



The Potential of Community Corrections to Improve Safety and Reduce Incarceration

JULY 2013

Executive Summary

As the size and cost of jails and prisons have grown, so too has the awareness that public investment in incarceration has not yielded the expected return on public safety. Today, in the United States, an opportunity exists to reexamine the wisdom of our reliance on institutional corrections—incarceration in prisons or jails—and to reconsider the role of community-based corrections, which encompasses probation, parole, and pretrial supervision. However, it could also be an opportunity wasted if care is not taken to bolster the existing capacity of community corrections.

States and counties are moving to shift the burden from institutional to community corrections, sending greater numbers of offenders to supervision agencies with heightened expectations of success but often without the additional resources necessary to do the job that is being asked of them. The well-worn adage about building a plane while flying it seems an apt description of where community corrections finds itself in 2013.

There is considerable variability within and across states in the way community corrections is organized and financed. Agency responsibilities and accountability also differ. This report begins with a summary of what constitutes community corrections today and what are best practices, and then describes the efforts of some states to reshape their work (which are identified in the report as “state spotlights”).

While many states have begun to transform their community corrections, much remains to be done. In some states, efforts to build capacity, attract new resources, and contribute in significant ways to public safety are at the starting place of educating policymakers and stakeholders on the function and purpose of supervision. In other jurisdictions, agencies are working to integrate proven practices into their operations but face challenges, including a lack of resources and opposition by both policymakers and agency staff to new ways of doing business. States and counties have also begun experimenting with new technologies and practices in their supervision to more efficiently and safely manage offenders in the community. However, some of these approaches have yet to be rigorously evaluated to prove their effectiveness. This report includes a discussion of practices that are attracting interest from the community corrections field, yet require additional research to determine if their intended outcomes are being achieved.

With mounting pressure on community supervision agencies to ease strained budgets, reduce institutional crowding, and provide a greater return on public safety dollars, it is urgent that policymakers and the public work together to develop a much greater understanding of what is possible for these agencies to achieve and what it will take to get there. In particular, leaders in the field need to develop:

- > a major change in the culture that has dominated supervision agencies for at least the last 30 years;
- > an investment of resources to enable agencies to adopt evidence-based practices;
- > a realistic plan for agency transformation;
- > a commitment to monitor and measure outcomes and what works; and
- > an understanding among the courts, legislature, and executive-branch agencies of their role in enabling supervision agencies to deliver on public safety expectations.

With this report, Vera’s Center on Sentencing and Corrections provides an overview of the state of community corrections, the transformational practices emerging in the field, and recommendations to policymakers on realizing the full value of community supervision to taxpayers and communities.

FROM THE CENTER DIRECTOR

When I first began working in corrections more than 30 years ago, the impact of Robert Martinson’s assessment that “nothing works” in community corrections (made famous by his 1974 article, “What Works: Questions and Answers about Prison Reform”) was just beginning to be felt. Minnesota’s first-in-the-nation sentencing guidelines were starting to draw attention and, a few years later, in 1982, Peter Greenwood and his colleagues at Rand were writing for the National Institute of Justice on the value of selective incapacitation through incarceration in preventing crime. The combination of those three developments over the space of just a few years had a profound impact on corrections, especially community corrections, and left the field with many of the problems described in this report.

But those same 30 years, with the availability of faster, cheaper data systems and the leadership of key researchers in Canada and the United States, have seen the emergence of new and compelling findings on what *does work* in community corrections and given confidence to more and more policymakers to put those research results into policy.

This report is a review of the current state of community corrections and the new practices and exciting policy changes emerging in the states. But it is also a caution: Change never arrives overnight; it needs support—both political and fiscal—to succeed. Or we could be looking at a return to the days of “nothing works.”



Peggy McGarry
Director, Center on Sentencing and Corrections

Contents

- 4 Introduction
- 5 What is Community Corrections?
- 9 Current State of Community Corrections
- 14 Emerging Best Practices
- 20 Current Practices that Need More Research
- 25 Recent Policy Changes in Community Corrections
- 28 Moving Forward: Recommendations to the Field
- 31 Conclusion

Introduction

In the last 40 years, the number of people confined in state prisons—sometimes referred to as institutional corrections—has increased more than 700 percent, reaching 1.4 million in 2010.¹ States built prisons in response to federal incentives and to accommodate the impact of changes to their own sentencing laws and policies. The cost of housing prisoners grew along with the rate of incarceration—often becoming the second largest expenditure from a state’s general fund. A recent Vera Institute of Justice (Vera) study of 40 states found that in 2011 the average annual cost per inmate was \$31,286 when all prison costs were included.²

In the wake of the 2008 recession, states and counties grappling with widening budget shortfalls have frequently targeted institutional corrections for cuts. After exhausting operational efficiencies without solving the problem, policymakers in a number of states have again turned to making changes in sentencing law and policy—but, this time, as a means to move inmates out of expensive prison and jail beds and into what’s known as community corrections: probation, parole, or pretrial supervision.

When adequately resourced and carefully planned, community supervision can be an effective response to criminal behavior for both justice-involved individuals and communities. Without additional investments, however, redirecting more defendants and offenders into existing systems may not generate the cost-savings or public safety outcomes policymakers are seeking. With more than five million adults already on probation and parole supervision in 2009, the population increases that will follow recent legislative efforts are likely to put significant stress on supervising agencies.

As Vera staff have monitored legislation across the country over the last five years and assisted agencies charged with its implementation, we have observed a certain amount of anxiety and fear among those in the field. What will happen if this shift in policy fails? What will be the reaction if an inadequately, ineffectively managed parolee or probationer commits a terrible crime? Will states and counties turn their backs on the idea that they can achieve public safety *and* reduce incarceration?

Community corrections agencies that incorporate practices supported by good research, are adequately resourced in staff and services, and enjoy the understanding and support of the courts and policymakers have the potential to achieve great results. Community-based corrections supervision is less expensive than prison or jail and can be a source of positive change for communities. By keeping individuals in the community and offering supervision, intervention, and services that are responsive to their risk and needs to prevent reoffending, community supervision can improve public safety and, with it, the viability of neighborhoods that are most affected by crime and large numbers of people returning from prison.

Community corrections agencies that incorporate practices supported by good research, are adequately resourced in staff and services, and enjoy the understanding and support of the courts and policymakers have the potential to achieve great results.

Defendants and offenders who are not incarcerated have the opportunity to remain with their families, retain employment, and participate in treatment or other programming within the natural context of their lives—as opposed to the unnatural setting of a prison or jail.³ Drug and mental health treatment, job skills training, and behavioral interventions delivered in the community have long been demonstrated to be more effective than those offered behind bars.⁴

These results, however, are only possible with adequate planning and resources. With a larger population, the quality of supervision may suffer if community corrections officers have to struggle to manage increased caseloads without the training, support, and tools they need. In addition, an increase in the number of people being sent to community supervision likely means more higher-risk offenders who have a greater need of treatment and other assistance to prevent reoffending. If resources remain unchanged, officers may be unable to refer to or provide needed services and treatment. Overworked and under-resourced officers may act more quickly to revoke to prison or jail those who do not meet conditions immediately and completely or those supervisees whose risk they worry they cannot manage given the demands on their time—only delaying rather than solving over-incarceration. Finally, agencies that lack the resources to adequately supervise offenders may even contribute to increased crime in the community. Not only would this be tragic for victims and the community, it might also generate a backlash against community corrections among policymakers, potentially setting the U.S. on another course of incarceration-based criminal justice policy.

The current focus on community corrections could be a moment of enormous opportunity, but desired public safety and budgetary outcomes will come about only if policymaking is well-informed and thoughtful, and is accompanied by upfront investment in capacity building for affected agencies.

What is Community Corrections?

Community corrections supervises people who are under the authority of the criminal justice system but who are not in prison or jail. In 2009, more than five million people in the United States were supervised in the community by the criminal justice system.⁵ This figure includes people at many different stages of the criminal court process. Most people under community supervision fall into one of the following categories:

- > defendants on pretrial release with open, active cases in court;
- > defendants with open cases who have been diverted to a specialty court or diversion program and who will be convicted and sentenced if they are not successful in the court or program;

- > offenders who have pled or were found guilty of their charges and are sentenced to a term of community supervision, usually probation, that may include participation in specialized programs like drug courts;
- > offenders who have completed prison or jail terms but remain on community supervision, usually parole but also probation, for a certain amount of time; or
- > offenders released from prison or jail to serve the remainder of their sentences in the community on work release or other programs (this may involve probation or parole supervision).

Community supervision includes two distinct populations with different sets of rights and responsibilities: defendants charged with offenses but who are presumed innocent until proven otherwise, and offenders who have been deemed responsible for an offense by a court of law. Being placed on supervision in the community does not guarantee that no time will be served behind bars: virtually everyone on community supervision is at risk of being detained or incarcerated upon failure to comply with the conditions of supervision.

Despite these different populations in diverse settings and statuses, community corrections can be discussed within a common framework because many supervision and organizational practices, policies, and procedures are the same.

The following sections describe the different populations within community supervision in more detail.

PRETRIAL RELEASE

Once arrested on suspicion of committing a crime, a person has the legal right to be considered by the police or an officer of the court for possible release until the case is disposed.⁶ The process by which this determination is made is governed by the policies and practices of several agencies. Law enforcement agencies decide whether to arrest, then whether to cite and release or book into custody; if arrestees are booked, judicial officers typically determine whether to assign the arrestees to pretrial detention or release. Defendants may also be released from custody during the pretrial stage if they are able to post the bail or bond set by a judicial officer or by the local bail schedule.⁷

For most of U.S. history, release pretrial was only possible by posting a bond or bail. However, in 1961, the Vera Institute of Justice was born out of a project that introduced the concept of release on one's own recognizance based on an objective screening for risk of flight. Known as the Manhattan Bail Project, it was an idea that revolutionized the pretrial process.⁸ Today, many jurisdictions have pretrial services agencies that provide the court with objective investigative reports and recommendations to aid in detention and release decisions.

An assessment of a defendant's likelihood to return to court or be rearrested if released usually includes factors that have proven to be predictive of such results: (1) residential stability; (2) employment stability or full-time activities (such as full-time education); and (3) community ties (such as the presence of

immediate family or membership in a church).⁹

Most pretrial services programs also provide alternative release options to bail and bond that do not penalize defendants for lacking financial resources. At the court's direction, programs may monitor defendants' whereabouts, remind them of their court dates, and/or supervise their participation in treatment programming.

There are significant negative consequences for people detained during the pretrial period. Studies have repeatedly shown that defendants detained pending trial are treated more harshly than similarly situated defendants who are released pretrial.¹⁰ Detained defendants receive more severe sentences and are offered less attractive plea bargains for no other reason than their pretrial detention. There is no more powerful predictor of post-conviction incarceration than pretrial detention.¹¹

Pretrial detention may have other collateral consequences that affect not only the defendant, but also his or her family and community. Defendants may lose jobs, housing, and custody of children or other dependents if they are detained for even a short time.¹² Pretrial release, on the other hand, may be actively beneficial to the final outcome of a case: If a defendant has followed the court's conditions, including completing treatment or receiving services prior to sentencing, the court may be more likely to impose a less restrictive, shorter sentence. Conversely, if the defendant is released and fails while in the community, the judge may be even harsher at sentencing.

PROBATION

The largest group subject to community supervision is the probation population. In 2009, more than 4 million people were on probation (representing 84 percent of the community supervision population).¹³ Probation is a court-ordered period of correctional supervision in the community. Frequently, probation is a suspension of an incarcerative sentence, which can be imposed if the offender fails to complete the probation term successfully. In some cases, probation can be part of a combined sentence of incarceration (either in prison or jail) followed by a period of community supervision. A term of probation may be longer than the suspended jail sentence. For example, it is common for an offender to receive a year of probation even when the jail term would have been 90 days to six months.

Probation is a creature of the courts: a judge imposes it as part or all of a sentence and sets the rules and conditions of supervision. Some judges manage their probation cases actively—ordering the probationer to come to court on a regular basis and overseeing adjudication of any violations of probation rules. If a probationer violates the terms of supervision, either by committing a new offense or by failing to follow a probation rule—such as failing to report for an appointment with his or her officer or to a treatment center—he or she can be arrested and held in a local jail to await adjudication of the violation. If a violation is found and revocation is ordered, probationers can be sentenced to

In 2009, more than 4 million people were on probation, representing 84 percent of the community supervision population.

serve all or part of the suspended sentence in custody. Some defense attorneys recommend short jail stays to clients facing less serious charges instead of the intensive supervision and possible longer incarceration term that could result from revocation because of infractions or violations.¹⁴

SPECIALTY COURTS

Specialty, or problem-solving, courts have become a common component of criminal justice systems.¹⁵ While specialty court participants do not comprise a large segment of the population under community supervision, their numbers are growing. Drug, mental health, homeless, and veterans' courts exist to divert people with special needs from prison. Participants often have many different kinds of problems, legal and otherwise, and specially trained staff and judges "case manage" each individual and his or her varied circumstances.¹⁶ Participants are at high risk of detention if they do not comply with their conditions.¹⁷ They have been offered an "out," and may be penalized if they are not compliant. Some jurisdictions place defendants in specialty courts pre-disposition. In these courts, successful completion of the program results in the eradication of the criminal charge.¹⁸ In other jurisdictions, specialty courts are an alternative to incarceration for people post-disposition, and participants face jail or prison time if they fail to comply with the conditions of supervision.¹⁹

For post-disposition participants, the length of supervision is usually longer than the original sentence. This may serve to discourage participation. For example, a 30-day jail sentence imposed immediately may be preferred by a drug user over a 12-month supervision period during which he or she is exposed to possible incarceration for rule violations or new offenses. Someone who is sentenced to drug court and fails may ultimately receive a harsher sentence than a similarly situated person who declined a drug court disposition.

PAROLE

Parole, or post-release supervision, is a period of conditional, supervised release in the community following a prison term. Parole release is typically granted by a state-level, executive branch parole board with mandatory supervision provided by a state corrections agency. In recent decades, many states have abolished discretionary parole release.²⁰ Instead, prisoners are released at the end of their prison terms, and then placed on shorter-term, mandatory post-release supervision. (For purposes of this paper, we refer to both parole and post-release supervision as "parole".) By year end 2009, more than 800,000 individuals were on parole in the U.S.²¹

Similar to probationers, if a parolee violates the terms of parole, either by committing a new offense or by failing to follow a parole rule, he or she can be arrested and held in a local jail to await adjudication of the violation. In most states, the parole board is the adjudication body and decides whether to order a revocation, sending the parolee back to prison to serve all or a portion of the time remaining on his or her original sentence.

Current State of Community Corrections

In the more than two centuries since the first prison opened in Philadelphia, the United States has responded to crime with an ever-increasing reliance on incarceration. Lawmakers, judges, and government officials have turned to cells and bars to achieve an array of desired outcomes. Penitence, punishment, rehabilitation, deterrence, and incapacitation have all been offered as justification for sending more and more people to prison. By 2008, 2.3 million people—or one in 100 adults in the United States—were behind bars.²²

While mass incarceration has received significant attention in the media, less well known is how many offenders are sent to community supervision. In 2009, seven out of every ten offenders were serving all or part of their sentences in the community, a rate that has remained roughly the same over the last 30 years.²³ This currently amounts to a very large number, however, as during this period, the total number of people involved in the criminal justice system has risen considerably. In 2009, 5.1 million—or one out of every 45 adults in the United States—was under some form of criminal justice supervision in the community.²⁴

Costs have risen along with corrections populations. Total state spending on corrections is now estimated at \$52 billion a year, the bulk of which is spent on prisons.²⁵ The table on the next page provides information on 32 states' 2010 prison spending compared with community corrections spending.

While community supervision clearly costs less than incarceration, in many instances, the low cost is a result of large caseloads and a lack of key services. Without funds sufficient to ensure that people are receiving appropriate and individualized supervision, communities may see high failure rates, increased victimization, and delayed rather than avoided costs as understaffed agencies return probationers and parolees to costly jail and prison beds on technical violations of probation or parole conditions or rules.²⁶ Under optimal circumstances, community supervision costs would be somewhat higher, caseload size lower, and outcomes would most likely improve.

Current outcomes bear out the need for change: success rates on community supervision are not encouraging and most of those who fail are returned to prison (some for a new offense, but most due to a technical revocation).²⁷ Of the 2.3 million probationers exiting supervision in 2009, only 65 percent completed probation successfully.²⁸ Sixteen percent were incarcerated for failing the terms of their probation (for a new offense or technical revocation); probation was extended for the remainder, or they were given more conditions and restrictions.²⁹ Even more fail to complete parole: of the 579,000 parolees exiting supervision in 2009, only 51 percent completed parole successfully.³⁰ In some states, as many as two out of every three prison admissions are for technical

Under optimal circumstances, community supervision costs would be somewhat higher, caseload size lower, and outcomes would most likely improve.

PRISON AND COMMUNITY CORRECTIONS POPULATIONS AND EXPENDITURES IN FISCAL YEAR 2010

State	PRISON		COMMUNITY SUPERVISION		AVERAGE COST	
	Population	Expenditures	Population	Expenditures	Prison	Community Supervision
Alabama	30,739	\$433,745,923	62,200	\$45,938,006	\$14,111	\$739
Arizona ^{2,6}	38,423	\$897,343,500	7,993	\$12,989,300	\$23,354	\$1,625
Arkansas	16,147	\$288,888,121	49,900	\$28,342,706	\$17,891	\$568
Colorado ^{2,6}	22,815	\$749,093,130	11,014	\$42,417,112	\$32,833	\$3,851
Connecticut ^{2,6}	13,308	\$607,667,376	2,894	\$14,708,644	\$45,662	\$5,082
Delaware ¹	6,598	\$143,800,000	16,900	\$24,916,000	\$21,794	\$1,474
Florida ^{3,7}	104,306	\$2,003,605,196	260,300	\$240,909,947	\$19,209	\$926
Georgia	52,523	\$1,113,443,858	482,300	\$140,327,782	\$21,199	\$291
Hawaii ^{1,2,6}	5,912	\$187,613,165	1,850	\$3,381,876	\$31,734	\$1,828
Illinois ^{2,6}	48,418	\$997,859,100	26,009	\$50,847,900	\$20,609	\$1,955
Indiana ^{2,6}	28,012	\$562,247,665	10,872	\$9,215,074	\$20,072	\$848
Kentucky	19,937	\$286,381,151	71,400	\$37,074,773	\$14,364	\$519
Louisiana	39,444	\$610,880,240	70,000	\$60,166,708	\$15,487	\$860
Maine	1,942	\$93,225,747	7,300	\$8,805,889	\$48,005	\$1,206
Maryland	22,275	\$733,670,238	101,400	\$101,873,275	\$32,937	\$1,005
Massachusetts ^{2,6}	10,027	\$514,150,199	3,260	\$19,006,816	\$51,277	\$5,830
Michigan	44,113	\$1,517,903,300	206,800	\$223,889,300	\$34,409	\$1,083
Missouri	30,614	\$533,210,722	76,900	\$90,639,112	\$17,417	\$1,179
Montana	3,716	\$74,625,506	11,100	\$58,400,264	\$20,082	\$5,261
Nebraska ^{2,6}	4,498	\$158,190,135	941	\$3,538,366	\$35,169	\$3,760
Ohio	51,712	\$1,265,011,710	263,900	\$88,700,000	\$24,463	\$715
Oklahoma	24,514	\$441,772,058	28,300	\$34,897,398	\$18,021	\$1,233
Oregon ⁴	13,971	\$568,476,929	31,347	\$107,371,389	\$40,690	\$3,425
Pennsylvania ⁷	51,075	\$1,867,230,000	275,200	\$96,496,000	\$36,559	\$351
Rhode Island ¹	3,357	\$152,666,473	25,700	\$10,843,932	\$45,477	\$422
South Dakota ^{2,6}	3,431	\$57,967,921	2,843	\$3,785,177	\$16,895	\$1,331
Tennessee	27,451	\$622,011,500	72,100	\$74,644,600	\$22,659	\$1,035
Texas	164,652	\$2,471,827,691	521,400	\$449,682,860	\$15,012	\$862
Utah	6,795	\$130,653,000	14,500	\$44,928,500	\$19,228	\$3,099
Virginia	37,410	\$980,674,412	57,900	\$73,540,055	\$26,214	\$1,270
Washington ^{5,7}	18,212	\$638,568,378	18,690	\$124,342,088	\$35,063	\$6,653
West Virginia ^{2,6}	6,642	\$154,936,305	1,796	\$3,589,371	\$23,327	\$1,999
Wisconsin	20,812	\$738,334,059	63,900	\$188,417,956	\$35,476	\$2,949

(1) Prison population includes only inmates under state jurisdiction; (2) Community correction population includes parole only; (3) BJS community correction populations were not comparable to the figures provided to Vera by the state; (4) Community correction population figures obtained from the Oregon Department of Correction; (5) Community correction population figures include only offenders supervised by the Washington State Department of Correction; (6) Community correction expenditures include parole expenditures only; (7) Does not reflect all community corrections expenditures.

Source: Ram Subramanian and Rebecca Tublitz. *Realigning Justice Resources: A Review of Population Spending Shifts in Prison and Community Corrections*. New York, NY: Vera Institute of Justice, 2012.

violations of probation and parole.³¹

The reasons for these failures are many. The next section describes some of the current problems facing community supervision agencies.

LARGE CASELOADS

In the 1970s, parole officers supervised an average caseload of 45 parolees.³² By 2003, parole officers were responsible for approximately 70 parolees, and probation officers for 130 probationers.³³ Not only are caseloads higher today, but the restrictions and conditions placed on supervisees have also become more complex. These can include the imposition of fines and fees, sex offender registration requirements, living restrictions, curfews, and GPS monitoring. Offenders today are also more likely to fall into higher categories of risk for reoffending, with pressing criminogenic needs to be addressed (criminogenic needs are those personal deficits and circumstances known to predict criminal activity if not changed).³⁴ Thus officers have more offenders on their caseloads, with each offender requiring more attention.³⁵ Budget constraints also force officers to supervise offenders with fewer resources—from a lack of clerical support to outdated technology—while being asked to enforce new conditions and requirements.

Supervision agencies cannot deliver expected public safety outcomes if state legislatures pass laws requiring more restrictive requirements for probationers and parolees without providing for adequate agency budgets and capacity.

“ONE-SIZE-FITS-ALL” CONDITIONS

The job of probation and parole officers is further complicated by a number of factors outside their control, such as:

- > the long terms to which offenders are sentenced on probation and placed on parole;
- > lengthy, standardized sets of conditions for all of those on supervision;
- > fines, fees, restitution, and community service obligations that officers must monitor and enforce; and
- > mandated treatment for which offenders must pay.

Conditions of release—whether onto pretrial supervision, probation, or parole—are set by judges and parole boards. For many decades, these officials have used long lists of standardized conditions that apply to everyone, regardless of offense or perceived need. Many are obvious and important, such as “Report as directed by your officer” and “Parolees may not possess a firearm.” However, others range from the near-impossible to the merely very difficult, such as “Do not associate with known felons” (many offenders have family members who are felons) and “Refrain from possessing or consuming alcoholic beverages.”³⁶ In some jurisdictions, the conditions can number 30 or more. The lists are often in use for years without review.

Not only are caseloads higher today, but the restrictions and conditions placed on supervisees have also become more complex.

In addition to their number and difficulty, conditions are imposed that research has demonstrated are more harmful than helpful: for example, requiring the probationer or parolee to submit to drug testing or participate in treatment when there is no indication that substance abuse is a factor in his or her criminality. Even when treatment is deemed necessary, it may only be available from private agencies that charge fees too high for many to afford. These kinds of conditions can frustrate offenders, expose them unnecessarily to more high-risk people and lifestyles, and provide grounds for violation and revocation. In some instances, conditions can even become impediments to finding and retaining employment since mandatory treatment programs, curfews, driving restrictions, and check-ins with parole and probation officers can make it difficult for individuals to schedule work hours.

When viewed in isolation, each of these conditions may seem worthy or reasonable. In the aggregate, however, and when applied universally—even to low-level, low-risk offenders—they become untenable. Non-compliance with any one of them is theoretically grounds for a violation and could result in revocation to jail or prison. When coupled with long probation and parole terms—two, five, ten years—these conditions can become extremely difficult to live by: avoid alcohol, observe a curfew, do not move without permission, do not secure a driver’s license, etc. Long supervision terms expose probationers and parolees to the threat of violation and revocation for years. In some cases, a single violation can result in a loss of all earned credit for the time they lived in the community without violations.

SUPERVISION AS LAW ENFORCEMENT

For decades, what’s often referred to as “tail ‘em, nail ‘em, and jail ‘em” was the prevailing approach to supervision in many jurisdictions. With increasing caseloads and limited resources, this surveillance and enforcement approach may have appeared to be the most prudent way to supervise offenders. Officers without the means or time to meaningfully assess risk and needs, provide case management, purchase or provide services and treatment, or follow-up with families, employers, or program staff would resort to the “safest” avenue available to them: register a violation and recommend revocation at the first sign of troubling behavior. That sign might be anything from a missed appointment, a curfew violation, or a single failed drug test.

Although it may appear safe, exclusive reliance on surveillance has repeatedly been shown to have little impact on recidivism. According to a Washington State Institute of Public Policy analysis of adult corrections programs, supervision programs without a focus on treatment do not, in general, produce a reduction in recidivism rates.³⁷ Community supervision in some jurisdictions, however, continues to focus heavily on individual probationer accountability rather than on providing officers with the skills, tools, and resources necessary to reduce the risk of recidivism among their supervisees.³⁸

Supervision programs without a focus on treatment do not, in general, produce a reduction in recidivism rates.

THE DEFINITION OF SUCCESS FOR OFFICERS

In a search for fair and objective means of evaluating officer performance, many supervision agencies measure success using what are called contact standards, which direct officers to maintain a certain frequency and type of contact with their supervisees. In these agencies, contact standards are a key benchmark in assessing agency and officer performance, and quick returns of violators are often a measure of vigilance.³⁹ Reliance on contact standards can result in an emphasis on outputs (such as the number of contacts officers have with their supervisees), at the expense of the outcomes (such as reduced victimization and enhanced public safety) that matter most. Increasing the number of contacts, moreover, has not been shown to produce better outcomes for parolees.⁴⁰ This is not surprising since most offender supervision consists of interviews conducted by officers from their desks.⁴¹ It is not uncommon for the average contact to last five to fifteen minutes—with much of it spent by the officer checking on the offender's payment of fines and fees and the completion of community service hours.⁴²

LACK OF DIFFERENTIATION IN CASE SUPERVISION

The combination of a long list of standard conditions of release and the use of contact standards in defining success can lead to supervision that is delivered uniformly, regardless of the risk the individual parolee or probationer presents or the issues that might be driving that risk. Decades of research confirm, however, that overly supervising (by number of contacts, over-programming, or imposing unnecessary restrictions) low-risk probationers and parolees is likely to produce worse outcomes than essentially leaving them alone.⁴³ The opposite is true of high-risk people. Thus, uniform supervision will invariably have a negative impact on recidivism rates for some sector of the supervised population. In addition, if the supervision strategy and case plan are not matched to the individual's assessed risk and needs, the supervision may very well be ineffective.

USE OF INCARCERATION AS A PRIMARY SANCTION

Many people are sent to prison or jail for breaking the rules of probation or parole—a so-called technical violation—even though they did not commit a new offense. In 2009, 24 percent—or 3,205 of South Carolina's prison admissions—were for revocations of probation and parole. Of those, 66 percent, or more than 2,100, were for technical violations, such as failure to show up at the probation office, or for alcohol or drug use.⁴⁴ In Louisiana that same year, technical violations of community supervision accounted for 24 percent of all prison admissions.⁴⁵ Correspondingly, in fiscal year 2010 Kentucky noted that the number of its parolees who were sent back to prison and who did not have new felony convictions nearly doubled as a percentage of prison admissions. Such parole violations accounted for 10.2 percent of total prison admissions in fiscal year 1998, yet rose to 19.5 percent of all admissions in fiscal year 2010.⁴⁶

In many cases, a return to jail or prison is unnecessary to protect public safety and may make things worse as serving time in prison has been shown to increase the risk of future offending, not to decrease it.

In many cases, a return to jail or prison is unnecessary to protect public safety and may make things worse as serving time in prison has been shown to increase the risk of future offending, not to decrease it.⁴⁷

Too often, probationers and parolees are revoked because previous lesser infractions were met with little or no response—which encouraged the supervisee to think that the rules do not matter and produced an officer exasperated by repeated rule breaking. Such exasperation can provoke responses that are out of proportion to the immediate violation. Officer responses to rules violations that are consistent and appropriate are important to reinforcing desired behavior and discouraging negative behavior.

Incarcerating technical violators is costly, both in time and money. Supervising officers have to spend time writing reports and attending hearings; the court or parole board must make time in crowded calendars. In terms of expense, a 2003 report in California—where parole violators accounted for two-thirds of all prison admissions—revealed that the state had paid almost \$900 million to re-incarcerate parole violators. Some estimate that by reducing the return-to-custody rate by 20 percent for non-serious, non-violent parole violators, corrections costs in California could have been cut by \$71 million.⁴⁸

FAILURE TO ACKNOWLEDGE CYCLES OF ADDICTION AND RECOVERY

Judges and parole boards frequently impose supervision conditions on long-time alcohol or drug abusers that require them to remain abstinent. This requirement ignores the reality that recovery is a process that usually involves relapsing into alcohol or drugs use.⁴⁹ A more realistic condition would be to enforce treatment completion and to monitor work toward abstinence. Similarly, alcohol and drug testing has become a commonly imposed condition that might have little to do with an offender's pattern of offending, but nonetheless requires officer time to conduct, monitor, and respond to.⁵⁰

Emerging Best Practices

Part of the U.S.'s long-standing reliance on incarceration stems from the belief that “nothing works” and that the most that the justice system can do to promote public safety is to keep known perpetrators locked up for as long as possible. Today, that belief is widely challenged as a growing body of research demonstrates the positive impact that a variety of community-based interventions can have on individual behavior.

Although policymakers traditionally paid little attention and provided limited resources to community supervision agencies, some practitioners in the field have been engaged in efforts to bring the past three decades of research to bear on their agencies. Clearly, business as usual is not working, and recent

policy changes that shift the burden from institutional to community corrections without addressing resources and practices are raising alarms among agency officials.

When intractably high offender failure rates are coupled with concerns about the size of prison populations and the current economic crisis, the pressure on corrections agencies to make more effective use of shrinking resources is heightened.⁵¹ A number of state legislatures have gone so far as to pass bills requiring state parole, probation, and other community corrections agencies to revamp their supervision practices to use those that research has shown to be effective.

REDEFINITION OF AGENCY GOALS AND OFFICERS' ROLES

Implementing research-based practices requires more than simply adopting new techniques and programs: agencies must reshape their mission, restructure supervision, and redefine the role of supervision officers. Because so many agencies were previously encouraged to take an enforcement and surveillance approach to supervision, shifting to a mission of producing public safety through the success of supervisees (rather than through punishing their failures) is a significant undertaking. Everything from job descriptions, officer training, promotion criteria, and reward structures must be reviewed and adapted. In many ways, the transformation being asked of these agencies mirrors what agencies are encouraging their parolees and probationers to undertake: new values, new ways of thinking, new skills.

A significant part of this transformation involves developing in officers the skills to assess their supervisees accurately, interact with them effectively, motivate them to change, and understand the services and interventions that will support the desired change. For many agencies facing budget restraints, investing in extensive officer training is difficult to justify. However, without it, other investments—whether in assessment tools or service contracts—will fall short of their potential impact.

A BEHAVIORAL-MANAGEMENT APPROACH TO SUPERVISION

As part of supervision restructuring, some agencies are implementing a behavioral-management approach to supervision that prioritizes assisting offenders in leading successful, crime-free lives in the community.⁵² The role of a supervision officer in a behavioral-management model combines enforcement responsibilities with a duty to instruct and model pro-social behavior.

By reframing the routine interactions between community corrections officers and the people they supervise as an *intervention*, the supervisee becomes an active participant in developing his or her supervision and treatment plan. This approach also requires officers to establish goal-directed contacts: each interaction—whether interview, collateral contact (contact with key people in an offender's life, such as an employer, neighbor, or family member), phone

Implementing research-based practices requires more than simply adopting new techniques and programs: agencies must reshape their mission, restructure supervision, and redefine the role of supervision officers.

call, etc.—should have a clear purpose in securing behavior change. The supervisee’s success in the community becomes the definition and measure of the officer’s success.

RISK AND NEEDS ASSESSMENT TOOLS

The foundation of good correctional practice is the administration of a validated risk or risk and needs assessment tool to defendants and offenders. Risk assessment instruments measure the probability that a person will reoffend if or when released into the community. Needs assessments identify a person’s criminogenic needs, such as education, mental health counseling, or positive social peers. Today’s assessment tools measure static (those things that can’t be changed: age, criminal history, etc.) and dynamic (those that can: drug addiction, anti-social peers, etc.) risk factors, criminogenic needs, and strengths or protective factors present in an individual’s behavior, life, or history. These provide the basis for individualized case plans to guide supervision, programming, and interventions. There are a variety of assessment tools available for different purposes. Some are proprietary while others are available at no cost. Whatever tool is used in whatever context, states and counties must validate them using data from their own populations.

Assessment tools are used to some degree in all states and in many counties at a number of decision points and in a variety of settings. Judges and releasing authorities use information from assessment tools to guide decisions regarding pretrial release or detention, and release on parole; corrections agencies use them for placement within correctional facilities, assignment to supervision level or to specialized caseloads, and for recommendations regarding conditions of release. Since the best tools evaluate the individual’s dynamic or changeable risk factors and needs, they should be re-administered routinely to determine whether current assignments and plans are still appropriate.

A recent survey conducted by Vera found that a majority of community supervision agencies and releasing authorities routinely utilize assessment tools. Responses from 72 agencies across 41 states indicated that 82 percent of respondents regularly assessed both risk and need.⁵³ While these self-reported numbers may be inflated, the responses do indicate agency awareness of the importance of assessments.

SUPERVISION BASED ON LEVEL OF RISK

Research over many decades demonstrates that supervision and intervention resources are used to best effect on those who pose the highest risk to public safety. In terms of promoting law-abiding and pro-social behavior, the greatest return on corrections dollars can be realized by supervising moderate-to-high-risk offenders more intensively—in terms of the number and frequency of contacts and the range and intensity (or dosage) of services and interventions.⁵⁴

Researchers and practitioners note that increased and more intensive contacts and programming benefit this population because they intervene in

A recent survey conducted by Vera found that a majority of community supervision agencies and releasing authorities routinely utilize assessment tools.

established patterns of thought and socialization, and serve to structure supervisees' time in more conventional ways, leaving less time for aimless "hanging out." The moderate-to-high-risk group is also operating with the greatest number of deficits (such as addiction, anti-social attitudes, low educational achievement, etc.) so addressing even some of these is likely to improve behavior and outcomes.

Conversely, as noted previously, research has shown that assigning low-risk offenders to intensive supervision and programming can be counterproductive. Intensive interventions risk disrupting already established pro-social behaviors, activities, or relationships (such as jobs, school, parenting, or religious observances), as well as exposing low-risk offenders to anti-social attitudes and subcultures in group programs. In doing so, agencies can in fact increase these supervisees' risk of offending.⁵⁵

These research findings often run counter to the beliefs of many judges, paroling authorities, and other decision makers who consider treatment and programming resources wasted on high-risk offenders and who tend to over-intervene with low-risk offenders. Their beliefs can make it difficult to implement practices supported by the evidence.

★ **DELAWARE** A state with a unified prison and jail system, Delaware is in the process of adopting a pretrial risk assessment instrument to inform detention and release decisions with the intention of holding fewer low-risk defendants and freeing resources for high-risk populations. Delaware is using this and other changes to be able to spend its limited public safety dollars on programming that addresses offenders' risks and needs more comprehensively. Furthermore, through earned compliance credits Delaware has created an incentive for probationers to comply with supervision conditions in exchange for a reduction in their probation terms.⁵⁶

★ **GEORGIA** The Georgia Department of Corrections is utilizing technology to monitor its low-risk offenders. Low-risk probationers are required to call into an automated system at a probation reporting contact center (PRCC). Should a probationer provide nonstandard responses to the system's questions, the call is directed to his or her probation officer. This provides an incentive to probationers to comply with the rules of their probation in order to maintain or gain the liberties that PRCC offers. The system has allowed Georgia to allocate more resources and time to its high-risk probationers, thereby increasing public safety and improving supervision quality.⁵⁷

Throughout this report, passages marked with ★ spotlight best practices or recent policy changes in selected states.

SUPERVISION TIED TO NEEDS

Impacting criminal behavior requires a nuanced understanding of a supervisee's educational, social, and cognitive needs. For example, research conducted by Vera on a large cohort of parolees found that unless officers understand the

reasons why a parolee cannot maintain stable housing or keep a job, they cannot help change the situation. Depending on the case, impediments to success can be anything from characteristics of the supervisee—such as an inability to get along with or take simple directions from others—to a lack of skills or rent money.⁵⁸

As explained above, the assessment instruments in use today measure a person's criminogenic needs as well as his or her strengths. This information forms the basis of the individualized case management plan that prioritizes the supervisee's treatment, education, and service needs and identifies the most effective ways to address these. Incorporating both strengths and needs in the case plan ensures the officer does not order an intervention that will interfere with or disrupt protective factors, while also guiding the officer in how to recognize and reinforce positive behavior during the supervision process.

ENHANCED RESOURCES FOR THE RISKIEST CASES

Too many supervision agencies waste valuable resources—staff time and purchased services—on low-risk offenders who actually may be harmed by excessive supervision and programming. By redirecting existing resources agencies can provide more intensive supervision, treatment, and services to medium and high-risk parolees and probationers.

However, redirected resources alone are not always sufficient to substantially improve public safety. Securing this requires more officers, lower caseloads, better training, and funds to purchase services and treatment for medium and high-risk offenders. Therefore, states and counties may need to invest additional resources upfront to make communities safer.

GRADUATED RESPONSES AND INCENTIVES

Revocation to jail or prison is a severe, expensive, and mostly ineffective sanction for some supervision violations. Yet officers often express the fear that, if they do not revoke for lower-level violations, a supervisee may commit a more serious offense later on for which the officer and his or her agency will be held liable. Many jurisdictions have addressed this concern by formally adopting policies that support a system of graduated responses for rules violations and offer individual officers legal protection. These policies are grounded in a growing body of research showing the importance of responding to *every* infraction; the key is to respond appropriately and proportionately. From a missed appointment to a failed drug test, there are many behaviors that can be safely met with prompt, defined sanctions that are proportional to the violation and address the reasons the violation occurred.⁵⁹ Providing a continuum of responses that includes both programming interventions and sanctions (such as an official reprimand from a senior supervising officer, more frequent reporting, a new curfew, or time-limited travel restrictions) gives officers the tools to respond to every violation while allowing them to continue interacting and working with their supervisees through difficult periods.

Some states supplement these community-based responses with secure residential options, known as “half-way back” programs. Recent research casts doubt on the usefulness and cost effectiveness of these programs for technical violations unless there is a demonstrated need for intensive, residential treatment and parolees are placed in them immediately following a violation.⁶⁰ A less disruptive and expensive alternative is day reporting, which requires supervisee to report to a center daily, weekly, or otherwise, depending on his or her level of risk and needs.⁶¹ These centers structure free time by offering rehabilitative programming, such as substance abuse treatment, educational and vocational skills trainings, together with surveillance and accountability activities (such as drug testing). Research demonstrates that day treatment centers can reduce recidivism and keep communities safer.⁶²

In addition to sanctions, an effective system of graduated responses should also incorporate incentives and rewards. Research indicates that a ratio of at least four positive to each negative verbal response (4:1) is most effective for reinforcing behavior change.⁶³ Corrections agencies can use positive reinforcement to encourage offenders to accomplish pro-social goals and other positive behavior change. In addition to verbal praise, these can include a letter of commendation or certificate of achievement from a supervising agent or office director, a small gift card or transportation allowance, or similar inexpensive item.

★ **OREGON** The Oregon Department of Corrections has used a graduated response system since 1993.⁶⁴ It allows officers to promptly apply graduated sanctions for certain violations without having to go through a court hearing process. To make the system less subjective, the department utilizes a grid to determine appropriate sanctions for various types of behavior. In 2002, the department conducted a study of the effectiveness of this system and found that: (1) individuals sanctioned with community service were the least likely to recidivate in the future; (2) increased jail time was associated with higher rates of recidivism; and (3) treatment and rehabilitation interventions were more successful than surveillance or enforcement sanctions.⁶⁵

★ **KANSAS** Kansas has developed a Behavior Adjustment Response Guide (BRAG) to help officers make informed decisions regarding sanctions and rewards.⁶⁶ It works in conjunction with a comprehensive case plan that includes goals and action steps that target particular risks and needs. Negative responses may include a more restrictive curfew, GPS monitoring, or day reporting. Positive responses are included in the guide and might include a letter of recognition, a certificate of progress for remaining substance-free, or small gift or transportation card to ensure that officers reward compliant behavior and achievements.⁶⁷

Current Practices That Need More Research

If research-based practices that improve lives and enhance public safety are to advance and help change the national reliance on incarceration, then researchers, policymakers, and practitioners must continue to test their hypotheses and evaluate their programs and interventions. Encouraged by practices that appear to produce results in other states, some agencies are implementing (and some states are mandating) practices that have not yet been validated by research. Many of these practices are ripe for further exploration and research, as the following seven examples demonstrate.

USE OF TECHNOLOGY

The rapidly growing number of people placed each year on probation, parole, and pretrial supervision pushes the caseloads of many community supervision agencies far beyond their capacity. In an effort to cope with increasing caseloads and shrinking resources, agencies are seeking innovative solutions that use technology while maintaining effective and safe supervision.

Kiosk reporting. Some jurisdictions have implemented automated kiosk reporting systems for low-risk offenders as a strategy to shorten case processing time and to reduce the expense of data collection.⁶⁸ Kiosks are automated machines through which individuals can report to supervising officers. Entering a password or other identifier, offenders can update their information, receive messages from their supervising officers, be assigned to drug testing, or ask questions about the conditions of their supervision. Designed for low-risk offenders, the kiosk system allows flexibility in reporting times to offenders who may be in school or working. This can prevent interruptions in what may be activities that support successful reentry. The agency saves staff time and costs by requiring the offender to input information directly into the machine, which uploads it into agency data systems. In-person meetings can also be scheduled when necessary. Very little is known, however, about the extent that kiosk systems are used across the country or about the safety and cost effectiveness of these systems compared to traditional supervision. Further research is needed on the effectiveness of kiosk supervision and other automated systems and the circumstances under which these should be used in community corrections.

Electronic monitoring. The number of offenders monitored electronically has grown significantly since the introduction of such technology in the 1980s. Electronic monitoring (EM) is now used in a variety of community supervision settings, including parole, probation, and pretrial supervision. EM was origi-

nally introduced to monitor offender compliance with curfews, but the development of EM with global positioning systems (GPS) added the ability to track, with considerable precision, the movements of supervisees. EM with GPS has been used most frequently with those convicted of sexual offenses.

The potential for cost-savings in using EM as an alternative to incarceration suggests that its use is likely to continue to grow.⁶⁹ Despite its proliferation, the field still lacks a solid evidence base from which to learn about EM best practices.⁷⁰ Most evaluations conducted to date have relied on small samples and lacked a satisfactory control group.⁷¹ Given the variety of correctional settings in which EM is used and the range of offenders it is used with, much research is still needed to determine the fiscal and social impact of EM and to identify the practices that lead to the best outcomes.

OFFENDER REGISTRIES AND COMMUNITY NOTIFICATION

Since 1996, community notification regarding the presence of registered sex offenders has been mandatory in all states. Despite the impact on offenders and their families and the significant costs incurred by states in meeting notification requirements, research into the efficacy of offender registries has been slow to emerge and contradictory in its findings. While some studies have found a reduction in the number of arrests made for first-time sexual offenses following implementation of public notification laws, other studies have not found any impact.⁷²

Even without reliable evidence, however, some states have extended their use of public registries beyond sex offenders. At least eight states require public registration of violent felony offenders, and other jurisdictions are considering registries in response to crimes such as murder and domestic violence. Since little is known about whether and under which circumstances public registries add to public safety, further research is needed to inform ongoing debates.

COMMUNITY SUPERVISION PROGRAMS AND VIOLATION RESPONSE TECHNIQUES

Although limited research suggests that programs designed to increase supervision and treatment services for parolees and probationers who violate their supervision conditions can effectively reduce recidivism, increase access to treatment, and limit reliance on incarceration as a sanction, these programs would benefit from full-scale evaluations of their effectiveness.⁷³

Day reporting centers. Some states have demonstrated that day treatment centers are effective at reducing risk level and future recidivism.⁷⁴ Day centers are, however, used for a variety of purposes and populations. As jurisdictions increase their use of day treatment centers, they will need to evaluate their individual programs to demonstrate their effectiveness (with which populations and with what kind of programming) in order to sustain political and agency support for such efforts.

Despite the impact on offenders and their families and the significant costs incurred by states in meeting notification requirements, research into the efficacy of offender registries has been slow to emerge and contradictory in its findings.

Graduated responses. Graduated responses provide swift and certain consequences for rules violations without having to resort to incarceration. To the extent that they incorporate interventions and programming, they may have an enhanced, positive effect on recidivism. However, there is little research on the effects of graduated responses on recidivism (compared to their impact on revocations to prison).⁷⁵ Evaluating the effectiveness of the range of sanctions can inform agencies which sanctions and interventions are effective for specific violations and populations, based on their risk level and treatment needs.

Reentry courts. Although several states and the federal government have established reentry courts as another approach to supervision and service coordination for parolees, research into their impact and effectiveness has been limited. Reentry courts apply the promising features of drug courts, such as graduated sanctions and positive reinforcements, to the management of offenders reentering the community after prison. A small number of studies suggest that these courts have the potential to increase rates of successful community reintegration but the evidence is inconsistent.⁷⁶ Further research is needed to establish the extent to which reentry courts can improve outcomes for parolees and to identify the specific populations and program elements that are associated with these improved outcomes. More information is also needed on the impact of using the courts for this purpose on their day-to-day operations and responsibilities.

HOPE courts. By using short (no longer than a few days), swift, and certain jail sanctions in response to the misconduct of medium-to-high-risk supervisees, Hawaii's Opportunity Probation with Enforcement (HOPE) program decreased technical violations and re-arrest rates.⁷⁷ Many jurisdictions have since followed suit—with Arkansas, Kentucky, Maryland, and Vermont all passing legislation with HOPE provisions in 2011 alone. Despite wide adoption, no research has been conducted on the effectiveness of the program in jurisdictions outside Hawaii.

COMBINATIONS OF PROGRAM INTERVENTIONS

Many in the research community believe that successful evidence-based interventions would have a much greater impact on recidivism if they were used together, rather than in isolation. For example, a recent study of transitional jobs programs, conducted for the Joyce Foundation, reviewed programs provided to those recently released from jail or prison that combined temporary work with hard and soft employment skills training. The authors found limited utility in this approach one year after the individuals' release.⁷⁸ However, in reviewing the study's results, a group of researchers and experienced practitioners meeting in Washington speculated on the likely impact of a similar program if it included additional programming responsive to participants' other, non-employment needs.⁷⁹ This is difficult research as it is a challenge to tease out the

precise combination of interventions and programs that will be most effective with particular populations.

PRETRIAL SUPERVISION

Pretrial release programs that use validated risk assessments to target supervision can reduce incarceration and allow defendants to maintain stability in their lives without endangering the public. Given their status as defendants and the presumption of innocence, there is a particular need to ensure that conditions of release place the minimum burden possible on supervisees. In addition, many jurisdictions also refer pretrial supervisees to treatment or other interventions (drug treatment, counseling, or mental health services, for example) aimed at reducing their levels of risk and need. Because pretrial programming varies considerably between counties and states, more research is needed into the impact of different pretrial supervision practices.⁸⁰ Continued research is also needed to identify the most effective conditions, combinations of conditions, and responses to misconduct to ensure public safety and decrease failure-to-appear rates. Such research would strengthen and expand the current evidence base and would be of great value to future policymaking.⁸¹

ENHANCING SOCIAL SUPPORT

Research suggests that family ties, social networks, and social support deters criminal behavior. For many, social networks are often more effective in meeting employment and accommodation needs than are social-welfare organizations.⁸²

Social support. Many programs designed to lessen the risk of offending focus on the development of human capital—individual attitudes, skills, and education—to the almost total exclusion of social capital—the value inherent in and between social networks.⁸³ Finding employment, for example, is not only aided by acquiring new skills (human capital), but by the cultivation of social networks that provide access to job opportunities (social capital), many of which are not publicly advertised but found through word-of-mouth. Social isolation can therefore greatly inhibit successful job-seeking.⁸⁴

Research suggests that providing ex-prisoners with opportunities to help others can also lessen the risk of offending.⁸⁵ Offender mentorships may therefore be an important addition to traditional community supervision programming.⁸⁶

Further research is needed to determine the impact of programs that attempt to support social reintegration and to identify ways in which officers can promote social support without jeopardizing public safety.

Family support. Offenders often find themselves incarcerated many miles from their homes. Maintaining meaningful contact with their families can be financially and logistically challenging, to the point that contact may be lost

entirely. In the community, public housing policy and conditions of supervision can further limit supervisees' ability to participate actively in family life (for example, restrictions on associating with known felons when family members are felons). However, research demonstrates that family support can be a highly influential factor in the success of ex-prisoners.⁸⁷ For example, securing employment and abstaining from drugs are both related to intimate partner and family relationships.⁸⁸

Efforts to promote family ties need to start before release. Family visitations in prison can both delay and reduce recidivism upon reentry, but encouraging such visits requires training corrections staff to understand the importance of family contact and a review of policies and practices that may help or hinder them.⁸⁹ More research is needed into the impact of family-focused interventions and training in order to demonstrate their value and identify important program components and best practices. Various policies can also prevent family reunification in the community. For example, public housing authorities can exclude criminal-justice involved people from their properties, preventing both adults and juveniles from living with their families. Research is needed to understand how the potentially negative consequences of these policies might best be mitigated and to support possible changes to the policies.

OFFICER WORKING STYLES AND PRACTICES

Improving community supervision outcomes requires a shift in the way officers approach their work. Focusing solely on the enforcement of rules and imposing sanctions without attempting to develop motivation, engagement, or a sense of responsibility in supervisees can decrease the effectiveness of officers' supervision and threaten the success of community interventions, despite other efforts to implement practices proven effective through research. When departments emphasize skill-building among their officers and place importance on their relationships with those they supervise, officers are likely to have greater job satisfaction and stay in their positions longer.

Officer skills. More research is needed into the skills, competencies, and interactional styles of officers that best promote offender success and the efficacy of training programs that aim to support these. While there is some research available that seeks to address these questions, much remains unknown. For example, the use of pro-social modeling by officers correlates with offenders' compliance with supervision requirements and desistance from crime.⁹⁰ The use of motivational interviewing techniques has some impact on future offending, offender retention and engagement in treatment programs, and motivation to change.⁹¹ Research has also shown that officers are responsive to training and support that assists them in applying core correctional practices during face-to-face interactions with supervisees.⁹² But further research is needed to identify supervision styles that work best with different types of offenders; there is qualitative evidence to suggest, for example, that female

offenders take greater benefit than men from a relationship-oriented style of supervision.⁹³ Further research into the impact of officer qualities and interactional styles could inform the development of more effective training programs for officers and encourage corrections agencies to view officer development as a worthwhile investment of their often limited funds.

Officer-supervisee working relationships. In recent years, policymakers and researchers have recognized the importance of the officer-supervisee relationship to successful community reintegration and corrections outcomes.⁹⁴ Research suggests that strong, positive working relationships that are based on mutual respect, openness, honesty, and warmth, among other qualities, can increase compliance and engagement with supervision and decrease recidivism.⁹⁵ Successful working relationships should be well balanced between the dual roles of rehabilitative care and rule enforcement, as officers who develop a ‘firm, fair, and caring’ relationship with supervisees see a decrease in recidivism.⁹⁶ Positive and consistent working relationships are related to improved outcomes in correctional treatment programs, and are also thought to improve officers’ ability to gather information and monitor their supervisees.⁹⁷ More research is needed to better understand what constitutes good working relationships, how these can be fostered, and which policies or practices threaten or encourage their development. Without giving serious consideration to this aspect of community supervision, other evidence-based interventions may well fail to live up to their full potential.⁹⁸

Recent Policy Changes in Community Corrections

As state revenues have foundered, and recognition of the impact of probation and parole failures on jail and prison populations and budgets has grown, states have looked for ways to encourage and sustain the development of effective community-based sanctions that keep offenders safely in the community. Following are some of the multiple strategies states are pursuing to achieve this end, along with some state models.

MANDATORY USE OF EVIDENCE-BASED PRACTICES

With wider dissemination of research findings on how to impact criminal behavior, legislatures are passing bills that require corrections agencies to direct funds to programs that employ evidence-based practices. In some states, such as Oregon, the legislation specifies that a percentage of allocated funds must be used for evidence-based programming.

★ **ARKANSAS** In 2011, Arkansas enacted the Public Safety Improvement Act, which requires the Department of Community Corrections to implement evidence-based practices across the agency. The law mandates the agency to use specific practices. For example, probation and parole officers must develop individualized case plans for everyone designated moderate- or high-risk by an assessment tool that targets interventions for specific criminal risk factors, such as antisocial thinking, low levels of education or employment, and substance abuse.⁹⁹

★ **KENTUCKY** Part of a broad legislative package recently passed in Kentucky explicitly requires the Department of Corrections to use risk assessment tools to evaluate all probationers and parolees and to place low-risk offenders on administrative caseload supervision—a program designed to monitor those designated low-risk only to ensure they have not engaged in criminal activity and are fulfilling any court-ordered financial obligations ordered by the court. The new laws also permit people at a higher level of supervision to eventually move onto the administrative caseload by their consistent compliance with conditions.¹⁰⁰

★ **WASHINGTON** The state’s Offender Accountability Act requires classifying offenders according to their risk for future offending and allows the Department of Corrections to deploy more staff and resources to the supervision of offenders identified higher risk. It also encourages the department to develop partnerships with local law enforcement and social services to provide appropriate services in the community.¹⁰¹

AUTHORIZATION FOR USE OF ADMINISTRATIVE RESPONSES TO PROBATION AND PAROLE VIOLATIONS

Many states are looking for ways to stop the flow of technical violators into their prisons. Revocation to prison is not effective at preventing future crime and is very expensive. However, for many of the reasons discussed earlier, too many officers recommend revocation for technical violations. Therefore, some states have legislated alternative sanctions for rules violations.

★ **LOUISIANA** In 2011, the Louisiana Sentencing Commission, after studying the impact of revocations on the state’s prison population, recommended administrative sanctions, which the legislature authorized.¹⁰²

★ **DELAWARE** While Delaware had already implemented many evidence-based practices in its responses to violations of supervision conditions, it recently took additional steps to enhance its practice, including assuring that those who violate supervision terms receive sanctions that are proportional to the violation. These changes will reduce the state’s reliance on incarceration and administrative jail time and thus save taxpayer dollars without threat to public safety.¹⁰³

LIMITATIONS ON PROBATION AND PAROLE TERMS

As noted earlier, long terms on community supervision can expose even compliant parolees and probationers to possible revocation. Five years, for example, of needing permission to move, to travel, to get a driver's license, or of having to report regularly and observe a curfew might tempt anyone to break the rules. Legislators in some states have moved to limit probation and parole terms to avoid this risk when it is no longer needed.

EARNED DISCHARGE

Similar to the good time credits inmates can earn to shorten their periods of incarceration, earned discharge policies give those on supervision a way to shorten their terms of supervision by meeting the goals and conditions of supervision. These policies differ from laws that permit officers to petition judges or parole boards to reduce the supervision time of individual parolees or probationers. Rather they are automatic, eliminating the political pressures that can influence the judge, parole agency, and supervising agent.

For those on community supervision, earned discharge is the ultimate incentive for compliance.¹⁰⁴ For community corrections agencies, moving lower-risk probationers and parolees to less-intensive levels of supervision, or off supervision altogether, allows them to allocate resources more efficiently to less compliant, moderate-to-high-risk offenders who present a greater threat to public safety.

★ **ARIZONA** The Safe Communities Act of 2008 granted the court the authority to adjust a probationer's term of supervision based on earned time credit. Specifically, a probation sentence can be reduced by 20 days for every month the probationer exhibits progression toward the goals of his or her treatment plan, has no new arrests, and is current on payments of restitution and fines.¹⁰⁵ Data released in 2010 indicate that, since the policy's implementation, there has been a significant decline in the number of probationers convicted of new crimes, as well as a 29 percent decline in the overall number of probation revocations.¹⁰⁶

★ **ARKANSAS** In 2011, Arkansas passed the Public Safety Improvement Act, which allows probationers and parolees to earn credits equal to 30 days off their sentences for every month they comply with court ordered conditions and a set of pre-determined criteria established by the Department of Community Correction, in consultation with judges, prosecutors, and defense counsel.¹⁰⁷

★ **DELAWARE** Delaware's Senate Bill 226, signed into law in 2012, created "earned completion credits" for those under community supervision. The law permits the Delaware Department of Correction to award supervisees up to 30 days of credit for each 30 days of compliance with conditions of supervision.¹⁰⁸

PERFORMANCE INCENTIVE FUNDING

Performance incentive funding programs reward local supervision agencies with some of the savings that states accrue when community supervision agencies successfully reduce the number of offenders revoked to prison for violating a rule or a condition of supervision. The funding can then be used to maintain or expand an agencies' use of evidence-based practices.

States, including California, Illinois, and Kansas, have implemented performance incentive funding in their adult justice systems. While each state has a slightly different incentive structure, they have in common the goal of reducing the number of people on parole or probation who are sent to prison on a revocation. California ties the receipt and amount of funds to estimated savings to the state, while Kansas awards grants based on targeted reduction goals. More recently, Arkansas, Kentucky, Pennsylvania, South Carolina, and Texas all created performance incentive funding programs.

★ **ILLINOIS** In the Crime Reduction Act of 2009, Illinois created a financial incentive for the reduction of prison commitments from local jurisdictions called Adult Redeploy Illinois. The Adult Redeploy Illinois Oversight Board is tasked with overseeing the development or expansion of community-based sanctions and creating a formula to determine how much each local jurisdiction will receive in reallocation funds. In return for the funds, each county must sign a pledge with the oversight board to reduce its commitments by 25 percent.¹⁰⁹

★ **CALIFORNIA** The California Community Corrections Performance Incentives Act of 2009 requires the use of evidence-based practices in probation supervision in order to qualify for incentive funding.¹¹⁰

Moving Forward: Recommendations to the Field

Community-based supervision has always had the potential to support individual change, help make communities safer, and reduce public costs; but, for all the reasons already noted—the pressure of falling revenues, the more than 700 percent increase in the prison population, and the high post-release failure rates—governors and legislators are just now beginning to pay attention. Community corrections can only be effective, however, when the necessary resources and capacity are available to incorporate research-proven principles of offender and systems change. The challenge to the full realization of all that potential is securing those resources and capacity.

Given the enormous pressure that states have faced from shrinking budget

dollars and rising costs, many states have focused primarily on legislative and policy changes aimed at producing a swift reduction in the prison population, such as increasing earned good-time credit, reducing the time to parole eligibility, making a larger group of offenses—particularly drug offenses—eligible for community-based sentences, and rolling back release dates with a requirement of post-release supervision. These reforms not only expand the number of people community corrections agencies must supervise but also increase the levels of risk and needs in the population to be supervised.

In addition, counties are facing their own budget woes. To save on jail beds, many local jurisdictions are revamping their pretrial policies and speeding up case processing to move cases through the courts more quickly.¹¹¹ These changes mean greater numbers of individuals are placed on pretrial supervision in the community or on probation more quickly.

While these legislative and policy changes are good and important, there is a risk that they will not be implemented as intended or will prove ineffective without the necessary oversight and resources.

Some states and counties have embarked on this process under the rubric of “justice reinvestment”—the promise of reallocation of institutional cost-savings to community-based treatment, education, and other services aimed at crime prevention or recidivism reduction. Beyond reallocation of existing corrections’ dollars, new investment is also needed. In these times, when every extra dollar is typically needed to fill a hole in some part of the budget, it has been hard to find examples of truly *new* spending on these items.

WHAT IT TAKES

The opportunity to steer the country away from its reliance on incarceration and towards the careful and effective use of community corrections exists today but may very well be missed without a full appreciation of what it is going to take to create success. The investment of budget resources is essential, but so are a number of other ingredients.

Collaboration with key stakeholders. Securing the outcomes sought by policymakers—in public safety, dollars saved, communities improved—is more likely if key stakeholders are part of the process. Corrections agencies cannot affect desired outcomes on their own; police, judges, prosecutors, paroling authorities, and others play an important role as well. Legislators and executive branch policymakers can provide needed outreach to these constituencies to build their understanding of why change is needed and to encourage their cooperation. They can also convene forums through which corrections agencies and other stakeholders can discuss the progress and impact of change.

Realistic expectations. Elected officials must not expect anticipated outcomes, such as a reduction in prison population, to happen overnight. For some agencies, the kinds of changes needed to achieve the outcomes envisioned may take

Corrections agencies cannot affect desired outcomes on their own; police, judges, prosecutors, paroling authorities, and others play an important role as well.

a long time. Changes in hiring, training, case classifications, caseload assignments, staff reward structures, and so on all require extended, focused effort on the part of agency leadership.

Skilled, bold leaders. Effective community supervision requires agency leaders who have the support of policymakers to produce systemic change. Leaders need vision, freedom to create an executive team of their own choosing, support from above, and the ability to withstand the pressure to maintain the status quo. Governors and county executives also need help: corrections should warrant the same kind of professional recruiting guidance that most executives would look for in hiring an education or health official. Once hired, these agency heads need ongoing support to implement fully mission, policy, and practice changes throughout their agencies.

Culture change. Changing supervision practices within agencies includes changing the ethos of the entire operation: mission, vision, values—everything from policies to job descriptions and staff promotion criteria. This process is long and arduous: not only is there predictable resistance to changes to the way things have always been done, but recalibrating an agency toward the success of probationers and parolees (as opposed to just avoiding or catching failure) can be a fundamental challenge to the way an agency's employees see themselves, their work, and their purpose. There are many proven ways to make these changes successfully, from using vertical implementation task groups drawn from different levels of staff and different divisions within an agency to providing rewards and incentives to employees, but the process must be carefully thought out.

An additional challenge may be frequent changes in leadership and, hence, approach. Staff may resist change in anticipation that this new person and his or her team will not be in place for very long. This attitude makes it all the more imperative that hiring and promotion criteria be overhauled quickly, and policy changes be developed with input from line staff and institutionalized as rapidly as possible. Support from outside experts is usually helpful in identifying and managing the many different aspects of the change process—from coaching leaders and framing messages to staff to creating new hiring and promotion criteria and developing policies that reflect new goals.

Training for staff. Training that provides staff with the knowledge and skills they need to meet new job expectations is critical: research findings, motivational interviewing, communication skills, and risk and needs assessments are just some of the needed training areas. Training, however, is resource intensive and takes staff away from their regular duties. Agency leaders must make its value clear across the agency, particularly to its mid-level managers.

Available programming that meets evidence-based standards. Evidence-based programming is key to producing positive public safety outcomes and simply may not be available in certain jurisdictions. Especially in rural and smaller metropolitan areas, choices in providers may be extremely limited. Agencies must have the resources to assess providers and to seek either training for their own staff or to create incentives for providers to acquire needed skills and assets to fill program gaps.

Conclusion

At a moment when state and local governments are pursuing sentencing and policy changes that would have been unthinkable five years ago, it is essential that far greater attention be paid to and resources invested in community corrections and supervision. The feeling of accomplishment in many state capitols and county seats as legislative and policy changes are enacted is premature unless and until these changes are implemented as envisioned. Only when community supervision agencies have the assistance they need to deliver on anticipated outcomes will the potential for community corrections to bring about personal transformation and improved community safety be realized for individuals, their families, and their communities.

ENDNOTES

- 1 Pew Center on the States, *Prison Count 2010: State Population Declines for the First Time in 38 Years* (Washington, D.C.: Pew Charitable Trusts, 2010).
- 2 Christian Henrichson and Ruth Delaney, *The Price of Prisons: What Incarceration Costs Taxpayers*. (New York: Vera Institute of Justice, 2012).
- 3 Linh Vuong, Christopher Hartney, Barry Krisberg, and Susan Marchionna, "The Extravagance of Imprisonment Revisited," *Judicature* 94, no. 2 (2010): 70.
- 4 Amanda Petteruti, Nastassia Walsh, and Tracy Velázquez, *Pruning Prisons: How Cutting Corrections Can Save Money and Protect Public Safety* (Washington, D.C.: Justice Policy Institute, 2009).
- 5 Lauren E. Glaze and Thomas P. Bonczar, *Probation and Parole in the United States, 2009* (Washington, D.C.: Department of Justice, Bureau of Justice Assistance, 2010).
- 6 18 U.S.C. § 3142.
- 7 For example, see the Los Angeles County 2011 Felony Bail Schedule at <http://www.lasuperiorcourt.org/bail/pdf/felony.pdf>.
- 8 Donna Makowiecki and Thomas J. Wolf, "Enter...Stage Left...U.S. Pretrial Services," *Federal Probation* 71, no. 2 (2007):7-9.
- 9 Marian Katzive, *New Areas for Bail Reform: A Report on the Manhattan Bail Reevaluation Project* (New York: Vera Institute of Justice, 1968); and Pretrial Justice Institute, *Pretrial Services Program Implementation: A Starter Kit* (Washington, D.C.: PJI, 2010).
- 10 John S. Goldkamp, *Two Classes of Accused: A study of Bail and Detention in American Justice* (Cambridge, Mass: Ballinger Pub. Co., 1979); and Malcolm Feeley, *The Process is the Punishment: Handling Cases in a Lower Criminal Court*, (New York: Russell

- Sage Foundation, 1979). For a comprehensive review of current research, see Jeffrey David Manns, *Liberty Takings: a Framework for Com[p]ensating Pretrial Detainees* (Cambridge, MA: Harvard Law School, John M. Olin Center for Law, Economics, and Business, 2005).
- 11 Goldkamp, 1979; Feeley, 1979; and Manns, 2005.
 - 12 Ernest M. Drucker, *A Plague of Prisons: The Epidemiology of Mass Incarceration in America* (New York: New Press, 2011).
 - 13 Glaze and Bonczar, 2010.
 - 14 Brian Rogers, "Hit with a DWI: Many Pick Jail Over Probation," *Houston Chronicle*, September 24, 2006.
 - 15 Ryan J. Winter and Jonathan P. Vallano, "Can Specialty Courts Turn Lives Around?" *APA Monitor on Psychology* 42, no. 3 (March 2011): 22
 - 16 Michael C. Dorf and Jeffrey A. Fagan, "Problem-Solving Courts: From Innovation to Institutionalization," *American Criminal Law Review* 40 (2003): 1501-1512.
 - 17 West Huddleston and Douglas Marlowe, *Painting the Current Picture: A National Report on Drug Courts and other Problem-Solving Court Programs in the United States* (Alexandria, VA: National Drug Court Institute, July 2011).
 - 18 Huddleston and Marlowe, July 2011.
 - 19 Huddleston and Marlowe, July 2011.
 - 20 Timothy Hughes, Doris James Wilson, and Allen J. Beck, *Trends in State Parole, 1990-2000* (Washington D.C.: U.S. Department of Justice, Office of Justice Programs, Bureau of Justice Statistics, October 2001).
 - 21 Glaze and Bonczar, 2010.
 - 22 Pew Center on the States, *One in 31: The Long Reach of American Corrections* (Washington, DC: The Pew Charitable Trusts, 2009), 1.
 - 23 Pew Center on the States, 2009, 22.
 - 24 Pew Center on the States, 2009.
 - 25 Pew Center on the States, *State of Recidivism: The Revolving Door of America's Prisons* (Washington, DC: The Pew Charitable Trusts, April 2011).
 - 26 Individuals on parole or probation are given a set of rules or conditions for their supervision. These conditions vary across jurisdictions and may include abstinence from drugs and alcohol, curfews, set appointments with supervising officers, and driving restrictions. Violations of these conditions are considered technical violations and could result in incarceration.
 - 27 Glaze and Bonczar, 2010.
 - 28 Glaze and Bonczar, 2010.
 - 29 Glaze and Bonczar, 2010.
 - 30 Glaze and Bonczar, 2010, Section 4, Footnote 1.
 - 31 Reentry Policy Council, *Report of the Re-Entry Policy Council: Charting the Safe and Successful Return of Prisoners to the Community* (New York, NY: Council of State Governments, January 2005).
 - 32 Reentry Policy Council, January 2005; and Joan Petersilia, *When Prisoners Return to the Community: Political, Economic, and Social Consequences* (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Dept. of Justice, Office of Justice Programs, National Institute of Justice, 2000).
 - 33 Reentry Policy Council, January 2005; and Joan Petersilia, 2000.
 - 34 Matthew T. DeMichele, *Probation and Parole's Growing Caseloads and Workload Allocation: Strategies for Managerial Decision Making*, (Washington, D.C.: Bureau of Justice, 2007), 13.
 - 35 DeMichele, 2007.
 - 36 Amy L. Solomon, et al., *Putting Public Safety First: 13 Parole Supervision Strategies to Enhance Reentry Outcomes* (Washington, D.C.: Urban Institute, Justice Policy Center, 2008), 2; and Steven Aos, Marna Geyer Miller, and Elizabeth Drake, *Evidence-based Adult Corrections Programs: What Works and What Does Not* (Olympia, WA: Washington State Institute for Public Policy, 2006).
 - 37 E. K. Drake and S. Aos, *Confinement for Technical Violations of Community Supervision: Is There an Effect on Felony Recidivism?* Document No. 12-07-1201, (Olympia: Washington State Institute for Public Policy, 2012), 9.
 - 38 National Institute of Corrections and Crime and Justice Institute, *Implementing Evidence-Based Practice in Community Corrections: The Principles of Effective Intervention* (Washington, DC: Department of Justice, National Institute of Corrections, 2004).
 - 39 Statement by Jesse Jannetta, The Urban Institute, at a hearing on "The Local Role of the United States Parole Commission (USPC): Increasing Public Safety, Reducing Recidivism, and Using Alternatives to Re-incarceration in the District of Columbia" by the House of Representatives Oversight and Government Reform Subcommittee on Federal Workforce, Postal Service, and the District of Columbia, September 22, 2009.
 - 40 Joan Petersilia and Susan Turner, "Intensive Probation and Parole," *Crime and Justice: A Review of Research* 17 (1993): 281-335
 - 41 DeMichele, 2007.
 - 42 DeMichele, 2007, 14.
 - 43 Edward Latessa and Christopher Lowenkamp, "What Works in Reducing Recidivism?" *University of St. Thomas Law Journal* 3, no. 3, Article 7 (2006).
 - 44 Pew Center on the States, *South Carolina's Public Safety Reform: Legislation Enacts Research-based Strategies to Cut Prison Growth and Costs* (Washington, D.C.: The Pew Charitable Trusts, June 2010).
 - 45 Louisiana Department of Public Safety and Corrections (DPS&C), *Briefing Book* (Louisiana: DPS&C, July 2012), 77.
 - 46 Pew Center on the States, *Kentucky: A Data-Driven Effort to Protect Public Safety and Control Corrections Spending* (Washington, D.C.: The Pew Charitable Trusts, October 2010).
 - 47 Lynne M. Vieraitis, Tomislav V. Kovandzic, and Thomas B. Marvell, "The Criminogenic Effects of Imprisonment: Evidence from State Panel Data, 1974-2002," *Criminology and Public Policy* 6, no. 3 (2007): 589-622.
 - 48 Little Hoover Commission, *Back to the Community: Safe & Sound Parole Policies* (California: Little Hoover Commission, November 2003), 11, 36.

- 49 DeMichele, 2007, 57.
- 50 DeMichele, 2007.
- 51 Vera Institute of Justice, *The Continuing Fiscal Crisis in Corrections* (New York, NY: The Vera Institute of Justice, 2010).
- 52 Faye Taxman, David Soule, and Adam Gelb, "Graduated Sanctions: Stepping into Accountable Systems and Offenders," *Prison Journal* 79, no. 2 (1999): 182-205.
- 53 Vera Institute of Justice Survey on Parole Practice to U.S Parole Board Chairs and Releasing Authority Directors, Association of Paroling Authorities International, February 2, 2012.
- 54 Donald A. Andrews, "Enhancing Adherence to Risk-Need-Responsivity: Making Quality a Matter of Policy," *Criminology and Public Policy* 5, no. 3 (2006): 595-602; Aos, Miller, and Drake, 2006; Peggy B. Burke, *Parole Violations Revisited: A Handbook on Strengthening Parole Practices for Public Safety and Successful Offender Transition* (Washington, D.C.: National Institute of Corrections, 2004); National Research Council (U.S.), *Parole, Desistance from Crime and Community Integration* (Washington, D.C.: National Academies Press, 2007); Reentry Policy Council, January 2005; and Solomon, 2008.
- 55 Christopher T. Lowenkamp and Edward J. Latessa, "Understanding the Risk Principle: How and Why Correctional Interventions Can Harm Low-Risk Offenders", *Topics in Community Corrections*, Annual Issue (2004).
- 56 "Delaware Justice Reinvestment Task Force: Consensus Report": 4-5. <http://ltgov.delaware.gov/taskforces/djrtf/DJRTFFinalConsensusReport.pdf> (accessed October 12, 2012).
- 57 Lauren-Brooke Eisen, "Georgia Department of Corrections Probation Reporting Contact Center," October 9, 2012, e-mail with Georgia Department of Corrections.
- 58 Unpublished research conducted by the Vera Institute of Justice in 2009-2010.
- 59 Burke, 2004; and Peggy Burke, Adam Gelb, and Jake Horowitz, *When Offenders Break the Rules: Smart Responses to Parole and Probation Violations* (Washington, DC: Pew Center on the States, 2007).
- 60 Drake and Aos, 2012.
- 61 David W. Diggs, *Day Reporting Centers as an Effective Correctional Sanction* (Tallahassee, FL: Florida Department of Law Enforcement, Senior Leadership Program, 1993).
- 62 Christine Martin, Arthur J. Lurigio, and David E. Olson, "An Examination of Rearrests and Reincarcerations among Discharged Day Reporting Center Clients," *Federal Probation* 67, no. 1, (2003): 24-30; and Russell K. Van Vleet, Audrey O. Hickert, and Erin E. Becker, *Evaluation of the Salt Lake County Day Reporting Center* (Salt Lake City, UT: Utah Criminal Justice Center, 2006).
- 63 P Gendreau and C. Goggin, "Correctional Treatment: Accomplishments and Realities," in *Correctional Counseling and Rehabilitation, Third Edition* (Cincinnati: Anderson Publishing Company, 1997), 271-280.
- 64 Solomon, 2008.
- 65 Oregon Department of Corrections, *The Effectiveness of Community-Based Sanctions in Reducing Recidivism* (Salem, OR: Oregon Department of Corrections, 2002).
- 66 Although this practice is focused on parole, it can also be applied to probation practices. Solomon, 2008.
- 67 Kansas Department of Corrections, *Kansas Behavior Response / Adjustment Grid*, available at <http://www.doc.ks.gov/kdoc-policies/impp/chapter-14/14137.pdf> (accessed May 12, 2010).
- 68 James A. Wilson, Wendy Naro, and James F. Austin, *Innovations in Probation: Assessing New York City's Automated Reporting System* (Washington, DC: The JFA Institute, 2007); Rosalyn Baker, *Automated Kiosk Reporting for Offenders* (FL: Unpublished document, December 2007), 1-13; Ingersoll Rand Security Technologies, *A Schlage Recognition Systems Identity Verification Case Study* (Washington State DOC, 2006); and Task Force on the Future of Probation in New York State, *Report to the Chief Judge of the State of New York* (New York: Task Force on the Future of Probation in New York State, 2007).
- 69 National Institute of Justice, *Electronic Monitoring Reduces Recidivism*. (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Justice, Office of Justice Programs, 2011).
- 70 Shauna Bottos, *An Overview of Electronic Monitoring in Corrections: The Issues and Implications* (Ottawa, Canada: Correctional Service Canada, Research Branch, 2007).
- 71 Bottos, 2007.
- 72 Kristen Zgoba, Philip Witt, Melissa Dalessandro, and Bonita Veysey, *Megan's Law: Assessing the Practical and Monetary Efficacy* (Washington, D.C.: National Institute of Justice, 2008); and Elizabeth Letourneau, Jill Levenson, Dipankar Bandyopadhyay, Debajyoti Sinha, and Kevin S Armstrong, *Evaluating the Effectiveness of Sex Offender Registration and Notification Policies for Reducing Sexual Violence Against Women* (Charleston, SC: Medical University of South Carolina, 2010).
- 73 For example, see Lattimore, et al., *Prisoner Reentry Services: What Worked for SVORI Evaluation Participants?* (Research Triangle Park, NC: RTI International, February 2012); and Pew Center on the States, April 2011.
- 74 BI Incorporated, *Merced County Day Reporting Center to Hold Transition Celebration for Criminal Offenders Who Complete Intensive Program*, http://www.bi.com/100405_merced_drc_transition (accessed September 8, 2010); and Martin, Lurigio, and Olson, 2003.
- 75 Brian Martin, *Examining the Impact of Ohio's Progressive Sanction Grid, Final Report* (Ohio: Ohio Department of Rehabilitation and Correction, August 2008).
- 76 Zachary Hamilton, *Do Reentry Courts Reduce Recidivism? Results from the Harlem Parole Reentry Court* (New York: Center for Court Innovation, March 2010); and S.E. Vance, "Federal Reentry Court Programs: A Summary of Recent Evaluations," *Federal Probation* 75, no. 2 (2011): 64-73.
- 77 Angela Hawken and Mark Kleiman, *Managing Drug Involved Probationers with Swift and Certain Sanctions: Evaluating Hawaii's HOPE* (U.S. Department of Justice, 2009).
- 78 Cindy Redcross, et al., *Work After Prison: One-Year Findings From The Transitional Jobs Reentry Demonstration* (New York: MDRC, 2000).
- 79 Peggy McGarry, Vera Institute of Justice, verbal report following attendance at researchers' meeting, April 2010, Washington D.C.

- 80 David Levin, *Examining the Efficacy of Pretrial Release Conditions, Sanctions and Screening with the State Court Processing Dataseries* (Washington, DC: Pretrial Justice Institute, 2007).
- 81 Marie Van Nostrand, *Legal and Evidence Based Practices: Application of Legal Principles, Laws, and Research to the Field of Pretrial Services* (Washington, DC: National Institute of Corrections, 2007).
- 82 Kevin Haines, *After-care for Released Offenders: A Review of the Literature* (Cambridge: Institute of Criminology, University of Cambridge, 1990).
- 83 Fergus McNeill and Beth Weaver, *Changing Lives? Desistance Research and Offender Management* (Glasgow: The Scottish Centre for Crime & Justice Research, Glasgow School of Social Work, June 2010).
- 84 Joan Payne, et al., *Long-term Unemployment: Individual Risk Factors and Outcomes* (London: Policy Studies Institute, 1996).
- 85 Shadd Maruna, *Making Good: How Ex-Convicts Reform and Rebuild Their Lives* (Washington: American Psychological Association, 2001).
- 86 M. Brown and S. Ross, "Mentoring, Social Capital and Desistance: A Study of Women Released from Prison," *Australian and New Zealand Journal of Criminology* 43, no. 1 (2010): 31-50.
- 87 Stephen Niven and Duncan Stewart, *Resettlement Outcomes on Release from Prison in 2003* (London: Home Office, 2005).
- 88 Christy Ann Visser, Nancy G La Vigne, and Jeremy Travis, *Returning Home: Understanding the Challenges of Prison Reentry* (Washington, DC: Urban Institute, Justice Policy Center, 2004).
- 89 W. Bales, and D. Mears, "Inmate Social Ties and the Transition to Society: Does Visitation Reduce Recidivism?" *Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency*, 45, no. 3 (2008): 287-321.
- 90 C. Trotter, "The Impact of Different Supervision Practices in Community Corrections: Cause for Optimism," *The Australian & New Zealand journal of criminology* 29, no. 1 (1996): 29.
- 91 M. McMurrin, "Motivational Interviewing with Offenders: A Systematic Review," *Legal and Criminological Psychology* 14, no. 1 (2009): 83-100.
- 92 Paula Smith, M. Schweitzer, and R.M. Labrecque. "Improving probation officers' supervision skills: An evaluation of the EPICS model." *Journal of Crime and Justice*, 35, no. 2 (2012): 189-199.
- 93 C. Trotter. "Parole and probation." In R. Sheehan, G. McIvor, and C. Trotter (Eds), *What Works With Women Offenders*. Portland, OR: Willan Publishing (2007): 124-141.
- 94 D.A. Andrews, "Reintroducing rehabilitation to corrections." In J.A. Dvorskin, J.L. Skeem, R.W. Novaco, and K.L. Douglas (Eds), *Applying Social Science to Reduce Violent Offending*. New York, NY: Oxford University Press (2011): 127-156; and Ros Burnett and F. McNeill "The place of the officer-offender relationship in assisting offenders to desist from crime," *The Probation Journal*, 52 no. 3 (2005): 221-242.
- 95 Gwen Robinson, "What Works in Offender Management?" *The Howard Journal of Criminal Justice* 44, no. 3 (2005), 307-318.
- 96 Patrick J. Kennealy, J.L. Skeem, S.M. Manchak, and J.E. Loudon, "Firm, Fair, and Caring Officer-Offender Relationships Protect Against Supervision Failure." *Law and Human Behavior*, 36, no. 6 (2012): 496-505.
- 97 Craig Dowden and D A Andrews, "The Importance of Staff Practice in Delivering Effective Correctional Treatment: A Meta-analytic review of core correctional practice," *International Journal of Offender Therapy and Comparative Criminology* 48, no. 2 (2004): 203-214; and HM Inspectorate of Probation, *Management and Assessment of Risk in the Probation Service* (London: Home Office, 1997), 227-300.
- 98 Dowden and Andrews (2004).
- 99 Arkansas SB 750, 2011.
- 100 Kentucky HB 463, 2011.
- 101 R. Moore and C. Brown Young, "Washington's Offender Accountability Act: A New Approach to Corrections," *Corrections Today*, 62 (2000): 60-63.
- 102 Louisiana HLS 11RS-234.
- 103 "Delaware Justice Reinvestment Task Force: Consensus Report": 4-5. <http://ltgov.delaware.gov/taskforces/djrtf/DJRTFFinalConsensusReport.pdf> (accessed October 12, 2012).
- 104 Solomon, 2008.
- 105 Arizona Senate Bill 1476, 2008, Available at <http://www.azleg.gov/legtext/48leg/2r/bills/sb1476h.pdf> (accessed May 2, 2012).
- 106 There was a 27.8 percent decline of revocations to prison, 38.7 percent decline of revocations to jail, and 48 percent decline of revocations to non-custody. Pew Center on the States, *The Impact of Arizona's Probation Reforms*(Washington, DC: The Pew Center, 2011).
- 107 Arkansas Senate Bill 750, 2011.
- 108 Delaware Senate Bill 226, 2012.
- 109 Illinois Senate Bill 1289, 2009.
- 110 California Community Corrections Performance Incentives Act of 2009, SB 678.
- 111 Eighteen local sites are participating in the Bureau of Justice Assistance's Justice Reinvestment Initiative. See La Vigne, Nancy "Number of JRI local sites," October 2, 2012, personal e-mail (accessed October 3, 2012).

Acknowledgments

This report was written by:

- Peggy McGarry
- Alison Shames
- Allon Yaroni
- Karen Tamis
- Ram Subramanian
- Lauren-Brooke Eisen
- Leon Digard
- Ruth Delaney
- Sara Sullivan

This report is made possible in part by a grant from the John D. and Catherine T. MacArthur Foundation. The MacArthur Foundation supports creative people and effective institutions committed to building a more just, verdant, and peaceful world.

The authors would like to thank Mary Crowley, Patricia Connelly, Melissa Cipollone, and Amy Connors for their assistance with the editing and production of this report.

© Vera Institute of Justice 2013. All rights reserved.

An electronic version of this report is posted on Vera's website at www.vera.org/pubs/potential-community-corrections

For more information about Vera's Center on Sentencing and Corrections, contact the center's director, Peggy McGarry, at pmcgarry@vera.org.

The Vera Institute of Justice is an independent nonprofit organization that combines expertise in research, demonstration projects, and technical assistance to help leaders in government and civil society improve the systems people rely on for justice and safety.

Suggested Citation

Vera Institute of Justice. *The Potential of Community Corrections: To Improve Communities and Reduce Incarceration*. New York, NY: Vera Institute of Justice, 2013.



Vera Institute of Justice
233 Broadway, 12th Floor
New York, NY 10279
Tel: (212) 334-1300
Fax: (212) 941-9407

Washington DC Office
1100 First St. NE, Suite 950
Washington, DC 20002
Tel: (202) 465-8900
Fax: (202) 408-1972

New Orleans Office
546 Carondelet St.
New Orleans, LA 70130
Tel: (504) 593-0937
Fax: (212) 941-9407

Los Angeles Office
707 Wilshire Blvd., Suite 3850
Los Angeles, CA 90017
Tel: (213) 223-2442
Fax: (213) 955-9250

