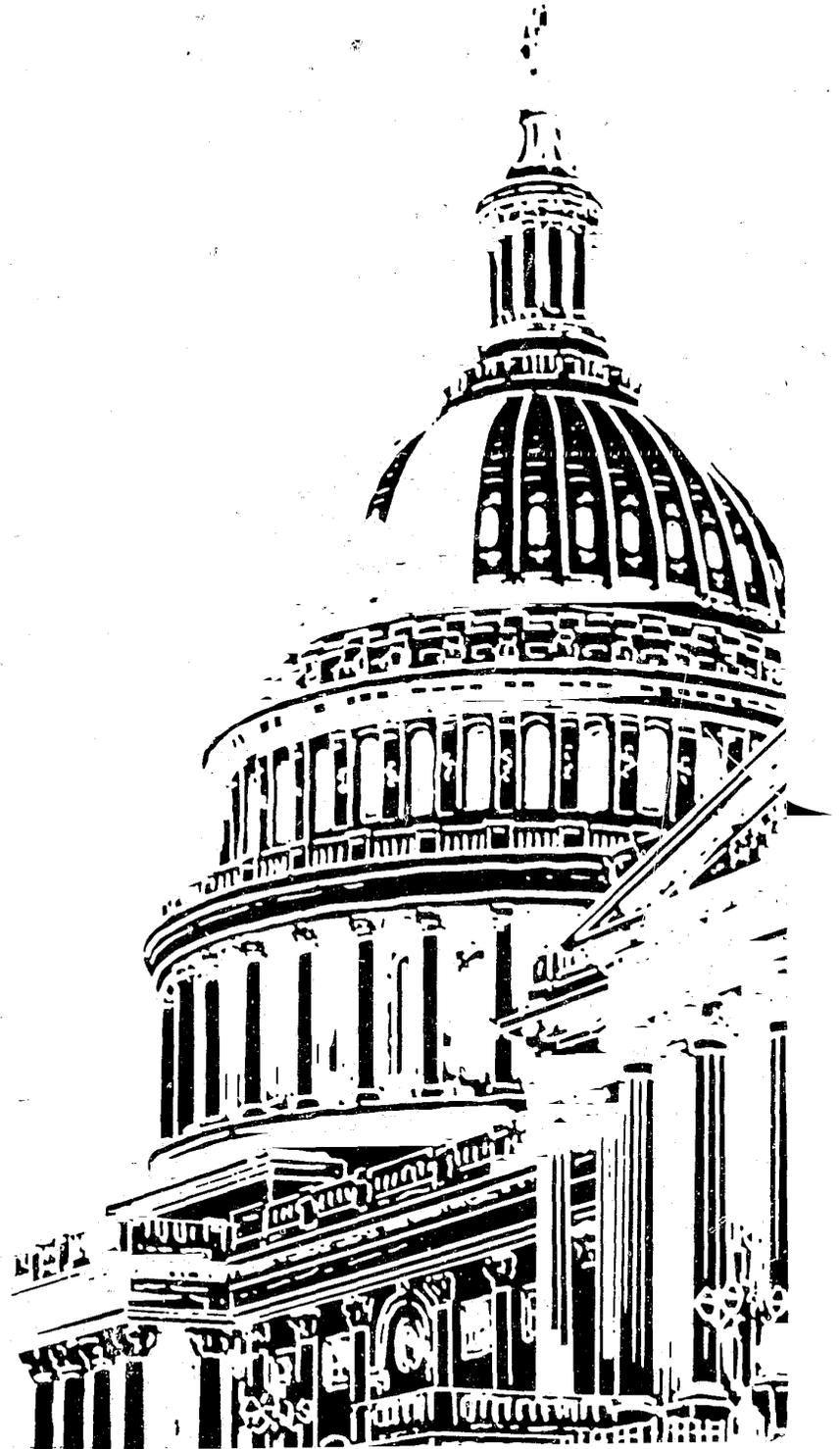


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National Institute of Justice

Bureau of Justice Assistance

Evaluating Drug Control Initiatives Conference Proceedings

Washington, DC
June 20-22, 1990

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U.S. Department of Justice
National Institute of Justice

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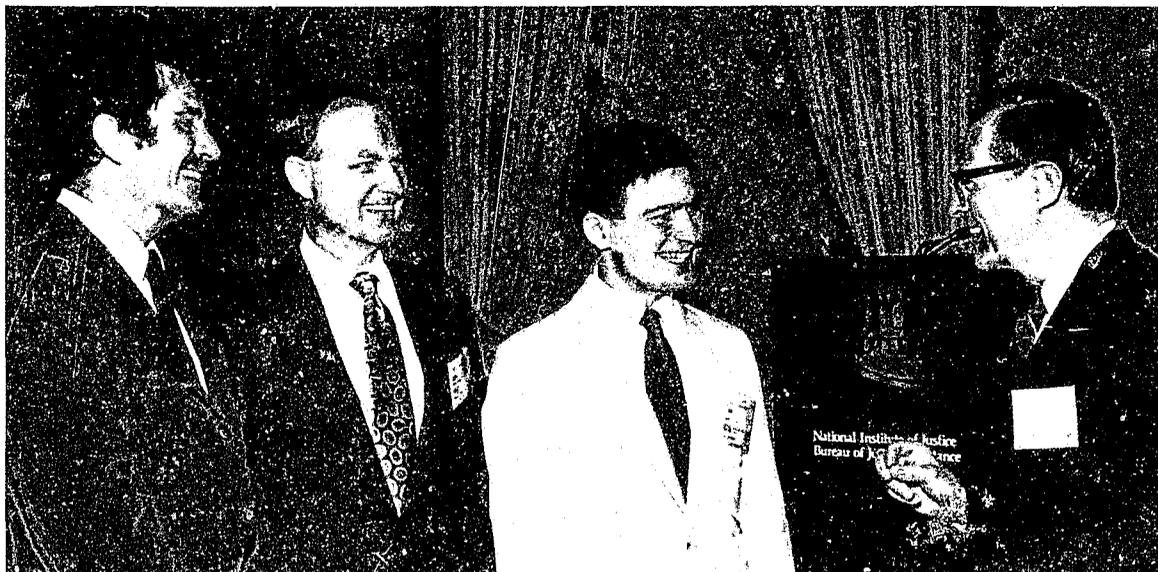
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INTRODUCTION



Since the mid-1980s, Federal funding has flowed to state and local governments for implementing drug control and criminal justice system improvement projects. These projects have focused on cooperation among multi-jurisdictional law enforcement agencies, enhanced prosecution of drug offenders, removing the profit motive from drug trafficking, and the identification and treatment of drug-involved offenders. Although flourishing, the effectiveness of most programs and their impact on drug use and the criminal justice system remains largely unknown.

In the Anti-Drug Abuse Act of 1988, Congress recognized the need to evaluate Federally-funded programs to determine whether they have achieved success or offer a high probability of success. The Act required that an evaluation component be developed for projects funded with formula grant funds under the Drug Control and System Improvement Program. The Bureau of Justice Assistance (BJA), administrator of the Program's discretionary and formula grant funds, was authorized to establish rules and regulations to ensure continuing evaluation of projects at the state and local levels. The National Institute of Justice (NIJ) was required by the Act to develop evaluation guidelines and to conduct a number of comprehensive evaluations of selected discretionary and formula grant programs.

The National Drug Control Strategy, issued by the Office of National Drug Control Policy in 1989, also stressed the critical role of evaluation. It established, as a national priority, the evaluation of drug control programs in order to determine "what works." The need for "development of a comprehensive information base about what works in controlling drug use through support for public and private evaluation of drug enforcement, drug prevention, and drug treatment programs" was stated.

In response to the call for evaluation, BJA established a major initiative and funded evaluations of 25 discretionary programs. In addition, the agency provided partial funding for NIJ's establishment of a *Special Initiative on Drug Program Evaluation*. In its first year (FY1989), this NIJ initiative resulted in 22 evaluations of formula and discretionary-funded programs (as well as demonstration programs funded with state monies). In its FY1990 program plan, NIJ announced its intent to fund additional evaluation efforts. Because these evaluations focus on project impact, they will provide feedback on the effectiveness of funding strategies and programs

concerning drug control and system improvement to policymakers at all levels of government.

The high Federal priority on evaluation initiatives, and the limited resources available at state and local levels, have raised the interest of researchers, analysts, and decisionmakers nationwide to share information on the results of new and continuing programs which could impact drug control and improve the functioning of the criminal justice system. In addition, the decentralized planning and administration of evaluation efforts at the Federal level have increased the need for coordination and dissemination of important information to state and local officials. As stated in the report on FY1990 appropriations for the Departments of Commerce, Justice, State, the Judiciary, and related agencies, "current reporting [on] the results of demonstration projects among local law enforcement agencies should be expanded in order to share the valuable lessons learned."

The Evaluating Drug Control Initiatives Conference brought together individuals from Federal, state, and local agencies to:

- share information on the status and design of ongoing and recently completed evaluations funded by NIJ, BJA, and the states;
- provide direct assistance to state officials for developing and conducting drug control and system improvement project evaluations;
- promote Federal interagency coordination of evaluation initiatives for drug control and system improvement projects; and
- establish a method and time frame for reporting to the Nation on "what works" in critical areas of drug control and system improvement.

The Conference program consisted of *Small Group Panels on Evaluation Projects* and *Special Topic Workshops*. *Small Group Panels on Evaluation Projects* facilitated information sharing by researchers and analysts who are evaluating Federally funded state drug control initiatives. These panels discussed various topics including methodologies, research design, target populations, purposes for evaluating specific programs, costs of evaluation, expectation of findings, and utilization of results. *Special Topic Workshops* provided instruction and addressed

specific issues related to evaluation research.

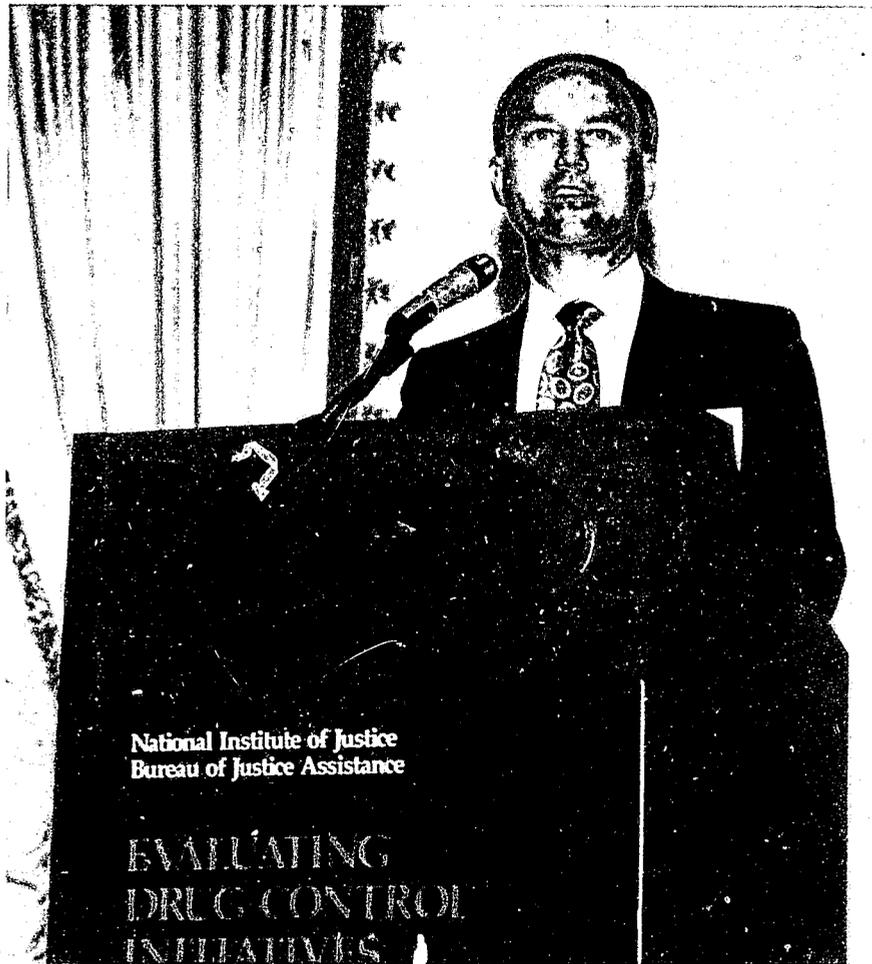
This document presents summaries for each evaluation presented for the small group panels, and descriptions of the special topic workshops. The small group panels were organized by topic and included the following: qualitative evaluation techniques for multi-jurisdictional task forces, managing and prosecuting drug cases, narcotics enforcement in public housing, drug abuse education programs, innovative sanctions for drug offenders, community responses to drug abuse, law enforcement task forces crossing geographic and component jurisdictions, treating drug-involved offenders in institutional settings, assessing state drug control strategies, making drug users accountable, treating drug-involved offenders in alternative settings, multi-jurisdictional task force efforts in rural states, drug testing for criminal offenders, and drug enforcement crackdowns.

The Special Topic Workshops were designed to provide evaluators and researchers with practical applications of evaluation techniques. The workshops addressed evaluation techniques for linking state drug control strategies and evaluation, developing case studies for program evaluation, evaluating police initiatives, measuring implementation for drug control programs, developing state-level evaluation strategies, and developing controlled field experiments, performance measures, and randomized experiments.



Peter Haynes

WELCOME



Gerald (Jerry) P. Regier

Gerald (Jerry) P. Regier
Acting Director
Bureau of Justice Assistance

On behalf of the Department of Justice, and two of the Bureaus of the Office of Justice Programs, specifically, the Bureau of Justice Assistance (BJA) and the National Institute of Justice (NIJ), I want to welcome you to this conference. Chips Stewart, Director of NIJ couldn't be here today, but I can assure you that he and the staff of NIJ fully support this conference and our agencies' joint evaluation programs. I want to personally thank you for taking the time from your busy schedules to attend this conference. Both the Bureau of Justice Assistance and National Institute of Justice are committed to working with and providing assistance to you, our partners at the state and local levels, to effectively and efficiently assess the impact of programs supported by BJA grant funds. I also want to stress to all participants the critical importance of this conference, not only to BJA national program activities, but also to the collective efforts of the states and territories to address the drug abuse and trafficking problem facing our nation. The demands on our nation's criminal justice system to fight the multitude of fronts presented by the drug abuse problem are staggering. This has put the entire system under great stress. However, I believe evaluation of ongoing efforts can contribute greatly to our ability to ensure that limited resources are used most effectively and efficiently.

Which leads me to the purpose of this conference--to inform state officials about the methodologies being utilized in on-going evaluation efforts both nationally and at the state levels and to share our individual experiences and knowledge. The objectives are clear--to enhance the evaluation capabilities at the state level and to contribute to improved consistency and validity of the state evaluation processes which are statutory requirements of the Drug Control and System Improvement Grant Program. This conference is designed to provide a broad spectrum of sessions to address both substantive operational evaluation activities as well as "How To" sessions providing information to you in your development and implementation of evaluation plans.

But, evaluation is not just something BJA and NIJ are required to do through the statutory responsibilities both agencies share. Evaluation is crucial to the nation's ability to effectively address the drug problem in communities and

towns throughout the country. The need to evaluate programs and projects is clearly stated as a key research priority in the National Drug Control Strategy which calls for: "Development of a comprehensive information base about "What Works" in controlling drug use through support for public and private evaluation of drug enforcement, drug prevention and drug treatment programs." The Strategy further defines the need for evaluation by stating the following benefits:

"First, national resources can be shifted to successful approaches, rather than wasted on ineffective efforts. Second, new programs can be developed using the best available methods. And third, research efforts can be concentrated on questions and medical problems needing further work."

Congress confirmed its commitment to evaluation through the Anti-Drug Abuse Act of 1988 when it identified the need to conduct evaluations of funded programs as a critical element in the implementation of the Drug Control and System Improvement Grant Program. There is concurrence then, that having evaluation results from a wide range of program models, in both the supply and demand areas that will allow decisionmakers and policymakers to make more fine-tuned, carefully targeted policy choices among a mix of drug supply and demand reduction programs.

Through this conference, and other evaluation initiatives of BJA and in many cases joint efforts with NIJ and state and local agencies, we hope to work with the many dedicated criminal justice officials at all levels of government to better determine what programs work, why they work, and how they can be improved. The success of our efforts will enable the criminal justice system to work smarter and more effectively. You will notice that I didn't mention work harder because I am convinced that public safety officials at all levels of government are already doing just that. So I challenge you for the next two days to continue to work hard, to participate in the sessions presented through this conference and to return to your respective jurisdictions with a clearer and more focused understanding of what you, through your evaluation efforts, can do to make a major contribution to our nation's drug control efforts, our "war" on drugs as it is sometimes called. Your contributions will benefit not just your own jurisdiction, but jurisdictions throughout the country that can realize tangible benefits from the results of your evaluation efforts.

Let me say a word about the timing of this conference because that is important. Programs initiated by the states over the last three years of funding are reaching the level of maturity where formal evaluations are possible. The Drug Control and System Improvement Grant Program is now reaching a stage of program maturity where meaningful evaluation results can be achieved. Many states, as well as BJA, have conducted a number of evaluation activities prior to the evaluation amendments of the Anti-Drug Abuse Act of 1988. Thus, the Act has served to reaffirm and formalize these evaluation activities into a national scope effort. As you know, however, evaluation activities do not promise or deliver quick fixes. Evaluation takes time, time for program maturity, time for the conduct of the evaluation itself. So we must be realistic and we must be resolute in our efforts to determine the effectiveness of the multitude of programs established. The Congress, the Administration, your chief executives and the American public expect and deserve to be informed of the effectiveness of the millions of dollars provided to enhance the drug control capabilities of state and local governments. Decisionmakers at all levels of government need to know "what works." They are looking to us for those answers.

Finding those answers will require cooperation at all levels of government. BJA has established an evaluation plan of which this conference represents the beginning of a second phase of BJA's implementation of a national evaluation program--a little background is in order:

- The program was formally established in the Fall of 1989, with the development and distribution of BJA/NIJ Evaluation Guidelines. BJA and NIJ also established a national evaluation initiative to support national scope impact evaluations of primarily BJA discretionary grant programs but also including formula grant funded projects where appropriate. The evaluation initiative is now an annual program of NIJ.
- BJA then conducted three regional cluster conferences to review with the state administrative agencies the evaluation requirements of the Anti-Drug Abuse Act of 1988 and to review BJA's evaluation plan for national scope evaluation activities. As many of you know, states have a statutory responsibility to conduct evaluations of their formula funded programs and projects.

- These two activities, Guideline development and cluster conferences, culminated the first phase of our evaluation efforts to assist states in the identification of responsibilities and requirements. This conference begins the next phase whereby technical assistance will be provided to assist states in their development and implementation of evaluation plans based on their unique program needs. Technical assistance from BJA and NIJ will also be provided to individual states as requested.
- The third phase is the reporting and dissemination of evaluation results of our joint efforts at the national and state levels. This phase will be an ongoing, routine activity of BJA.

The Bureau of Justice Assistance and the National Institute of Justice look forward to working with you and learning from you as your evaluation plans are implemented and results of these plans are realized. Beginning this fall and into the winter, we will be receiving the first results from many of the evaluations which are the focus of this conference. From that point on, we anticipate a steady flow of evaluation results to continue from our collective efforts. And I also expect BJA to be able to report on "what works" at a national evaluation conference next year to provide a forum for the review and discussion of the valuable insights our evaluation efforts will hopefully provide.

Again, thank you for your participation in this conference and I look forward to meeting with many of you individually during the sessions today.

KEYNOTE ADDRESS



Joseph S. Wholey

*Accountability, Quality, Value for Money:
Improving Performance in the Federal System*
Joseph S. Wholey
University of Southern California
School of Public Administration
Washington Public Affairs Center

Thank you for the chance to be with you today to help open this conference on evaluating drug control initiatives. I am impressed by the quality of the conference that has been planned and by the representation we have from all levels of government and from the research community.

We saw gatherings like this in the days of the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, an agency that never was able to demonstrate performance in terms of realistic, agreed-on goals. Today I would like to speak with you for a few minutes on how we might use goal-setting, monitoring, and evaluation to improve the nation's performance in drug control. This time around, I hope that we can succeed in getting agreement on realistic, outcome-oriented goals and demonstrating effective local, state, and national performance in terms of those goals.

Throughout the world, there is growing interest in decentralization and in the possibility of improving performance by using market or quasi-market signals to stimulate the productive use of resources. President Bush recently drew attention to some of the principles that underlie this country's federal system: decentralization, accountability, freedom to choose, pragmatism (Bush, 1990). Throughout this country there is strong interest in finding approaches that work -- approaches that will help control drug abuse and its effects on all levels of our society.

Unlike other countries facing the drug problem, in the United States, we the people have intentionally fragmented responsibility and authority. As you well know, our decentralized federal system makes it more difficult to implement coordinated drug control programs. On the other hand, our federal system provides a laboratory in which hundreds of natural experiments are always underway, a laboratory in which we the people and our leaders could learn how to solve the problems that we face.

In the last decade, our national government has hampered the performance of the federal system by changes in budget policies, reductions in federal aid to states and localities, and reductions in the collection and analysis of information on local, state, and national performance. On the

other hand, the national government has taken some steps that tend to enhance the performance of the federal system: consolidating categorical programs into block grants, encouraging experimentation, and documenting the effectiveness and cost-effectiveness of many programs.

In his book on *American Federalism*, Thomas Dye reminds us of the value of the national government's collection of information on the performance of state and local governments. As Dye states, "Information leads to comparison, and comparison leads to pressure for better performance" (Dye, 1990, p. 193). One could similarly note the value of each state's collection of information on local performance.

In the context of shared goals, monitoring and evaluation can produce the types of comparisons needed to improve performance in our drug control initiatives. Today I would like to review with you where we have been and where we have come in evaluation over the last ten to twenty years and briefly note some of the problems and opportunities we face in the 1990s. I will then propose that we undertake a "Program for Excellence" that would use goal-setting, monitoring, and evaluation to help improve performance in our drug control efforts. Building on and extending current efforts in education, in public health, and in job training, the proposed Program would consist of cooperative local-state and state-federal efforts to (1) agree on realistic goals and specific indicators of performance; (2) monitor and evaluate drug control programs in terms of the agreed-on goals and performance indicators; and (3) use the resulting information to stimulate improved program performance, identify promising program approaches, and enhance public confidence in government.

First, I would ask that you accompany me on a brief tour of the evaluation scene over the past twenty years.

In 1970, after a year-long look at federal-level evaluation efforts, a group of Urban Institute observers stated that program evaluation requires both staff with agency or program backgrounds and staff with advanced training in such fields as economics, statistics, systems analysis, and experimental design (Wholey and others, 1970, p. 85). We suggested that a reasonable evaluation budget is likely to range from 0.5% to 2% of the total program budget (p. 82.). In 1970, we noted that the art and technique of evaluation were underdeveloped (p.5), that the recent literature

was unanimous in announcing the general failure of evaluation to affect decisionmaking in any significant way (p.46), and that most evaluation staff expressed difficulty in documenting the use of completed evaluations (p.49.). Finally, we identified four reasons for the low utilization of evaluations: organizational inertia, methodological weakness, the irrelevance of many studies to critical program and policy issues, and failure to disseminate evaluation results to decisionmakers at national, state, and local levels (p. 50).

By 1983, one of these observers reported, in response to executive branch and legislative interest in evaluating and improving government performance, a new evaluation industry had been created (Wholey, 1983, p.8). Since 1970, evaluation efforts had multiplied, evaluation staffs had grown substantially, and evaluation had emerged as a major social science enterprise (p. 9). In 1983 I noted, on the other hand, that many evaluations are undertaken without a clear purpose and that evaluations were often too inconclusive to meet the information needs of the intended users. I concluded that the usefulness of evaluation products was frequently questioned both by government officials and by evaluators and that relatively few evaluations had resulted in more effective programs (p. 9-10).

By 1990, the picture had changed again. Staff and funds for program evaluation had been reduced. There had been reductions in the collection and analysis of information on program performance. Evaluation had shifted its focus from longer-term policy research to management-oriented efforts (see Patton, 1986; General Accounting Office, 1987; Wholey, Newcomer, and Associates, 1989).

On the other hand, a host of evaluation methods has been developed and refined over the last ten to twenty years:

- Evaluability assessment clarifies program intent from the points of view of policymakers, managers, staff, and key interest groups and helps develop agreement on realistic program objectives and appropriate indicators of program performance; explores program reality to clarify the plausibility of program objectives and the feasibility of performance measurements; and identifies evaluation priorities and intended uses of any further evaluation.

- Various types of monitoring systems measure program expenditures, services delivered, service quality, and program outcomes, and compare program results with prior or expected results or with results achieved in different organizational units (see Millar and others, 1981; Carter, 1983; Neves, Wolf, and Benton, 1986; Levitt and Joyce, 1987). Some monitoring systems report the results achieved by different client subgroups (see Hatry and others, 1990). Some of the more sophisticated monitoring systems use multivariate analysis in attempts to control for the influence of client and community characteristics or other factors that lie beyond the control of program staff (see Dickinson and others, 1988; Barnow, 1990).
- A host of qualitative evaluation methods use observation, detailed description, open-ended interviews, extracts from documents, photographs, videotapes, and expert judgment to assess "hard-to-measure" phenomena (see Patton, 1980; Hendricks, 1981; Yin, 1984; and Lincoln and Guba, 1985). Qualitative evaluations can help policymakers and managers to understand program operations and results from the perspectives of clients and direct service providers; help communicate the meanings of quantitative findings; and help explain variations in program results.
- Social experiments use randomly assigned experimental and control groups to estimate program and project impacts (see Friedlander and Gueron, 1990). At both federal and state levels, there is increasing willingness to use randomized experiments to estimate the impacts of public programs (see Fishman and Weinberg, 1990). Over the past ten to twenty years, a good deal of experience has accumulated on the feasibility of implementing randomized experiments in demonstration projects and in operating programs (see Hotz, 1990).
- Quasi-experiments use changes in time series trends or statistical controls to estimate program and project impacts (Campbell and Stanley, 1963; Cook and Campbell, 1979). Interrupted time series studies are time-consuming, however, unless they can be accomplished using archival data. In the absence of

randomized assignment, statistical controls may not be sufficient to produce valid estimates of program impacts (see Hotz, 1990).

- Evaluations that include benefit-cost comparisons estimate the "cost-effectiveness" of specific programs by comparing program costs with estimates of the programs' economic value in terms of productivity improvements and cost savings that they produce. For example, we know that family planning programs reduce health and welfare costs associated with teenage pregnancy (Schorr, 1988). We know that prenatal care programs save money by reducing the costs of caring for low-birthweight infants and physically handicapped, learning disabled, and mentally retarded children and adults (Institute of Medicine, 1985; House Select Committee on Children, Youth, and Families, 1985 and 1988). We know that the Job Corps saves money by reducing social costs related to crime and dependency (Mallar and others, 1982). We know that a number of welfare-to-work programs raise earnings and reduce welfare costs (Friedlander and Gueron, 1990). Evaluations that include credible benefit-cost comparisons can be particularly influential in policy decisionmaking (see Wholey 1984, 1985, and 1986).
- Metaevaluations and evaluation syntheses combine the results of many evaluations to produce more powerful analyses than could be undertaken in any single study (see General Accounting Office, 1984; Light and Pillemar, 1984; Lipsey, 1988; Wortman, 1990).

Evaluation methods to be discussed at this conference range from qualitative descriptions of program approaches through the full range of quantitative approaches: pre-post designs, comparison group designs, use of statistical controls, interrupted time series designs, randomized experiments, and cost-effectiveness comparisons.

By 1990, it was clear that evaluations and evaluation syntheses have often been used in government decisionmaking. While political and bureaucratic factors continue to be important, credible evaluations of program performance have been influential in decisions to maintain and

expand programs whose "cost-effectiveness" had been demonstrated (Wholey, 1984, 1985, and 1986).

As a nation, we often lack the information and the political and bureaucratic will needed to take effective action. After brief honeymoon periods, even effective public programs tend to be underfunded as they compete for the attention and resources of policymakers and the public. When resources are provided, managers and staff often fail to search for effective program strategies. At the national level, in individual states and localities, and at the service delivery level, we fall short of the investments and the performance needed to promote the general welfare.

To improve program performance and enhance support for effective public programs, we need at least three types of information:

- Information on the status of and trends in the general population and key subgroups of the population. (Such information can be provided by federal and state statistical systems.)
- Information on the status of those served by public programs and key subgroups of those served. (Such information can be provided by outcome-oriented program monitoring systems and follow-up surveys of program participants.)
- Information on the quality, impacts, and value of public programs, including impacts on key subgroups. (Such information can be provided by qualitative and quantitative evaluation studies, by evaluations that include credible benefit-cost comparisons, and by evaluation syntheses.)

To succeed in our drug control efforts at national, state, and local levels, we need on-going streams of information on performance in terms of realistic, agreed-on goals. We need annual or more frequent "report cards" assessing the performance of the 50 states and of different localities in terms of agreed-on indicators of resources expended, quantity and quality of services, and outcomes achieved. Such "report cards" would let us know which states and localities are performing well, which are "most improved," and which are above the performance that could be expected given the characteristics of the populations and communities served.

As we expand our efforts to control drugs and to evaluate drug control programs, we would all agree that both program resources and evaluation resources are limited. It is unlikely that there will be enough resources for all the drug control efforts that might be needed; there will never be enough resources for definitive evaluation of every drug control project.

In my view, development of realistic, agreed-on goals and outcome-oriented monitoring systems should have first priority.

In addition, we need information documenting promising program approaches and information on program effectiveness and cost-effectiveness. Information from qualitative and quantitative evaluation studies would provide clues as to how to achieve more effective performances and could help build public support for effective programs.

A number of factors favor the possibility of useful monitoring and evaluation work in connection with the nation's drug control initiatives:

- There is general agreement on drug control goals.
- There is increasing interest in accountability, quality improvement, and value for money.
- Progress has been made in developing monitoring and evaluation methodology, as well as methods for enhancing the relevance and usefulness of evaluation.
- The low cost and widespread availability of personal computers and information networks makes it easier to complete and disseminate evaluation work.

Using available resources, we can significantly improve performance in our drug control initiatives and build public support for the drug control programs we need. Using available resources, we can develop agreement between policy and operating levels on realistic goals, periodically monitor and evaluate state and local performance in terms of the agreed-on goals and appropriate performance indicators, and disseminate the resulting information within the government and to the public. Performance monitoring systems would compare state and local performance with that of other states and localities, compare changes in state and local performance over time, and compare state, city,

and county performance with the performance that would have been expected given the influence of client and community characteristics not under the control of program operators. Through such goal setting, monitoring, and evaluation efforts, we could create incentives for improved program performance, encourage the allocation of resources to productive services, and build public support for effective programs.

The necessary work is underway in other policy areas. Many states, for example, have developed or are working toward agreed-on goals and indicators for assessing the performance of local school districts. State departments of education and universities provide information on state and local performance in terms of the agreed-on goals and performance indicators (see Wohlstetter, 1989). A number of states and universities are developing systems that compare school district or individual school performance with the performance that would have been expected on the basis of student, family, and community characteristics (see Virginia Department of Education and Virginia Commonwealth University, 1989).

The governors and the President have recently agreed on a set of national education goals and a set of objectives that support the goals. Work by the National Governors Association, The U.S. Department of Education, and many outside groups has led to agreed-on goals for preschool programs, subject matter competency, high school graduation rates, adult literacy, and drug-free schools (Ginsburg, 1990). The National Assessment of Educational Progress and the U.S. Department of Education will monitor national and state performance in terms of the agreed-on goals and appropriate performance indicators.

Building on their Year 1990 health promotion and disease prevention objectives and related monitoring efforts, the U.S. Public Health Service has involved states, cities and counties, and thousands of individuals in developing Health Objectives for the Year 2000 that will be announced by the President in September 1990. These health promotion, health protection, prevention, and system improvement objectives are supported by sub-objectives for population subgroups and by a system for monitoring national and state performance (Public Health Service, 1986).

Working with state and local program officials, the U.S. Department of Labor has developed a set of performance standards and a system for

monitoring the performance of programs funded under the Job Training Partnership Act (JTPA). The JTPA system monitors such program outcomes as the rate at which participants enter employment, average wage at placement, follow-up employment rate, weeks worked in the 13-week follow-up period, and weekly earnings at follow-up. Though there is evidence that the unadjusted JTPA performance standards and the outcome-oriented JTPA incentive system had encouraged "creaming" (serving the clients for whom favorable outcomes are most likely), especially in the early years, the Department of Labor has taken a number of steps to improve the performance standards and to discourage creaming (Dickinson and other, 1988; Barnow, 1990). The JTPA monitoring system attempts to arrive at a "level playing field" for local Service Delivery Areas by allowing states to adjust national performance standards using a regression model that takes into account the influence of client and community characteristics such as percent high school dropouts and local unemployment rate. (Dickinson, 1988; Barnow, 1990). Most states now use the Labor Department's adjustment models or similar state procedures "to adjust SDAs' expected performance for the characteristics of participants and local conditions" (Barnow, 1990).

Some have objected that unadjusted program outcome measures may not be valid indicators of net program impacts (Friedlander, 1988) and that outcome-oriented incentive systems may encourage creaming. Friedlander himself notes that 1) weighting outcome measures (giving more credit for favorable outcomes for clients whose characteristics predicted lower success rates) can improve the correlation between program outcome measures and program impacts and that 2) "[w]eighted outcome measures appear to create more appropriate incentives for program operators by taking explicit account of participants' individual differences" (Friedlander, 1988).

What I am suggesting today is that in the drug control arena, we work to develop realistic, agreed-on goals and outcome-oriented performance monitoring systems that will take account of client and community characteristics -- and that we thus create a set of markets for promising approaches to drug control (see Wholey, Newcomer, and Associates, 1989; Barnow, 1990). Such a "Program for Excellence" would create intangible incentives for improved performance, encourage the use of evaluation to identify and document promising approaches, and

help build public and private support for cost-effective programs.

I speak with some conviction of the potential value of the Program that I have just suggested. For the last two years, I have been helping develop a local-state analogue of the Program I just outlined. Northern Virginia's Program for Excellence in Human Services is a partnership involving local governments, regional groups, state agencies, and universities in efforts to develop agreement on health and human service program goals and periodically assess program performance and value in terms of agreed-on goals and performance indicators. The Program for Excellence is designed to help enhance performance region-wide -- and to help build public and private support for health and human service programs (Wholey, 1989; Wholey, forthcoming).

The essential idea is the same in Northern Virginia's Program and in the drug control Program that I just suggested. In both programs, lower-level units of government agree on realistic goals and appropriate indicators of progress; higher levels of government serve as information resources, making information available on the performance of lower-level units. Performance comparisons are intended to stimulate performance improvement and yield clues as to how to improve performance. More definitive evaluations, experiments, cost-effectiveness comparisons, and evaluation syntheses would provide credible evidence of the value of the programs in question.

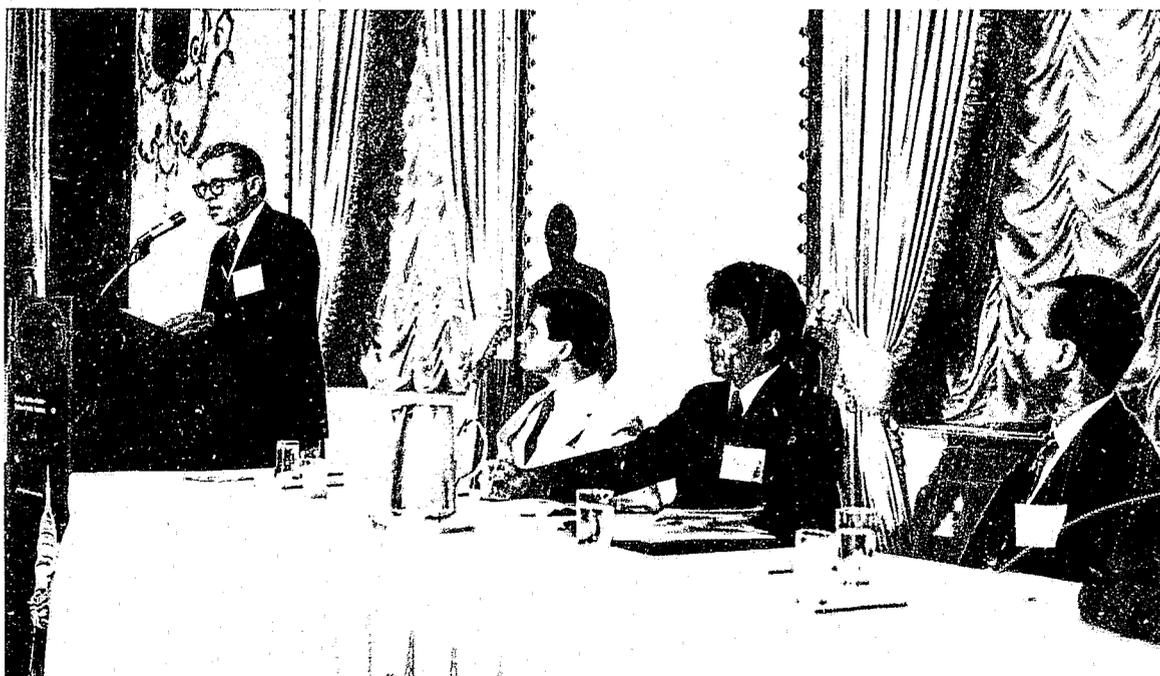
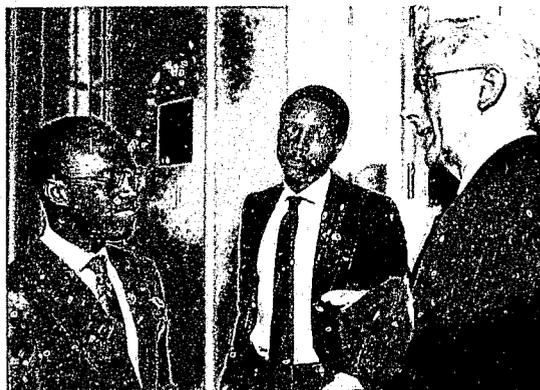
Through the proposed goal-setting, monitoring, and evaluation efforts, higher levels of government could become information resources to the nation, the states, sub-state regions, and cities and counties. With the help of universities and policy research organizations, higher levels of government could provide both population-based and client-based information on performance in terms of a set of agreed-on drug control program goals. Annual "report cards" would tell people within and outside government:

- Which states (or regions or localities) are performing well in terms of the agreed-on goals and performance indicators.
- Which are "most improved."
- Which are above the performance that could be expected after taking account of "degree of difficulty" factors related to

client and community characteristics.

Such an infra-structure of information on the performance of drug control programs would supply funders, service providers, and advocacy groups with objective performance comparisons -- and create incentives for higher local, state, and national performance.

The National Academy of Public Administration is highly interested in and intends to pursue the types of efforts that I have suggested this morning. This was the main topic of interest at the Academy's November 1989 conference. We are involving both the U.S. Office of Management and Budget and the U.S. General Accounting Office in these efforts. We are eager to work with others on information-based efforts to improve the performance and value of the federal system.



LUNCHEON ADDRESS



Gary Peters

Gary Peters
Special Assistant for Law Enforcement
Bureau of State and Local Affairs
Office of National Drug Control Policy

On behalf of the Office of National Drug Control Policy and the Bureau of State and Local Affairs, I would like to thank the Criminal Justice Statistics Association, and the co-sponsors of this conference, the National Institute of Justice and the Bureau of Justice Assistance, for inviting us here today.

The invitation sent to us noted that this conference would provide our Office with the opportunity to address individuals who are developing drug control programs at the state and local levels and determining "what works" in drug control.

Such a gathering is of obvious and vital importance to the Office of National Drug Control Policy, and specifically, to the Bureau of State and Local Affairs. It is part of our Bureau's mission statement: (1) to promote Federal, state and local cooperative efforts against drug problems; and (2) to monitor state and local drug-related information, policies and developments, and share that information with state and local officials nationwide and with other Federal agencies, while at the same time sharing Federal drug-related program information and data with state and local authorities.

In furtherance of those aspects of our mission, and also because we are constantly being told by individual jurisdictions that their operational effectiveness is limited by a lack of information about what is or is not working in other jurisdictions, our Office last month hosted a national conference on state and local drug policy for governors, state attorney generals, legislators, and state and local drug policy coordinators.

In looking over your own agenda, I was struck by the similarities in the workshop topics scheduled to be covered during these two days and those addressed in our own conference, which included: (1) the treatment of drug-involved offenders in correctional settings; (2) essential elements in the development of statewide drug strategies; (3) innovative approaches in the areas of law enforcement, at the street level and above, as well as in the areas of community activism and drug abuse education programs; and (4) counter-drug strategies in public housing developments.

Our conference was funded by a discretionary

grant from the Bureau of Justice Assistance, and a transcript of the various workshop sessions will be printed and made available later this year.

In attendance at the conference were high-ranking policymakers from 48 states. But even within that group, we were repeatedly told about the need to have more evaluations, and more objective evaluations conducted, independent of political influence, concerning innovative approaches to drug control being tried around the country at the state and local levels. There is a parallel need to share the good evaluative data that is being generated and to translate that research into effective policy and program designs.

To fill these needs, it is obvious that the policymaking community and the research community must work closely together and have various means available to them for the quick exchange of information.

We know the task of identifying what programs and policies really do "work," and disseminating that information effectively remains an extremely difficult one. Many unanswered questions remain as to what are the "best" approaches in law enforcement, treatment, prevention, and corrections policies, and that is extremely frustrating for an Office that seeks to make decisions and to support those programs and policies that have the greatest possible positive impact on this country's drug problem.

We believe that conferences such as this one, and our own last month, can do a great deal of good in terms of sharing the news about "what works," and also in terms of renewing the confidence of those involved, that we can succeed in this struggle if we will only work together and use wisely the talents of criminal justice research professionals like yourselves in fashioning realistic policy initiatives.

Certainly, our Office believes the research community has a vital independent role to perform in combatting the drug problem, and also in helping us develop and implement the National Drug Control Strategy.

Our Office believes in the value of those policies articulated in the initial strategy released last September and its companion volume released in January of this year. But there still remains a lack of well-accepted research that gives us the degree of certainty we would like to have in formulating policy.

We also recognize a need to develop better ways to measure whether or not the policies we do formulate, both in our Office and the state and local levels, are proving to be successful. Clearly, some of the measures we have used in the past do not give us a true indication of success or failure.

For example, one measurement we have relied on in the past is the amount of drugs seized. While it is extremely important for us to maintain our interdiction efforts, and while seizures can give us useful information about drug availability, we cannot merely measure the amounts of drugs seized and then claim to have had an impact if those amounts go up significantly. If the source countries export more product, the number and amounts of drugs entering this country and their relative availability increases at the same time.

Another way we have previously assessed our counter-drug efforts in the past is by the number of arrests made. This, too, can be a misleading figure. As a Federal drug prosecutor in New York City, I participated in Operation Pressure Point there. In Chicago and here in Washington, police authorities initiated what they called "Clean Sweep" programs. In each instance, these initiatives concentrated on street-level, open air drug markets. While such initiatives can be very effective and can have a dramatic impact on the quality of life in a particular neighborhood, they also allow law enforcement to arrest very large numbers of persons. Drug trafficking in suburban and rural areas may be less open and notorious, and is certainly more difficult to penetrate, resulting in fewer arrests, but we know a serious trafficking problem exists in many of these areas, as well. Moreover, I know from my own experience that some long-term investigations that result in the arrest and conviction of only a few, if they are the right few, can have a powerful impact on a drug distribution network.

I, therefore, believe that measures such as the quantities of drugs seized and the number of drug arrests, as such, are properly omitted from the quantified two and ten year objectives of the National Drug Control Strategy. But a need still exists to develop new and more accurate measures to assess the effectiveness of our policies and programs, and to do so as quickly as possible.

Nevertheless, while the clock is running on our efforts and time is certainly of the essence, we also know that "quick fixes" can lead to long-term

problems and high costs. The desire for a "quick fix" can also result in the rejection of programs or policies that were conceptually sound, but not given the chance to be properly implemented. An example might be some of the new intermediate sanction programs now being developed and the need to add substantial components of training, treatment or aftercare to those programs in order to make them truly effective in terms of changing attitudes and behaviors over the long term.

The drug problem facing this country did not develop overnight. It took us years of misguided attitudes and judgements for us to get here, and it will also take us years of effort to overcome it -- joint effort on the part of Federal, state, and local governments, our neighborhoods and communities, our schools and churches, the private sector and individual citizens alike. But those of you in this room appreciate far more than most just how dedicated we must be to making these efforts.

Our Office is extremely interested in many of the projects presently being undertaken by the Criminal Justice Statistics Association, both independently and with the assistance of Federal funding. In the interests of time, let me mention only a few. A prime example is the Consortium for Drug Strategy Impact Assessment, which is supported by the Bureau of Justice Assistance. After two developmental years, the Consortium now includes 28 states, but has also focused its efforts on the remaining states, as well. The program incorporates many elements that our Office has encouraged, including the need for thorough assessments and evaluations of new programs and policies, the need to share information, and the development of ongoing working relationships among the states, and between the states and the Federal government.

The Consortium collects and analyzes information in seven priority areas, many of which parallel priorities in the National Drug Control Strategy, including: the use of multi-jurisdictional task forces; expanded drug treatment initiatives, and evaluations of these initiatives; citizen surveys on issues of drug use, drug availability, and effective drug control strategies; the development of drug testing programs within the criminal justice system; and the ability of that system to prosecute drug cases in a swift, efficient and fair manner.

I can assure you that the work you do in the Consortium, and your other programs, as well, is

appreciated. Recently, Director Bennett and Judge Walton have each visited Ohio, where the legislature is currently considering a comprehensive drug and crime control bill. Of great interest to us in preparing for those visits and discussions with state and local officials there was the "Drug Control and Use Survey" that included the State of Ohio, and which was released this past February as a Special Analysis Report of the Consortium.

Another program of interest to us and which is supported by BJA funding is the National Criminal Justice Computer Laboratory and Training Center, which among many other functions, provides an opportunity for criminal justice personnel from small and medium sized agencies to develop expertise in the use of sophisticated computer technology. Without such expertise, a tremendous amount of key intelligence data and other counter-drug information is lost to those law enforcement agencies which lack the necessary resources and expertise to implement this technology on their own. The Training Center helps to fill this void.

Your State Statistical Analysis Centers, supported by BJS, perform a key role in keeping both the states and the Federal government informed about trends in crime and criminal justice.

This year, with funding from the Bureau of Justice Statistics, CJSA is studying how incident-based reporting can be used more effectively for allocating limited resources, projecting crime trends, and assessing criminal justice policies.

Also this year, with funding from the National Institute of Justice, CJSA is completing a study on the organization and dynamics of drug control task forces. As a former participant in such task forces, I know that there are definitely components that make some of these units function much more effectively than others. The expanded use of such task forces is encouraged in the National Drug Control Strategy, and will look forward to seeing the results of this study in the near future.

On the subject of seeing results, I'd like to respectfully make a few brief suggestions. First, don't assume that all those policymakers who are interested in your work will see the results simply because they get published. I am constantly amazed by the studies and programs that policymakers learn about only fortuitously, and also concerned about those they doubtlessly fail to learn about. If you believe you have learned

something important, be it good or bad, alert us to that fact. And second, send us a copy, with an executive summary explaining the results succinctly and in plain English, but fairly and accurately. Your peers have the expertise to grasp very complicated research materials. But because of constraints in both time and training, many practitioners and policymakers lack that understanding and will, quite understandably, avoid struggling with something that seems too complicated or time consuming.

Rather than creating policy in a vacuum, I believe it is vitally important that policymakers be guided, to a large extent, by the results of your work. Therefore, it is important that when you present those results to them, you do so in a readily comprehensible manner.

And finally, let them know if and how your work compares to other research that has been or is being done. Are you essentially agreeing or disagreeing with other researchers who have studied the same or similar issues? Can your research be easily replicated? Can the program or policy you studied be easily replicated, and do you think the results are transferable to other target populations or areas?

Another aspect of your organization's work that is of interest to our Office, and to me personally, is that of intermediate sanctions. It is the position of our Office that drug offenders at all levels must be held accountable for their actions. We know the criminal justice system cannot afford to incarcerate or even closely supervise all such offenders, but neither can it afford to ignore them and let their conduct go unpunished.

The National Drug Control Strategy notes that if we are to expand our capacity to prosecute drug offenders, we must broaden our notion of what constitutes punishment. We therefore support the efforts of NIJ and BJA to help state and local officials, and organizations like CJSA develop and evaluate alternatives to incarceration.

I became involved in this subject area last year as the Assistant to U.S. Sentencing Commissioner, Helen Corrother, who is directing the Sentencing Commission's effort to develop a range of intermediate sanctions for Federal offenders that would become effective in November 1991. It was quickly apparent to us that the most innovative work in this area was taking place at the state and local level, and we turned to some of you who are doing this innovative work, or evaluating it, for your advice and assistance.

This is a subject area that is now getting increasing attention from policymakers at the Federal level, as well. In addition to its inclusion in the National Drug Control Strategy, and the ongoing project at the Sentencing Commission, Attorney General Richard Thornburgh delivered a speech at our drug conference last month in which he cited the great need for an array of intermediate punishments to fill the gap between simple probation and prison, both for reasons of principle and practicality. Legislation encouraging the development of such intermediate sanctions is currently pending in both Houses of Congress.

But as these programs develop, there will be a great need to evaluate their operations and effectiveness, both in the short and long term. Those jurisdictions which decide to implement new programs, in this subject area or others, make this evaluative task much easier if they provide, up-front, the resources and the design to conduct such studies.

I'm sure many of you know that Director Bennett and Judge Walton are both very interested in the concept of "shock incarceration" because of its potential to develop self-esteem, self-motivation, and self-control in young offenders who have previously been exposed to little except life on the streets. The National Institute of Justice released an overview of some of the existing shock incarceration programs a year ago, and is currently sponsoring a multi-site evaluation study, which we are following with great interest. With these programs, as with others like intensive probation supervision, home confinement, fines, and community service, we need to develop a greater understanding than we presently have about: the most appropriate target populations; the realistic goals that can be achieved for that population by the program; and what program components, including possible transition services to successfully reintegrate offenders into society, and aftercare programs, are needed to realize these goals on a lasting basis.

We believe the same kind of research and evaluation needs to be done in the areas of treatment and prevention, especially for our young people who are at high risk for involvement in drug activity. What can we do to most effectively deter and prevent their involvement, and at what ages and intensities should we do it? And if we fail in those efforts, what are the most effective methods of treatment and punishment for juveniles?

It is a long and pressing agenda. For now, we recognize there is a lack of accepted research that would confirm the effectiveness of some of the ideas which we believe are good ones and worthy of our full support. We need your help and that of organizations like yours if we are to get those research results, and develop policies based on them reflecting the most advanced state of our collective knowledge in the area of drug control.

In his introduction to NIJ's recent competitive research solicitation for Special Initiatives on Drug Program Evaluations, Chips Stewart writes, in part:

"Congress determined, in the Anti-Drug Abuse Act of 1988, that objective, independent evaluations are a significant tool which can contribute to assessing the effectiveness and impact of national drug control efforts. This solicitation calls for your creative ideas and well thought-out proposals. We need the continued involvement of knowledgeable law enforcement practitioners and analytical researchers to assist our Nation in stopping the crime and violence associated with illicit drug activity."

On behalf of the Office of National Drug Control Policy, and the Bureau of State and Local Affairs, I encourage you to also provide us with that creativity, and those proposals, because we believe you play an essential role in the fight against drugs and in helping us fulfill our own mission in that fight. We look forward to working with you in the future.



WORLDWIDE CONTROL
TRADE REGULATIONS

STATE DRUG CONTROL STRATEGY EVALUATIONS

ASSESSING STATE DRUG CONTROL STRATEGIES

The Consortium for Drug Strategy Impact Assessment

James "Chip" R. Coldren, Jr.
Research Director
Criminal Justice Statistics Association

The Consortium for Drug Strategy Impact Assessment was created in 1987 as a cooperative agreement between the Criminal Justice Statistics Association (CJSA) and the Bureau of Justice Assistance (BJA) to assess the impact of law enforcement drug control strategies.

The Consortium project is guided by three goals:

Build capacities at the state and local levels to collect and analyze data pertaining to drug control strategy assessment.

Develop and collect comparable data across states to monitor the implementation of drug control strategies and to assess their impact.

Provide policymakers at the Federal, State, and local levels with feedback on the effectiveness of drug control strategies.

Building capacities at state and local levels

The Consortium strengthens the ability of states to develop and evaluate drug control strategies by sponsoring a series of meetings and workshops each year that focus information sharing and impartation of drug strategy assessment skills and methods. At Consortium meetings, state representatives participate in setting project priorities, share ideas and information on the drug problem and drug control strategy development, develop research methods, and assist one another in solving common problems. The knowledge base developed by Consortium representatives is shared with all states through national publications, workshops, and dissemination of resource materials. In addition, Consortium meetings are open to non-participating states. Through these activities, common approaches to drug strategy development and assessment are communicated to all states and territories.

Developing comparable data for drug strategy development and assessment

The Consortium blueprint for data collection and analysis covers three principle areas--law enforcement activities, drug offender

characteristics and processing, and community.

The Consortium focused on data collection for law enforcement activities and community/environment issues in its first year of operation, and expanded its priorities to cover drug offender processing and additional law enforcement and community issues during its second year.

The Consortium began its research program in 1988 as a 15-state effort with four analysis tasks-- assess the impact of multi-jurisdictional drug control task forces and crime laboratory enhancement programs, conduct citizen surveys for drug control strategy development, and analyze trends in drug offender caseloads for police and the courts from 1986 to 1990. In 1989 the Consortium expanded to include 28 states and three additional impact analysis areas--drug offender processing, treatment programs, and drug testing initiatives. In this step-by-step process the Consortium project is implementing the blueprint for drug control strategy assessment.

Assessing the impact of drug control strategies.

The Consortium collects and analyzes drug-related information in seven priority areas. Two types of analysis are undertaken by the Consortium:

Describing the nature and extent of the drug problem: Analysis tasks in this area involve statewide surveys or other data collection activities that support description of various aspects of drug problem. These data collection activities support refinement of drug control strategies by producing standard indicators of either the nature and extent of the drug problem, or criminal justice activities relating to drug law enforcement.

Citizen surveys elicit public perceptions of issues on drug use and availability, seriousness and future of the drug problem, methods for handling people who use and sell drugs, and effective strategies for combatting drug abuse. The Consortium developed a set of standard questions and methodological guidelines for citizen surveys. Consortium states will conduct surveys in the future to gauge changes in public perceptions and the effectiveness of different drug control strategies. A report of six state surveys conducted in 1988, the standardized questions,

and methodological guidelines are now available.

Drug offender tracking information shows how the criminal justice system handles drug offenders. Sixteen states are providing this data to describe changes in how states process drug offenders and the effect of processing changes on criminal justice system operations. Felony drug offenders are tracked from arrest to sentencing, and analysis will focus on drug offender characteristics, conviction and sentencing trends, and processing time from arrest to conviction.

County-level drug arrests, convictions, and sentences indicate changes in the workload of police, courts, and correctional agencies over time. Eight Consortium states are collecting this county-level data to examine workload trends before and after the 1988 Anti-Drug Abuse Act--creating the Drug Control and System Improvement Program--was legislated by Congress.

Drug testing initiatives provide new perspectives on the extent of drug abuse in different criminal justice populations. Six states are reviewing their drug testing initiatives, and will monitor drug testing objectives and results over time.

Assessing the impact of drug control strategies: In selected areas deemed to be critical components of state drug control strategies (task forces, crime laboratories, treatment programs) special analysis efforts are undertaken to describe variations in state approaches to drug control, and to assess the impact of the critical components through quantitative and qualitative research methods.

Multi-jurisdictional task forces provide state and local agencies with a means of coordinating efforts to investigate drug traffickers and share limited resources and expertise. Almost every state has used multi-jurisdictional task forces as the foundation for its drug control strategy. Seventeen Consortium states are collecting information on the organizational character of task forces, focusing on their goals and objectives, size, composition, and geographic areas covered. They also collect information on task force activities (drug arrests and convictions, drug removals, and asset seizures and forfeitures). An annual report is available beginning with task force activities in 1988.

Crime laboratories are critical to successful prosecution of drug offenders. Therefore, many states are funding equipment upgrades and

enhancing crime labs to expedite the analysis of drugs. Seventeen Consortium states are collecting information on crime lab resources, drug caseloads, analysis turnaround time, and types of drugs identified. An annual report is available beginning with crime lab activities in 1988.

Drug treatment initiatives enhance services for drug involved offenders and provide viable alternatives to incarceration. Seven Consortium states are collecting information on program resources (personnel, expenditures, bed space), activities (assessment, referral, counseling, therapy), client characteristics, and outcome (treatment terminations). Since several states are conducting controlled experiments of treatment programs, the evaluation methods and findings will be reported through the Consortium in addition to the information from seven states.

Evaluation of Statewide Anti-Drug Abuse Strategy
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Acting Director
Statistical Analysis Center
Wisconsin

Wisconsin's strategy for the use of Anti-Drug Abuse Act funds is quite broad, allocating funds for detection and apprehension, prosecution, treatment of offenders, and education.

State level program funds are allocated as follows:

State Department of Justice: To fund additional drug agents to provide training and other services to local law enforcement agencies and to manage major drug conspiracy cases. Funds are also allocated to update crime laboratory and other detection and surveillance equipment, and to automate the case index system.

State Department of Health and Social Services: To fund treatment and rehabilitation services for substance abusers and prevention and treatment programs for high-risk adolescents. Funds are also used for residential and community correctional programs, including intensive probation programs.

State Department of Public Instruction: Funds will be allocated to school districts to develop and enhance drug education and prevention programs and strategies.

The primary purpose of the Anti-Drug Program

evaluation is to assess the State's strategy for utilizing the federal drug program resources allocated under the Anti-Drug Abuse Act. It will assess the resources which the Office of Justice Assistance (OJA) is most involved in administering, the law enforcement funds. While the evaluation should also produce information on other questions or issues, such as the effectiveness of certain individual projects, it is most crucial to evaluate the overall implementation strategy. Some questions pertinent to this level of planning are: Are the strategies identified in the State's plan the most effective means of pursuing the basic goals of the Act and the State? Are there other strategies which might better address the goals? Should the state define its goals and fundable strategies more broadly or more narrowly? Are funds being distributed in the most efficient and effective manner? Could the State do more, realistically, to promote the achievement of the goals?

The goals of the Act and the federal and state government agencies involved are not always clear or specific. There has been little discussion of realistic operational goals which might help guide program development. For evaluation purposes, the basic goals are assumed to be supply reduction and demand reduction, but to unspecified degrees (assuming "drug free" to be an unrealistic euphemism); and that demand reduction would be acceptably achieved through fear of punishment or true personal choice (education).

The basic evaluation task is to determine how well local projects operate and perform in achieving the above goals under the State's program strategy, parameters, and services. The evaluation will initially examine a representative sample of eight drug enforcement units in more detail. These projects were chosen to provide diversity in a number of areas including, geographic location and accompanying differences (urban vs. rural, border county or not, etc.), general project size, organization and approach, stability and time in existence, unique program features, and personnel expertise.

There are two general types of data which will be collected from the eight projects selected, and in some cases from all drug enforcement units in the state. First, performance data will be collected, including additional data on the nature of the drug case, the offender, and case outcome. Information will be collected from case records and from Department of Justice criminal history

files. The latter will provide information on prosecution and court outcomes. This effort will be done in two phases, first examining basic offense, arrest, and offender processing data to assess fundamental system performance; and second, collecting additional case data on demographic and personal background characteristics of the offender and other incident and investigation variables. The first phase will be carried out on 1988-89 cases, which are likely to be processed through the justice system. The second phase will focus on more recent cases (for which case processing data may be later collected).

The second type of data, process data, will address each project's implementation and operation procedures, including administration and management issues and coordination with other law enforcement agencies and other agencies working in the drug area. Questions relevant to this general area concern personnel recruitment and assignment procedures, prioritization procedures, training, operational objectives (focus of the project), general project management, task coordination, and other management issues. The collection of this information will be done by survey and by qualitative methods such as interviewing and direct observation.

Additional available data, such as other offense report data, drug testing data, and basic treatment data will be used to support and better interpret direct evaluation findings. Future efforts hope to examine the community impact of the total state program effort, probably through a statewide survey.

Initial findings on case outcomes focus on arrests, charges, and convictions, along with information on the organization and management of drug enforcement units. Findings are expected to show differences in types of cases and outcomes, and differences in enforcement unit efficiency and effectiveness among the different task forces examined.

As indicated, it is expected that evaluation activities will go beyond these basic assessments to a more in-depth review of case investigation processes and case outcome details. Although specific utilities have not been identified, it is expected that this information will be applied to more thorough planning of anti-drug programs, both to OJA's State Strategy and to more comprehensive overall state planning.

***Drug Strategy Evaluation: Individual Program -
Dwight Therapeutic Community Evaluation***
Roger K. Przybylski
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Illinois Criminal Justice Information Authority

The Illinois Criminal Justice Information Authority is currently developing a multi-faceted drug control strategy evaluation initiative for Illinois. This summary outlines the general evaluation action plan and describes one component evaluation project in detail.

The general evaluation action plan being developed by the Authority can best be conceptualized as having two tracks; Track I focuses on Illinois' drug control strategy as a whole, Track II on individual drug control programs. Illinois recognizes the need for assessment at both of these levels and, in light of resource limitations, believes the two track approach will be an effective vehicle for establishing priorities and meeting evaluation objectives.

Evaluating the relative successes of any drug control strategy requires a system-wide examination of all drug control programs. Because drug abuse and drug control involves many interrelated components of society, the potential areas of inquiry are many. Before the parameters of the evaluation can be defined, evaluation objectives and priorities need to be determined.

Illinois has earmarked more than \$1 million for its Track I evaluation initiative. Evaluation objectives and priorities are currently being determined and an advisory group of evaluation experts is being established. The advisory group will review the evaluation objectives and priorities, and recommend the appropriate evaluation parameters, including specific methodologies and measures. Their recommendations will be incorporated into one or more RFP's.

Assessing individual programs is equally important. Because many drug control programs are based on innovative models and the drug problem is dynamic in nature, individual programs need to be evaluated to determine what techniques or strategies are most effective. Illinois has designated approximately \$200,000 for its Track II evaluation initiative, which will assess up to 5 individual programs. Determinations of the specific programs to be evaluated will take into account the evaluation objectives and

priorities which are established in Track I. Each Track II evaluation project will be conducted by the Authority's Drug Information and Analysis Center.

One program that will be evaluated as part of the Track II initiative is the Illinois Department of Corrections (IDOC) Dwight Therapeutic Community (DTC). DTC, a 30 bed therapeutic community drug treatment program at the Dwight Correctional Center for females, provides intensive group and individual therapy for female substance abusers. DTC is modeled after the Gateway Foundation program at Cook County jail. The program's goal is to reduce recidivism among female offenders by providing intensive treatment services to female inmates with serious substance abuse histories.

Program participation is voluntary and the primary admission criteria is based solely on a documented history of serious substance abuse. The program is staffed by two certified substance abuse counselors, one correctional counselor, a clinical supervisor and correctional security staff. Treatment activities include three, two and one-half hour group therapy sessions per week; five one-hour discussion groups per week; and a minimum of two individual counseling sessions per month. Outpatient services consisting of two two-hour group therapy sessions per week are available to those who have completed the therapeutic community and have returned to the community.

The purpose of the evaluation is to determine the program's success in (1) changing attitudes toward drug abuse among program participants, (2) reducing drug use, and (3) reducing recidivism. A pre- and post-test design is used to assess the program's effectiveness in changing attitudes about drug use. A longitudinal design with a comparison group will be used to assess the program's ability to reduce drug use and recidivism.

Pre- and post-treatment measures of attitudes toward, and knowledge about, substance abuse will be collected for all program participants. Extensive data on drug use, parole violations, arrests, and incarcerations will be collected for program participants as well as a matched comparison group of inmates on a long term, follow-up basis.

Because the DTC evaluation is still in the planning stage, evaluation results and policy implications are unavailable. It is hoped,

however, that recidivism will be reduced by 20% for program participants. Current data indicate that of the nine female offenders who have been released from IDOC after at least two months in the DTC program, none have returned due to parole violations. Evaluation results will be used to inform IDOC and other criminal justice system policymakers of the program's value.

National Assessment of the BJA Formula Grant Program

Aaron Saiger
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In 1986, the Bureau of Justice Assistance began to aid state and local efforts to control drug trafficking and violent crime by awarding block grants to the states and territories. These grants, authorized by the Anti-Drug Abuse Acts of 1986 and 1988, are now the primary vehicle for federal aid to local law enforcement. Total funding for FY 1990 is \$1.2 billion.

The RAND Corporation has been funded by the National Institute of Justice to conduct a nationwide review of states' responses to two of the elements of the grant program. The first element requires states to develop a "strategy" for drug and violent crime control before the grant is awarded. The second mandates that states monitor the activities of their sub-grantees and report the results to BJA.

The specific goals of the RAND evaluation are: to document the planning and monitoring procedures that states have adopted; to evaluate how well these procedures further the Congressional goal of strategic planning for drug enforcement; to recommend changes in the federal requirements for planning and monitoring which might advance strategic planning Federal-State cooperation; and to produce a Program Monitoring Monograph for future use by the states.

The federal grants-in-aid to the states for drug enforcement, designated the Formula Grant Program, are block grants. The block grant approach is intended to maximize state flexibility while preserving some federal influence on the way moneys are spent. The sum each state and participating territory receives for distribution to state agencies and localities depends primarily on population, and is not subject to discretionary action by the federal government. However, the Bureau of Justice Assistance can impose certain

conditions on states' management and use of grant funds.

The current drug-enforcement block grants have several such conditions. Among these are the restriction of activities under the program to twenty-one areas of law enforcement; the prohibition against any funded activity exceeding four years in duration; the stipulation that states "pass through" a certain percentage of the award to local jurisdictions; and the requirement that 25% of program costs be provided by the states and localities from funds that would not otherwise be dedicated to drug enforcement.

Two other restrictions are also imposed. First, each state must prepare and submit to the federal government an annual "strategy" for drug and violent crime control. Second, each state must create a mechanism to monitor program activities and report the results. Since, as with other block grants, federal officials have little control over grant activities once the funds have been awarded, the strategy-preparation and monitoring requirements are especially important; they represent the only formal interactions between States and Federal officials that are required under the grant program.

The state strategies are required to describe the state's current drug problem, current resources, resource needs, and enforcement priorities. State are also required to discuss plans for coordination of activities among local agencies and between local, state, and federal authorities; to discuss ways of integrating the recommendations of the National Drug Strategy into the state plan; to list programs receiving block grant funds; and to certify adherence to other program requirements.

Each state strategy is reviewed by the Bureau of Justice Assistance. The grant award is contingent on BJA approval of the strategy. If no strategy is submitted, or if BJA determines that the strategy does not meet program requirements, the grant can be temporarily withheld pending revision of strategy, or distributed directly to localities.

In this way, the strategy functions as an application for funds; if the strategy is not acceptable, funding may be denied. Thus, the BJA assessment of the strategies is a prime mechanism by which the federal government influences activities under the formula grant program. One goal of RAND's review of the strategies is to evaluate the extent of this influence. What is the role of the several

requirements in keeping program activities consistent with the intention of Congress? Are some requirements more effective than others? Could burdensome regulations be lifted without compromising federal objectives.?

There is, however, another dimension to the strategy submissions. The Anti-Drug Abuse Acts do not simply require grant applications; they require "strategies," that is, statements of priorities, goals, and implementation plans for drug enforcement. It seems clear that the intent of Congress is to encourage strategic planning for drug enforcement at the state level, much as the same legislation mandates federal strategic planning with the institution of the Office of National Drug Control Policy and the annual national drug strategy.

Therefore, RAND will also examine the extent to which the formula grant program encourages and influences state strategic planning for drug enforcement. To what extent does the requirement that states submit "strategies" encourage states to develop "strategy"? What mechanisms have been adopted by states to allow them to create these plans? How (if at all) does the formula grant program influence the content of states' strategic planning? What features (if any) of federal activity interfere with strategic thinking? What changes could federal officials make to encourage states to create the best drug enforcement "strategies" possible?

Less information is available about state mechanisms for monitoring and reporting than for strategy preparation. BJA receives strategies on a specific annual timetable; four sets of strategies have been submitted to date. Monitoring, by contrast, has no fixed timetable, and reporting is often concentrated as projects approach completion.

Nevertheless, RAND will examine monitoring and reporting mechanisms, both to determine their role in federal-state communication and in strategic planning. Like the analysis of planning mechanisms, the various models of reporting and monitoring will be catalogued and recommendations for federal regulation will be made. In addition to its use in the RAND evaluation, information on monitoring and reporting will be utilized to produce a Monitoring and Reporting Guide, which can be used by the states in future years of the program.

The first phase of the project will consist of a thorough analysis of program requirements. This

will be accomplished by a careful review of the enabling legislation, BJA program guidance, and interviews with BJA officials. In addition, the literature on other block grant programs will be reviewed, especially materials relating to the programs administered by the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration during the late 1960s and 1970s.

The first phase also includes preliminary examinations of state responses to the program. The primary source of information in this initial stage will be the annual state strategies submitted to BJA. All the strategies for FY 1989 and many of those for FY 1990 will be reviewed. This review will provide an overview of the products of state planning; in addition, some (though not all) strategies provide a description of the planning and monitoring process.

This information will be supplemented by the input of a Project Advisory Board, consisting of state drug planning officials from six states and a representative of the National Governor's Association, the Bureau of Justice Assistance, and the National Institute of Justice. The state members will be asked to discuss planning and monitoring in both their own and other states and to discuss what they see as the central issues in evaluating state responses to the program.

Once the initial analysis has been complete, RAND staff will make a series of visits to selected states. These site visits have two goals. The primary objective is to gather detailed information on the mechanisms for state planning and monitoring that have been adopted by specific states. A thorough description will be prepared of the process by which the state strategy submission is prepared, subgrantees are chosen and funded, activity is monitored, and any other strategic planning is conducted. As case studies, these visits are central to the analysis.

The site visits will also influence the development of a survey protocol or protocols for learning about state activities. These protocols will then be used to gather data for the states and territories not visited by RAND personnel. Initial contact, by phone and mail, will be made with all 56 states and territories participating in the program. Approximately ten states and territories will then be selected for intensive follow-up interviews by telephone. In addition, a small number of follow-up site visits may be conducted.

In both the visits and the survey, the focus will be

state activities and interactions between the federal government and the states. As we have noted, local-state interaction under the Formula Grant Program is outside the scope of this phase of the research.

Expected research products include a RAND report discussing state mechanisms for planning, monitoring, and reporting, and a Monitoring and Reporting Monograph for distribution by BJA to states and territories.

LAW ENFORCEMENT INITIATIVES

NARCOTICS ENFORCEMENT IN PUBLIC HOUSING

Narcotics Enforcement in Public Housing

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It is generally believed that public housing projects have become prime locations for drug trafficking over the last few years. However, empirical support for this belief is limited. There has been little systematic documentation, for instance, of the type or magnitude of trafficking in these settings as compared to other kinds of locations, of whether participants in trafficking are generally residents or "outsiders," or of what types of enforcement and control have been undertaken. This seriously hampers the formulation of effective policies to deal with the problem. Moreover, it leaves public housing residents, housing authorities, and police departments with a sense of frustrating impotence as they try to cope with what appears to be a seriously deteriorating situation.

In order to narrow this information gap, The RAND Corporation has been funded by the National Institute of Justice to conduct a six-city review of drug trafficking and enforcement in public housing. The review has two primary goals: first, to develop measures of the nature and extent of drug trafficking in conventional public housing; and, second, to review the strategies that cities, police departments, and housing authorities have followed in their efforts to bring the problem under control.

The work done in accomplishing these objectives will contribute to general knowledge about drug abuse in public housing and to the formulation of public policy. It is also meant to guide subsequent research, by identifying promising approaches to controlling drug abuse and some of the factors that may mediate the effects of such approaches.

The project will begin with a review of recent accounts of drug trafficking in public housing projects. Sources of information will include: earlier research projects; statements and reports from the U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development; published data from police departments and housing authorities; legislative hearings; and press reports.

This review will be followed by a more detailed analysis of the situation in six cities. The six

cities have been identified on the basis of the information developed in the general survey of existing information, and other factors pertaining to data availability, willingness of local officials to participate in the project, geography, economic conditions, and the demographics of the public housing population. The cities to be evaluated are Lexington, Kentucky; Los Angeles, California; Philadelphia, Pennsylvania; Phoenix, Arizona; and Washington, D.C. A sixth site remains to be identified.

In each site, trafficking enforcement responses over a one-to two-year period will be examined. To the extent that available data permit, comparisons will be made between public housing complexes, other kinds of public housing (for example, Section 8 rental units), and entirely private rental housing demographically similar to nearby public housing. In this way, it is hoped to shed some light on questions about the differences, if any, between public and private rental housing with respect to the drug abuse problem.

We anticipate that, in most cities, housing authorities, police departments, and city attorneys will each have unique perspectives and unique data on the problem. We, therefore, plan to work directly with each type of agency.

With the assistance of participating housing authorities, we will generate a description of the public housing within a city. This will involve a review of the physical layout of housing projects and a demographic profile of residents, focusing on such characteristics as sex, age, ethnicity, income levels, and so on. Information on surrounding neighborhoods will also be incorporated, as will any information that housing authorities have on the drug abuse program.

To complement this description, we plan to examine police data on drug trafficking in particular and crime levels in general in the housing complexes (public and private) that are included in the study. We will consider the identity (for example, resident or non-resident) and activities of traffickers and customers and whether there is much variation between different housing projects within a city. If so, we will attempt to determine whether that variation is associated with the location of the housing, its structure, its non-drug crime levels, the characteristics of residents, or some other variable.

We will also work with police departments in identifying the kinds of enforcement tactics--enhanced patrol, stings, sweeps, special precinct offices, etc., that have been employed. These will be linked to specific locations and time periods so that trends in trafficking and crime can be considered in relation to enforcement efforts.

There are other approaches to the control of drug trafficking in public housing--for example, evictions, civil actions based on city codes regarding loitering or nuisance activities, inspection of premises for health code violations, physical alterations to buildings and grounds, and building security programs that supplement traditional enforcement techniques. An examination of these approaches will be included in the study. To catalog them and their impact, we will contact and work with the appropriate agencies. Civil actions of varying kinds, for example, will often be managed by the city attorney. That office will be contacted in each city, and whatever information it has will be incorporated into our review of the drug abuse problem.

Drugs and Public Housing: Toward the Development of an Effective Police Response
Sampson O. Annan
Deputy Research Director
Police Foundation

The direct goal of the Narcotics Enforcement in Public Housing (NEPHU) programs in Denver and New Orleans is to reduce the availability of narcotics within targeted public housing developments. The Police Departments in both cities are experimenting with the following strategies, some in conjunction with other city agencies: high visibility patrol, controlled buys, buy-busts, drug hotline, and resident education and recreation programs.

Two housing developments were selected in Denver. One is the home primarily of Mexican-Americans, while residents of the other are predominately black. In New Orleans, three developments are being used. These three developments were selected as targets by the Police Department. The residents are predominantly black. The residents match the general profile of public housing projects in many cities -- they are poor, single mothers with low education and few prospects for a job. Levels of crime and fear in the projects are high.

One purpose of the evaluation is to assess the

impacts of the NEPHU program. These impacts include the program's goal: reduction in the availability of drugs in the target projects. The evaluation will also measure the impact of the program of long-term goals, including reducing levels of crime, social disorder, and fear of crime; and increasing residents' confidence in the police. The evaluation also has a strong process orientation. The evaluation report will include a detailed description of the programs as they were actually carried out in each city, to clarify whatever the outcome evaluations reveal.

A key part of the evaluation in each city will involve a switching replication research design. After the baseline surveys, the program was put into the field in one of the developments Denver and in two developments in New Orleans. Only resident council members were interviewed in New Orleans because of the potential difficulties in interviewing all the residents. After six months, a second wave of surveys will be conducted. This will serve as the post-intervention survey for the target developments, while data from the other development will serve as a two-wave before and after control group. Then, the program will move to the second target development, and leave the first to "natural" levels of law enforcement. After six months a third wave of surveys will be conducted in all target developments. Any changes that are detected in the new target development will be taken as indicative of program effects; any decline in outcome measures in the original target development will be taken as indicative of the persistence of program effects.

The Denver evaluation surveys include measures of a number of anticipated outcomes of the project. The surveys are designed to yield scales measuring reports of drug problems, social disorder, fear and concern about crime, and evaluations of the quality of police service. They include an extensive section assessing the prevalence of criminal victimization. They also measure levels of neighborhood satisfaction, beliefs about trends in the community, and community cohesion. Because drugs are a potential divisive force within the community, there are also measures of conflict between neighbors. The shorter version of the survey used in New Orleans did not contain the victimization series.

Each outcome measure is a composite of responses to two or more items; multiple-item scales yield more reliable and stable measurements of people's attitudes and

experiences than do responses to single survey items. The consistency of each set of items is assessed by using Cronbach's Alpha, a measure of their reliability. The homogeneity of each set was established by a principal components factor analysis of the items in each scale, to confirm that they were single factored. The relevance of each item to the program was also important; for purposes of the evaluation, only the direct targets of the program and factors that theoretically should be affected by them are included in the measures. The scales were developed using the first wave of surveys.

In addition to outcome measures, the evaluation involves the collection of a number of process and police activity measures. Some of these will come from the evaluation surveys, including indicators of the visibility of various policing strategies and awareness of program elements. In addition, the evaluation involves the collection of recorded data on crimes, arrests, and narcotics seizures from the files of the Police Department in both cities. With the cooperation of the DHA, we are monitoring occupancy and turnover rates in the developments, vandalism repairs, tenant evictions, and other indicators of drug and crime-related problems.

The evaluation in Denver has not encountered any significant problems to date. In New Orleans, however, the design fell apart when the police started operating the program in the control developments where a murder took place. In each city, a site observer was hired early in the process and is involved in all important events surrounding NEPHU. The site observer is well integrated with the team, and is extremely knowledgeable about the target developments. The first wave of evaluation surveys was completed on schedule. All of the hypothesized constructs in the data turned out to have acceptable multiple indicators. The second wave survey began in the second week in June.

The pretest surveys found very high levels of concern about drug problems and high levels of fear of crime before the program began. In Denver, about 64 percent rated drugs as "a big factor" causing crime here in their development. Fifty-six (56) percent thought that kids and young adults used drugs in this development frequently, and 48 percent thought that drug use by adults who lived there was frequent. Fully 54 percent reported it is very easy for people who want drugs to buy them in the immediate area, and 42 percent reported it is very easy to find an apartment in the development where drugs could

be purchased.

Public housing is an arena in which government has particular responsibility for order, maintenance, and crime control. Government is "the landlord," and has responsibility to use its powers as such to ensure the health and safety of public housing residents. In many respects public housing developments -- and in particular relatively small, low-rise developments like those in Denver -- also can be treated as residential neighborhoods. As such, it makes sense to try to mobilize community residents to try to do things on their own to combat drug use and crime, and to cooperate with the police to regain control over conditions there.

There have as yet been no results from this evaluation. The Wave I pretest survey was conducted in December, 1989. The second round of interviews will be held in June, 1990. Analysis of the survey data can begin after the third wave of interviews in December, 1990. A write-up of the program description has already begun in the form of extensive notes and memos from the on-site observer.

We plan to produce an extensive report documenting the nature of the problem being addressed, the program planning process, and the actual implementation of the NEPHU effort. The report will also explain the evaluation design, and the findings of the outcome evaluation. The Police Foundation has extensive contacts with police departments all over the country and will be in a position to disseminate the report widely.

Drug Free Neighborhood Program

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Tennessee's Drug Free Neighborhoods Program is designed to improve the operational effectiveness of law enforcement through the use of low income housing drug control programs. The program also addresses the problems of drug trafficking in public housing.

The targeted populations are the residents of public housing and adjacent areas in the center of Memphis, Nashville, Knoxville and Chattanooga Tennessee. During the 1987 "Listening to Tennessee" tours, initiated by newly elected Governor Ned McWherter, residents of Tennessee's public housing told the Governor of

the unique problems they faced in raising their families in drug infested neighborhoods. Tennessee's 1987 statewide strategy process confirmed what these citizens were saying.

Each of the four city's administrations and police departments have active and specific law enforcement initiatives addressing drug trafficking in their public housing neighborhoods and are very receptive to expanding these initiatives and in becoming a component of the Drug Free Tennessee program.

The goal of the Drug Free Neighborhood program is to find and implement effective strategies to facilitate interaction between police and citizens of public housing in their mutual efforts to decrease drug trafficking and the resulting multifaceted problems caused by the activity. Each city is given the programmatic latitude necessary to structure strategies given their individual idiosyncrasies.

The purpose of the evaluation is to compare the similarities of the four different approaches, determine if the attitudes of the police and citizens concerning the drug problem in the neighborhoods have changed, and document, where possible, why the change took place.

The methodology is a combination of comparative analysis, output measures, and attitudinal changes. Data sources include descriptions by police and citizens of efforts existing prior to the Drug Free Neighborhood program, output measures, and results of pre- and post- attitude questionnaires data.

Theoretically, the more interactive and complete the participation of police and citizens in addressing the public housing drug problems, the more focused the efforts will be to finding solutions.

The lack of a prior data base necessitated the use of qualitative and survey data as opposed to statistically quantified data. This is viewed as a positive considering the goal of community interaction.

Data, staff, and budgetary constraints are normal in most program evaluations and these held true for this evaluation effort.

Significant findings to date are: (1) Most offenders arrested in public housing are not residents; (2) Public housing citizens want assistance from police and other agencies to

abate the drug problem; (3) Increased police activity in public housing displaces drug trafficking to adjacent areas; and (4) The more practiced police and citizens of public housing become at cooperating in addressing the drug problem, the more coordinated and comprehensive the proposed solutions become.

Evaluation results will be widely disseminated among other Tennessee cities with public housing programs, as well as state and federal agencies. In addition, this evaluation is an integral part of Tennessee's overall drug control and systems improvement assessment.

DRUG ENFORCEMENT CRACKDOWNS

The Impact of Narcotics Crackdowns: Intermittent Enforcement and Residual Deterrence

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This project employs an experimental design to determine the effectiveness of narcotics crackdowns in selected areas. The intervention consists of periodic highly visible crackdowns (a large number of raids conducted simultaneously) and daily search warrant raids and street enforcement in the target areas. The intervention is being conducted in the target areas for six months. After that time, it will be moved to several other areas that have served as controls during the first six months. There are a variety of outcome measures that are being used to determine impact. In addition to documenting the immediate results of the raids (i.e., arrests, seizures), all arrests are being tracked through disposition for both criminal and civil cases resulting from these activities. Data are also being collected for all calls to the narcotics hotline and for reported crimes in the target areas and the areas adjacent to them. In addition to measures of impact from police data, two measures of the community perception of narcotics activity are being employed. A telephone survey of community residents is being conducted along with focus groups of community leaders in each of the treatment and control areas. This comprehensive approach should yield valuable information regarding the impact of this popular enforcement strategy.

There has been a considerable debate surrounding the efficacy of crackdowns as a strategy to combat the selling of drugs. The research evidence has been inconclusive with some studies indicating that these strategies have had an impact on the availability of drugs, visible drug activity, and street crime while others have found that these outcome measures were not affected. This debate is also fueled by a consideration of deterrence. Does intensive enforcement increase the perceived risk of apprehension and, if so, do offenders desist from this activity or simply adapt through market relocation. Further, what role do crackdowns play in community efforts to eradicate drugs from their neighborhoods? The answers to these questions have considerable implications for enforcement strategies. If crackdowns have a demonstrable positive impact, then concentrated enforcement efforts may be a more promising

strategy than the traditional more sporadic narcotic enforcement patterns.

This research investigates the impact of intensive narcotics enforcement which was implemented under experimental conditions in conjunction with the research effort. The project involves the implementation of enhanced narcotics enforcement in several neighborhoods over a six month period. After this period of time, the enforcement effort will shift to other areas which have served as control areas during the initial six months of the project. The intervention consists of a number of elements. First, a highly visible crackdown effort to "kick-off" the project consisting of eight to ten warrant raids being conducted simultaneously in each area. These crackdowns may be repeated as needed, throughout the project. Second, mini-crackdowns, consisting of four to five raids are conducted biweekly in each area. Third, the enforcement crew assigned to the precinct containing the target area is to conduct surveillance in the target areas daily and perform enforcement activities if narcotics operations are observed.

The evaluation of this effort consists of the integration of six areas of data collection. First, efforts are being taken to carefully document the intervention and its immediate effects. Data are being collected on all enforcement activities (i.e., warrant raids, buy bust, street enforcement) in the target areas including the outcome of these actions (e.g., individual arrests, drugs and property seized). In addition, observations of enforcement actions in the target areas are also being conducted.

A second area of data collection consists of case tracking. The cases of all individual arrested in crackdowns will be tracked through disposition. This would include only criminal penalties but also civil actions (e.g., forfeiture) associated with the case. In addition, data on the prior record of those arrested are also being obtained.

A community survey constitutes one the major data collection strategies. A random sample of residents in each area are being interviewed, via telephone, prior to the intervention, at the switching of treatment and control conditions, and at the conclusion of the project. The survey covers issues of the perception of drug use and selling in the community, the level of community organization, the fear of crime, the quality of life in the neighborhood, and the perception of

enforcement efforts.

Additional information about drugs in these communities is being obtained through focus groups in each of the areas involved in the project. These groups consist of a panel of four to six community leaders from each area. These individuals are typically block club leaders, community organizers, or church leaders. Interviews with these individuals focus upon community interaction and dynamics, and the characteristics and consequences of drug activities in the community.

Two final areas of data collection involve official department data on calls to a narcotics hotline and reported street crime. At time series analysis of these data will be conducted to detect variation in these potential outcomes that may be associated with the intervention.

*Modern Policing and the Control of Illegal Drugs:
Testing New Strategies in Two American Cities*
Sampson O. Annan
Deputy Director of Research
Police Foundation

Special police units were set up in the two cities to control street drug trafficking. The unit in Oakland, called Special Duty Unit 3 (SDU-3), engaged in high visibility patrol and undercover operations, including buy-and-bust. The Birmingham Police Department implemented enforcement strategies, including "reverse-buy" in which persons attempting to buy drugs were arrested. Both departments used a community-oriented policing approach involving "door-to-door" citizen contact.

The neighborhoods selected for the study in each city were matched in terms of demographics, size, and recorded crime. The residents in these experimental neighborhoods were predominantly black with low socio-economic status. In Birmingham, a lot of the residents lived in public housing developments.

The evaluation was designed to measure the effectiveness of the strategies implemented in the two cities to reduce street drug trafficking and improve the quality of life for the residents in the selected neighborhoods. The evaluation measured the rates of serious crimes against the person, burglaries, and robberies. The citizen surveys were used to develop measures of drug trafficking problems, awareness of police programs aimed at controlling crime and drugs,

perception of safety, fear of crime, quality of life and satisfaction with police services.

A quasi-experimental design using comparison group with pre-test and post-test measures. With the assistance of the police department, we selected three neighborhoods in Birmingham and four in Oakland. Baseline interviews were conducted with a random sample of residents in all the selected neighborhoods before the programs were put into effect. In each city, one of the neighborhoods was randomly selected to serve as the control area in which no new police services were provided by the special units. The post-test interviews were conducted six months after the special units were in operation. Changes detected in the outcome measures were considered as indicative of program effects.

The questionnaires used for the citizen interviews contained several measures of program outcome, including reports of drug problems in the neighborhood, fear and concern about crime, perception of property and personal crime, social disorder, and evaluation of police services. Recorded crime data for part one offenses, before and after program implementation, were also collected and analyzed to measure impact of programs on reported crime. Of particular interest were the "drug-related" violent crimes such as homicides, rapes, and felonious assaults.

No significant problems were encountered in the evaluation design in Oakland. The implementation of the door-to-door strategy was not as fully implemented as we would have liked due to resource constraints within the departments. In Birmingham, on the other hand, the design was abandoned because the police department opened a substation in the neighborhood we had selected for the control area after eleven persons were shot in eight separate incidents during a fourteen-day period. One of the victims died and ten were wounded. Another problem in Birmingham was the transfer of the Captain who was instrumental of the community-oriented policing strategy.

In Oakland, the findings showed that the treatments had an effect on citizen perceptions of drug trafficking, property crime, satisfaction with police services, and neighborhood safety. Residents perceived a decline in drug trafficking, a reduction in violent crimes, and a substantial decline in reported crime to the police.

In Birmingham, most residents (75%) in the three neighborhoods perceived police as being

either somewhat effective or very effective in reducing the amount of drug selling and buying on the streets and by arresting drug dealers and buyers. About 50 percent of them perceived a reduction in the drug problem in their neighborhood. More importantly, only about 20 percent of the residents believed that the drug problem had worsened. Residents in all three beats also perceived that the police were more responsive to their concerns, and were doing a good job in working with the residents. Property crime, however, was perceived as having increased in the beat that received the door-to-door contact but decreased in the other beats. These findings seem to suggest that the door-to-door campaign increased citizens' awareness and perception regarding property crime. Violent crime decreased in the beat that received the door-to-door contact but increased dramatically in the rest of the city (58 percent).

The Community Effects of Street Level Narcotics Enforcement: A Study of the New York City Police Department's Tactical Narcotics Teams

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Nature of Intervention:

The advent of crack cocaine markets in American cities has sparked a nationwide renewal of interest in street-level narcotics enforcement by police. During the '70s and early '80s, this strategy was not viewed as an effective way to reduce the volume of drug trafficking and it fell out of favor with law enforcement officials. But neither the federal effort to interdict drugs at our borders nor the assaults by local police and prosecutors on domestic distribution networks prevented the rapid growth of crack cocaine markets across the nation. The burgeoning crack trade of recent years has undermined order and eroded the quality of life in so many inner-city neighborhoods that local police departments have redirected their strategic attention -- and their resources -- to street-level narcotics enforcement.

Today, one of the most fully elaborated street-level drug enforcement strategy is the New York City Police Department's Tactical Narcotics Teams (TNTs). TNTs are a mobile, concentrated overlay of plain-clothes and undercover narcotics officers, supplementing normal police activity for about 90 days in each TNT target area. TNT saturates a target neighborhood with drug enforcement personnel,

moving swiftly and in force to eliminate street-level drug marketplaces. The TNT objective is to help restore a target community's own capacity to preserve order and the quality of life, so that the TNT personnel can move on to the next drug-infested neighborhood.

Although TNT relies heavily on the tactics of rapid "buy and bust," the initiative also draws upon the tools of problem-solving policing and community policing: TNT functions under cooperative agreements with the city, state and federal agencies whose resources are required to address the quality-of-life problems that so often arise when a neighborhood has been taken over by an active drug market. TNT also incorporates the work of Community Patrol Officers (CPOs), both to organize the community in advance of TNT deployment and, after TNT moves on, to work with local residents and merchants to prevent resurgence of the drug market and to maintain the quality of neighborhood life.

The community problems for which TNT was designed are reasonably well known, and they are not limited to New York City: the crack cocaine epidemic; the incursion of street-level drug markets into formerly stable neighborhoods; escalating property crimes in areas where trafficking takes hold; record-breaking numbers of drug-related homicides; street-level warfare among dealers; and fear and intimidation at levels that keep local residents off the streets and away from the parks and playgrounds of their own neighborhoods.

The Vera Institute of Justice has launched a two-year study of the community-level effects of TNT. The research focuses on the extent to which a complex enforcement strategy such as TNT can reduce disorderly conditions; reduce the street crime that often springs up around drug marketplaces; reduce fear of crime among community residents; increase their use of community amenities (e.g., streets and parks); improve community attitudes toward police; and help the community "regain control" of its streets. Vera's research on TNT is structured at least in part by a desire to examine some of the conceptual frameworks and practical applications of community-oriented, problem-solving policing as well as of emerging street-level drug enforcement strategies.

The research employs a quasi-experimental, longitudinal design in two New York City neighborhoods which are TNT targets and, for comparison, in a third neighborhood whose drug

market has won its designation as a future TNT target. The demographics of these neighborhoods vary slightly, but all three TNT targets are predominantly working-class, residential neighborhoods with large minority and immigrant populations. By documenting community-level activities before TNT begins its intervention, Vera is developing basic information on patterns of drug trafficking and use, and the associated community attitudes, behaviors, and perceptions. This will provide a baseline for interpreting the results of TNT enforcement efforts as researchers continue to collect data during and after TNT is deployed in these neighborhoods.

The research consists of four fairly distinct components: a multi-wave household survey; a series of ongoing panel interviews; and ethnographic study of both drug-involved and other residents in the target communities; and a process analysis of the TNT intervention itself.

The quantitative data collection techniques employed by Vera researchers include the household survey of community residents and an analysis of statistical record data. The latter will include information on community conditions, the volume and type of TNT activities, and the influence of TNT on criminal activity in the target areas. The household survey will explicate a number of significant issues concerning the community's perceptions and attitudes before, during and after TNT is deployed.

Researchers will also employ a variety of qualitative research techniques, including street ethnography which will focus on drug users and dealers, panel interviews which will focus on drug users and dealers, panel interviews which will focus on community leaders, and interviews with and observations of TNT personnel themselves. Panel interviews of local community leaders, merchants, and residents will complement the household survey's quantitative data with a detailed, qualitative record of community perceptions and attitudes. On-going research interviews with TNT officers and other police officials, as well as field observations of their activities in the target areas, will generate a full description of how TNT operates in these neighborhoods, as well as how it interacts with other units of the Police Department, other agencies of government, and community groups. Most important, the continuous presence of Vera's field ethnographers on the streets of the study neighborhoods will provide a rich record of observations and interviews describing the nature of the drug trafficking and street conditions that

characterize these neighborhoods, and how these changes over time as a result of TNT's intervention.

The research has already encountered a few difficulties which have challenged both the research design and research coordinators. From its inception in October of 1989, the household survey has encountered an unexpectedly low response rate. Considering the 250 households selected for each wave, research coordinators hoped for an average of 150 responses. Not unlike the experiences of census takers, however, Vera research interviewers have faced general apathy, fear, and other causes of resident's unwillingness to speak with survey interviewers; as a result, the average number of completed household surveys in each wave has been closer to 95, although it is improving with the two most recent waves averaging 115.

The research has also encountered problems resulting from unforeseen changes in TNT's deployment. After TNT had spent 90 days in its first target area, Police Department officials decided that, rather than deploying the whole team in the new target area, they would split the team, keeping roughly half in the first target area, and moving the other half into the second target area. In addition, a special temporary police task force created in March of 1990 drew almost one-third of TNT's personnel away from their routine narcotics enforcement activities for a short time. The compound effects of this loss of staff and TNT's split deployment have reduced somewhat the dimensions of the intervention in the new target area and blurred the distinctions between before, during and after TNT's advent.

Given the New York City Police Department's interest in enhancing its narcotics enforcement approaches, as well as its community-oriented and problem-solving policies programs, the results of this assessment of TNT's community-level effects should be useful to the Department in improving its street-level narcotics enforcement efforts and in considering new ways of integrating new approaches to policing.

MULTI-JURISDICTIONAL TASK FORCE EVALUATIONS

MULTI-JURISDICTIONAL TASK FORCES: QUALITATIVE EVALUATION TECHNIQUES

An Implementation Study of Cooperative Law Enforcement Narcotics Control Task Forces

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This project involves case studies in implementation and operation for six multi-jurisdictional narcotics law enforcement task forces. The selected sites provide a broad cross-section of geographical locations, operational foci, and organizational size. An additional important criterion of selection is that the task forces be truly multi-jurisdictional -- that is, that they be vertically or horizontally structured.

The common targets of the selected task forces are drug offenders. The six task forces differ slightly in their operational foci: some sites focus their efforts on street-level distributors and users, while other sites target mid- and upper-level importers and distributors. The current operational foci are an outgrowth of existing local narcotics problems, the perceived pressures of local community interest groups, and the internal narcotics related priorities brought to the task force by the commanding personnel. Despite the variations in their operational foci, the common goals of the task forces are to arrest, prosecute, and incapacitate narcotics offenders, and to reduce the availability of narcotics through the use of interdiction techniques.

The purpose of this evaluation is to assess the developmental and operational dynamics of six exemplary multi-jurisdictional task force operations through the use of in-depth descriptive analysis techniques; and, based on those descriptive analyses, to develop a series of recommendations for the creation, implementation, and operation of narcotics law enforcement task forces in a variety of other jurisdictions.

The evaluation effort employs both qualitative and quantitative analysis techniques. To capture the necessary qualitative information, two open-ended interview instruments have been developed by CJSA project staff -- one instrument for task force supervisory personnel and another instrument for task force investigative personnel. The instruments are based on the various responsibilities inherent in each position.

Due to their likely involvement in the creation and implementation of the task force, the

supervisory personnel's instrument addresses a broader range of issues than does the instrument for the investigative personnel. CJSA project staff travelled to each of the six sites to administer the qualitative interviews and to gather both written and verbal descriptions of the task force set-ups and operations.

The qualitative analysis techniques were selected to elicit perceptions and interpretations of task force creation, implementation, and operation. The qualitative discussions prompted by the open-ended questions allow the researchers to glean detailed information that might not be obtained solely through the use of quantitative methods.

In addition to the qualitative information, project staff obtained quantitative data regarding task force personnel size, expenditures, arrests, seizures and forfeitures, and other process outcomes. These data provide contextual information for the analyses and interpretation of the qualitative data. Quantitative data help to determine the extent of the drug problem, the size of the jurisdiction, and the baseline activities of the task force.

The analysis model developed for this effort borrows from the biological model for organizational analysis (Kimberly and Miles, 1980), and also from CJSA staff and Drug Consortium representative experiences with the implementation of drug control task forces. In organization research, the biological analogy to organizational development posits a developmental model or organizational birth, growth, decline, and decay or rebirth (in new, or slightly different organizational forms). The analogy suggests that once created (and there are specific conditions under which organizational birth may flourish), an organization will undergo a growth process (characterized by expansion, diversification, learning from mistakes, etc.) and eventually reach a mature stage. At some point, stagnation, decline, or some organizational change to avoid these problems will take place, and an organization may "die."

While this study does not propose to directly apply the biological analogy, nor to study drug control task forces for the duration of their existence, experiential information from the field tells us that the biological analogy is instructive. There seem to be certain conditions which are supportive of drug control task force development (drastic increases in drug and violent crime,

external pressures that overcome organization biases, federal financial support, community and other organizational structures, ability to overcome "turf" and boundary issues) among task forces. The research plan developed for the six task forces to be studied will assume that a development process similar to the biological analogy takes place within task forces.

Several minor issues were encountered during the implementation of the research plan. The foremost concern involved the establishment of a rapport with the task force personnel. As police work in general, and narcotics investigation specifically, often necessitates confidentiality and a sense of secrecy, getting task force personnel to "open up" during the interview process posed a challenge. Both the interview instruments and the interview techniques were developed with this issue in mind. CJSA project staff addressed this issue in several ways; by providing as much background information about our organization as possible, by establishing initial contact with the task force through a known liaison working within the state's criminal justice system, and by becoming cognizant of, and conversant in, the terminology and activities inherent in undercover narcotics investigations.

A secondary concern encountered during the study involved the layout of the survey instrument and the length of the interview sessions. Because the survey instruments addressed a wide range of issues, layout of the items for discussion was important. CJSA staff pre-tested the instruments in several task forces to develop a "feel" for the natural progression of the interview process. The pre-tests also helped to streamline the instruments by combining similar issues and removing redundant items.

It is anticipated that the final results of this research effort will have important practical and policy implications. By conducting in-depth interviews with members of the six task forces, project staff have moved beyond simple description; and instead, have begun to establish the organizational structures, administrative mechanisms, operational activities, and personnel experiences that are critical to the task force's success. It is further hoped that other jurisdictions will examine and perhaps incorporate the practices, policies, and procedures for task force creation, implementation, and operation into their own efforts.

Although limited, several preliminary findings are available at this time. As corroborated by many

of the task force personnel, creation of the task forces has had a dramatic impact on the inter-agency relations within the task forces' jurisdictions. By reducing or eliminating the "turf" battles experienced in most jurisdictions the task forces improve inter-agency communication and cooperation, which leads to improved narcotics law enforcement.

Another preliminary finding is that task force operations tend to be dominated by the larger participating departments. Despite the existence of signed documents allocating equal power to all participating departments, the larger departments often guide or set the task force's policies, and garner the majority of the investigative activities. The disparity in influence may be partially attributable to the larger jurisdictions policed by the larger departments, and may occur with the "blessings" of the other agencies.

The results from each of the six site studies will be described in individual summary sections of the final report. The summaries will describe the different organizational models and explain significant differences in their attributes, experiences, and impact. Taken together, the information will produce an informative and practical implementation study on these task forces, the primary aim of which is to delineate the logical steps in the development of a narcotics law enforcement task force, the pitfalls and proven solutions to common problems, and reasonable expectations of efficiency and productivity under various conditions.

The report will be geared toward law enforcement officers and administrators, drug grant monitors, and other state and local level policymakers who have a need to know about the experiences their colleagues have in establishing drug control task forces. The report will address a series of concrete practical and policy relevant research questions. Although it will be primarily descriptive in design, the report will include some discussion and demonstration of policy monitoring and process evaluation tools.

Analysis of Intervention Impacts and Change in Crime

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This study discusses analytical procedures for examining the effect of drug enforcement task forces on change in crime. Using statewide,

community level data, it compares changes in crime between task force and non-task force cities at the beginning stages of implementing the task forces. It identifies problems in working with crime change data when making such comparisons. It discusses strategies for dealing with these problems.

One purpose of the evaluation is to develop a model for the analysis of change data that deals with problems common to a variety of data when evaluating drug enforcement projects. A second purpose is to provide baseline information on differences between task force and non-task force communities.

The project uses a longitudinal, non-equivalent control group design. The use of non-equivalent control groups was dictated by the assignment of task force grants to communities that request and adequately justify participation in a task force. The longitudinal component of the design is necessary to provide measures of crime change in the task force and non-task force communities. The design is based on statistical models for the analysis of change. The combination of longitudinal and non-equivalent control group data is expected to compensate for some of the limitations of using either of these methods alone.

Three problems in the analysis of change are illustrated: correlation of change with baseline measures, trends in change, and correlation of change with confounding factors. These problems are reduced by introducing appropriate control variables in the analysis. These findings imply that evaluations of drug control programs using change measures as outcomes can produce spurious findings if these problems are not addressed by the design or the analysis. More reliable and valid results are produced when these problems are considered.

With the advent of the Criminal Justice Statistics Association (CJSA) Consortium for Drug Strategy Impact Assessment, a major concern has been the development and use of common measures and analytical models for drug enforcement impacts. One area of particular concern is the analysis of data on drug enforcement efforts of multi-jurisdictional task forces. Within Massachusetts a similar concern is raised concerning single jurisdiction task forces, referred to hereafter as "Target Cities." How does one analyze comparable data for multi-jurisdictional drug task forces, referred to in the state as "Community Impact" projects, and for

Target Cities to examine whether these drug enforcement projects had any effect? How, especially, using the common measures of the CJSA Drug Consortium project?

The most obvious source of an analytical model is to look at the statements of intended impacts within the subgrant applications by the task forces. Massachusetts requires all Drug Enforcement subgrants applications to contain a statement of goals and objectives for each project and the intended impacts. These impacts are supposed to be formulated in concrete, empirical terms. For example, all the task forces include a stated impact of "increasing drug arrests." Many also have a stated impact of "reducing violent crime." These expected impacts lead to basic questions. How does one measure "increases in drug arrests" or "reductions in violent crime"? Also, how does one analyze such measures to determine whether changes have occurred?

The measurement question has been addressed by numerous discussions of the CJSA Drug Consortium. Some partial answers to be collected for drug task force activity have been agreed upon. Although, many states collect additional alternative information as well. Every state in the Consortium has agreed to collect quarterly information on arrests for drug trafficking and drug possession for the jurisdictions in their task forces. This information also meets requirements by BJA for these data as part of a state's drug strategy.

Such data are usually collected in quarterly reports directly from the police departments involved, rather than relying upon UCR arrest statistics (commonly referred to as "ASR" data). The former process is more timely and may allow break down of the figures by whether the arrest resulted from the drug grant or regular department enforcement. Nevertheless, for some analytical purposes the UCR arrest statistics may be adequate.

The two impacts mentioned above both focus on expected changes: changes in arrests or changes in violent crime offenses. This suggests that procedures for the analysis of change may be applicable to models of drug enforcement impacts. Several issues raised by the literature on analysis of change apply to this situation. The following discussions illustrate three of those issues and models for dealing with them: correlation of change measures with their baseline values, correlation of current change with prior change, and association of change

measures with alternative confounding factors.

Correlation Between Change and Baseline

The problem of correlation of a change measure with its baseline value has been known for some time (Kessler, 1977). Such a correlation creates ambiguity as to whether the indicator measures change or simply the baseline level of crime. Perhaps larger increases in arrests or decreases in violent crime only occur in jurisdictions having large crime rates to begin with. In such a case, the observed change may represent high crime rates, rather than true increase or decrease.

The traditional strategy for dealing with a correlation between a change measure and its baseline is to control for the baseline value (Kessler, 1977). Statistically, this means using the baseline level of crime as a control variable in the analysis. This removes the problem if the correlation with the baseline value is not too extreme. Regression analysis and Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) are both used to control for the baseline value.

This strategy, however, produces reliable results only if the correlation is not too extreme. With extreme correlation between baseline and change measures, controlling for the baseline value produces unreliable results; but not controlling for the baseline produces false conclusions about change. In such a circumstance, the design may be incapable of answering questions about change outcomes. The impact of change becomes totally confounded with differences in the baseline situation.

There are no agreed upon standards for determining when the correlation is too extreme. It is not unwise, however, to be skeptical when the correlation exceeds .70 and controlling for the baseline value produces radically different findings.

When evaluation projects show such results, it means that the findings regarding impacts on change are not reliable--even though simple descriptive findings are accurate. Subsequent evaluations of change measures having this problem may require using experimental designs with random assignment to intervention and control groups, since this will remove differences in baseline values (Cook and Campbell, 1979; Lempert and Visher, 1988).

It has long been known that trends in the data often produce correlation between change

measures at two points in time (Davidson, 1972). The observed change may be an artifact of prior trends. Systematic error in the crime measures across time may also magnify these trends.

Interrupted time series analysis was developed, in part, to deal with this problem. However, with only a small number of data points across time this method is not feasible. Regression analysis or analysis of covariance are alternative approaches to control for prior change if there are multiple units of observation (a number of towns, say, who receive the same type of grant).

The problem of association of change measures with alternative confounding factors is essentially a problem of mis-specification, the failure to include and control for important influences (Kessler, 1977; Lempert, 1966). For example, changes in unemployment rates or population migration can affect change in crime independently of drug enforcement interventions. Larger cities may also be qualitatively different from smaller towns with respect to changes in their crime rates. In addition, cities will vary in the extent to or speed with which projects are implemented.

This problem can be addressed by adding key control variables to one's analysis. The difficulty lies in determining which key control variables to add. Research literature and qualitative interviews with criminal justice officials can suggest some of these confounding factors. Such things as city size, density, unemployment, divorce, age structure of the population, poverty, and geographic migration are factors that might be considered as possible key variables. Proximity to major transportation routes can also correlate with rate of change. Even gross measures of project implementation may prove useful when comparing sites that have very complete versus little or no implementation.

These analysis problems and analytical models for dealing with them are illustrated using UCR violent crime offense statistics for 242 police jurisdictions (cities and towns) in Massachusetts between the years 1986 to 1988. Data for this analysis were provided by the Crime Reporting Unit of the Criminal History Systems Board of Massachusetts. The Crime Reporting unit is responsible for collecting, cleaning, and sending to the FBI the regular UCR statistics for the Commonwealth.

Dichotomous variables were coded to indicate whether each town or city was, or was not, a

member of a drug enforcement task force (Community Impact Project) or a recipient of a Target City grant. Yearly changes in UCR crimes were examined for a number of offenses and for rate per 100,000 population.

Differences between task forces cities (Community Impact Cities and Target Cities) and non-task force cities were examined. One-way Analysis of Variance compared mean crimes and crime rates for the two groups. Control variables were then introduced using Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) to remove some of the problems mentioned above.

Examining Multi-Jurisdictional Task Forces: An Examination of New Jersey Projects Funded Under the Anti-Drug Abuse Acts of 1986 and 1988
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The goal of this study is to effect an analysis of multi-jurisdictional narcotics task force characteristics through the examination of quantitative and qualitative data collected from New Jersey's twenty-one countywide task forces. The research entails quarterly analyses of criminal process data for 1988 (1/1/88 to 1/1/89) collected from all twenty-one task forces along with data from interviews of a sample of task force personnel. To facilitate research manageability, the task forces were analyzed within four groupings based on a formula accounting for each county's proportion of state population, state student population, and crime rates.

The most interesting finding is, that while the state's twenty-one task forces have many similarities, it is their differences that help to determine their enforcement and management orientations and aid us in predicting their level of policy success. The study's findings alert us to three dichotomies that permit an important understanding of varying task force dimensions and their importance to task force programs. These three dichotomies are:

- (1) Emerging and established task forces. The dichotomy of emerging/established task forces refers to the length of time the task forces has existed. "Emerging task forces" are defined as those created as part of the implementation of the N.J. Attorney General's Action Plan for Narcotics Enforcement, with the infusion of funds

from the Bureau of Justice Assistance (BJA) federal formula grant. "Established task forces" are considered those which were in effect before the BJA funding.

- (2) Prosecutor-participative and prosecutor-detached management. "Prosecutor-participative task forces" are those which are closely supervised by the prosecutor. When the prosecutor either 'passively' or substantially delegates a large degree of management duties, then that task force is referred to as a "prosecutor-detached task force."
- (3) Open system and traditional law enforcement orientations. The third dichotomy refers to what extent the task force adopts community roles beyond those of the "traditional" enforcement functions (i.e., reactive vs. proactive law enforcement). The "traditional task forces" focus the majority of their resources and planning on basic law enforcement functions. Their day-to-day activities emulate reactive policing style. "Open system task forces", on the other hand, emulate proactive policing strategies because they are concerned not only with traditional enforcement functions, but also with the strategies that attempt to negate the causes of crime (e.g. public awareness programs, community group interfaces, etc.).

This presentation attempts to summarize many of the important findings found in New Jersey's evaluation of its federally funded narcotics task forces. It is important to note that throughout this summary, another major dichotomy may appear to emerge -- the dichotomy of urban vs. rural task forces. This dichotomy, with exceptions, can be used almost interchangeably with the dichotomy of emerging and established task forces. "Rural task forces", with the exception of Cape May County, are synonymous with emerging task forces. "Urban task forces", on the other hand, are synonymous with established task forces; with Essex County being the only exception.

The study found that both emerging and established task forces were organized based on the rate of change of the environment within which they operated. That is, they were designed to capitalize on their resources in the most efficient manner considering demographic conditions of their counties.

Criteria which are considered essential for task force efficiency and effectiveness are listed below. When used concurrently, the indicators represent a standard toward which task force may strive. This profile of "exemplary" task forces may be considered by many to be the most practical aspect of the present study because it combines responses from personnel within these organizations with supportive evaluation findings. It is important to note that the following criteria have been drawn from a composite of all twenty-one task forces. Exemplary task force units: (1) arrived at the most effective means for eliminating local investigative duplication; (2) maintained task force facilities detached from prosecutor/court house offices, yet were closely supervised by their county prosecutors; (3) included grant administration and computerized intelligence system components in their task force scheme; (4) incorporated "open forums" with personnel from municipal, county, state, and federal criminal law enforcement agencies; (5) adopted problem oriented policing strategies; (6) aggressively sought out community cooperation as part of the formal enforcement program; and (7) demonstrated a tendency to experiment with creative enforcement methods.

Planning was an essential element for all task forces, both established and emerging. The degree and type of planning determined many of the goals and strategies employed by the individual units. Planning strategies were often contingent upon the circumstances necessitating law enforcement intervention. Task forces which had to solve immediate problems, such as areas with a large number of drug crimes, were usually forced to forsake proactive strategies in order to effectively invoke reactive methods.

In many situations, reactive strategies may be superior to strategic strategies because of their "responsiveness" to immediate community needs. The optimal situation is to maintain a long-term strategy approach while still being responsive to individual community needs.

In order to provide an enforcement strategy from which to construct efficient task forces, it is necessary to provide fundamental training to all task force members. Some of the findings from this evaluation are:

- (1) New task forces typically viewed training as a way to sharpen investigator skills in basic enforcement methods, with some using the training program as the foundation for further organizational

growth.

- (2) Sophisticated training tactics were viewed by the established task forces as being necessary to compete with advances in offender methods of crime commission and detection avoidance.
- (3) The training of task force personnel to help fortify enforcement capabilities of investigators/prosecutors was generally considered (by task force supervisors) an invaluable component of most task forces.
- (4) Training was considered by almost all task force personnel as being indispensable and was credited with being the source of organizational productivity in a host area; training was essential for surveillance technology and the logistics of asset seizure practices.

The solicitation of municipal cooperation is an integral component for constructing a "prototype" task force. Access and exchange of records and other pertinent information, receiving quality "on-loan" officers, etc., are vital to the creation of effective task forces. The following section illustrates why quality municipal cooperation is so essential and what effect(s) it had on task force performance.

The level and quality of municipal participation in task forces were found to vary across counties, largely as a result of the following factors: (1) task force supervisory philosophies on the acceptable levels of municipal participation; (2) the organizational development stage of task forces, at which municipalities were invited to participate; (3) the efficacy of "on-loan" personnel screening methods employed by the task forces; and (4) the local perception of potential benefits of participation by municipal police departments.

From a statewide perspective, the most striking quantitative impacts of task force implementation and enhancement were: (1) the increase in cocaine related arrests, and subsequent convictions resulting from task force operations; (2) the increase in major asset seizure operations, particularly for rural areas previously uninitiated to these activities; and (3) the increase in local/state/federal investigations reaping high rewards in terms of quality arrests and assets seizures.

From a qualitative perspective, the most impressive impacts were: (1) greater enforcement coordination resulting from a more cohesive professional bond between prosecutor's offices and municipal police departments; (2) upgraded intelligence information and its accessibility; and (3) improved public sentiments regarding drug enforcement and its overt support.

LAW ENFORCEMENT TASK FORCES: CROSSING GEOGRAPHIC AND COMPONENT JURISDICTIONS

An Evaluation of the South Central Indiana and Tri-County Narcotics Task Forces

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This evaluation examines two multi-jurisdictional narcotics task forces operating in Indiana. The South Central Indiana Narcotics Task Force is located in the Monroe County Prosecutors Office and operates in a six county region. The Tri-County Narcotics Strike Force (Tri-Code) is located in the La Porte County Sheriff's Office and operates in a three county region in north central Indiana. The stated mission of both task forces is to enhance communication and coordination among local law enforcement agencies, and to respond to a more sophisticated (organized) level of drug trafficking activity.

The focus of the evaluation is on both product--the impact that such programs have on narcotics control efforts-- as well as process --the structure and operations of the task forces which account for the attainment of the desired impacts. The evaluation takes a "systems approach" which describes and evaluates the relationships among inputs, activities, results and outcomes of each task force.

To increase confidence in the results of the evaluation a pre-post research design with comparison groups was used. Data regarding drug enforcement activity (arrests, convictions, and sentences) have been collected for the year prior to the implementation of the task forces through December of 1989. In addition, data have been collected for the same time periods in two matched control sites where formal task forces are not operational. Although this approach does not eliminate all threat to reliability and validity, comparison with control sites allows us to address several policy-related issues that otherwise could not be considered. For example, are the levels of communication and coordination among task force agencies significantly greater than those occurring among similar law enforcement officials in non-task force sites? Similarly, while information sharing may exist among task force personnel, the same level of sharing may not occur in non-task force sites. Finally, do changes in drug enforcement efforts reflect the creation and development of formal task forces, or are similar results found among other law enforcement agencies without such arrangements?

The data gathered for this research include information on all drug arrests, convictions and sentences for the eighteen counties making up the task forces and control sites. Information on the type of drug, the type of charge, amount of drugs seized and the type of assets seized and forfeited, has also been collected. Approximately 1,600 cases have been collected and are presently being analyzed.

Similarly, a survey consisting of both open-ended and closed questions was sent to approximately 200 law enforcement officers and prosecutors in the eighteen county area. These surveys elicit information on the structure of drug enforcement activities, the nature of communication and coordination issues, and perspectives regarding the drug problem. Approximately 100 surveys were returned and a presently being analyzed.

At this point, preliminary findings are unavailable. Two issues have presented problems. First, given the control sites and the nature of the task forces, data on drug arrests, convictions and sentences have been difficult to collect. The most reliable source for the data has been the county clerks' offices, though each office tends to record data differently. Though the data obtained is complete and accurate, ensuring these results has been very time consuming. Second, consistent information on drug seizures and purity levels are virtually impossible to attain at this point in Indiana. Thus, determining the impact on drug activity according to these measures is not possible.

The results of this evaluation should be of great value to decision makers at both the task force level, as well as at the State and Federal policy level. At the task force level, this evaluation should suggest areas which appear to "be working," as well as identify those issues which merit attention and revision, thus providing a feedback mechanism which presently does not exist. Most importantly, the results should help state and federal policy makers determine the effectiveness and feasibility of these types of drug control efforts and suggest some directions for future funding priorities.

Colorado Multi-Jurisdictional Task Forces: A Multi-Theoretical Approach to Evaluation
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Political boundaries limit the legal authority of law enforcement officers to specific areas, but the activities of drug dealers and/or users are not boundary restricted. Multi-jurisdictional task forces were created to overcome the law enforcement problems created by the mobility of drug offenders. The task forces were created to address a variety of law enforcement coordination problems such as multi-county apprehension/prosecution and international/interstate drug trafficking.

Five of the eight task forces funded in Colorado were selected for evaluation for the purpose of describing the different organizational structures and the cultural/geographic/ political factors that led to the development of specific structures. We will further analyze how the specific organizational structure operates in its environment for the purpose of developing models appropriate to specific drug problems or environments. This process evaluation will be the first major task of the project.

The second primary purpose of the evaluation is to assess the effects of task force activities. We will measure effect in three ways: (1) performance measures (number of arrests, kind and amount of drugs confiscated, etc.); (2) the perceptions of community opinion leaders on the effectiveness of the task forces in controlling drugs (description of the perceived problem pre and post task force); (3) trends in arrests and drug arrests in task force areas compared with statewide arrests.

The methodologies that will be employed include a process evaluation based on the quantitative and qualitative activities of the task forces, and an outcome evaluation based on perceptions of the problem pre- and post- task force implementation. Two types of measures will be used: performance measures (descriptive) and outcome measures (pre- and post-arrests; perceptions of community opinion leaders).

A multi-jurisdictional task force is deserving of a multi-theoretical approach. Two primary theoretical questions guide the research: Have political jurisdictions become dysfunctional? Are social problems those that are socially constructed?

Therefore, we approach the evaluation guided by William Ogburn's (1964) concept of "cultural lag" as a cause of social disequilibrium, as well as the social constructionist approach for evaluation recently explicated in Fourth generation evaluation by Guba and Lincoln (1989).

The only problems encountered to this point are associated with start-up delays. Originally, the evaluation design called for two interviews of community opinion leaders. Because of the time lost in program start-ups, we will interview panelists once. We hope to continue the evaluation over another year in order to measure variables again during the second year.

Expected findings of the evaluation include: (1) The impact of environmental factors such as population density/dispersion, social-demographic characteristics of population, political/law enforcement jurisdictions, type of drug problem, etc., on task force organization; (2) Description of task forces accomplishments; (3) A comparison of arrests, drug confiscations, etc., between task force areas and non-task force areas of the state. Available trend data will be analyzed to compare pre and post task force activity; (4) A description of community leaders' perceptions of the drug problem before and after task force implementation; and (5) A comparison of community leaders' perceptions and arrest data in each task force area as well as between task force areas.

As the funding cycle for programs is different from evaluation grant period, data will not be available for this year's grant applications. This data will be available for the next round of funding, however.

The Division of Criminal Justice staffs several boards and commissions comprised of high-level decisionmakers. Evaluation results will be available to these commissions. Findings will be presented to the state legislature, the Governor's Communities for a Drug Free Colorado program, and other interested decisionmakers. Also, evaluation results will be submitted to a refereed journal for consideration for publication.

Performance Evaluation of the Anti-Drug Abuse Program

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Planning

California's Anti-Drug Abuse Enforcement Program (ADA) is funded through Bureau of Justice Assistance's (BJA) Drug Control and System Improvement Act. Within California, the Governor's Office of Criminal Justice Planning (OCJP) is the administrative agency.

In November 1987, OCJP established the ADA Program guidelines and provided for four major program components: (1) law enforcement, (2) prosecution, (3) probation, and (4) court administration.

The program provides funds to state and local law enforcement agencies for the enhancement and expansion of drug enforcement activities in an effort to reduce the impact of drug production, manufacturing, smuggling, trafficking, use and other drug related crimes. Within each of the four components, a variety of strategies was made available for selection by state and local agencies. Each application contained either a selected single approach such as Property Crime Sting by law enforcement, or a multi-component program, that requires participation by law enforcement, prosecution, probation and the courts to qualify for funding. This second model was the selected approach for the statewide FY 1990 funding.

The program target consisted of 26 sites throughout the state, which comprise approximately 68 percent of the study population. The evaluation however, was restricted to a sub-sample of the projects due to the limited budget available. Two single-agency projects, five multi-component projects, and one state level project were selected for the study.

The primary goals of the performance evaluation are: to determine whether specific projects funded in the state have achieved their proposed objectives, and to determine how well the state has done in meeting its stated strategies and objectives. The evaluation should also determine the overall effectiveness of the program, and identify potential enhancements or changes that would increase their effectiveness in the specific projects.

The project employed a performance evaluation. Due to a budget constraints, a sample was

selected for detailed evaluation. Prior to the evaluation, several projects were examined and interviews were conducted with project administrators to identify problem areas or key matters for consideration in the evaluation. Using the Quarterly Progress Reports submitted to OCJP, data on 26 projects were summarized, allowing general comparisons among projects which had similar goals. The quarterly data details movement of offenders through the criminal justice system.

In addition, OCJP required the contractor to design an automated data collection system for future assessments. This system will be furnished to OCJP at the evaluations completion.

A quantitative and qualitative analysis will be performed on data gathered for the first 18 months with emphasis on a comparative evaluation of results to-date with the specific objectives stated in the original project proposals.

Due to limited funds and the fact that project data was established as a baseline during the first year of the program, only basic performance assessments can be made. Future intensive evaluations can be performed based on this established baseline data.

Quarterly progress reports were established during the initial planning period for this program. Therefore, all 26 projects can be assessed through this evaluation tool. Quantitative information was collected for all arrests, prosecutions, and subsequent convictions and/or dispositions. Qualitative narratives were also included each quarter to confirm that objectives were being addressed and activities performed to achieve positive results.

Delays were experienced due to the lack of an automated data collection system. These delays will be eliminated by the establishment of a system capable of storing and retrieving microcomputer-based information for the quarterly progress reports. Also, it is difficult to obtain comprehensive and accurate results given the limited project budget. Future, in-depth evaluations must be adequately funded to achieve a through impact assessment.

Findings are not available at this time. However, OCJP expects confirmation of the program model of collaboration and coordination and that the requirement of such coordination has improved relations between various criminal justice disciplines.

OCJP will use the results of this evaluation to assess the program model, make necessary modifications for improvement and eliminate areas not effective. Agencies implementing these programs will also be given the feedback and will do likewise. These findings will assist in the future program implementation and enable OCJP to advise enforcement agencies of successfully implemented projects. This information will also be shared with other states and the Bureau of Justice Assistance.

MULTI-JURISDICTIONAL TASK FORCES: EFFORTS IN RURAL STATES

Evaluation of Drug Task Forces in Idaho

Dawn Burns

Director

Idaho Statistical Analysis Center

Rural states often have the problem of limited manpower covering large expanses of scarcely populated, often difficult to access areas. In the Pacific northwest, these areas are often national forests or protected areas which are ideal for marijuana cultivation and clandestine lab activities.

Idaho has a combination of enforcement challenges which make it unique. These include the Canadian border, northern biker gangs, vast acreage of wilderness areas, and Idaho contains one of the main north-south transportation routes. In addition, recent evidence suggests that Idaho is becoming a "contract" state. That is, individuals whose base of operation is outside of Idaho are "contracting out" and providing resources for the development of clandestine labs and marijuana cultivation in Idaho. The products are then shipped out of state for sale.

Idaho has, at present, thirteen multi-jurisdictional anti-drug abuse funded task forces. Each of the thirteen task forces are formed as a cooperative effort between local police departments and sheriff's offices.

In early calendar year 1989 the need for an Evaluation Unit was recognized, and in late 1989 the unit was established. The task forces were asked to submit case data dating back to the task force's inception, in addition to the data being collected for monitoring purposes. A database application was then developed to house the data, and by early 1990 data entry was up-to-date.

Several obstacles have been encountered to date, the greatest of which is incomplete data. To correct this, data collection instruments and procedures were changed, and the task force personnel who fill out the forms were trained in the proper techniques.

Because no accepted standard method of task force evaluation exists, it was decided to study the collected data and determine if specific indicators of task force "success" could be found based on arrest, conviction, sentencing, number of officers, population served, operating costs, etc.

At the same time, survey data was collected to

capture some of the qualitative aspects of a "successful" task force operation.

Task force directors, as well as task force officers were asked to respond to a questionnaire asking them to rank their perceptions of commonly used "indicators." It was hoped that this information would provide additional insight not readily apparent from the quantitative data.

In order to provide a true comparison, task forces were divided into subgroups based on their reported target levels of enforcement, number of task force personnel, population served, and one of three geographical regions. The additional partitioning into regions was based on major differences in enforcement problems encountered by those regions.

Dividing the task forces into subgroups based on targeted enforcement level and population served was easily achieved. However, problems developed when an attempt was made to subdivide by task force size. Interviews indicate that the number of task force personnel fluctuates, sometimes routinely. That is, if an important case is undertaken and the investigating task force does not have enough personnel, they "borrow" personnel from other non-task force agencies (local, as well as state and federal), and from neighboring task forces. And, although the identities of the other agencies are recorded, the number of participating personnel are not. Thus the "size" of a task force is not constant, making task force size an invalid parameter for comparison. (This, of course, could arguably be an indicator of an extremely successful "multi-jurisdictional" task force.) It has become apparent that with the small number of task forces available for study, and the many unique enforcement problems encountered by each, that no one subgroup contains enough task forces to perform a valid comparison.

Another obstacle encountered with evaluation based on performance indicators was the ability of the task forces to directly influence the indicators and visa versa. Task forces, regardless of assurances otherwise, feel that evaluation performance directly affects funding levels (i.e., the better the task force the higher the funding). Evaluation based on performance indicators such as arrests, number of convictions, amounts of drugs seized, amounts of assets seized, etc., may cause task forces to move away from their original goals and instead to focus on increasing

their evaluation standings. It is doubtful that this would be beneficial.

On the other hand, qualitative task force evaluation has yielded positive results. Ninety-four (94) percent of the task force personnel surveyed said they felt multi-agency communication had been very much improved. The same number also reported that drug intelligence networking had also been very much improved. Interviews, as well as case studies, have been collected which confirm these results. Ninety-five (95) percent of the responding agencies felt that duplication of investigative efforts had been reduced, in some cases drastically.

In conclusion, it is evident that, at least from the qualitative data collected, the introduction of multi-jurisdictional task forces has had a positive effect on anti-drug enforcement efforts in Idaho, although to what extent is still unknown. Further, due to the inherent shortcomings and expense of evaluation based on performance indicators, efforts along these lines will be discontinued at this time. Of course, data collection and publication of task force related data will continue, as they are useful monitoring tools. In addition, other states' task force evaluative efforts will continue to be examined for possible implementation. Until such time, Idaho's limited evaluation resources will be turned toward other projects of merit.

Evaluation of Drug Task Forces in Maryland

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The Governor's Office of Justice Assistance administers Bureau of Justice Assistance's (BJA) formula grant programs in Maryland. Multi-jurisdictional task forces are one of the priorities of the State strategy. There are nine task forces currently in operation and additional ones in the planning stage. These task forces operate in counties varying from rural to metropolitan, with populations ranging from 20,000 to 175,000.

The approach in evaluating these task forces is systemic in nature: the entire criminal justice system must be examined, rather than just the drug law enforcement entity. In that regard, site visits are made and detailed interviews are conducted with task force personnel, heads of participating agencies, and state's attorneys.

Investigations, prosecutions and sentencing practices are also evaluated.

Performance indicators are also closely monitored. All sub-grantee law enforcement agencies are required to submit quarterly performance indicators sharing arrests, charges filed, informant and defendant debriefings, coordination with other agencies, seizures and forfeitures, and additional information on special operations. Grant funded prosecutors are required to submit reports on charges, prosecutions, coordination, forfeitures, prosecution techniques, unique or significant activities, juvenile policy, etc.

However, these statistics are used cautiously and are intended to be just one factor in the evaluation process. Task force participating agencies work under an operating agreement, of which an advisory board is a key feature. This advisory board determines the investigative priorities of the task force and these priorities ultimately have an effect on the statistics generated by the task force. Therefore, the measure of success of a task force does not hinge on the quarterly performance indicators.

It has to date been difficult to find positive indications of program impact. However, this is not surprising because impact assessment must occur over time. For this reason, Maryland is committed to funding task forces for as long as possible. Recently, in one county where a task force has been operating for about two and a half years, the breaking and entering rate dropped noticeably. The law enforcement agencies are unanimous in attributing this drop to the work of the task force. Further tracking of this trend and other criminal data will give us better indicators of task force impact. Drug availability has not, to date, been significantly affected in any county where a task force is operating.

However, an area where change is noted is in the improvement in cooperation and coordination among agencies. This change should be long lasting and have a fall-out effect in all areas of law enforcement. The projection is, that, over time, the task force program will have a measurable effect on drug availability.

*An Evaluation of the Oregon National Guard's
Participation in Statewide Drug Law Enforcement*

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The Oregon National Guard has been involved in law enforcement and drug interdiction/eradication activities within the state since 1982.

In March 1989, the National Guard received \$474,000 in federal Special Drug Enforcement funds to be used in drug law enforcement operations. On July 12, 1989, the Governor deployed the National Guard to assist the Youth Gang Strike Force, the Oregon State Police, the Portland Police Bureau, and the Portland Airport Interagency Narcotics Team in drug law enforcement operations in the Portland area.

In September 1989, the Governor commissioned this study to evaluate the use of the Oregon National Guard in statewide drug law enforcement. More specifically, this study was undertaken to (1) evaluate how the Guard was used in drug law enforcement in Oregon; (2) assess the effectiveness of the Guard's assistance; and (3) determine whether and to what extent the Guard should be used in law enforcement in the future.

The results of the study indicated that the Guard was used in various capacities around the state. In the rural areas, the Guard provided intelligence support and participated in destroying marijuana fields and surveillance of clandestine drug labs. In the Portland area, the Guard assisted in major street level drug enforcement operations, intelligence gathering, clerical functions, and computer support.

Law enforcement officers reported that the Guard's assistance was very effective in combatting drugs and crime. The Guard's assistance allowed local law enforcement agencies to perform additional activities which they could not have otherwise accomplished. Further, the Guard's support augmented the resources and personnel capabilities of local agencies.

Lack of data prevented a comprehensive assessment of the economic effectiveness of using Guard resources in a law enforcement support capacity. However, there was measurable economic benefit derived from the Special Drug Enforcement funds appropriated to the Oregon National Guard.

Law enforcement officers, National Guard personnel, Portland area residents, and other community members approved of continued and future use of the Guard in assisting state and local law enforcement agencies.

However, all groups participating in the study urged improved coordination of the Guard's use in drug law enforcement support activities.

The study analyzed data collected from questionnaires distributed to law enforcement and Guard personnel, telephone surveys of Portland area residents, and interviews with local, state, and federal agencies. Information was evaluated and based on the findings, recommendations were developed. Economic data were collected from the Oregon National Guard and local, state, and federal sources.

As a result of this evaluation, four recommendations were offered:

- (1) The Oregon National Guard support capabilities should be included in the statewide drug control strategy.
- (2) The Governor and the Attorney General, together with state and local law enforcement executives, should seek coordination of policies governing the use of the Oregon National Guard in drug law enforcement. Policy coordination should focus on the following areas:
 - (a) Prioritization of requests for Guard assistance with various law enforcement operations.
 - (b) Ensuring that the various law enforcement agencies (regional task forces, county sheriff departments, municipal police departments, etc.) have access to the process of obtaining National Guard assistance.
- (3) More detailed and accurate reporting procedures are required in order to adequately measure economic costs and performance benefits of using the Guard in law enforcement operations.
- (4) Future evaluations should be expanded in scope to examine the effects of large infusions of enforcement resources on the criminal justice system.

This evaluation will assist state and local law

enforcement agency administrators and the public to arrive at a clear understanding of the role of the Oregon National Guard in drug enforcement.

Evaluation of Drug Task Forces in South Dakota
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The multi-jurisdictional Drug Task Force Program is an effort to provide support to law enforcement and prosecution agencies which develop multi-agency projects to investigate and prosecute drug traffickers and conspirators. The twelve (12) drug task forces in South Dakota comprise about two-thirds of the state's 66 counties.

The target population for the evaluation is multi-jurisdictional task forces in South Dakota. The purpose of evaluating the program is to determine the effectiveness of the task forces in combatting the drug situation in South Dakota.

Because of the complexity in determining the effectiveness of the drug task force program, a number of methodologies will be used to assess the viability of the drug task forces:

- (1) **Program Monitoring.** The following program monitoring criteria or performance indicators will be used to see if the programs are accomplishing their stated goals: number of criminal subjects identified, number of instances of interagency information exchange, number of criminal activities under investigation by type, number of subjects charged, number of arrests by drug type, number of arrests by demographic characteristics, amount and type of drugs seized, amount and types of assets seized, convictions by drug category, sentences by drug category, amount of fines and restitution ordered by court, and amount of federal and non-federal expenditures.
- (2) **Qualitative Description of Projects.** A questionnaire has been developed to help provide the means for project personnel to indicate their perceptions of how the task forces are performing. The answers provided by project personnel will be used to help guide discussions during face-to-face interviews with peer reviewers. These

qualitative measures will allow project directors and State Program Office personnel to obtain a better "picture" of the task forces. Some of the questions which will be answered include: What problems have been encountered which need to be reported? What are some of the achievements of the project which cannot be quantified? Has there been a change in the program which needs to be reported? Are there some uncontrolled factors which are influencing the outcome of the project? What are these factors and how can they be ameliorated? Have there been personnel changes which have influenced the project? What are these changes? Have some agencies been more or less cooperative than anticipated? How has this influenced the project?

- (3) **Before and After Studies: Single Group Design.** A baseline of information on arrests, convictions, sentences, and sentence lengths has been obtained for each county which has a task force. The baseline information is for the year prior to the inception of the task force. The baseline data will be compared with the data collected after one year of operation.
- (4) **Statistically Controlled Studies.** Information is available on arrests, convictions, and sentences from counties which have and do not have task forces. Once sufficient data points have been collected, comparison of rates of task force with non-task force counties will be conducted, after controlling for initial baseline rates such as yearly rates, population, and demographic factors.
- (5) **Time-Series Analysis Studies.** As additional data are collected, time-series analyses will be conducted to examine arrest, conviction, and sentencing trends over time.
- (6) **Qualitative Assessment by Prisoners.** Perceptions of inmates who have been incarcerated in the State Penitentiary system concerning the drug situation in general and task forces and law enforcement efforts in particular will be obtained by questionnaires and face-to-face interviews.

It is expected that the efforts of task forces will result in the increase in arrests, convictions, and

sentences. Additionally, it is assumed that task forces will report accomplishments and problems encountered as they strive to integrate and coordinate various law enforcement units into a cohesive and effective drug program.

The results of the multifaceted evaluation design will be used by the Attorney General's Office, the South Dakota Task Force on Drugs, the State Program Office, and the multi-jurisdictional drug task forces to make decisions about funding, program development, program direction, and related topics.

DRUG TREATMENT PROGRAMS

TREATING DRUG-INVOLVED OFFENDERS: INSTITUTIONAL SETTINGS

The Technical Assistance to Corrections Agencies

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The Technical Assistance to Corrections Agencies (TACA) program provides on-site technical assistance to state, local, and community corrections agencies to assist them with implementing drug detention, treatment, and rehabilitation programs. This drug abuse-related technical assistance is provided by one of three methods: an evaluation of the requesting agency (invited review), a training workshop, or a regional seminar. The Bureau of Justice Assistance (BJA) administers the TACA program through the state and local Narcotics Control Assistance Program, a formula grant program created to implement the mandates of the Anti-Drug Abuse Act of 1986.

Since 1987, Corrections Research Institute (CRI) has performed the technical assistance functions of the TACA program. As of April 30, 1990, CRI had successfully completed sixty-seven (67) technical assistance projects: thirty-six (36) invited reviews, twenty-six (26) training workshops, and five (5) regional seminars.

Technical assistance provided to corrections agencies focuses on drug abusing offenders or agency staff providing services to drug abusing offenders. The program assists and encourages agencies to enhance or improve their current drug treatment programming, provides specialized training for their agency personnel, and augments their correctional programming relating to drug abusing or drug trafficking offenders.

In many cases, agency staff devote resources to managing their programs and do not have time to evaluate them professionally and optimize their effectiveness. Also, many agencies need the perspective of an outside professional to substantiate their requests for needed improvements to their system, such as programs, facilities, staff, or agency coordination.

While performing an agency evaluation, a CRI staff member or other qualified representative assesses a system's needs, strengths, and weaknesses. CRI generates a report to the agency that includes findings and recommendations. CRI's primary goal is to dispense effective methodologies and proven,

progressive means to assist the agency with its drug abuse-related activities.

When conducting a training workshop, CRI staff and consultants utilize extensive presentation experience to impart comprehensive, up-to-date knowledge of the workshop theme. Some of the topics that have been presented are: drug detection, substance abuse identification and intervention, follow-up treatment, maintenance of confidentiality, role conflicts, drug testing, AIDS management, resource development, and search and seizure procedures.

When providing regional seminars, CRI focuses on topical information needed by agencies dealing with drug abuse-related issues, problems, and goals. Seminar themes include correctional casework, treatment and control of drugs in correctional facilities, and community supervision.

In the two and one-half years that CRI has performed invited reviews and provided reports, several findings and recommendations have often recurred. A brief listing of findings and recommendations follows.

CRI has recommended that substance abuse treatment programming be given a higher priority within many agencies. Often, adequate resources are lacking, as are a coordinated, comprehensive treatment model, sufficient community-based drug treatment, and culturally appropriate treatment programming. In these cases, the reports have recommended that these situations be corrected or improved, and have offered methods for improvement.

Based on specific findings, recommendations have often been made for improved aftercare programming, diagnostic and referral services, timely availability of pre-sentence investigations, and entry drug screening. It has been found that agencies have not developed a level of coordination, cooperation, and reciprocity that contributes to improved management of drug-abusing or drug-trafficking offenders or staff.

The need for employee substance-abuse training, and if necessary, treatment, has often been addressed, along with improved or expanded drug testing. It has been found in some agencies that staff employed in services such as parole and probation do not perceive themselves as having any input into substance abuse program development when they should be a part of planning and development. When applicable,

intensive supervision has been recommended to make substance abuse prevention programs more effective.

Establishment of clear, consistent policy statements regarding programming priorities have also been recommended. To facilitate this, it has sometimes been recommended that agencies create a position of Substance Abuse Coordinator and/or a Substance Abuse Advisory Panel to develop specific short-and long-term recommendations for strategic development and implementation of a unified, jurisdiction-wide approach to substance abuse issues. When applicable, it has been recommended that agencies develop a coordinated, unified, and knowledgeable systemwide policy regarding drug abuse issues.

Many system improvements that have been recommended in the course of the thirty-six (36) invited reviews have been adopted. For example, agencies reviewed in Hawaii and California later applied for BJA's Project Reform Grant, as the TACA final report recommended; they subsequently received the grant. In another illustration, TACA recommendations resulted in a state grant award to a Colorado detention center to facilitate recommended substance abuse programming.

A review of the other project reports reveals a pattern of recommendations leading to programmatic and systemic improvements. For example, a California Sheriff's Department implemented an innovative program with funding from the Superintendent of Education. Commissioners in Oregon made a crucial decision regarding the development of their substance abuse program, and provided their county with a viable and cost-efficient system. Rhode Island has also used TACA recommendations extensively to improve its substance abuse treatment delivery system. These findings indicate that almost every state assisted by TACA has implemented TACA recommendations to improve its substance abuse programming.

Hillsborough County Sheriff's Office In-Jail Substance Abuse Program

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The recent drug abuse epidemic has had a significant impact on jail and prison populations.

These have grown enormously as a result of an influx of incarcerated inmates arrested for drug-related offenses. The U.S. Department of Justice, Bureau of Justice Assistance, responded to the problem of drug dependency among jail inmates by providing funding in 1987 for three model demonstration in-jail drug treatment programs: Hillsborough County (Tampa), Florida, Pima County (Tucson), Arizona, and Cook County (Chicago), Illinois. Goals of the demonstration projects were to develop innovative drug treatment strategies, evaluation of the effectiveness of in-jail treatment and dissemination of information regarding program implementation, treatment approaches, and evaluation results. Soon after receiving a grant to develop the demonstration project in Tampa, the Hillsborough County Sheriff's Office contracted with the Florida Mental Health Institute to design a treatment program and provide evaluation of the program. The following summary describes the evaluation methodology and preliminary results from the Hillsborough County Sheriff's Office In-Jail Substance Abuse Program.

The drug treatment unit at the Hillsborough County Jail is housed in a medium security facility in a jail system of over 2,000 inmates. The program provides treatment for up to 70 offenders, including 48 males, and 22 females. Male participants are housed in a direct supervision dormitory which is separated from the general inmate population. Female participants are housed in one of two additional direct supervision units. A five-week treatment program was designed to meet the needs of pre-trial inmates, comprising approximately 85% of the jail population. The program has since been expanded to include sentenced inmates, who are able to remain in the program following completion of the five-week 'core.' Treatment consists of comprehensive assessment; educational and vocational interventions; development of drug coping skills, including relapse prevention techniques; and linkage with the courts and community treatment facilities. Treatment interventions combine elements of behavioral skill training, cognitive self-management strategies and lifestyle change; all designed to enhance self-control and maintenance of drug-free habits following release from jail. Inmates work with a TASC (Treatment Alternatives to Street Crime) counselor to prepare for after care placement in the community.

Evaluation of the effectiveness of in-jail drug treatment examines the following areas: (1)

Characteristics of inmates in the program. This information is useful in determining specific treatment needs of the inmate population, and in identifying offenders who are most likely to succeed or fail in drug treatment. (2) Progress made during the course of treatment. This evaluation activity examines changes in behavior, motivation, and knowledge of key treatment concepts during the program. (3) Community adjustment of program participants following release from jail. Evaluation activities here focus on criminal behavior and drug use following release from jail.

Evaluations measures made at intake to the program include information on sociodemographic characteristics, education, vocational training, employment history, patterns of substance abuse, problems related to substance abuse, treatment history, and previous criminal history. Additional clinical assessment is conducted to evaluate alcohol and drug dependency, psychiatric impairment or disorder, health status, social and cognitive functioning, motivation to participate in treatment and coping skills to manage high risk situations for drug relapse. Specific instruments used to evaluate psychosocial functioning include the Addiction Severity Index (ASI). The Cocaine Abuse Assessment Profile (CAAP) provides additional information regarding cocaine abuse and dependency. The Inventory of Drinking Situations (IDS) was adopted for a drug-abusing population, and assists in identification of high risk situations for relapse among program participants. A companion instrument, the Situational Confidence Questionnaire (SCQ) evaluates self-confidence in handling the same high risk situations in the future, The Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI) is used to detect psychopathology that may interfere with treatment.

Several in-treatment measures are administered on a repeated basis over the course of treatment to gauge inmates' progress. These include: (1) a motivational assessment instrument, (2) the Substance Abuse Test, developed to measure acquisition of relapse prevention and other treatment concepts, and (3) the Problem Situation Inventory; a situational competence test designed to assess coping skills in situations that have been found to place drug-dependent individuals at high risk for relapse following release from treatment. Another evaluation instrument is administered at the conclusion of treatment to assess participants' responses to the program.

Post-treatment evaluation measures provide information regarding rearrest, relapse to drug use and psychosocial functioning following release from the in-jail program. Each inmate in the program is tracked for a period of one year following release from jail to determine subsequent criminal activity, including number and type of arrests, convictions, and reincarceration. In addition, follow-up telephone interviews are conducted whenever possible to assess adjustment to the community. The follow-up version of the Addiction Severity Index is re-administered to assess drug use history, employment, family/social functioning, and psychological and health status subsequent to release from jail.

Preliminary evaluation results indicate that program participants demonstrate significant improvement over the course of treatment in abilities to handle high risk situations, including group interactions in which drugs are present, social pressures to use drugs, and situations involving temptation to test personal control over drug use. Inmates also showed marked improvement in knowledge of drug coping skills, relapse prevention principles, and other key aspects of the curriculum. Early results from tracking of program participants indicate that the length of involvement in treatment is inversely related to the likelihood of re-arrest. As an example, in comparing inmates who successfully completed the in-jail program, it was found about half were likely to be re-arrested in the year following release; offenders who were terminated from the program had a much higher arrest rate. Successful completers of the program were arrested less frequently in the follow-up period than in the year prior to incarceration.

Evaluation results indicate that a skills-based drug treatment program that includes cognitive-behavioral interventions can provide inmates with important coping skills and knowledge related to the recovery process and may hold promise for reducing re-arrest following incarceration. Further evaluation is needed to explore the long-term effects of in-jail drug treatment, the specific effects of varying lengths of treatment and after care programs, and predictors of success in jail drug treatment programs.

Addictions Treatment Unit - An Evaluation

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The Addictions Treatment Unit is a highly structured residential program of sixty days' duration. The program accepts male and female voluntary clients who are referred through the Parole Board. The program is based on the "disease" model and the AA/NA Twelve-step program. Some of the techniques and therapeutic tools include: big book study, meditation, group counseling, family focus activities, health and wellness activities, rap sessions, image breakers, journal writing, lectures, films, and individual crisis counseling.

The broad goals of the program are: (1) to provide the South Carolina Department of Corrections (SCDC) with a residential addictions treatment program for inmates with a history of substance abuse; (2) to provide inmates with an intensive, therapeutic experience to break through the denial of the problem caused by his/her addiction and to begin a program of recovery; (3) to prepare the inmate for release and to assist his/her recovery through the coordination of aftercare services provided by local addiction treatment agencies; (4) to enable the SCDC to pilot test this program for evaluation purposes in order that the program be successfully expended through replication in other areas of the state.

Inmates who have demonstrated a history of substance abuse as judged by review of the inmate's record during his parole hearing are the eligible candidates for the program. Inmates deemed eligible are informed that they may choose to be released from the program and return to an institution at any time during the program.

The program evaluation effort provides an assessment of the following: (1) a description of the demographics of the target population; (2) a description of the characteristics of program completers vs. non-completers; (3) an analysis of descriptive differences between highly successful and marginally successful clients; (4) a comparison of recidivism rates with substance abuse contribution relative to a matched parole control group and a matched "maxout" group; and (5) a calculation of the rate of aftercare participation of the treatment group upon release.

The primary purpose of the study is to compare recidivism rates across two control groups: (1) a parole group matched for admission of a substance abuse problem, sex, and violent offense history and released during approximately the same time period, and (2) a "maxout" group matched on the same variables. A matched design was chosen due to the legal, ethical and practical problems in using a random design. Exploratory analysis will also be conducted on completion success vs. recidivism. Lastly, rate of utilization of aftercare services will be calculated.

Due to the limited pool of potential cases for the two control groups, the number of matching variables had to be reduced in order to achieve a reasonable number of matches. Additionally, the matching variables had to be reduced to simple dichotomous (present/absent) variables. At this point of the study, ten (4.4%) treatment cases out of 226 had to be eliminated from the study due to matching problems.

Additionally, the treatment unit does not have control over who is admitted to the unit. Admission is determined by the following three criteria: history of substance abuse as determined by the parole board, parole board approval and voluntary acceptance by the inmate to participate. In order to test for selection bias, the treatment group will be contrasted to the potentially eligible group along the relevant dimensions.

It is expected that the treatment group will have a reduced rate of recidivism, i.e., there will be proportionately fewer treatment group members with an associated substance abuse contribution who return to South Carolina Department of Corrections after one year follow-up. The maxout group is believed to have the highest rate of recidivism. The level of aftercare utilization and level of treatment success is expected to significantly effect the recidivism rate.

If the program demonstrates success it is possible that similar addictions treatment units can be established in other regions in the state. Moreover, if the data demonstrates the usefulness of treatment success in relation to recidivism, more objective criteria could be developed in determining parole releases.

TREATING DRUG-INVOLVED OFFENDERS: ALTERNATIVE SETTINGS

Evaluation -- Substance Abuse Services in Iowa Juvenile Institutions

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The Iowa Department of Human Services (DHS) operates two juvenile institutions for delinquents and children in need of assistance who are under the juvenile court's jurisdiction. For the last several years, DHS has received federal and state grant funds that they use to purchase substance abuse services for the institutions' residents from a private substance abuse agency. This private agency houses counselors at both institutions to deliver a variety of substance abuse services including assessments, individual counseling, personal awareness and support groups, and aftercare preparation. All juveniles admitted to the institutions receive an assessment; additional services are offered based on individual assessment findings and institution (DHS) staff case planning decisions.

For a number of reasons, this grant-funded service program has been considered a unique project since its inception. It is the state's first attempt to provide structured substance abuse services within the state institutions, both of which are populated by children and youth who typically have experienced quite a few prior placements and have been involved in one or more of the state's service systems for lengthy periods of time. Also, this program offers one of the few institutional services not directly provided by institution staff. Furthermore, as a special grant-funded program, it is not subject to the same level of monitoring and reporting requirements as are most publicly-funded substance abuse programs in Iowa. Finally, it has received a relatively large amount of federal and specially appropriated state funds.

For the reasons listed above, the Iowa Governor's Alliance on Substance Abuse (the source of the grant funds awarded to DHS) chose to evaluate this program to: (1) describe the private agency services and the manner in which they are provided at the two state juvenile institutions, (2) describe the juveniles receiving the substance abuse services, (3) assess the impact of this program on clients, institutions, and the state's service systems, and (4) identify areas of program strengths and weaknesses.

The type of evaluation desired for this program is

largely descriptive in nature. As a result, many of the evaluation's activities involve the collecting, analyzing and reporting of primary and secondary data about: (1) the structure and operation of both the private provider's service delivery process and the coordination of this program with the broader institutional programming system; (2) the characteristics of the institutional clients receiving the services; (3) the nature of the services actually received by clients; and, (4) the situation of service recipients upon their release from the institutions.

Primary data collection activities include interviewing a variety of people involved with the program; surveying all institution and private agency staff, the state's juvenile court judges and probation officers, DHS field workers, private substance abuse agencies and others; and reading the involved private agency's client case files. Sources of secondary data include the following automated data bases: DHS's juvenile institution information system, Public Health's substance abuse program management information system, Public Safety's criminal history records, and Adult Corrections' case management data system.

Analysis of the data being collected will include an examination of any post-institutional services or sanctions received by a sample of the program's clients. If possible, some aspects of this sample will be compared to a sample of institutionalized juveniles who did not participate with the private agency but who received similar recommendations for services in their initial assessment.

In addition to the program description/analysis, the evaluation project includes an assessment of the appropriateness of the private agency's treatment modalities and the quality of their delivery. A peer review panel of substance abuse treatment professionals has been recruited to read client assessments, treatment records and progress notes, as well as interview counselors and attend staff meetings. This expert panel will be submitting their own findings as well as offering comments on findings that surface through the evaluation's staff activities.

An evaluation advisory board comprised of representatives from the institution and central office DHS staff, the private agency, juvenile court, the Department of Public Health's Substance Abuse Division, and others was formed to build consensus as to the objectives and

methodology of the evaluation. With input from this group, an additional component was added to the study to help put program/client specific findings into an appropriate perspective. This has included a nation-wide survey of all juvenile institutions to find out what other states are doing to offer substance abuse services within their institutions. It has also led to the collection of statewide data to describe the nature, availability and use of juvenile substance abuse services across Iowa.

The agencies, officials and other individuals involved in the program under evaluation represent a variety of agency-specific, systemic, client-oriented, political, philosophical and economic interests. Such a diversity of concerns requires a fair amount of attention and consideration.

The evaluation design is requiring direct access to the client information from the state's child welfare and public health agencies, juvenile court records, private substance abuse agency files, criminal history files and adult correctional system records. A myriad of state and federal confidentiality laws and policies have been encountered.

The secondary data being used was not originally collected for the type of program evaluation now underway.

While all parties are cooperating and expressing interest in its findings, neither DHS nor the subcontracting private agency -- who together are operating the program -- requested the evaluation.

This evaluation project is expected to conclude in September of 1990. The focus of the final report will include a summary description of program services and clients, an analysis of the opinions of the program as reported by a variety of involved groups of agency staff and system officials, and assessment of the treatment being provided and the organizational structure within which the program operates, and an examination of the post-service situation of a sample of the service population. It will also include a description of other states' institution-based substance abuse programs and of Iowa's juvenile substance abuse service network.

Evaluation of the Intervention Program for Substance Abuses: A Diversionary Program for First Time Drug Possessors

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In December 1989, Montgomery County, Maryland initiated a diversionary program for first time arrestees with minor drug possession charges. The Intervention Program for Substance Abuse (IPSA) began as a pilot program to determine the feasibility of a diversionary program in a climate of public outrage about drug use. The evaluation of the IPSA program has two components. The first is a process evaluation to examine the underlying assumptions of the program. The second is an outcome evaluation to determine the impact of IPSA program on the criminal justice system.

Research results will be available to the local County government and cooperating departments sponsoring the program. For other jurisdictions, IPSA provides another alternative for handling some drug offenders. IPSA, potentially, reinforces deterrence of the first time offender while also providing a mechanism for those offenders with addiction problems to interface with the public health system.

The Montgomery County Department of Correction and Rehabilitation started IPSA as a pilot to assess the underlying assumptions of the program. Funding will be available beginning July, 1990.

The program involves screening at two levels. First, the State's Attorney's Office identifies those offenders who meet the criteria for the program, i.e. first timers, whose case has prosecutorial merits. Eligible offenders are then referred for intake and addiction assessment by the Department of Correction and Rehabilitation. Offenders are placed in two tracks: education for non-abuse users, and treatment for abusers. Successful completion of the program results in the State's Attorney's Officer dropping the drug possession charges.

IPSA requires the offender to: conduct 48 hours of community service; submit to urinalysis bi-weekly; and, pay a program fee of \$95, which can be waived if the offender is indigent. Offenders in the Education Track attend six hours of substance abuse education and two Alcoholics Anonymous or Narcotics Anonymous meetings.

Offenders in the Treatment Track participate in treatment and pay the treatment fees. The program length is 16 weeks.

The IPSA program was modelled after intervention and deterrent efforts to allow the offender to become aware of the consequences of their behavior. The program was designed: (1) to involve offenders in the program shortly after the arrest; (2) to use drug monitoring and intervention techniques to deter offenders from further involvement with the substance abuse; (3) to repay the community through community service; (4) to provide treatment for those who need an impetus to get into treatment; (5) to reduce the burden on the judicial resources (i.e. prosecutors, public defenders, judges, etc.); and, (6) to reduce overtime expenditures for police officers.

A number of concerns were raised about the practicality of offering a diversionary program when offenders typically receive minor sanctions for drug possession charges. Questions concerned: (1) whether offenders would volunteer for a diversionary program without a judicial order; (2) whether the program design was appropriate for the target population; (3) whether the program merely delays entry into the adjudication process due to noncompliance with program requirements, and (4) whether the initiative would impact on the offender's likelihood of further involvement with the criminal justice system.

The quasi-experimental design establishes two comparison groups: offenders volunteering for the program, and offenders, who are eligible, but did not volunteer for the program. Both offenders meet the program eligibility criteria of being a first time offender for drug possession charges. These groups allow an examination of the impact of the program on the following: rearrests after the initial arrest; compliance with either the program or the sentence; and referrals and compliance with treatment. In addition, this comparison group allows for an examination of the need for first time offenders to be legally coerced into addiction treatment and the benefits that can be achieved from participation in an intervention program shortly after arrest.

The research design includes a process evaluation to examine flow in-and-out of the program. Examining the internal workings of the program will identify how the program operates and system features that affect the functioning of the program. The process evaluation will: (1) define

the target population; (2) analyze the intake process of the program; (3) examine trends in offender compliance that could affect the outcome from the program; and, (4) examine how the program functions in the Montgomery County criminal justice system. In the process evaluation, program procedures and components will be assessed to determine the impact of these procedures on the overall goals of the program.

Conceptually, IPSA was designed for first time offenders. The operational definition of "first timers" has been difficult to evolve because it is difficult to identify "first time" offenders. While the program accommodates offenders with varying levels of abuse of substances, program features may suggest that IPSA might be more appropriate for some offenders than others. The evaluation will examine the characteristics of the target population in relation to program performance, and recommend an operationalized definition of the target population for programs such as IPSA.

IPSA was also designed to provide a timely reaction to the arrest event. The program attempts to enroll the offender in the program before the trial date. In order to do so, IPSA has several structural features which may affect the operation of the program. These structural features need to be thoroughly assessed to determine the benefits of providing an intervention shortly after arrest.

The findings from the first three months are promising. Of those arrested, around 37 percent meet the eligibility criteria for the program. Almost all of the offenders screened for the program by the Department of Correction were willing to participate in the program. Preliminary indications are that the majority of offenders in the Education Track are likely to complete the program. About two-thirds of those in the Treatment Track are likely to complete the program. In addition, the County has saved 132 cases from going through the criminal justice system. Police overtime savings alone averaged \$52,000 for the first three months. The expected overtime savings, when the program is fully operational, will be approximately \$400,000.

The program has substantial policy implications. If performance in the program continues, the program suggests that there may be a group of offenders with minor drug charges who can be diverted from the system. The arrest, rather than a court hearing, can potentially be used as the impetus to get the offender into treatment; the

program can be used constructively for the offender--as a motivator to keep the offender in treatment, or as a means to deal with the denial that accompanies the addiction. Legal coercion and judicial resources can be reserved for the more serious offenses.

Another policy implication is the provision of a framework for how the criminal justice and addiction treatment system can work together to deter offenders from the criminal justice system and further substance abuse.

DRUG TESTING PROGRAMS

DRUG TESTING FOR CRIMINAL OFFENDERS

Surveillance and Treatment on Probation (STOP) in Lexington: An Evaluation
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The STOP (Surveillance and Treatment on Probation) Program involves random urine testing and intensive treatment delivered to probationers who have a history of drug abuse and, in many cases, a history of criminal justice system involvement

The purposes of the STOP Program: (1) to reduce drug abuse among probationers through close supervision, random urine testing, and by provision of a phased treatment program; and (2) to reduce criminality among probationers by reducing drug use and abuse.

Stop is a "pilot" program, and involves a collaborative effort between the Courts, the Probation system, the Commonwealth Attorney's office, and the Comprehensive Care Center.

The clients in this program are adults and, for the most part, have multiple problems (i.e., criminal involvement, drug abuse, and various other problems such as unemployment, low education, disorganized and mis-managed family and marital situations, and problems with regard to psychological or psychiatric functioning). It is difficult to treat effectively even one of these problems. When multiple problems are manifest in the same person, any positive changes constitute a victory. Also, attempting to reduce criminality and patterns of drug abuse is extremely difficult among persons for whom both have become part of a lifestyle.

The two main components of STOP are (1) Mandatory random urinalysis and (2) Involvement in treatment programs conducted under the supervision of the Bluegrass Comprehensive Care Center.

In Washington, D.C., all persons arrested are tested for drugs. Among those who had used any drug as revealed by the urinalysis, 21% were rearrested prior to trial. This compares to a rearrest rate of 23% for the STOP clients. Because the STOP clients are probationers, already convicted, this rate is considerably lower than anticipated.

Why does STOP work?

1. Clients in STOP experience a sense of trust and rapport with the counselors and the program since some continue to attend treatment even when their status with probation is tenuous.
2. Drug use seems to be reduced among STOP clients and progress in treatment occurs for relatively large proportions of STOP clients.
3. The STOP clients are at "high risk" for recidivism. The percentage of clients who have been rearrested is lower than might be expected given the existing research on this issue.

The overall goal of STOP is to reduce drug abuse and thus to reduce the probability of criminal involvement within this high risk group of probationers. From the available data, it is safe to conclude that the STOP program meets its goals. STOP affords probationers an opportunity to change self-defeating patterns of behavior and thinking. For the probationer motivated to make these positive changes, STOP provides an environment conducive to progress.

It is essential that STOP be continued. There is growing recognition that "demand reduction" programs, particularly those targeted at "high risk" groups, offer the best hope of reducing drug abuse and its associated problems of criminality and other deviant behaviors. STOP is an essential element in the menu of demand reduction programs in Lexington-Fayette County.

Second, it is important to recognize that STOP is an unusual and possibly unique program for dealing with the crime-drug connection among probationers. We need to understand how to intervene effectively with this group. STOP could be a "model" for accomplishing the goal of breaking the crime-drug connection among probationers.

Third, a key element in the STOP program is the Structured Addiction Program (SAP). This evaluation does not deal directly with this treatment package nor its impact on progress and success of STOP clients. It is important to focus on the treatment aspects of STOP and to begin to determine the efficacy of various elements of the treatment regimen.

Fourth, STOP is only one element in a comprehensive approach to reduce the levels of drug abuse and criminality in a high risk group. It is important to identify and examine ways to improve inter-organizational communication and data collection that is "case specific" so that even greater reductions can occur in criminality and drug abuse among probationers.

Drug Testing Technology/Focused Offender Disposition Program

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The Drug Testing Technology/Focused Offender Disposition (or DTT/FOD) Program is designed to examine two questions regarding drug users in the criminal justice system. One question examines the use of urinalysis monitoring as a deterrent to subsequent drug use, asking whether urinalysis monitoring alone is as successful as when urinalysis monitoring is combined with some standard treatment modality. The second question surrounds the utility of client assessment instruments in appropriately determining the level of treatment and/or supervision needed by criminal offenders with a history of drug use. To address these questions, the Bureau of Justice Assistance funded the National Association of State Alcohol and Drug Abuse Directors (NASADAD) to establish the DTT/FOD programs in both Birmingham, Alabama and Phoenix, Arizona.

At each site, probationers with a recent history of drug use are screened with one of two risk assessment instruments -- either the objective, standardized Offender Profile Index used in both sites or a more subjective, local assessment instrument. Regardless of which assessment instrument is used, offenders are then randomly assigned to one of two groups. One-half of all offenders are assigned to a program of random urinalysis monitoring, regardless of the risk assessment scores. The other half are assigned to one of five available intervention options on the basis of the instruments' risk assessment scores: (1) urinalysis only; (2) outpatient care with urinalysis; (3) intensive outpatient care with urinalysis; (4) short-term residential care; and (5) long-term residential care. Individuals may be moved among these five modes based on their success at the mode to which they are assigned initially.

The evaluation strategy takes advantage of this

quasi-experimental design in the operation of the DTT/FOD program. The utility of the risk assessment instruments is assessed by (1) a direct comparison of scores for the same individual on both instruments for a sample of offenders at each site, (2) the individual's success in completing the prescribed treatment modality, and (3) the relationship between assessment score and outcome among those individual's randomly assigned to urinalysis.

The relative effects of urinalysis monitoring alone versus urinalysis monitoring combined with some treatment-based intervention are measured in terms of success on probation. Moreover, the possible treatment modes are conceptualized as degrees of "penetration into the program," thereby allowing analyses of patterns of movement among modes and the relative success of each mode. Outcome measures include technical violations, re-arrest for new criminal offenses, and drug-free days.

The evaluation findings will contribute to the growing literature regarding both the predictive utility of risk assessment instruments and the strategies for the treatment/supervision/control of drug using offenders. The results also will be of great interest to criminal justice practitioners and decisionmakers who are seeking alternative techniques for dealing with the growing number of offenders with histories of drug use. The evaluation is designed to provide useable information regarding both general program success and specific areas of success in designated treatment modes).

PROSECUTING DRUG CASES

MANAGING AND PROSECUTING DRUG CASES

The Evaluation of the Drug Prosecution Component in Arizona

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The Arizona Criminal Justice Commission is the single state agency responsible for awarding and evaluating Federal Drug Enforcement Grants in Arizona. As a result, it monitors drug enforcement task forces at both the state and local levels; drug analyses in forensic labs throughout the state; efforts at prosecution of county and state drug cases; and the adjudication of drug cases in the courts. Of these, the prosecution of county and state drug cases was perhaps the most difficult to define so that meaningful monitoring and evaluation instruments could be developed. This presentation will focus on the process used by the Commission in determining what measures were appropriate, and available, for evaluating the process and outcome of prosecutorial efforts.

Drug enforcement grants to prosecutorial agencies in the state of Arizona were first awarded in the spring of 1988. Ten of the fifteen county attorneys, one city attorney, and the Arizona Attorney General's office were awarded grants in various amounts to provide support to the law enforcement efforts against drug crimes. When these contracts were awarded, each drug enforcement task force had available to them prosecutors designated solely to handle drug cases. In addition the Attorney General's office grant provided expertise in the area of forfeiture. The county attorneys and Attorney General for Arizona are elected positions which causes diversity in the way the offices operate within the state. This diversity coupled with the relative availability of easily accessible data were the most formidable obstacles in determining a measurement of success for the grants.

The purposes in evaluating the prosecutorial programs were to insure that the money obtained by the grantees was spent appropriately and that the programs had some impact on the problem. The overall problem was to insure that those arrested for illegal drug activities were prosecuted to the fullest extent possible. In addition, this activity was expected to deter future activities or effect a reduction in drug activities.

The method chosen to evaluate the prosecution programs was the most ambitious of those used

for drug grantees. To get enough information to adequately identify the accomplishments of various prosecution offices, a record of every case and its outcome would be necessary. Therefore, the following activities were proposed:

- (1) Visit each grantee on-site. This allowed not only an on-site inspection but also an opportunity to informally discuss problems or solutions to problems that may be helpful for others.
- (2) Require monthly financial reports which ensure that the spending of grant monies is done according to contract.
- (3) Require monthly reporting of case loads and what was done with the cases. This is summary data showing workload and dispositions.
- (4) Require monthly reporting of forfeiture cases. This is done separately because there is no defendant. These cases are civil proceedings against property.
- (5) Require a monthly form for every drug case that was disposed of during the month regardless of the disposition. This is an offender based system that includes every drug case that is given to the attorney's office for prosecution. Reporting is required whether the case is accepted, declined for prosecution, or diverted to treatment.

This set of activities allows us to examine how cases are handled by the attorney's offices, what outcomes cases are receiving from adjudication, the workload level of the drug prosecutors, and how well the drug prosecutors are meeting their goals.

The other option considered in the development of our methodology was simply a summary report received quarterly from the attorneys that documented cases tried and received. This method was most strongly recommended by the attorneys because it utilized the statistics that were presently being kept. Project staff felt that this approach would not permit the identification of the nature of the caseload or the trends in handling cases. By gathering information on each case, similar cases can be examined for trends in sentencing.

Selection of the data elements required lengthy discussion. One of the principal questions when dealing with this kind of data is how detailed should this data be. Each case coming to an attorney for prosecution may have multiple defendants, multiple charges, and contain several different types of crimes, etc. If not gathered properly, this information can become an unmanageable collection of data that would never be useful. The Commission decided to focus on offenders rather than cases. Each offender is classified by their most serious drug charge and the principal drug involved in this charge. The seriousness of the charge was defined as the charge with the greatest potential penalty. In addition, reporting of disposition information is required whether it is declined or filed. In the interest of keeping this data set manageable, a number of capabilities were not included in the system. We cannot identify an offender that comes through the system more than once. We do not record charges other than the principal drug charge even if there are more serious charges. For example, if a defendant was charged with manslaughter along with distribution of a dangerous drug, the only recorded charge would be the dangerous drug charge and the sentence that was given for conviction of that crime. In forfeiture cases, we gather only the number of certain types of assets forfeited and their approximate value. We often find the actual value of the forfeited item is far less than that estimated by the agency that seized it.

This information is used to create measures for evaluating a prosecution grantee. The measures used include: the number of referrals received, the ratio of the number and percent of convictions to referrals, the grant dollar cost per conviction, the number of violators sent to prison and percent of these to convictions, the number of offenders granted parole with the same percent calculation, value of forfeitures, value of forfeitures as a percent of the grant amount, case load per attorney, outcome of pleas bargains including those sent to prison, given jail and probation, given jail, probation, and fine, given probation and fine only, given probation and community service, given probation only, and given community service and fine only. Other outcome measures include the number of cases pending, the total number of convictions, convictions plead to felony, convictions plead to misdemeanor, and convictions resulting in trial cases, the number of prosecutions deferred to treatment, the number of cases declined prosecution, the number dismissed and the number acquitted.

These measures, combined with the on-site recommendations, go to the committees charged with making decisions about continued funding. In addition, they are used to monitor progress on a quarterly basis to determine if the effort is sufficient to accomplish the objectives described in the grant proposals. Indicators from this data are used to advise the legislature on potential changes that might improve the program's effectiveness. Finally, it is also used as justification for continued program funding.

Planning Assistance to the Connecticut Drug Prosecution Program

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Effective October 1, 1987, the Connecticut Division of Criminal Justice (SPA) provided funding through the Federal Anti-Drug Abuse Act of 1986 to the Chief State's Attorney of Connecticut to establish prosecution units in the five busiest metropolitan areas in the state. The funding was used to undertake a vertical prosecution strategy for serious drug cases. The purpose of the project is to provide additional prosecutorial resources in the designated offices so that an experienced prosecutor can concentrate on the most serious drug cases.

In August 1987, the Chief State's Attorney requested assistance from BJA's Adjudication Technical Assistance Project at the EMT Group, Inc. to provide information on similar programs in other jurisdictions in advance of program implementation, and to provide guidance regarding program operations once the program was implemented. Initial discussions, however, indicated that local officials felt it desirable to have the program fully staffed and operational before utilizing any on-site technical assistance and, therefore, requested that a technical assistance study be deferred until some program experience had been derived. Evaluation of the site study was therefore scheduled for June, 1988, when the program had a number of months of operational history. The objectives of the site study were to review the reporting requirements of the program as well as its overall operation and the degree to which it was achieving its potential.

One hundred seventy (170) prosecutors located throughout the State in twelve Judicial Districts under the Chief State's Attorney's Office, handle over 4,500 serious felonies, 130,000 minor felonies and misdemeanor cases, and 530,000

motor vehicle cases per year. This case load has developed a legal culture of "moving business," wherein many matters which deserve serious attention can only be summarily processed through the system.

Prior to the on-site project work, the consultants held telephone conferences and reviewed the existing reporting forms. The existing forms were compared to forms in use in the consultants' offices and research was done regarding upgrading data collection through other available computer software. Reporting requirements in the three jurisdictions were compared.

The objectives of this drug program are: (1) to utilize experienced prosecutors to specialize in serious drug cases; (2) to maintain limited case loads so greater attention could be given to each file; (3) to adopt uniform pre-selected criteria for established case priorities; (4) to reduce time delays between court events for drug cases; (5) to adopt "vertical prosecution" for serious drug cases; (6) to strictly adhere to plea bargaining guidelines; and, (7) to improve communication and cooperation between the drug prosecutor and State and local law enforcement units within the jurisdiction.

Minimum standards were adopted by the Chief State's Attorney's Office governing drug cases to be designated to the prosecutor taken for the prosecution by the Assistant State's Attorney. These standards are:

1. The drug prosecutor will take provable cases involving the sale of crack, cocaine, or heroin to undercover police officers;
2. The drug prosecutor will take all cases falling within the perimeters of P.A. 87-373, sections 1-4. An Act Concerning the Penalties for the Sale or Possession of Controlled Substances.
3. The drug prosecutor will take provable cases involving possession with intent to sell or distribute crack, cocaine, and heroin.
4. The drug prosecutor will take all cases involving the sale of any type of drugs to an undercover police officer by a person with a prior conviction for the sale of any type of drug, and prosecute said person as a subsequent offender.

The drug prosecution units were expected to

achieve and report the following results:

1. increased police/prosecution cooperation and contact;
2. reduction in the loss of cases through dismissals and nolle; and,
3. recommendation by the prosecution for longer sentences or recommendation of enhanced sentences for repeat offenders by adoption of statewide standards for the prosecution of drug cases.

Evaluation of Programs for the Expedited Management of Drug Cases

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In July 1988, The Bureau of Justice Assistance (BJA) funded 5 jurisdictions to demonstrate how the concept of differentiated case management (DCM) could be applied in the courts to produce timely adjudications in drug cases. DCM is basically a court-controlled case management system which relies on early case review, an open file policy, and communications between the parties to achieve timely adjudications. It integrates many concepts inherent in other successful programs such as career criminal, court delay reduction, and court improvement into a single process which expedites cases. Based on early case screening and review by the prosecutor and defense counsel, cases are assigned to one of three processing tracks (the number varying by jurisdiction) which range from expedited processing to routine. The criteria used for assigning cases to tracks are set by the jurisdictions but basically depend on the seriousness, complexity, and priority for prosecution. Simple possession cases, for example, require significantly fewer court resources than complex drug trafficking cases which may be subject to lengthy preliminary hearings, many pretrial motions, and eventually result in jury trials.

The expedited management of drug cases (EDCM) is different from DCM even though it employs similar strategies to produce timely adjudications. EDCM deals with a smaller universe, i.e., a subset of the total caseload in the courts (drug offenses), but it extends the reach of DCM beyond court management into related agencies and programs which may or may not be a part of the formal criminal justice system.

Much like repeat offender programs, evaluating these programs requires an internal examination of the programs' operations and procedures, and an examination of the linkages the program has with other interacting agencies or programs.

The three jurisdictions, Philadelphia, PA, New Brunswick, NJ, and Marion County (Indianapolis), IN, each designed different EDCM programs which shared a common goal, the efficient disposition of drug cases.

The target populations are the courts, court administrators, prosecutors, and defense counsel within local jurisdictions. The evaluation focuses on the three jurisdictions. The purpose of this evaluation is to: (1) test the validity of the assumptions implicit in the programs; (2) determine program effectiveness or the ability of the programs' operations and administration to achieve the goals of the program; and (3) assess the ultimate impact and value of the program to the criminal justice system.

The methodologies employed rely on both qualitative and quantitative techniques. Qualitatively, the techniques that will be used include policy analysis and management and organization appraisals.

Quantitatively, the evaluation will use time series analysis with a longitudinal panel to identify critical areas producing delays in processing times. This technique also supports markov chain and queuing analysis, which is an extension of the markov process. The markov chain analysis does not assume linearity of events but rather the independence of the events which can be linear or parallel.

Cross-sectional analysis and sampling at each process step were rejected as a quantitative technique to reduce costs of sampling and to increase the value of information available for the analysis by pointing to the critical factors associated with delay.

A key problem with utilizing cross-sectional analysis is that information collected will not contain enough data observations so that sufficient degrees of freedom are available to estimate relationships. Also, assumptions about additivity from one process step to another have to be made without knowing the distribution of cases. Cross-sectional analysis effectively measures input and output, but it does not link the independent variables to the dependent variables of time and outcome.

Primary outcome variables are the types of dispositions and the dispositional routes. The process variables relate to time, and include time from arrest to charging, to each process step, and to disposition. Independent variables include case characteristics, as well as processing or transaction data including track assigned, criminal justice resources, community treatment programs, and post conviction activities.

Two areas presented problems to the evaluators. The first stemmed from the fact that all three programs were starting up simultaneously with the start of the evaluation. Changes in program scope, direction and procedures were inevitable and were recorded but they introduced effects that were not necessarily measurable to the evaluation since the programs were not fully operational.

The second problem was created by the untimely cut-off in funds that occurred when the program was discontinued by BJA. This program was designed to be developed in increments, and with the termination of funds, the jurisdictions were left in various stages of development.

The preliminary findings from the evaluation support the value of these programs, and the willingness of the program directors to continue despite the absence of funding is a good indication of its value. However, the early termination has reduced the programs' abilities to fully explore their potential and value.

The value of these programs lies in their ability to demonstrate to other jurisdictions, first, that they can work; and secondly, the procedures that make them work. This is the information and findings that will be documented in the final report. The anticipated audience is jurisdictions interested in adopting and implementing similar programs. Thus, the report will be a "best practices" report supplemented by the data analysis to show the different effects achieved by the programs.

PROCESSED
SERIALS

DRUG EDUCATION PROGRAMS

DRUG ABUSE EDUCATION PROGRAMS

Longitudinal Evaluation of the Virginia Drug Abuse Resistance Education (DARE) Program

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The Institute for Research in Justice and Risk Administration (IRJRA) at Virginia Commonwealth University was contracted to conduct a longitudinal assessment of the Virginia Drug Abuse Resistance Education (DARE) program. The DARE program targets elementary and junior high school students with a semester long curriculum designed to increase drug knowledge, develop skills for resisting drugs, strengthen assertiveness skills, and increase self-esteem. The underlying assumption is that by achieving these educational outcomes among "pre-drug" children, there will be both short and long-term cognitive and affective changes that will translate into decreased drug and alcohol involvement.

During the 1989/90 school year DARE was implemented at the 5th and 6th grade levels in over 90 percent of Virginia's public school divisions.

The IRJRA evaluation plan is designed to respond to, over time, two important evaluation questions: (1) Is DARE effective in modifying the emergence or development of drug abusive behaviors among youths who complete the curriculum? and (2) What subpopulations of adolescents are at greatest risk of alcohol and drug involvement?

A post-test only cohort design with predicted high-order interactions was selected to guide the study. According to Cook and Campbell (1979), this design does provide reasonable control of major threats to study validity and generalizability. A sample of students was randomly identified by classroom from among all the 5th and 6th grade public school students selected to complete DARE during the Spring 1988 semester. This group represents the treatment cohort. A similar sample of students was selected randomly by classroom from the next higher grade-level in each district to form the control sample. The two cohorts which collectively totaled 1400 youth were drawn from a demographically representative list of 10 public school divisions to maintain external validity. IRJRA researchers believe that the use of the

cohort design, combined with the random selection of classrooms within each cohort, provides reasonable support for the assumption that the two groups differ only in very minor ways -- and that quasi-comparability may be assumed. The differential effects of history, or what was going on in the social and cultural environments of the two (one-year-apart) cohorts is viewed as the major threat to internal validity. Since this society, from educators to law enforcement agencies and the media, right up the Office of the President, has declared a "war" on drugs, it is hard for any research study to completely control for the effects and interactions introduced by "other" events occurring within the subjects' environments. Accordingly, it may not be possible in this study to sort out the effects on adolescent drug associated behaviors of the recent national media campaign designed around the slogan "Just Say No"; nor that introduced by regional or local events that may uniquely or disproportionately affect an isolated cohort.

This research is guided by the behavioral determinants paradigm, a model developed by the researchers to integrate internal, external, and demographic factors and conditions to explain the emergence of adolescent drug experimentation and use (see McDonald and Towberman, 1989; Towberman, McDonald, Hague, Barrett, 1988).

Data are collected through the administration of the Youth Life-Styles Inventory (YLSI). The YLSI is a seventeen page survey instrument, printed in booklet form, which is administered in combination with a specially printed computer scan coding sheet. The YLSI was especially designed to measure the several affective and cognitive and behavioral outcomes targeted by the DARE curriculum. It is divided into six parts.

Part A records such sociodemographic variables as the respondent's age, sex, race, community environment, home environment, parental educational levels, grade point average, and attitude toward school. Data supporting these variables are necessary to support the identification of "high risk" youth subpopulations.

Part B of the YLSI measures the student's opinions and attitudes about alcohol and drug use. This section also evaluates the student's perception of attitudes held by parents and friends regarding the use of alcohol and drugs, as well as their own personal attitudes. Statements are rated by the respondent using a dichotomous

(True/False) forced choice format. Sample statements include: "I don't like being around people who use drugs," "My parents would disapprove of young people using alcohol," and "My friends look down upon alcohol use." The attitude scale was factor analyzed to identify and strengthen its fundamental measurement properties. Six unities, or attitude subscales, were identified; including peer attitude, alcohol resistance attitude, drug resistant attitude, image enhancement attitude, parent attitude, and impact of substance on performance belief.

Part C presents respondents with a series of statements and asks that they indicate their level of agreement (strongly disagree, disagree some, neither agree or disagree, agree some, strongly agree). Sample statements from the scale include: "I feel I do not have much to be proud of," "I believe a person can control what happens to him or her -- most of the time," and "I often feel left out of things." Part C was also factor analyzed to document the fundamental components embedded within the YLSI self-concept scale. Five unities were identified and labeled negative esteem, positive esteem, bonding, empowerment, and leadership.

Part D of the YLSI measures cognitive knowledge about drug and alcohol use. The questions in this section were designed from objective information extracted from the DARE curriculum. Questions use a forced choice, True/False format. Sample questions include: "Almost half of the students your age use drugs like marijuana and alcohol"; "It's okay to smoke cigarettes if you don't inhale"; "It is safe to take a medicine that a doctor prescribes for someone else."

Part E measures the respondent's self-use of various drugs and alcohol and cigarettes. Part F is basically a replication of Part E, but measures the types and levels of drugs perceived to be used by the respondent's closest friends. Many of the questions in both sections are patterned after the research instrument developed by the University of Michigan's Institute for Social Research to gather nationwide data on drug and alcohol use among high school students (see Monitoring the Future: A Continuing Study of Lifestyles and Values of Youth; ongoing). This compatibility of formats between Sections E and F of the YLSI and the Michigan instrument may enable researchers to compare Virginia DARE evaluation results with those obtained through the larger nationwide study. Questions in this section follow a forced choice format, with the following

response options: Never Used, Used Once or Twice, Used a Few Times a Month, Used a Few Times a Week, Used Daily. Responses are bounded by asking youths to report the frequency of use for twelve categories of drug for the prior 12 month period. The categories of drug include cigarettes, alcohol, marijuana, hallucinogens, heroin, cocaine, inhalants, amphetamines, quaaludes, barbiturates, tranquilizers, and "other" narcotics. Each category of drug is further explained by giving "slang names" and by listing other drugs in that category, e.g. Hallucinogens or Psychedelics (LSD, PCP, Angel Dust, Mescalene, Peyote).

Significant problems encountered to date have included: (1) the inability to conduct a pretest; (2) the inability to assign a fully equivalent control group; (3) the reliance on self-report data; and (4) the proliferation of "other" drug education activities and messages.

A Baseline Survey of Drug Experimentation and Use Among 5th and 6th Grade Students in the Commonwealth of Virginia (Towberman, McDonald, Hague, Barrett, 1988) reported that only 5% of the 5th and 6th grade students had experimented with more than three categories of drug during the prior twelve month period. The two three categories of drug, reportedly used by Virginia's preadolescents, were alcohol, cigarettes, and inhalants. It can be assumed that if a child has used or experimented with more than three categories of drug, they have moved beyond "typical" experimentation with the socially acceptable drugs (tobacco and alcohol) and are involved with the "illegal" drug use categories (i.e., marijuana, amphetamines, barbiturates, tranquilizers, cocaine, hallucinogens, heroin, and/or other narcotics.). This is not to say that experimentation with alcohol, cigarettes, or inhalants is insignificant. Indeed, any experimentation at this age level is reason for concern. Yet, the vast majority of youth in this age group report no drug involvement -- or experimentation with only one or two categories of drug (the most popular being alcohol and cigarettes). The overall pattern of low drug usage in the illegal drug categories leads to the conclusion that 5th and 6th grade students represent a predominantly pre-drug population. On that basis, the researchers have elsewhere observed that "the DARE educational intervention ... targets a crucial age group" (Towberman, McDonald, Hague, Barrett, 1988;80). While this is good news for those concerned with the proper timing and placement of the intervention, at the 5th and 6th grade

levels within the primary-education curriculum, it also is frustrating to those who seek or demand an immediate answer to the question, "Does DARE work?" Because drug involvement is a developmental process that only begins, for most students, "after" age 12, advancement of the "program impact" question at this juncture is seriously premature. Evidence for this conclusion can be found in the "floor effects" observed in the baseline self-report drug use data. If DARE works, then it is logical to assume that differences in the rate of drug use between DARE (treatment) and non-DARE (control) youth will not surface until after several years of differential maturation have elapsed. An assessment of curriculum induced differences between DARE and non-DARE groups that might logically be detected at this early stage (i.e., affective dimensions of drug attitudes, development of drug resistant skills, increased drug knowledge, enhanced self-esteem) is forthcoming.

Results from IRJRA's annual surveys and assessments are submitted to the Virginia DARE program administration for consideration and use in making formative and summative program decisions.

Longitudinal Evaluation of the DARE Program 1985-89

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The Drug Abuse Resistance Education project (DARE) was jointly developed in 1983 by the Los Angeles Police Department and the Los Angeles Unified School District. Although DARE has several components, its primary focus is a drug resistance curriculum delivered by uniformed police officers to students in the fifth or sixth grades, and seventh grades. The purpose of the program is to equip students with the information and skills they need to understand and resist peer pressure to experiment with alcohol and drugs. To this end, DARE employs a comprehensive strategy that includes lessons on decision-making, self-esteem, resistance skills, and positive alternatives to drug use. The semester-long program includes 17 weekly lessons at the elementary school level and nine lessons at the junior high level, including a bilingual program in Spanish. In Los Angeles, all elementary and junior high schools located within LAPD jurisdiction currently receive the DARE program.

The Evaluation and Training Institute (ETI) has been involved in evaluating DARE since the project was piloted in 1984. The first evaluation was process oriented and provided information on the implementation of the project, support for the program from parents and school staff, and the immediate impact of the program on students' knowledge and attitudes regarding drugs and alcohol.

In 1985, the City of Los Angeles contracted with ETI to conduct a four year longitudinal study of the DARE program. This longitudinal study was designed to provide complete information about the effectiveness of the program over time.

The longitudinal evaluation was designed to track and survey experimental and control group students for four years, beginning with a pre-test prior to sixth grade and subsequent post-tests each year from sixth through tenth grades. This design was chosen in order to maximize the long-term validity of the student survey, to control for intervening variables, and to isolate, as much as possible, the impact of the DARE program.

The study sample was comprised of 1,860 sixth grade students scheduled to receive DARE for the first time that year and 1,454 sixth graders at schools that would not receive the DARE program. Since the pilot program was already in place in the Los Angeles Unified School District, it was impossible to randomly assign students to experimental and control groups. Instead, ETI randomly selected 33 elementary schools that were receiving DARE and 22 elementary schools that were not from a sample of over 400 schools stratified by ethnicity, test scores, and socio-economic indicators. All sixth grade students at the sample schools were pre-tested in Fall 1985. Analysis of pre-test data indicated that the experimental and control samples were well matched on demographics, attitudes, self-concept, use of drugs and alcohol, and use by peers, siblings and other adults in the household. Both groups were tracked and surveyed annually from Spring 1986 through Fall 1989.

In 1986, two cohort groups were integrated into the study to augment the original sample and enable analyses of DARE's effectiveness by two additional variables: grade level at which the students received DARE and the number of exposures to the DARE program. Students in the experimental sample received DARE in the seventh grade only. Control students received no DARE.

Since analysis of students' use of substances relied exclusively on self-reported data, ETI conducted an analysis of school records data to identify possible intermediate effects of the DARE program on students' grades, work habits, discipline problems, and attendance. In addition, ETI surveyed teachers, administrators, and counselors, regarding their involvement with DARE, perceptions of DARE's impact on students, positive and negative aspects of DARE, and recommended changes.

ETI focused its data analysis on outcomes. Pre- and post-tests indicated that the DARE curriculum was effective in bringing about learning; parents, teachers, and administrators reported positive behavior changes in students who had participated in the program. Many of these perceptions were confirmed in an analysis of school records data, which showed that 50% of DARE participants improved their grades, work habits, and cooperation marks during the year, compared to only 10% of the control group students.

Shortly after ETI launched its longitudinal study, the police department and school district agreed to expand DARE throughout the Los Angeles Unified School District and provide seventh grade DARE instruction at all junior high schools within LAPD jurisdiction. This resulted in a panel loss from the control group that amounted to two-thirds of the sample. The loss was compounded over the next three years by high attrition and transience rates within the district and the inability of the Los Angeles Unified School District to provide ETI with accurate information about students' whereabouts. During the third year, a random replacement procedure was added to the methodology in order to maintain the integrity of the sample size. By the fourth year, however, less than 200 control students remained from the original sample. In order to report statistically valid findings, ETI combined data from the original and cohort samples for a total control group sample size of 1,066.

Because of the recent proliferation of school based drug prevention programs, almost all school districts currently provide students with some kind of drug education. These range from limited informational models to comprehensive social influence curriculums similar to DARE. In Los Angeles, all schools which do not receive DARE, receive SMART, the program on which DARE is based. The similarities in the programs clearly minimized the differences that

would be found between the experimental and control students. A better control group would be comprised of schools similar in demographics but which offer a traditional or very limited program. Unfortunately, these are increasingly difficult to find.

The population in Los Angeles is highly mobile. Students frequently change schools, move or leave the district. Students often do not follow the predicted feeder patterns from elementary to junior high school to senior high school. In addition, the Los Angeles Unified School District does not have a computerized tracking system to locate students within the system. These circumstances frustrated ETI's efforts to track both the control and experimental panels. ETI initiated a manual search through school records for study subjects, but this effort was time consuming and enabled us to recapture only a small percentage of the sample.

Since ETI initiated its study of DARE, more information has become available about how to increase the validity of self-report data. Although ETI's survey administration methods were designed to ensure student confidentiality, more consideration might have been given to methods for increasing the validity of self-reported drug use, such as including bogus drugs, using a bogus pipeline procedure, using our staff instead of classroom teachers to administer the surveys, comparing aggregated reported peer use to aggregated self-reported use, etc. In its upcoming DARE study, ETI will focus on these issues to a greater extent.

CONFIDENTIAL

SANCTIONS FOR DRUG OFFENDERS

INNOVATIVE SANCTIONS FOR DRUG OFFENDERS

Multi-Site Study of Shock Incarceration

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Shock incarceration (SI), or boot camp prison, is a relatively new type of alternative sanction which is quickly developing a trend in corrections. In January 1990, there were 21 shock incarceration programs in 14 states with over 3,000 inmate participants. Another 11 states were seriously considering initiating programs. This does not take into account the additional programs that are being considered in city and county jurisdictions or those being developed for juveniles.

The surprising increase in the number of programs seems to be a response to several influences. First and foremost is the problem of prison crowding. The argument in favor of these programs is that they are cost-effective methods of reducing crowding. Proponents of these programs also argue that the short-term, demanding and rigorous boot camp nature of the programs will be rehabilitative and deter future criminal behavior.

The specific components of shock incarceration programs vary greatly. However, a similarity among all programs is the highly structured environment modeled after a military boot camp. Offenders are required to participate in drills and physical training. Programs are also similar in that offenders are incarcerated for only a short period of time. Other than this short term incarceration in a boot-camp-type atmosphere, programs differ substantially. Some programs emphasize counseling and education, while in others, the offenders are released. In some cases the offenders are intensively supervised, in others they are placed on standard parole.

One problem that has arisen in regard to these programs is that little is known about how effective they are in fulfilling their goals. Early anecdotal information suggested that some programs were very effective in reducing recidivism or in reducing prison crowding. However, there was little in the way of empirical data from which to draw conclusions.

There has been some recent work examining shock incarceration. Parent (1989) described the programs and discussed pertinent issues in a National Institute of Justice (NIJ) publication

Shock Incarceration: An Overview of Existing Programs and some preliminary results are available from our study of shock incarceration in Louisiana (MacKenzie et al, 1990; MacKenzie and Shaw, 1990). However, as we examined shock programs we found that they varied greatly. Results from any one program are difficult to generalize to other programs that differed in crucial aspects.

Many of the states that use shock incarceration programs had staff assigned to research and evaluation activities. Yet, budget restrictions and other difficulties prohibited them from completing formal evaluations of their programs. This research project was designed to facilitate the work of the individuals already located at the site of shock incarceration programs. The goal of the research was to obtain information on programs with different characteristics and to compare this information across states.

The two major questions of this research are: (1) Is shock incarceration successful in fulfilling its goals? and (2) What particular components of shock programs lead to success or failure in fulfilling programs goals?

Evaluating programs in various states will permit us to generalize the findings of success or failure of a program in meeting its goals in one specific location to other locations which may vary in numerous characteristics. Studying various programs will permit an answer to the second question by enabling the researchers to begin to identify the specific components of the SI programs which lead to success or failure.

A survey was sent to all state correctional systems to identify the states that had shock incarceration programs and to learn the similarities and differences among programs. As a result of this information seven states were asked to participate in the study: Georgia, Florida, New York, Oklahoma, Texas, Louisiana and South Carolina. All of these programs were considered by their jurisdictions to be an alternative to a longer term in prison, required offenders to participate in military drills and physical training, separated participants from other prisoners and lasted from three to six months. Most of the offenders in the programs were young, nonviolent offenders serving time on their first felony conviction. Many of the offenders in the programs have substance abuse problems or were serving time on a drug-related

offense.

The selected sites varied on dimensions which might logically be assumed to have a differential potential for fulfilling the goals of shock incarceration such as: (1) who made the decision regarding placement into the program; (2) the type of community supervision the participants were given upon release from the program; (3) the characteristics of the program (e.g., daily activities, voluntary participation); and (4) location (e.g., within a large prison or separate facility).

Differences in these variables were expected to contribute to differences in self-selection effects, costs, deterrence or rehabilitation of offenders.

The participants in the multi-site study have had two conferences to plan and coordinate their research activities. At the first conference representatives from each participating state described the shock program and their evaluation efforts to date. The final design was based upon the model used in the Louisiana evaluation which had four components: (1) a qualitative and descriptive or process analysis involving intensive interviews; (2) an examination of inmate changes and comparisons with offenders receiving different punishments; (3) a system level analysis (e.g., the impact of the program on overcrowding); and (4) an examination of the cost-effectiveness of the programs.

An evaluation will be completed for each program and then the results of these evaluations will be compared and contrasted.

The first step was to complete the process evaluation. The goals of each program were identified and a description of each program was completed. The system level and individual comparisons portions of the study were then designed to examine how well the programs met the identified goals.

At the second meeting of the research team the results of the process evaluation for each state were presented. The inmate comparisons portion of the project was planned and data collection is currently in progress.

Florida Community Control Programs

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The Florida Community Control Program (FCCP) is an intensive supervision/house arrest program implemented by the Florida Department of Corrections (FDOC). It is designed to function as an alternative sanction for offenders who would otherwise receive state prison sentences. The major goals of the program are the reduction of prison crowding, and the provision of a safe, punishment-oriented community alternative to imprisonment.

The target population for FCCP are offenders guilty of "non-forcible" felonies (i.e., those committed without use or threat of force) who would otherwise be placed in prison due to the seriousness of the crime or their criminal history. More than 30% of program participants are drug offenders.

Programs designed to divert offenders from prison have a tendency to be used to impose additional sanctions on offenders who were not prison bound. In an attempt to maximize the program's impact on prison admissions, criteria were integrated into Florida's sentencing guideline act which substituted a community control sentence for prison terms of up to 30 months.

The Florida Community Control Program has received national attention for a number of reasons. Most significantly, it represents the single largest intensive supervision prison diversion program in the nation. Over 50,000 offenders have been placed in Community Control since 1983. In addition, the degree of control exerted over participants is exceptionally high. Caseloads are very small, ranging between 20 and 25 offenders per supervising office, and offenders are typically placed on house arrest when not engaged in approved activity. Since late 1987, some offenders have been electronically monitored. The minimum expectation is that 28 case contacts will be made each month by supervising officers. In addition to routine surveillance, officers perform drug and alcohol screening and encourage offenders to perform community service work, make restitution to victims, and pay the cost of supervision fees.

The evaluation addresses three primary research questions:

1. To what extent does Florida's Community Control Program divert offenders from prison?
2. How has the implementation of Community Control affected Florida's regular probation program?
3. What is the impact of Community Control on offender criminal behavior and correctional program costs?

The evaluation attempts to describe the relationship between the type of sentence an offender receives (i.e., prison or FCCP) and post-sentence criminal behavior while controlling, insofar as possible, for offender characteristics which may vary between the sentence groups. The central question is whether FCCP sentence is an effective alternative to incarceration. In ideal circumstances, offenders would be randomly assigned to different punishments and conclusions about the impact of each sanction would be drawn from a comparison of post-sentence criminal behavior. Because this procedure tends to insure that individuals with reasonably equivalent characteristics are assigned to prison or community control, it increases confidence that difference observed in post-sentence behavior can be attributed to the type of sentence received and not to differences in pre-sentence characteristics such as age, sex, or prior offense history.

While random assignment may be the best scientific/experimental method for testing assumptions about sentence impact, Florida's community control initiative is not an experimental program. It is, in fact, a fully implemented sentencing option that has operated for several years.

Consequently, quasi-experimental techniques must be employed to compare sentencing options. The best research method under the circumstances is one that:

1. Achieves the greatest degree of pre-sentence equivalence among offenders who receive different punishments, and;
2. Standardizes the observation of post-sentence criminal outcomes for subjects in each sentence group.

Our research attempts to control pre-sentence equivalence by "matching" FCCP participants with offenders sentenced to prison and comparing behavior during an 18-month follow-up. The

criteria employed in the matching procedure were offender characteristics most strongly correlated with the critical outcome measure - criminal recidivism. The match variables include age, sex, prior offense history, and current offense.

The methodology relies heavily upon quasi-experimental evaluation theory, particularly those which deal with the problem of group equivalence.

Intensive Supervision Probation for High-Risk Offenders: Findings from Three California Experiments

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Granting felons probation has proven a threat to public safety in many California communities. Research has shown that over half of those sentenced to felony probation will be rearrested, many for quite serious crimes. Probation departments should not be blamed for this; increased caseloads and declining resources mean that a single probation officer is often responsible for more than 300 offenders.

In 1986, with the help of the Bureau of Justice Assistance, U.S. Department of Justice, three California counties designed an experiment to provide an alternative form of supervision for high-risk probationers, Intensive Supervision Probation (ISP). Los Angeles, Ventura, and Contra Costa Counties each received funding to implement two-year ISP programs. These programs generally place offenders on small caseloads and require that they work, submit to random urine and alcohol testing, and perform community service. Program proponents hope that ISP will reduce rearrests and increase offender participation in work and treatment programs.

This study evaluates the effects of these ISP programs, using a randomized field experiment. Detailed information on background, services received, and one-year outcome measures (including recidivism and social adjustment indicators) were collected for each of the 488 program participants.

The most important findings of the study are:

- (1) Although ISP offenders received more "intense" supervision (as measured by increased contacts, monitoring, and

drug tests), there was no evidence that they had lower recidivism rates than their counterparts on routine probation.

- (2) ISP offenders consistently had more technical violations than the routine probationers. Statistical analysis failed to reveal, however, a relationship between a technical violation and a new arrest.
- (3) At the end of the one-year follow-up, across the sites, nearly one-third of the ISP offenders had no technical violations or new arrests, one-third had only technical violations, and one-third had new arrests.
- (4) While overall participation in treatment programs was generally low, particularly in Los Angeles and Contra Costa Counties, participation in counseling, employment, restitution, and community service was associated with lower levels of recidivism, even when an offender's risk level was statistically controlled.

These findings indicate that while ISP did not reduce recidivism, it did provide a much needed intermediate sanction --between prison and routine probation-- for high-risk probationers. And while policymakers certainly care about the crime-control effect of ISP's, they should also be concerned with reassuring citizens that justice is being done. It is this "justice model" that provides the nonutilitarian rationale for continued development of ISP programs.

The data from this experiment should be used to further refine ISP models. The justice system's imposition and enforcement of technical probation conditions should be evaluated along with the need to couple treatment programming with ISP surveillance. With these refinements, ISP can become a vital component of corrections in the United States.

MAKING DRUG USERS ACCOUNTABLE

Evaluating Innovative Sanctions for Drug Offenders

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President

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Reducing the demand for drugs, and reducing the supply of drugs to users and potential users, are primary objectives for our country's drug law enforcement efforts. However, these objectives cannot be accomplished solely by arresting, prosecuting, and incarcerating offenders. Processing offenders through criminal courts is personnel-intensive, costly, time-consuming, and in many instances, ineffective in deterring either specific offenders or the general public.

Local jurisdictions have adopted new measures that provide alternatives to continued application of traditional police enforcement tactics. This project involves a comparative assessment of the relative value of four alternatives: (1) suspension and postponement of driving privileges; (2) asset forfeiture; (3) local ordinances for minor drug offenses; and (4) land use controls, including nuisance abatement and zoning laws.

This project is aimed at improving local agencies' ability to deal effectively with drug crimes, and helping policymakers make informed decisions when considering similar laws and action. The research design includes a thorough assessment of the procedural and legal issues surrounding the alternatives; an assessment of their impact on the criminal justice system, especially prosecutors and judges; and an evaluation of their general and specific deterrence values.

The state of New Jersey will serve as the primary site for the study of postponement and suspension of driver operating licenses. Detroit, Michigan will serve as the site for a local ordinance on drug possession, and San Diego, California will be one of the sites for studying nuisance abatement laws. Sites for asset forfeiture have not been finalized at this time. The following sections discuss the revocation law in New Jersey, the local ordinance in Detroit, and the nuisance abatement procedures in San Diego.

New Jersey Comprehensive Drug Reform Act

New Jersey's "Comprehensive Drug Reform Act", which became law in July 1987, mandates forfeiture or postponement of driving privileges for all persons, adults as well as juveniles, who are convicted or adjudicated delinquent for any

drug offense. The period of suspension is fixed by the court at not less than six months or more than two years, beginning on the day the sentence is imposed, except that for persons under age 17, the period of suspension begins when the person reaches age 17. Juveniles are also subject to mandatory case penalties (ranging from \$500 to \$3,000) if adjudicated delinquent for violation of any drug offense under the law.

Drivers license suspension in New Jersey is also mandated for persons placed under "supervisory treatment" after a plea of guilty or a finding of guilt (for example, for a first disorderly persons offense). At its discretion, a court may also suspend, revoke, or postpone driving privileges of persons admitted to supervisory treatment without a guilty plea or finding.

Data will be collected at the state level on the volume of revocations since the inception of the law. In addition, the counties of Middlesex and Hudson will be studied in detail. At these counties we will conduct extensive interviews with key criminal justice personnel. Each county has over 2,000 cases each year falling under this sanction. We will collect data on a sample of these cases and determine the recidivism rates of offenders.

Detroit, Michigan Local Ordinance

Detroit passed a controlled substance ordinance in mid-1986 entitled, "Ordinance to Prohibit Possession, Manufacture, Delivery or Sale, and Advertisement of Drug Paraphernalia and Provide Penalties for Violation Thereof" (Detroit Ordinance 16-86, Chapter 38, Article 11). Some features are identical to state code provisions, while others reflect the city's local interests. The ordinance prohibits possession of controlled substances and paraphernalia for using controlled substances. It also prohibits disruption of traffic and loitering in the vicinity of drug sales. There are over 2,000 arrests each year under this ordinance.

An unusual feature of the arrest procedure under this ordinance is that the arrests are processed through the city's traffic courts. There appear to be two immediate advantages to this approach. First, these cases are kept out of the criminal court, which already has an overburdened caseload. Second, traffic court judges are accustomed to handling minor offenses, moving their cases rapidly, and imposing appropriate

sanctions. In Detroit, they impose fines and give short jail sentences under the provisions of the ordinance.

San Diego, California Nuisance Abatement

In California, nuisance abatement provisions have become part of the Uniform Control Substances statutes. Under these provisions, a nuisance is defined as:

Every building or place used for the purpose of unlawfully selling, serving, storing, keeping, manufacturing, or giving away any controlled substance, precursor, or analog specified in this division, and every building or place wherein or upon which those acts take place, is a nuisance which shall be enjoined, abated, and prevented, and for which damages may be recovered, whether it is a public or private nuisance.

In essence, any place where illegal drugs are stored or sold can be classified as a public nuisance. Actions against nuisance can be taken by a prosecutor in the city where the nuisance exists.

Enforcement under this law starts with site identification, which can be made by any of several city agencies. Crime analysis documents the history of the problem at a specified location, and further investigation is made to link the drug problem to the management of the building. Attempts are then made to work with the building's owners and managers to alleviate the drug problem. If no action is taken, steps can then be made to close the property.

For evaluation of this law, we will be performing case studies of approximately 50 cases in San Diego. We expect that this analysis will lead to insights on the effectiveness of the laws and the enforcement problems encountered by the city in the administration of the law.

Evaluation of the Maricopa County Demand Reduction Program

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The Maricopa County (Arizona) Demand Reduction Program was developed and now is maintained by a consortium of law enforcement agencies wishing to address the demand side of the supply-and-demand equation of illegal drug

use. Some program goals target broad-based community involvement, such as increasing public awareness of the consequences of illegal drug use, assisting private sector employers in establishing a drug-free workplace and incorporating drug treatment in employee assistance programs, and working with schools to develop drug-education programs. Other program goals call for increased and coordinated law enforcement activities and special treatment programs, with the focus on the arrest, prosecution, and possible diversionary treatment of drug offenders. It is this aspect of the program which is referred to as "User Accountability".

In this User Accountability program, there are four components which focus attention on the user and hold him/her accountable for illegal drug usage. One component is the Task Force, a committee representing the federal, state, county, and municipal law enforcement agencies involved and which serves to plan and coordinate integrated, inter-agency operations against targeted high-use locations anywhere in the County (e.g., recreational areas, nightclubs, shopping centers). A second component is the larger force of uniformed patrol officers who have been exhorted to be more vigilant and who have been assured that arrests for possession/use of even small amounts will be prosecuted. The County Attorney's Office, the third component, reviews all arrests and prosecutes those offenders who are ineligible for diversion to treatment program. Those offenders without a record of serious prior criminal involvement may be offered diversion from prosecution to a treatment program, but at a "user" fee ranging to as much as \$3,000, depending on the drug being used may be charged. The final component, then, is the Adult Deferred Prosecution Drug Program, which offers drug-specific treatment programs that vary in nature, intensity, and duration.

The outcome evaluation relies on quasi-experimental designs to measure the User Accountability goals of increased arrest of drug users and either prosecution and conviction or treatment.

Multiple measures of implementation and both short-term and long-term outcomes are used. Implementation questions examine such issues as (1) the coordinated operation of the Task Force, (2) the awareness and acceptance of the Program by uniformed patrol officers, (3) the ability of the County Attorney's office to follow through on cases filed for prosecution, and (4) the efforts by

treatment staff to enlist and maintain the diverted offender in the prescribed program.

Short-term outcomes are examined by addressing such research issues as (1) changes over time in the number and type of arrests of drug users attributable to the User Accountability Program, (2) changes in, and success of, the prosecution of targeted offenders, and (3) observed differences among offenders in their participation in and completion of the treatment program. Long-term outcomes rely on the traditional official measures of offender recidivism following arrest and either prosecution or diversion to treatment.

There are unique features to the Maricopa County Demand Reduction Program: it focuses on the users rather than the sellers of drugs, especially the "casual user," as a major contributor to the drug problem in our society; it is a voluntary and coordinated confederation of 28 Federal, State, county, and municipal agencies; it represents a combined effort of the public and private sectors; and it operates without external funds from State or federal sources. These features already have won wide public support and great national visibility and acclaim. Consequently, our evaluation results will be utilized more readily if they are less directed to a judgment of "success" or "failure" and, instead, recommend adjustments and incremental changes to improve the success of the program.

Evaluation of Asset Seizure and Forfeiture Programs

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Asset forfeiture programs introduce a new set of activities into law enforcement agencies and prosecution. How these relate to the existing organization and procedures and what their roles will be vis a vis other agencies and the courts is knowledge essential to the program planning process. Asset forfeiture programs require the development or strengthening of system-wide strategies. Some of these programs may already be in place as part of other programs such as intelligence networks which target repeat offenders, or special courts for expedited drug case processing. Some, such as access to legal counsel, the availability of financial analysts, or even protected property storage facilities may be missing.

There is a continuum along which program types

can be placed with respect to their level of complexity, scope and resource utilization. At the basic level is the cash/car program where seizures occur simultaneously with drug transactions. At the other end are multi-jurisdictional task forces with extensive resources and time for attorney/investigator teams tracing the hidden assets of kingpins and traffickers, conducting new worth analyses, using investigations and financial search warrants that ultimately result in seizures of multi-million dollar properties.

There is a need to develop program models along this continuum that take into consideration the diversity in environments, procedures, operations and resources as an antecedent for program planning and design. These models fill the gap between program selection and program planning by providing descriptions of the different types of approaches that can be adopted by local jurisdictions, and a discussion of the issues which emerge from each of these approaches. Absent these, jurisdictions are handicapped when they consider developing a forfeiture program, particularly with respect to the advantages of selecting one model or approach over another.

The target population is the local criminal jurisdiction including law enforcement agencies, prosecutors, and the courts. The evaluation focuses on three jurisdictions and one attorney general's office.

The purpose of this evaluation is to:

1. determine the ability of operating programs to meet their program objectives including an increase in asset forfeiture seizures, the utilization of proceeds to increase program effectiveness, and to make these programs self-sufficient;
2. assess the needs of local jurisdictions with respect to training and technical assistance, and identify problem areas needing additional support, as well as areas where Federal support is important;
3. develop a set of program models for asset forfeiture programs that will assist local jurisdictions in program selection and planning; and
4. develop evaluation guidelines for each of the program models.

The methodologies employed rely on both qualitative and quantitative techniques. Qualitatively the techniques used include: (1) policy analysis; (2) management and organization appraisals; (3) functional systems analysis; and (4) surveys. Quantitatively the techniques will be based on interrupted time series if the volume warrants or on total data collections if the program is small.

Primary outcome variables are: the number of seizures and forfeitures; the types of dispositions of seized assets; the dollar values associated with each; the amount returned to the program.

The process variables relating to resources and workload include: time from initial investigation to seizures; numbers and types of search warrants; caseload per investigator or investigative team by type of case; volume and capacity of property management programs; organization and staffing.

The major difficulty with all quasi-experimental designs is that although they can distinguish differences before and after program implementation but they cannot identify causes. Therefore, the qualitative analysis component was included.

Because only four jurisdictions are being evaluated, one does not know how representative they are of the general population of local and state jurisdictions. For this reason, a survey of programs was undertaken to provide a background for the evaluation results.

Some of the findings from the evaluation to date confirm many of the assumptions. There appears to be a variety of approaches to the organizations and operation of asset forfeiture programs depending largely on the State legislation and the equitable sharing formulas.

The variety of efforts are also reflected at the Federal level which resulted in the production of "A Directory of Resources" for asset forfeiture programs available at the Federal level or from nationwide programs such as PERF. This is being supplemented to include selected resources at the State level.

The programs under evaluation have matured and changed, which will enrich the evaluations by exposing additional factors and issues that should be considered by others.

The demonstration value of the program will be

shown in a variety of ways. First, the results of actual operating programs in achieving self-sufficiency after the seed money has been expended will be demonstrated.

Secondly, the information and results of the evaluation will be documented as an issues and policy document with the primary audience being other local jurisdictions interested in developing asset forfeiture programs. This "best practices" document should be background to their program planning efforts.

Finally, the role and function of training, technical assistance and clearinghouses will be evaluated to aid in setting directions for the future.

COMMUNITY DRUG ABUSE PROGRAMS

COMMUNITY RESPONSES TO DRUG ABUSE

East Side Wilmington Anti-Drug Abuse Program Evaluation

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The goal of the East Side Wilmington Anti-Drug Abuse Program is to stabilize the neighborhood through its own resources and social networks so that illegal drug abuse can be limited. The objective is to convince the community that drug abuse is not only a problem for them as individuals; it is also a community problem.

The mechanisms for bringing about change in the drug problem include three separate, but not independent efforts:

- (1) **Enhanced community policing effort is underway.** This includes the addition of community drug enforcement officers provided by Bureau of Justice Assistance (BJA) funding. These special officers met routinely with anti-drug abuse community leaders to devise better methods of identifying and arresting drug traffickers in the neighborhood. The methods and length of time in the neighborhood change to meet the most serious threats. As the community networks strengthen, the objective is to move the special officers to another Wilmington neighborhood leaving the East Side with the normal police presence.
- (2) **The community organization is being expanded.** The East Side Substance Abuse Committee consists of 38 members representing state and local governments, police, schools, private social providers, churches, and community residents. One of the goals of this committee and the police is to establish a Block Captain network. The volunteer block captains are being trained to recognize drug use and marketing patterns. They are also being trained how to work with police without endangering themselves. In addition, block captains are also being trained to identify those in need of social services and to provide direct referrals to participating social service agencies.
- (3) **Social Services are focusing on meeting the needs of individuals and families to assist them in living drug free lives.** It is

a program hypothesis that a strong law enforcement presence is needed. This will provide the shield needed to vitalize the neighborhood through the identification and implementation of effective social services. When the police complement is returned to the city's normal levels, it is expected the community will be sufficiently organized to be of assistance to police in keeping illegal drug related activities under control.

Perhaps, the most important condition that makes a viable evaluation possible is the East Side Substance Abuse Committee supports the collection and the analysis of information relating to the success and/or failure of different parts of the program. In fact, there is a continuing reassessment in process by the committee. Police activity and methods have changed as experience has dictated. The committee has also learned some services that may not appear directly related to drug use do have an impact. For example, nontraditional daycare was accepted as an important social service goal when it was realized that the unsupervised youngsters on the streets in the evening was not due to neglect but to the economic reality of single parents working evening jobs.

The East Side Program has three distinct phases that provide a special research opportunity for measuring before, during, and after phases. Before 1988, the neighborhood only had normal city police patrols. In the "during" phase of the program, the neighborhood is experiencing community policing with increased manpower. Also, during this period, significant efforts for increased social services and community organization are ongoing. The "after" phase will come when the police manpower levels return to the city's norm and the vitalized neighborhood is tested to determine if the social solutions are enough to keep illicit drugs at a minimum.

Examining "treatment effects" from the East Side program is important if the changes in the "outcome measures" are to be meaningfully explained. The three "treatment effects" are: (1) changed policing practices and manpower levels; (2) increased number and more focused social services; and (3) establishment and maintenance of a community organizations.

Two methods are being used to measure changes in the program "treatment effects". First,

substantive information is being recorded in logs. This includes program documentation, meeting minutes, project progress reports, and summaries of interviews. These sources are being used to document and describe both the activities and the intended purposes of the three "treatment effects". Second, operational information is also being collected. For example, for the '72 social services, the types of activities, funding, number of East Side residents participating, percentage of clients from the East Side, type of service provided, length of service, frequency of service, and perceived success are some of the variables that are being logged and monitored. A pre/post perspective is being used to assess the amount and type of change for each of the treatment variables.

The three treatment effects, although measured and monitored separately, are not independent of one another. Very clearly from the outset, interaction effects are expected. These too will be monitored and measured. For instance, the community policing practice involves routine meetings with community leaders to discuss issues, report progress, and make planned changes. In many instances the community policing approach results in better interaction between community and police expectations, social services, and the community organization efforts. Information documenting these interaction effects will be logged and used in the analysis. It is anticipated that most of this information will be substantive and contextual rather than numeric.

For both the East Side and the other Wilmington police districts, the monthly number of reported crimes and arrests will be compared. Special emphasis will be given to illicit drug arrests and the relationship that these arrests have with manpower allocations, community policing efforts, and special enforcement measures. A demographic profile is being developed for persons arrested for drug offenses. The sources of data will be the requests for service received by the Wilmington Police and arrests logged with the department.

Another research goal is to ascertain whether or not there has been displacement to other parts of Wilmington. This will be determined by comparing the trends of drug crimes reported and arrests made in the East Side area and other sections of Wilmington.

Periodic survey of citizen opinions and attitudes will be conducted by the East Side Wilmington

Substance Abuse Committee. Resources from the National Institute of Justice grant do not permit the funding for these surveys. The grant, however, does provide funding for technical assistance for survey design and implementation. The analysis and the reporting of the results will also be provided by the grant resources.

Evaluation of Community Responses to Drug Abuse

Susan Bennett
Assistant Professor
School of Justice Studies
University of Louisville

The National Training and Information Center (NTIC), its affiliated organizations, and the National Crime Prevention Council (NCPC) have developed a national demonstration program entitled "Community Responses to Drug Abuse" involving eight community organizations in seven cities, funded by the Bureau of Justice Assistance (BJA). Each community organization developed its own workplan, so strategies varied across the sites. Each site, however, shared the same goals for the drug abuse program: (1) empower community residents to feel more comfortable and less fearful in their communities; (2) provide community residents with knowledge of resources which can be of assistance to their community; (3) test a variety of drug abuse prevention strategies; (4) introduce effective drug reduction activities which empower communities to take action and implement prevention programs; (5) develop a process through which on-going working relationships can be built and maintained between city and state organizations; (6) develop a local community task force to assist in the development of a community-wide drug abuse prevention program and evaluate its effectiveness; and (7) establish measurable indices of success which relate to each community's specific workplan.

The evaluation of this program is primarily a formative and process evaluation rather than an assessment of program impact. The major focus is the documentation of organizational strategies and program activities within a framework of limited expectation. With only nine months to implement their programs, community organizations cannot be expected to make major changes in their neighborhoods. More specifically, the major research objectives for the evaluation are: (1) to describe the community resources, planning processes, and problems involved in developing the community anti-drug strategies; (2) to assist organizations in planning

by providing them with local community assessment data; (3) to describe the major strategies and activities at each site and to articulate the models of intervention that they represent; (4) to describe the nature, extent, and perceived usefulness of technical assistance provided to each program; (5) to provide a general assessment of the local programs' progress toward the above program goals; and (6) to provide feedback that can be used to strengthen both current and future anti-drug strategies at the community level.

The evaluation uses a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods, including extensive site visit interviews, review of program documents, some field observations (e.g., tours of target neighborhoods and attendance at program activities), and residential telephone surveys. The qualitative methods used in the field work are appropriate for the formative and process orientation of the evaluation. They also increase the evaluation's flexibility, its ability to tailor the data collection to the local situation. Given the variety of program strategies being implemented by the organizations, this flexibility is critical. A major goal of the evaluation is to identify the commonalities and differences among the programs. It is necessary, therefore, to develop comparable information on the eight programs. A list of possible interviewees identified by position and interview schedules for each program serves as a guide for data collection during site visits. The interview schedules were adapted from those used in the process evaluation of the Eisenhower Foundation's Neighborhood Program, a community crime prevention demonstration program with a similar organizational structure. Some of the key concepts covered in the interview schedules are: the role of residents and the community task force in the planning process; kinds of strategies, goals, and target areas defined in the planning process; level of activities implemented; methods used to generate citizen participation in program activities; problems encountered during implementation; changes in the workplan during implementation; kinds of partnerships or networks planned and developed; utility of those networks; difficulties in developing, using, or maintaining networks; kinds of technical assistance requested and received; utility of the technical assistance; size and stability of program staff; and qualitative assessment of program accomplishments.

The telephone survey provides a quantitative assessment of residents' perceptions and concerns

in the target neighborhoods. Based partly on questionnaires from prior studies of community crime prevention programs, the survey covers four general areas: (1) residents' perceptions of local problems, (2) their awareness of local initiatives, (3) their participation in those initiatives, and (4) their assessment of the initiatives.

Several challenges and complications have occurred during the evaluation. First, the lack of a common program across the communities has increased the need to describe each program carefully. Although some strategies have been adopted by many of the organizations, the implementation of these strategies varies across the sites and, in particular, their place in the programs' configuration varies.

Second, evaluations generally assume a more or less fixed workplan developed through a "rational" planning process with a defined target area or target population. As grass roots organizations, these groups more typically engage in what might be called "politically-based" planning -- responding to residents' expressed concerns and local events. This kind of planning means frequent revisions and additions to the workplan as well as occasional changes in the defined target area or target population.

Third, as the programs have developed, they have started to reflect the complexity of the problem they address by becoming increasingly complex themselves. In implementing the anti-drug strategies, participants have become aware of the need to take a broader based approach than was usually outlined in the initial workplan. Organizations' interests have extended beyond increased police enforcement to include issues of prosecution, sentencing, jail and prison overcrowding, affordable treatment facilities, effective drug prevention and education programs in public schools and possible changes in local and state legislation. The nature of these interventions means that the number of agencies and organizations involved has increased substantially. Goals are more often long range with less easily identifiable outcomes than, for instance, the strategy of using hot spot cards to identify and close five crack houses. These changes increase the challenge in defining the organization's role in local anti-drug activities and assessing the impact of those activities.

Fourth, as has been mentioned in prior studies of community crime prevention programs, the relatively low levels of funding and the short time

frames for the anti-drug programs are constraints on program goals that must be taken into account by evaluators. Thus, the evaluation for the first year of this program has focused on program implementation and intermediate goals of the programs such as closing a limited number of crack houses rather than more long range goals such as community empowerment or substantial reduction in community drug selling.

Although these aspects of the programs' implementation have taxed the resources of the evaluation, they may also be viewed as indicators of continued, successful development of community anti-drug programs. They also make clear the need for process evaluations to be done in conjunction with impact evaluations, both to inform the impact evaluation of appropriate methodologies and measures for specific programs and to provide a context from which results of the impact evaluation can be interpreted.

1500-10-10
10-10-10

SPECIAL TOPIC WORKSHOPS

LINKING STATE DRUG CONTROL STRATEGIES AND EVALUATION

Allen Doug Frady
Criminal Justice Coordinator
Tennessee State Planning Office

The community based strategy implemented by the State of Tennessee is a comprehensive coordinated effort to address the drug problems in each of the state's 95 counties. All state efforts in education, treatment and law enforcement are coordinated to support the local Alliances that make up the Alliance for a Drug Free Tennessee. To meet the assessment needs of this effort, the Governor's Planning Office created and appointed members to an interdepartmental evaluation team from each department directly involved in the Drug Free Tennessee Program. The focus of this team is to assess and recommend appropriate evaluations for each department to determine the effectiveness of their respective programs in relation to the statewide strategy and the overall Drug Free Tennessee Program.

Donald Rebovich
Director of Research
American Prosecutors' Research Institute

This presentation focuses on the types of decisionmaking that should be followed by evaluators desiring to optimize the provision of "utilization-focused" drug control evaluation data. The presentation concentrates on New Jersey's attempts to reconcile the demand for specific types of evaluation data at the local, state, and national levels with a design to supply the needed information. The workshop raises questions regarding how the evaluation of state drug control strategies can best be linked with the differing information needs of its various users within a changing political context. Examples are introduced on processes used in New Jersey to recognize and integrate criminal justice system concerns into an evaluation plan sensitive to those concerns. A four point approach is offered to maximize the effective linking of the needs of those developing state drug control strategies with the needs of those evaluating the strategies.

DEVELOPING A CASE STUDY FOR PROGRAM EVALUATION

Marcia Chaiken
Director of Research
LINC

Jan M. Chaiken
Deputy Manager, Law and Justice Area
Abt Associates, Inc.

This workshop focuses on case studies of multi-jurisdictional drug law enforcement task forces recently studied by the workshop leaders. Participants are challenged to construct their own study design for one of the sites, to analyze the information collected, and to draw conclusions about the drug law enforcement effort. In preparing the design, participants determine who should be contacted, what to ask interviewees, what quantitative information to collect, and what the implications of the information collected will be. Participants also discuss additional information that could be collected in other sites, and the types of conclusions that could be drawn after case studies of more than one site are completed.

EVALUATING POLICE INITIATIVES

Jack Greene
Professor
Temple University

For the past several years public law enforcement agencies have significantly increased their efforts to interdict drug shipments, and to affect local drug markets by focusing on both local supply and demand. This workshop is designed to explore the evaluation issues surrounding police interdiction, deterrence, and arrest efforts. The workshop considers the design of both formative and summative evaluations for police drug-related programming, difficulties in separating efforts from effects, the role of crime analysis and criminal intelligence information in targeting drug locations and in shaping police responses, and the evaluator's role in such efforts. The workshop also considers the similarities and differences between the general evaluation of police services, and the more specific issues surrounding drug enforcement activities.

MEASURING IMPLEMENTATION FOR DRUG CONTROL PROGRAMS

Peter W. Greenwood
Senior Research Specialist
The RAND Corporation

Accurate assessment of the differences between experimental and comparison programs is essential in understanding the outcome of any evaluation. This workshop reviews methods of measuring implementation and using such information in the assessment of outcomes. The specific issues to be addressed include: (1) What do we mean by quality of implementation? (2) How can quality of implementation affect outcomes? (3) How can this quality be measured? (4) What problems are usually encountered in collecting data on implementation? and (5) How should information about implementation be used in the analysis of outcomes?

DEVELOPING A STATE-LEVEL EVALUATION STRATEGY

Douglas C. McDonald
Senior Research Scientist
Abt Associates, Inc.

Most evaluation methods are designed to assess discrete programs or initiatives. Evaluating the effectiveness of a collection of projects that constitute a state drug-control strategy poses an extraordinary challenge. This workshop addresses ways that states can fulfill their mandates to evaluate BJA-supported programs, and how these evaluations might be coordinated to assess their collective effect on drug control objectives.

DEVELOPING CONTROLLED FIELD EXPERIMENTS

David Rauma
Senior Research Associate
United States Sentencing Commission

This workshop examines the reasons for conducting field experiments, potential benefits and limitations, strategies for design, and issues surrounding implementation. Since the mid-1970's, field experiments have become an increasingly popular means of evaluating program efficacy. However, implementation strategies have too often been flawed and, as a consequence, unnecessarily limited the usefulness of the experimental findings. The workshop places particular emphasis on design and

implementation to enable program sponsors and managers to better judge the potential pitfalls that can limit the usefulness of the experimental results. The discussion is oriented toward drug control programs, but examples will be drawn from a variety of settings.

DEVELOPING PERFORMANCE MEASURES

Adele Harrell
Senior Research Analyst
The Urban Institute

This workshop presents alternative performance measures for drug treatment evaluation. Types of performance measures include effectiveness/quality measures and efficiency measures that focus on program outcome. In evaluating drug programs, performance measures must consider the types of client problems, and program goals and structure. The range of outcomes can include changes in substance abuse behaviors, beliefs, attitudes and behavioral intentions, reductions in abuse-related problems, and effects on service delivery systems. Central issues in constructing performance measures include multiple measures of core outcomes, timing of outcome measurement, the use of standardized measures, the validity/reliability of alternative types of data, and potential data sources.

DEVELOPING RANDOMIZED EXPERIMENTS

Albert J. Reiss, Jr.
Professor
Yale University

This workshop focuses on seven topics: (1) What is a randomized experiment and when should they be done? (2) Why is a pipeline study necessary for randomized experiments and what are its benefits? (3) How can one assure adequate statistical power in an experimental design? (4) What is important to remember about randomization procedures in doing experiments? (5) What criteria should one use in selecting and implementing treatments? (6) What should one bear in mind in selecting outcome measures? (7) What are the principal things one should do when analyzing data from randomized experiments? The workshop draws upon the possibilities for randomized experiments in drug control programs.

CONCLUSIONS

The Anti-Drug Abuse Act of 1988 established programs for the purpose of funding drug control and justice system improvement projects at the state and local levels. The Act established the Drug Control and System Improvement Grant Program, which provides formula grants to state governments. The purpose of the formula grant program is "to assist States and units of local government in carrying out specific programs which offer a high probability of improving the functions of the criminal justice system with special emphasis on a nationwide and multilevel drug control strategy by developing programs and projects to assist multi-jurisdictional and multi-state organizations in the drug-control problem and to support national drug control priorities." The Act also establishes requirements that the activities funded by these grants be evaluated. The Act mandates that "Each program funded ... shall contain an evaluation component, developed pursuant to guidelines established by the National Institute of Justice, in consultation with the Bureau of Justice Assistance." In the *Program Guidance* document announcing the formula grant program, the Bureau adds that the "purpose of evaluating each program is to assess how well it has been implemented and to assess the extent to which the activities funded have achieved the program's goals. Such assessments should be designed to provide administrators and policy makers with an improved understanding of whether specific activities accomplish their desired results of furthering the state strategy."

Evaluation activities provide state administrators and planners with policy relevant information that helps determine how effectively their strategies achieve established drug control and system improvement goals. Information about how their plans were implemented and the results of these activities can be used by planners to revise strategies to strengthen their chances of success. This information is also useful for determining whether to expand the project, to undertake similar projects in other jurisdictions, or to spend scarce resources for other purposes altogether. Project managers can use the results of evaluations to strengthen their ability to achieve their project's goals.

The Office of National Drug Control Policy established as a national priority the evaluation of drug control programs in order to determine "what works." The need for "development of a comprehensive information base about what works in controlling drug use through support for public and private evaluation of drug enforcement, drug prevention, and drug treatment

programs" was stated. The mission statement of the Office's Bureau of State and Local Affairs challenges BJA to promote Federal, state and local cooperative efforts against drug problems; and to monitor state and local drug-related information, policies and developments, and share that information with state and local officials nationwide and with other Federal agencies, while at the same time sharing Federal drug-related program information and data with state and local authorities.

The Evaluating Drug Control Initiatives conference addressed the mandates of the Anti-Drug Abuse Act and the mission of the Office of National Drug Control Policy by providing a forum for Federal, state, and local jurisdictions to examine "what works" in drug control. The conference provided opportunities for Federal, state, and local agencies to share information on ongoing and completed evaluations; provided assistance to state officials for developing and conducting drug control project evaluations; and promoted Federal interagency coordination of evaluation initiatives for drug control projects.

On June 21 of this year, over 250 Federal, state, and local representatives from 38 states convened at the conference to exchange information on evaluating "what works" in multi-jurisdictional task forces, drug testing and treatment programs, managing and prosecuting drug cases, drug abuse education programs, community responses to drug abuse, and a variety of other drug control programs. The number of participants and the range of drug control programs attest to the commitment of researchers and evaluators at all levels of government to find out "what works" in drug control and system improvement. The conference also afforded participants the opportunity to express their needs as evaluators. Participants indicated a need for technical assistance in developing and conducting evaluations, information sharing about evaluation techniques, and direct funding for evaluation research. Participants expressed the need for "how to" guides on evaluation research and findings from specific evaluation projects. Participants also indicated that future federal initiatives should target education/prevention and treatment programs as well as law enforcement programs in the battle against drug abuse.

The next step in evaluating drug control programs is for evaluators, analysts, and researchers at Federal, state, and local levels to exchange the evaluation results from the programs that were the focus of this conference.

Beginning this fall and winter, BJA and NIJ will be receiving the first results from many of these evaluations. From that point on, a steady flow of evaluation results will continue from the collective efforts of Federal, state, and local evaluators. The information from these evaluation results will enable Federal, state, and local evaluators, analysts, and researchers to report on "what works" at a national evaluation conference next year.

APPENDIX A

Evaluating Drug Control Initiatives Conference Agenda

WELCOME

The Anti-Drug Abuse Act of 1988 authorized the Edward Byrne Memorial State and Local Law Enforcement Assistance Programs which have provided Federal funds to state and local agencies. As a result, innovative programs have been initiated that otherwise might never have existed.

Both the Administration and Congress have stressed that these funds be used effectively and efficiently to have the maximum impact on the drug abuse problems of this Nation. The President's National Drug Control Strategy identifies evaluation as a critical element in the national effort to control drug abuse and trafficking. The Act includes a number of provisions which mandate evaluation of grant-funded programs at both the national and state levels, including the creation of a partnership between the Bureau of Justice Assistance and the National Institute of Justice to develop a national evaluation program to assist states and local agencies to plan and implement needed evaluations.

This conference will provide an opportunity to share what has been learned at the Federal and state levels from ongoing evaluation efforts. Professionals from throughout the criminal justice system will discuss their evaluation activities. Experts will share their experiences to inform conference participants of the lessons learned from on-going Federally-funded evaluation efforts. Federal officials from agencies involved in the Nation's drug control efforts will discuss their evaluation programs and share valuable insights.

We welcome you to this conference and hope you benefit from participating.

James K. Stewart
National Institute of Justice

Gerald (Jerry) P. Regier
Bureau of Justice Assistance

PROGRAM

Small Group Panels on Evaluation Projects are for information sharing by researchers and analysts who have previously or are currently evaluating Federally funded State drug control initiatives. These panels will involve discussions of various topics including methodologies, research design, target populations, purposes for evaluating specific programs, costs of evaluation, expectation of findings, and utilization of results.

Special Topic Workshops are designed to be instructive and address specific issues related to evaluation research.

Complete descriptions of each *Small Group Panel* and *Special Topic Workshop* as well as speaker biographies can be found in the packet of conference materials provided during registration.

Wednesday, June 20

6:00 p.m. - 9:00 p.m.
Registration

First Floor/State Room

Thursday, June 21

To receive up-to-date information on drugs and crime, visit the Exhibit/Resource Room in the Cabinet Room on the Main level. Demonstrations of computer technology for criminal justice analysis will be presented for your viewing. You can visit the Exhibit/Resource Room today during registration, coffee breaks, and lunch.

Among the groups exhibiting are:

- *BMDP Statistical Software, Inc.*
- *Criminal Justice Statistics Association/ National Criminal Justice Computer Laboratory and Training Center-Washington, DC*
- *Data Center & Clearinghouse for Drugs and Crime*
- *National Institute of Justice*
- *P-Stat, Inc.*
- *SPSS, Inc.*
- *Syva Company*

7:30 a.m. - 9:00 a.m.
Registration/Morning Coffee/Continental Breakfast

First Floor/State Room

8:00 a.m. - 6:30 p.m.
Exhibit/Resource Room

First Floor/Cabinet Room

9:00 a.m. - 10:00 a.m.

Welcome and Overview

First Floor/State Room

Welcome Conference Facilitator:

Peter Haynes
Professor
Justice Studies Program
Arizona State University

Welcoming Remarks by
Sponsoring Agencies

Keynote Address Joseph S. Wholey
Professor
University of Southern California

10:00 a.m. - 10:15 a.m.
Coffee Break

Second Floor/Foyer

10:15 a.m. - 11:45 a.m.
Small Group Panels on Evaluation Projects

Multi-Jurisdictional Task Forces: Qualitative Evaluation Techniques

Second Floor/South Carolina

Moderator: Kenneth R. Coyle
Research Associate
Criminal Justice Statistics Association

William M. Holmes
Director
Massachusetts Statistical Analysis Center

Donald Rebovich
Director of Research
American Prosecutors' Research Institute

Managing and Prosecuting Drug Cases

Second Floor/Rhode Island

Moderator: Richard S. Porter
Statistical Analyst
Arizona Criminal Justice Commission

John F. Cronan
Executive Assistant
Office of the Chief State's Attorney
Connecticut

Joan Jacoby
Executive Director
Jefferson Institute for Justice Studies

Narcotics Enforcement in Public Housing

Second Floor/New Hampshire

Moderator: Terence Dungworth
Operations Research Specialist
The RAND Corporation

Sampson O. Annan
Deputy Director of Research
Police Foundation

Allen Doug Frady
Criminal Justice Coordinator
Tennessee State Planning Office

Drug Abuse Education Programs

Second Floor/New York

Moderator: Donna B. Towberman
Executive Director
Institute for Research in Justice and Risk Administration

Richard R. Clayton
Professor
University of Kentucky

R. Michael McDonald
Associate Professor
Virginia Commonwealth University

Jill Thompson
Project Manager
Evaluation and Training Institute (ETI)

11:45 a.m. - 1:30 p.m.
Luncheon

First Floor/East Room

Facilitator: Peter Haynes
Professor
Arizona State University

Address: Gary Peters
Special Assistant for Law Enforcement
Bureau of State and Local Affairs
Office of National Drug Control Policy

1:30 p.m. - 3:00 p.m.
Small Group Panels on Evaluation Projects

Innovative Sanctions for Drug Offenders

Second Floor/South Carolina

Moderator: Doris Layton MacKenzie
Associate Professor of Criminal Justice, LSU
Visiting Scientist
National Institute of Justice

Dennis Wagner
Senior Research Associate
National Council on Crime and Delinquency

Joan Petersilia
Director, Criminal Justice Program
The RAND Corporation

Community Responses to Drug Abuse

Second Floor/Rhode Island

Moderator: John P. O'Connell
Director
Delaware Statistical Analysis Center

Susan Bennett
Assistant Professor
School of Justice Studies
University of Louisville

Mujahid Ramadan
State Substance Abuse Coordinator
Nevada Department of Motor Vehicles and Public Safety

Law Enforcement Task Forces: Crossing Geographic and Component Jurisdictions

Second Floor/New Hampshire

Moderator: Kip Schlegel
Associate Professor
Indiana University

Mary J. Mande
SAC Director, Research Unit
Colorado Division of Criminal Justice

Judy O'Neal
Chief, Anti-Drug Abuse Enforcement Branch
California Governor's Office, Criminal Justice Planning

1:30 p.m. - 3:00 p.m.

Treating Drug-Involved Offenders: Institutional Settings

Second Floor/New York

Moderator: Burke O. Fitzpatrick
Program Administrator
South Carolina Division of Public Safety Programs

Robert A. Buchanan
President
Correctional Services Group

Roger H. Peters
Assistant Professor
University of South Florida

David E. Szymanowski
Research Consultant
Residential Addictions Unit
South Carolina Department of Corrections

3:00 p.m. - 3:30 p.m.
Coffee Break

Served in Exhibit/Resource Room

First Floor/Cabinet Room

3:30 p.m. - 5:00 p.m.
Special Topic Workshops

Linking State Drug Control Strategies and Evaluation

Second Floor/New York

Instructors: Allen Doug Frady
Criminal Justice Coordinator
Tennessee State Planning Office

Donald Rebovich
Director of Research
American Prosecutors' Research Institute

Developing a Case Study for Program Evaluation

Second Floor/New Hampshire

Instructors: Marcia Chaiken
Director of Research
LINC

Jan M. Chaiken
Department Manager
Law and Justice
Abt Associates, Inc.

3:30 p.m. - 5:00 p.m.

Evaluating Police Initiatives

Second Floor/Rhode Island

Instructor: Jack Greene
Professor
Temple University

Measuring Implementation for Drug Control Programs

Second Floor/South Carolina

Instructor: Peter W. Greenwood
Senior Research Scientist
The RAND Corporation

5:00 p.m. - 6:30 p.m.

Discussion Extension Period

First Floor/Chinese Room

Friday, June 22

8:00 a.m. - 9:00 a.m.

Morning Coffee/Continental Breakfast

Second Floor/Foyer

9:00 a.m. - 10:30 a.m.

Special Topic Workshops

Developing a State-Level Evaluation Strategy

Second Floor/New York

Instructor: Douglas C. McDonald
Senior Research Scientist
Abt Associates, Inc.

Developing Controlled Field Experiments

Second Floor/New Hampshire

Instructor: David Rauma
Senior Research Associate
United States Sentencing Commission

Developing Performance Measures

Second Floor/Rhode Island

Instructor: Adele Harrell
Senior Research Analyst
The Urban Institute

Developing Randomized Experiments

Second Floor/South Carolina

Instructor: Albert J. Reiss, Jr.
Professor
Yale University

10:30 a.m. - 10:45 a.m.
Coffee Break

Second Floor/Foyer

10:45 a.m. - 12:15 p.m.
Small Group Panels on Evaluation Projects

Assessing State Drug Control Strategies

Second Floor/New York

Moderator: James "Chip" R. Coldren, Jr.
Acting Executive Director
Criminal Justice Statistics Association

Steve Grohmann
Acting Director
Statistical Analysis Center
Wisconsin

Roger K. Przybylski
Director, Drug Information Analysis Center
Illinois Criminal Justice Information Authority

Aaron Saiger
Project Manager
RAND Corporation

Making Drug Users Accountable

Second Floor/Pennsylvania

Moderator: Edward F. Connors
President
Institute for Law and Justice

John R. Hepburn
Professor
Arizona State University

Joan Jacoby
Executive Director
Jefferson Institute for Justice Studies

Treating Drug-Involved Offenders: Alternative Settings

Second Floor/Rhode Island

Moderator: Richard G. Moore
Administrator
Criminal Justice Planning
Iowa

Bennett Fletcher
Research Psychologist
Division of Clinical Research
National Institute on Drug Abuse

Faye S. Taxman
Deputy Director
Criminal Justice Coordinating Committee
Montgomery County, Maryland

12:15 p.m. - 1:45 p.m.
Luncheon

First Floor/East Room

Facilitator: Peter Haynes
Professor
Arizona State University

Address: Scott Green
Special Assistant
Senate Judiciary Committee

1:45 p.m. - 3:15 p.m.
Small Group Panels on Evaluation Projects

Multi-Jurisdictional Task Forces: Efforts in Rural States

Second Floor/New York

Moderator: Dawn Burnes
Research Director
Idaho Statistical Analysis Center

Donald J. Farabaugh
Program Specialist
Maryland Office of Justice Assistance

Robert A. Jackson
Administrator
Oregon Criminal Justice Services Division

Gary R. Leonardson
Consultant to Attorney General's
Task Force on Drugs
University of South Dakota School of Medicine

Drug Testing for Criminal Offenders

Second Floor/Pennsylvania

Moderator: Richard R. Clayton
Professor
University of Kentucky

John R. Hepburn
Professor
Arizona State University

Penny Wakefield
Associate General Counsel
National Criminal Justice Association

Eric Wish
Visiting Fellow
National Institute of Justice

1:45 p.m. - 3:15 p.m. (cont.)

Drug Enforcement Crackdowns

Second Floor/Rhode Island

Moderator: Timothy S. Bynum
Professor
Michigan State University

Sampson O. Annan
Deputy Director of Research
Police Foundation

Sally T. Hillsman
Associate Director
Vera Institute of Justice

3:15 p.m. - 3:45 p.m.

Conference Wrap-up

First Floor/East Room

Peter Haynes
Professor
Arizona State University

APPENDIX B

Conference Speakers

Mr. Sampson Annan
Police Foundation
1001 22nd Street N.W.
Suite 200
Washington, DC 20037

Dr. Susan Bennett
School of Justice Administration
University of Louisville
Brigman Hall
Louisville, KY 40292

Mr. Robert Buchanan
Correctional Services Group, Inc.
410 Archibald Avenue
Suite 200
Kansas City, MO 64111

Ms. Dawn Burns
ID Department of Law Enforcement
Support Services Bureau
6111 Clinton Street
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Division of Public Safety Programs
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Columbia, SC 29201

Dr. Bennett Fletcher
Treatment Research Branch
Division of Clinical Research
National Institute on Drug Abuse
5600 Fishers Lane, Room 10A-30
Rockville, MD 20857

Mr. Douglas Frady
State Planning Office
307 John Sevier Building
500 Charlotte Avenue
Nashville, TN 37219

Mr. Scott Green
Senate Judiciary Committee
Subcommittee on Criminal Law
224 Dirken Senate Office Building
Washington, DC 20510

Dr. Jack Greene
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Philadelphia, PA 19122

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The RAND Corporation
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Mr. Stephen Grohmann
Wisconsin Statistical Analysis Center
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Madison, WI 53703

Dr. Adele Harrell
The Urban Institute
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John Hepburn, Ph.D.
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Statistical Analysis Center
MA Committee on Criminal Justice
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Boston, MA 02202

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Oregon Criminal Justice Services
Executive Department
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Salem, OR 97310

Ms. Joan Jacoby
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Studies
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Dr. Gary Leonardson
South Dakota Attorney General's
Task Force on Drugs
USD School of Medicine
1011 Eleventh Street
Rapid City, SD 57701

Dr. Doris MacKenzie
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