPENDENT VARIABLE			
Recidivism	0 = Not rearrested	87	46.0
	1 = Rearrested	102	54.0
INDEPENDENT VARIABLES			
Individual Variables			
Age	Continuous Variable (18 - 55)	31.54 (Mean)	9.62(SD)
Employment	0 = Unemployed	131	69.3
	1 = Employed	58	30.7
Gender	0 = Female	56	29.6
	1 = Male	133	70.4
Race	0 = White	105	55.6
	1 = Non-White	84	44.4
Case Variables			
Legal Status	0 = Pre-trial Released	161	85.2
	1 = Sentenced	28	14.8
Length of Stay	Continuous Variables (1 - 229)	66.22 (Mean)	58.75 (SD)
Type of Offense	0 = Misdemeanor	81	42.9
	1 = Felony	108	57.1
Program Variables			
Life Skills Education			
Cognitive Thinking	0 = Not participating	77	40.7
	1 = Participating	112	59.3
Domestic Violence	0 = Not participating	168	88.9
	1 = Participating	21	11.1
GED/ABE	0 = Not participating	118	62.4
	1 = Participating	71	37.6
HIV Education	0 = Not participating	91	48.1
	1 = Participating	98	51.9
Job Skills	0 = Not participating	119	63.0
	1 = Participating	70	37.0
Know Yourself	0 = Not participating	125	66.1
	1 = Participating	64	33.9
Money Management	0 = Not participating	81	42.9
	1 = Participating	108	57.1
Parenting	0 = Not participating	131	69.3
	1 = Participating	58	30.7
Reactive Behaviors	0 = Not participating	82	43.4
	1 = Participating	107	56.6
Relationship Skill	0 = Not participating	157	83.1
	1 = Participating	32	16.9
Social Skills	0 = Not participating	129	68.3
	1 = Participating	60	31.7

Table 7. Continued.

Variables	Coding	Frequencies	Percentages
Alcohol/other Substance Abuse Education			
Chemical Dependency	0 = Not participating	79	41.8
	1 = Participating	110	58.2
Relapse Prevention	0 = Not participating	135	71.4
	1 = Participating	54	28.6
Specific Individual Treatment			
Had Evaluation	0 = Not evaluated	113	59.8
	1 = Evaluated	76	40.2
Individual Therapy	0 = Not participating	70	37.0
	1 = Participating	119	63.0
Individual Therapy Hours	Continuous Variable (0 - 46)	3.07 (Mean)	4.99 (SD)
Self-help Groups			
AA Meetings	Continuous Variable (0 - 60)	5.35 (Mean)	10.54 (SD)
NA Meetings	Continuous Variable (0 - 91)	2.99 (Mean)	9.08 (SD)
Community Service	0 = Not participating	79	41.8
	1 = Participating	110	58.2
Community Service Hours	Continuous Variable (0 - 320)	13.67 (Mean)	33.54 (SD)
Risk Point Variable	Continuous Variable (1 - 77)	23.48 (Mean)	16.57 (SD)

Table 8. Zero Order Correlation Matrix For Variables Included in the Analysis of Recidivism.

	Rearrest	Age	Employm.	Gender	Race	Legal Status	Length of Stay	Type Offense	Risk Points	Cognitive Thinking
Rearrest	1.000									
Age	-0.130	1.000								
Employment	-0.237**	0.033	1.000							
Gender	-0.018	0.015	0.205**	1.000						
Race	0.014	0.011	-0.110	-0.049	1.000					
Legal Status	0.146*	-0.039	-0.019	-0.022	0.106	1.000				
Length of Stay	-0.186*	0.032	0.632***	0.110	-0.184*	-0.076	1.000			
Typeof Offense	-0.156*	0.089	0.274**	0.070	-0.107	0.000	0.263**	1.000		
Risk Points	0.157*	0.147*	0.190**	0.104	0.210**	0.233**	0.175*	0.037	1.000	
Cognitive T.	-0.117	0.047	0.458***	0.027	-0.125	-0.017	0.694***	0.174*	0.135	1.000
Domestic V.	-0.078	0.068	0.239**	-0.065	-0.045	0.042	0.282***	0.102	0.031	0.293***
GED/ABE	-0.116	-0.022	0.336***	0.000	-0.144*	-0.015	0.470***	0.031	-0.027	0.487***
HIV Edu.	-0.103	0.064	0.503***	0.186*	-0.139	0.014	0.659***	0.213**	0.131	0.774***
Job Skills	-0.061	0.080	0.321***	-0.054	-0.024	-0.011	0.561***	0.199**	0.223**	0.613***
Know Yourself	-0.101	-0.017	0.299***	-0.000	-0.100	-0.046	0.569***	0.258**	-0.020	0.593***
Money M.	-0.156*	0.048	0.437***	0.023	-0.086	-0.030	0.672***	0.222**	0.147*	0.783***
Parenting	-0.122	0.198**	0.303***	-0.095	-0.110	0.077	0.426***	0.135	0.185*	0.528***
Reactive B.	-0.144*	0.083	0.513***	0.063	-0.162*	-0.055	0.735***	0.191**	0.138	0.881***
Relationship	-0.064	0.008	0.189**	0.107	-0.091	0.010	0.221**	-0.008	0.119	0.345***
Social Skills	-0.077	-0.014	0.310***	-0.055	-0.175*	0.035	0.424***	-0.006	0.058	0.519***
Chemical D.	-0.158*	0.093	0.494***	0.013	-0.127	-0.039	0.736***	0.219**	0.150*	0.912***
Relapse P.	-0.050	0.045	0.417***	0.076	-0.212**	-0.098	0.478***	0.050	0.043	0.476***
Had Evaluation	-0.021	0.044	0.413***	0.106	-0.234**	-0.068	0.550***	0.056	0.125	0.548***
Individual T.	-0.026	0.023	0.320***	0.054	-0.196**	0.011	0.475***	0.199**	0.149*	0.568***
IT Hours	-0.070	0.152*	0.179*	-0.023	-0.189**	0.042	0.425***	0.187**	0.032	0.422***
Community Ser.	-0.158*	0.028	0.424***	0.201**	-0.062	-0.069	0.590***	0.263**	0.177*	0.519***
CS Hours	-0.103	0.019	0.256**	0.077	-0.075	-0.050	0.498***	0.171*	0.144*	0.297***
AA Meetings	-0.150*	0.143*	0.239**	-0.010	-0.171*	0.015	0.286***	0.032	-0.053	0.364***
NA Meetings	-0.001	-0.036	0.231**	0.041	-0.142	0.010	0.322***	0.017	0.115	0.252**

* Significance level less than or equal to .05
** Significance level less than or equal to .01
*** Significance level less than or equal to .0001

Table 8. Continued

	Domestic Violence	GED/ABE	HIV Education	Job Skills	Know Yourself	Money Managem	Parenting	Reactive Behaviors	Relation Skill	Social Skills
Rearrest										
Age										
Employment										
Gender										
Race										
Legal Status										
Length of Stay										
Type of Offense										
Risk Points										
Cognitive T.										
Domestic V.	1.000									
GED/ABE	0.316***	1.000								
HIV Edu.	0.307***	0.353***	1.000							
Job Skills	0.251**	0.129	0.541***	1.000						
Know Yourself	0.245**	0.252**	0.600***	0.516***	1.000					
Money M.	0.238**	0.406***	0.706***	0.487***	0.484***	1.000				
Parenting	0.312***	0.312***	0.503***	0.392***	0.323***	0.437***	1.000			
Reactive B.	0.309***	0.480***	0.780***	0.671***	0.626***	0.730***	0.559***	1.000		
Relationship	0.109	0.232**	0.322***	0.121	-0.054	0.305***	0.158*	0.395***	1.000	
Social Skills	0.084	0.268**	0.475***	0.371***	0.256**	0.452***	0.310***	0.574***	0.510***	1.000
Chemical D.	0.299***	0.480***	0.793***	0.649***	0.606***	0.805***	0.540***	0.924***	0.382***	0.577***
Relapse P.	0.037	0.355***	0.445***	0.363***	0.364***	0.382***	0.315***	0.553***	0.307***	0.575***
Had Evaluation	0.122	0.344***	0.552***	0.354***	0.348***	0.513***	0.249**	0.543***	0.291***	0.483***
Individual T.	0.131	0.255**	0.510***	0.406***	0.433***	0.531***	0.367***	0.566***	0.229**	0.311***
IT Hours	0.275**	0.322***	0.370***	0.365***	0.378***	0.378***	0.393***	0.440***	0.118	0.309***
Community Ser.	0.026	0.391***	0.557***	0.361***	0.402***	0.566***	0.331***	0.535***	0.210**	0.393***
CS Hours	0.112	0.176*	0.321***	0.243**	0.366***	0.296***	0.149*	0.308***	0.093	0.005
AA Meetings	0.229**	0.213**	0.310***	0.293***	0.183*	0.252**	0.365***	0.376***	0.164**	0.342***
NA Meetings	0.030	0.227**	0.272**	0.080	0.288***	0.216**	0.113	0.266**	0.120	0.245**

* Significance level less than or equal to .05
** Significance level less than or equal to .01
*** Significance level less than or equal to .0001

Table 8. Continued

	Chemical Dependen	Relapse Preventio	Had Evaluatio	Individua Therapy	IT Hours	Communit y Service	CS Hours	AA Hours	NA Hours
Rearrest									
Age									
Employment									
Gender									
Race									
Legal Status									
Length of Stay									
Type of Offense									
Risk Points									
Cognitive T.									
Domestic V.									
GED/ABE									
HIV Edu.									
Job Skills									
Know Yourself									
Money M.									
Parenting									
Reactive B.									
Relationship									
Social Skills									
Chemical D.	1.000								
Relapse P.	0.535***	1.000							
Had Evaluation	0.585***	0.532***	1.000						
Individual T.	0.594***	0.388***	0.427***	1.000					
IT Hours	0.435***	0.322***	0.237**	0.472***	1.000				
Community Ser.	0.565***	0.440***	0.476***	0.416***	0.237**	1.000			
CS Hours	0.312***	0.048	0.199**	0.144*	0.073	0.346***	1.000		
AA Meetings	0.376***	0.408***	0.262**	0.191**	0.285***	0.235**	0.120	1.000	
NA Meetings	0.257**	0.234**	0.286***	0.237**	0.118	0.216**	0.503***	0.243**	1.000

* Significance level less than or equal to .05
** Significance level less than or equal to .01
*** Significance level less than or equal to .0001

Table 9. Logistic Regression in the Analysis of Recidivism: Results of Backward Model Seclection.

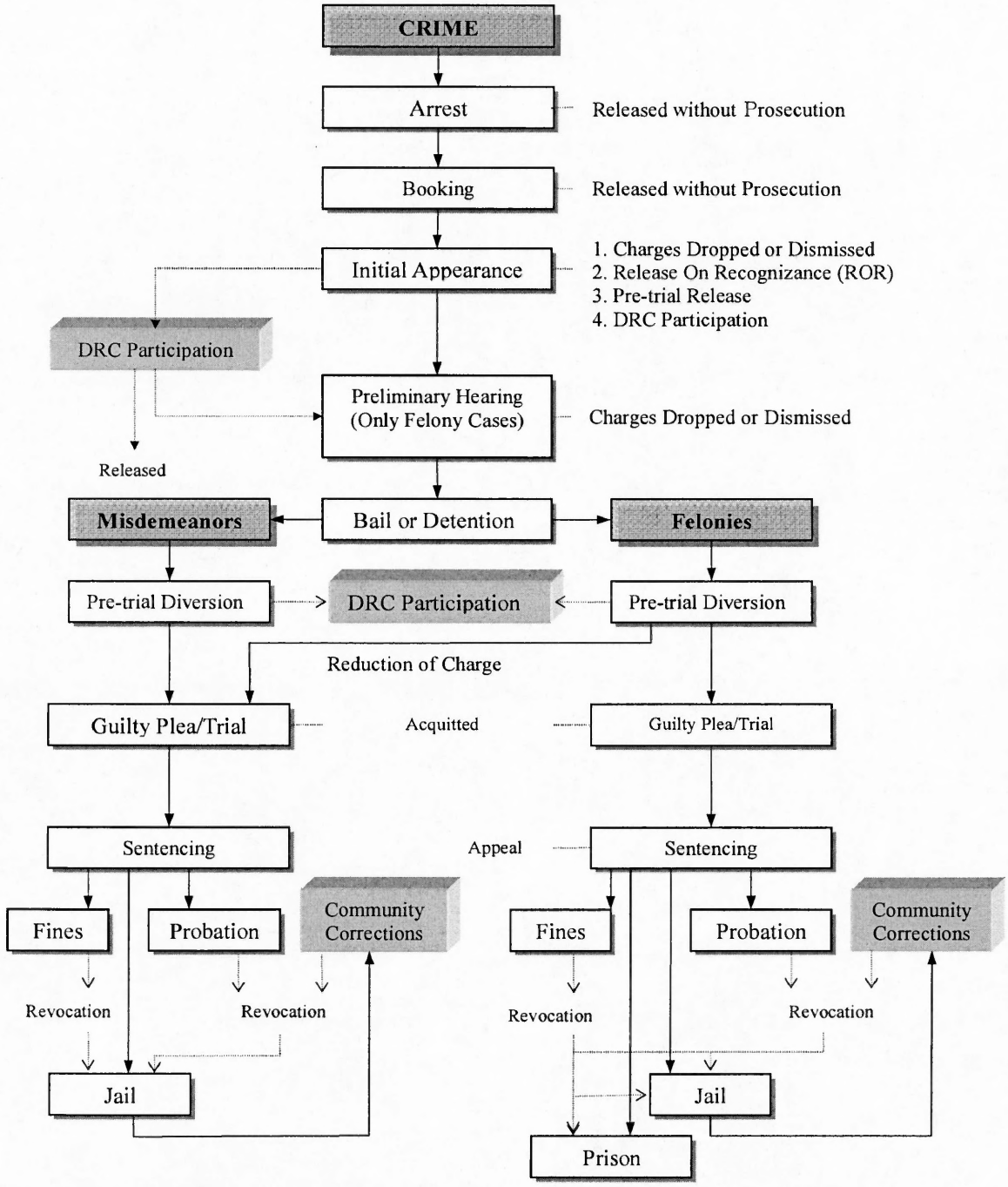
	B	SE	Odds	Prob. Diff.
Individual Variables				
Age	-0.037	0.017	0.964*	-0.9%
Employment	-1.332	0.358	0.264**	-29.1%
Case Variables				
Risk Points	0.033	0.010	1.033**	0.8%
Intercept	0.982	0.560		
-2 Log Likelihood	236.271			
Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square	24.547 (p<.0001)			
Maximum Rescaled R-Square	0.163			

Note: The analysis included all individual, case, program variables, but this table only reports significant variables due to the nature of the backward model selection.

* Significance level less than or equal to .05

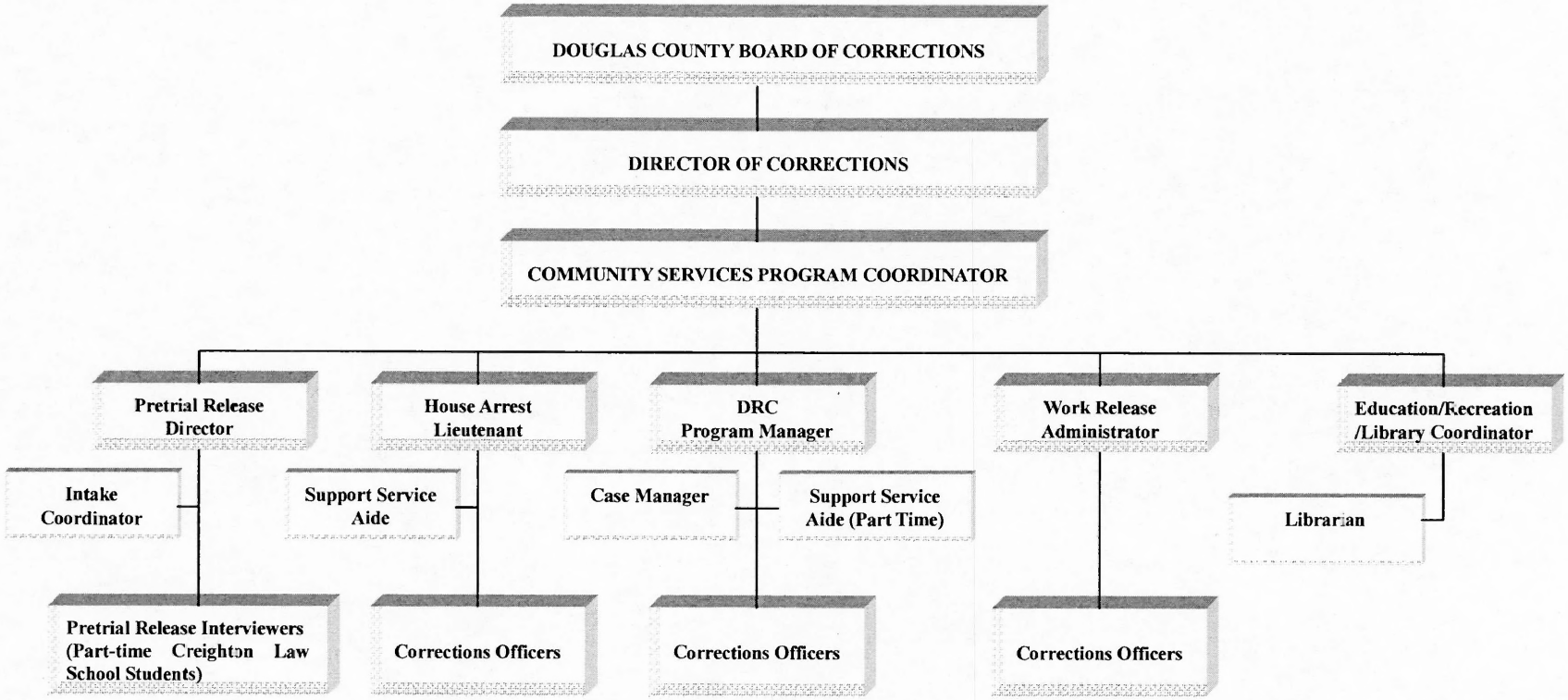
** Significance level less than or equal to .01

Figure 1. Misdemeanor/Felony Caseflow in the Douglas County Criminal Justice System



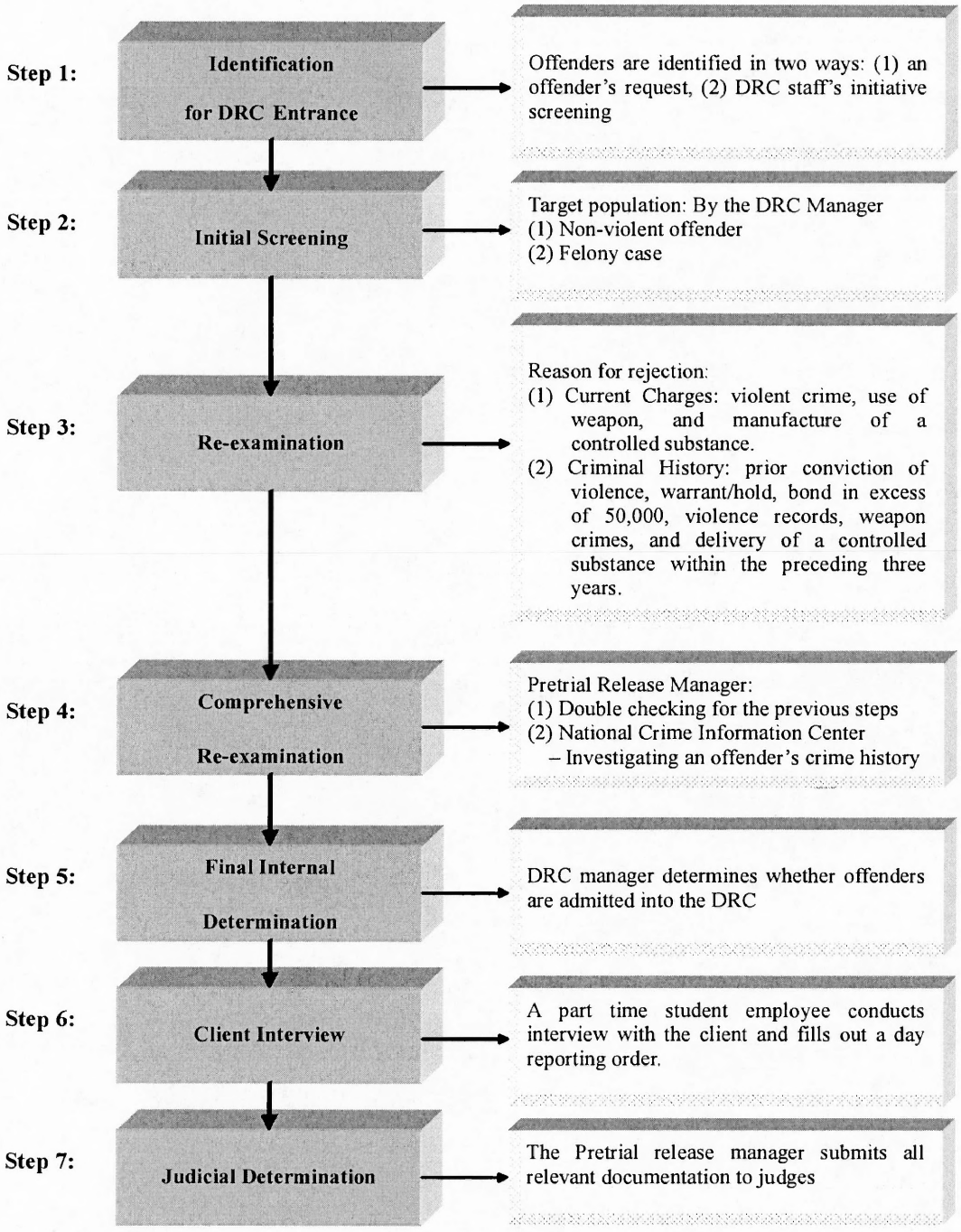
Source: Recreated for the Douglas County Criminal Justice System from "Diagram of How a Case Moves Through the Courts", retrieved Jan, 31, 2005 from http://www.abanet.org/publiced/courts/casediagram.html

Figure 2. Community Services Organizational Chart in Douglas County Department of Corrections Community Programs



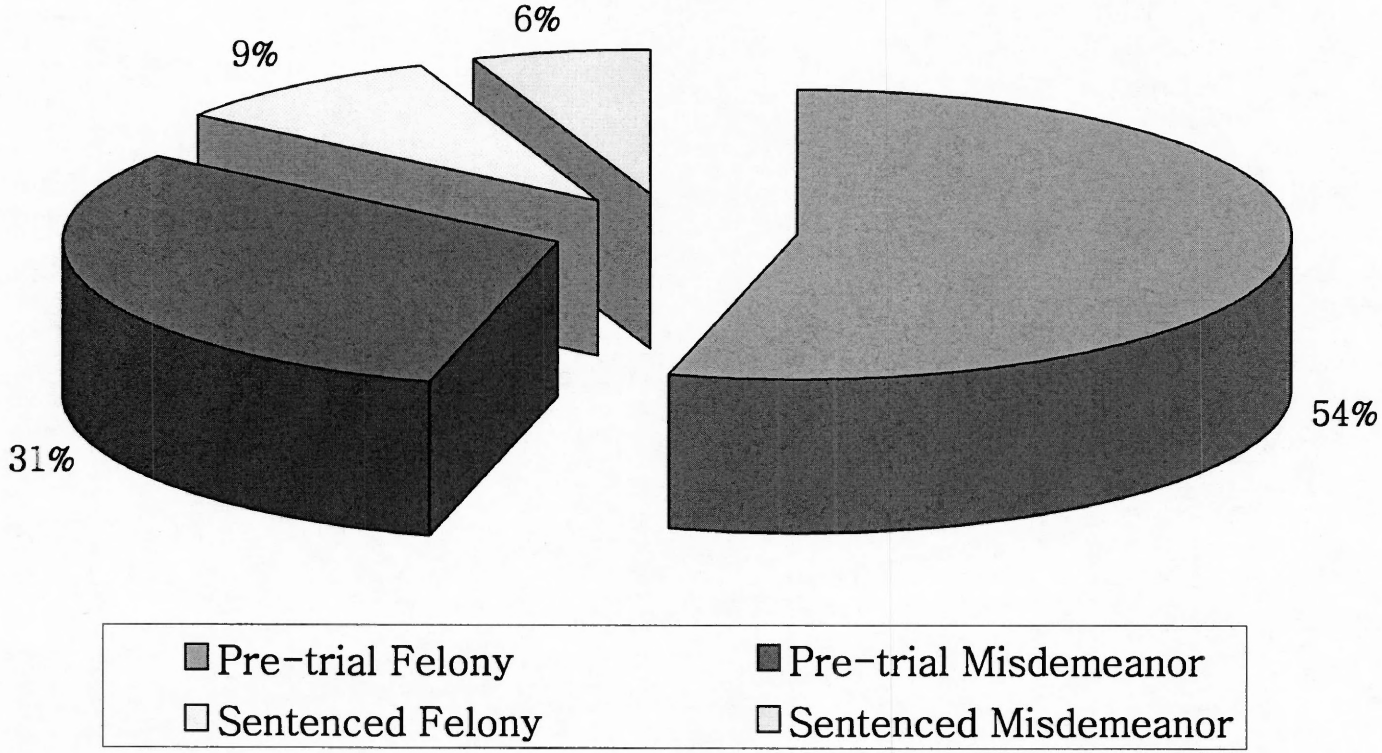
Source: Douglas County Department of Corrections Community Program

Figure 3. Intake Process of Offenders in the Douglas County Day Reporting Center



Source: Recreated for Douglas County from "The Caseflow Process in Maricopa County, Arizona", by Dale Parent, Jim Byrne, Vered Tsarfaty, Laaura Valade, and Julie Esselman, Day Reporting Centers (Washington, D.C.: National Institute of Justice, 1995), p.35.

Figure 4. Correctional Population of the DRC in the Analysis of Targeting and Net-widening



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