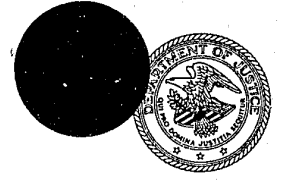


U.S. Department of Justice  
National Institute of Corrections



# Community Service and Victim/Offender Contact: An Annotated and Cross-Referenced Bibliography

130987

U.S. Department of Justice  
National Institute of Justice

This document has been reproduced exactly as received from the person or organization originating it. Points of view or opinions stated in this document are those of the authors and do not necessarily represent the official position or policies of the National Institute of Justice.

Permission to reproduce this [redacted] material has been granted by

Public Domain/NIC  
U.S. Department of Justice

to the National Criminal Justice Reference Service (NCJRS).

Further reproduction outside of the NCJRS system requires permission of the [redacted] owner.

ored by: Solicitor General Canada  
Ministry Secretariat  
Ottawa, Canada

130987

**Community Service and Victim/Offender Contact:  
An Annotated and Cross-Referenced Bibliography**

by

Richard W. Nutter, Associate Professor  
Faculty of Social Work  
The University of Calgary  
Edmonton, Alberta, Canada

Joe Hudson, Professor  
Faculty of Social Work  
The University of Calgary  
Edmonton, Alberta, Canada

Burt Galaway, Professor  
School of Social Work  
University of Minnesota  
Minneapolis, Minnesota, U.S.A.

September 1989

This project was supported by grant TA #89C1001 from the National Institute of Corrections, U.S. Department of Justice, and by Contract Number 1512-NU00500-8901/620 of Corrections Research and Strategic Policy, Solicitor General Canada. Points of view or opinions stated in this document are those of the authors and do not necessarily represent the official position or policies of the U.S. Department of Justice or of the Solicitor General Canada.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

List of Illustrations	iv
Abstract	v
Acknowledgements	vi
Executive Summary	vii
Introduction	1
References and Abstracts	27
Author Index	280

## ILLUSTRATIONS

Chart		Page
1	Content Focus of Items In Bibliography	3
2	Age Status of Offenders: Adult, Juvenile, or Both	4
3	Type of Sanction: Monetary, Community Service, or Both	4
4	Position on Victim Offender Contact	5
5	Content Focus of Items That Address Community Service Sanctions	6
6	Age Status of Offenders in Community Service Items	6
7	Position on Victim Offender Contact in Community Service Items	7
8	Cross References	9-25



## ABSTRACT

This is one of two volumes of references and annotations covering the English language literature about community service work orders (CS) and monetary restitution (MR) as sanctions for offenders. Using previous bibliographies, library resources, searches of computerized data bases, and personal contacts we located 940 conference presentations, academic theses, books, articles in professional or academic journals, and reports issued by governmental or private organizations. We categorized each item according to (a) content focus (eleven categories); (b) age status of offenders (adults, juveniles, or both); (c) type of sanction (CS, MR, or both CS and MR); and (d) position taken on victim offender contact (encouraged, discussed neutrally, discouraged, or not mentioned). The 267 items that addressed CS and the 334 items about both CS and MR are included in this volume. All of the classifications of each of these 601 item are presented simultaneously in a chronologically arranged chart of cross references. These classifications are more fully defined and their frequencies summarized in the introduction. An author index is also provided.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We gratefully acknowledge the support provided this project by the National Institute of Corrections, U.S. Department of Justice and by Corrections Research and Strategic Policy, Solicitor General of Canada. We thank Barbara, Becky, and Karen for their many hours of typing and Della Goa for her painstaking checking of references and editing. Our sincere thanks and appreciation are extended to all of those colleagues who so generously supplied us with material or made us aware of material we otherwise would have missed. Ultimately, however, this volume is a tribute to the hundreds of persons who have contributed to the literature on community service orders, financial restitution, and victim offender contact.

## EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

This is one of two volumes of annotations covering the English language literature on community service work orders and financial restitution. As used here, community service is hours of contributed labor and monetary restitution is monetary payment that amount to at least part of the penalty, treatment, or sanction imposed on the offender. This volume covers 267 annotations dealing with community service and an additional 334 covering both community service and financial restitution. The other volume covers 339 annotations dealing with monetary restitution and the 334 that cover both community service and monetary restitution.

Conference presentations, academic theses, books, articles in professional or academic journals, and reports issued by governmental organizations and private agencies are included in this bibliography. We started by editing a previous bibliography. Three major strategies were then employed: a search of Current Contents for relevant items, computer searches, and personal contacts.

The computer strategy involved searching bibliographic data bases including Social Science Citation Index and the Index of Legal Periodicals. Bibliographic computer searches were also undertaken by the U.S. National Institute of Justice/National Criminal Justice Reference Service; Victim Resource Center of the Ministry of the Solicitor General of Canada; and the U.S. Department of Transportation, National Highway Traffic Safety Administration. These searches identified many unpublished documents that would not otherwise have been included. When an abstract was available from the original source, that abstract was edited and used. In addition to searching the literature, recognized experts in the field were contacted and their assistance sought at identifying and accessing relevant materials, particularly unpublished, difficult to obtain items. The reference list format of the Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association (Third Edition) has been used throughout.

Each item has been classified according to (a) content focus (each item in up to three of eleven categories); (b) age status of offenders (adult, juvenile, or both); (c) type of sanction (community service, monetary restitution, or both); and (d) position taken on victim offender contact (encouraged, discussed neutrally, discouraged, or not mentioned). Of the 601 items in this volume, 307 are program descriptions, 282 are conceptual, 105 are formative evaluations, 71 are outcome evaluations, 46 are studies of use, 45 are legal analyses, 37 are general summaries, 35 are studies of public opinion, 23 focus on history, 14 discuss other social science topics, and 7 are cross cultural in nature. Two hundred and eighty four of these items discuss only adults, 143 only juveniles, and 174 both adult and juvenile offenders. Only 164 of these 601 items address issues of contact between victims and offenders. Of these, 100 encourage such contact, 32 discuss victim offender contact neutrally, and 32 discourage such contact.

A chart of cross references included in this volume displays all of the categorizations of all of the items simultaneously. This chart is arranged in chronological order. By

using this chart, readers can locate items with particular combinations of content that were presented, issued, or published in particular years and then turn directly to the references and abstracts of those items. There is also an author index that can be used to locate items produced by particular individuals and organizations.

## INTRODUCTION

This is one of two volumes of annotations covering the English language literature on community service work orders and financial restitution. The notion of community service refers to justice system requirements that offenders complete a specified number of unpaid hours of work for a community organization. As used throughout, restitution refers to justice system requirements that offenders make financial payments to victims for damages done as a result of law violations. In both, the monetary payment or hours of contributed labor amount to at least part of the penalty, treatment, or sanction imposed on the offender.

A total of 940 annotations are included in the two volumes. This volume covers 267 annotations dealing with community service and an additional 334 covering both financial restitution and community service. The other volume, Monetary Restitution and Victim Offender Contact, contains 339 items dealing with monetary restitution along with the same 334 annotations addressing both community service and financial restitution.

The full set of 940 items covered by these two volumes amount to a revised, updated, and expanded version of an annotated bibliography published in 1983.<sup>1</sup> That document contained 395 items published, presented, or issued prior to 1983. Of the 930 dated annotations included in the present volumes (10 are undated), 607 were published, issued, or presented prior to 1983 and 323 since then. In short, there has been substantial interest in restitution and community service since publication of the earlier bibliography.

## BIBLIOGRAPHIC SEARCH

Conference presentations, academic theses, books, articles in professional and academic journals, and reports issued by governmental organizations and private agencies are included in this bibliography. Work began with the 395 items contained in the 1983 publication. These were edited, their accuracy verified and duplicates eliminated. Three major strategies were then employed; a search of Current Contents for relevant items, computer searches, and personal contacts.

The computer strategy involved searching bibliographic data bases including Social Science Citation Index and the Index of Legal Periodicals. An initial search was done for all items indexed under the key words, "restitution," "reparations," "community service," "financial restitution," "compensation," and "victim offender reconciliation." Another search was then carried out for all items indexed under, "criminal law," "juvenile justice," "criminal justice," "diversion," and "crime victims." The two sets of terms were then combined with an "and" operator so that all selected documents were indexed under a least one term from the first

---

<sup>1</sup>Burt Galaway, Joe Hudson, Steve Novack. (1983). Restitution and Community Service: An Annotated Bibliography. Waltham, Massachusetts: National Institute for Sentencing Alternatives, Florence Heller Graduate School, Brandeis University.

set and at least one from the second. The document list produced was then reviewed and the bibliographic references examined for additional materials.

Bibliographic computer searches were also undertaken by the U.S. National Institute of Justice/National Criminal Justice Reference Service; Victim Resource Center of the Ministry of the Solicitor General of Canada; and the U.S. Department of Transportation, National Highway Traffic Safety Administration. These searches identified many unpublished documents that would not otherwise have been included. When an annotation was available from one of these bibliographic sources, the original annotation was edited and used. In addition to searching the literature, recognized experts in the field were contacted and their assistance sought at identifying and accessing relevant materials, particularly unpublished, difficult to obtain items.

## FORM OF CITATIONS

The citation format of the Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association (APA) has been used throughout.<sup>2</sup> The APA format has four major elements: author, publication date, title, and source. Where a person or corporate author is identified, this has been cited. Those items with no identified author are cited by title, rather than by the term, "Anonymous." The second descriptive element used is publication year or, in some cases, year and month. This is followed by title and publication information.

## CROSS-REFERENCING STRUCTURE

Each citation has been classified according to (a) content focus (eleven categories), (b) age status of offenders (adults, juveniles, or both), (c) type of sanction (monetary restitution, community service, or both), and (d) position taken on victim and offender contact (encouraged, discussed neutrally, discouraged, or not mentioned). The following guidelines were used to make these classification decisions.

**Content Focus.** Eleven categories were available and up to three could be applied to any particular item as displayed in Chart 1. The eleven categories were:

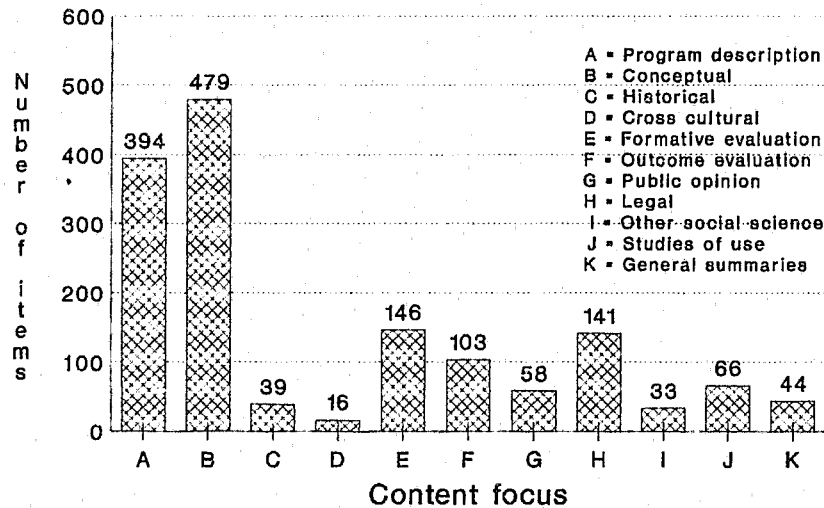
- **Program description.** Narrative descriptions about the operations or intended operations of either a single program or group of related programs;
- **Conceptual.** A discussion and analysis of restitution or community service issues;
- **Historical.** Analyses of the historical use of restitution or community service in western legal systems;

---

<sup>2</sup>American Psychological Association (1984). The Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association (3rd ed.). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

- Cross-cultural. Descriptions of the use of restitution or community service in non-western cultures;
- Formative evaluation. Items involving the systematic application of quantitative or qualitative measurement procedures for the purpose of evaluating the amount and type of effort expended in restitution or community service programs;
- Outcome evaluation. The systematic application of quantitative or qualitative measurements for the purpose of assessing the extent to which the use of restitution or community service accomplished intended outcomes and impacted on offenders, victims or the justice system;
- Public opinion and attitudes research. The application of systematic measurement procedures to assess opinions and attitudes about the use of restitution or community service, including views of offenders, victims, justice system officials, and others;

Chart 1  
Content Focus of Items In Bibliography\*



\*Each of the 940 items could be assigned up to three content focuses.

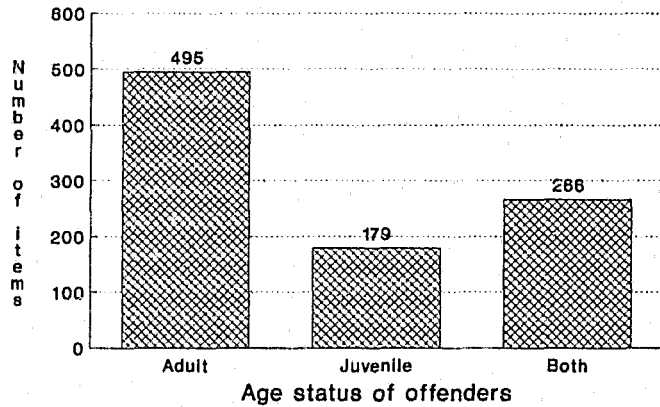
- Legal analysis. Legal assessments or studies of restitution or community service, including court decisions, case law developments, analyses of the place of restitution in legal theory, and policy positions about restitution and community service taken by organizations;
- Other social science. Studies of restitution or community service involving social science theory testing;
- Studies of use: Reports on the extent to which the sanctions have been used in different geographic locations or points in the justice system; and
- General summaries: Summaries of the use of the sanctions, including summaries of research, and bibliographies.

By allowing for the use of up to three categories for the classification of each item, those items dealing with more than one category could be better identified. As evident from

inspection of Chart 1, 394 (42%) of the 940 items were classed as program descriptions, 479 (51%) as conceptual, 146 (16%) as formative evaluations, and so on. Because up to three categories could be applied to any item, the total number of categorizations is larger than the total number of items.

**Age Status of Offenders.** The 940 items were also categorized according to whether they referred to adult offenders, juvenile offenders, or both. Chart 2 presents information on the number and proportion of items dealing with these age distinctions. As evident from inspection of Chart 2, slightly over half (53%) of the 940 items deal only with adults, one fifth (19%) only with juveniles, and slightly over one quarter (28%) with both adults and juveniles.

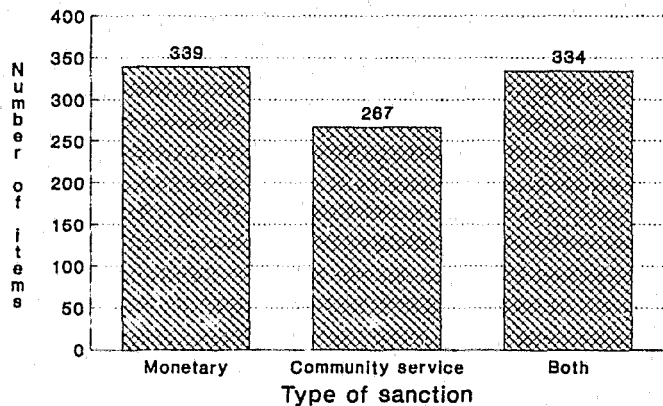
Chart 2  
Age Status of Offenders:  
Adult, Juvenile, or Both



Total Items = 940.

**Type of Sanction.** The 940 items were categorized according to whether they deal only with community service, only with monetary restitution, or both. Items dealing only with community service are included here, those dealing only with monetary restitution are contained in the companion volume, and those concerned with both community service and monetary restitution are included in both volumes. As revealed by inspection of Chart 3, equal proportions (36%) of the 940 items deal only with monetary restitution and with both monetary restitution and community service, while a somewhat smaller proportion (28%) deal only with community service.

Chart 3  
Type of Sanction:  
Monetary, Community Service, or Both



Total Items = 940.

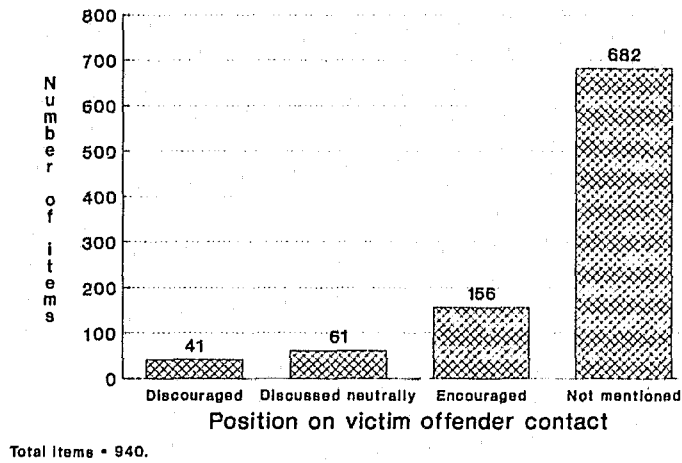


### **Position on Victim Offender**

**Contacts.** Items were classified into one of four categories according to the position they conveyed on victim offender contact; encouraged, discussed neutrally, discouraged, or not addressed. The distribution of the 940 items is presented in Chart 4.

As evident from Chart 4, approximately three-quarters (73%) of the 940 items do not address the topic of contacts between victims and offenders. Of the remaining 258 articles, 156 (60%) encourage contact, 61 (24%) take no position on such contact, and 41 (16%) discourage contact between victims and offenders.

Chart 4  
Position on Victim Offender Contact

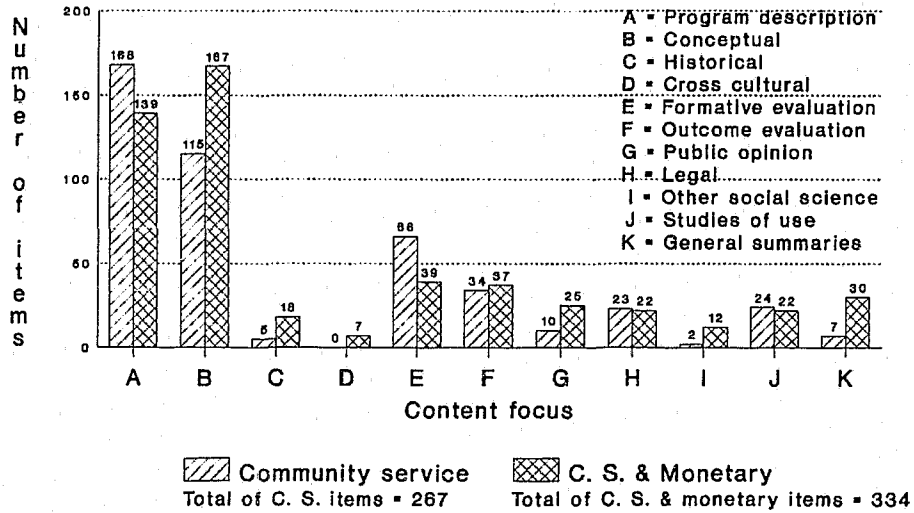


### **COMMUNITY SERVICE MATERIALS**

The remainder of this introductory section deals only with the 601 items covered in this volume -- the 267 dealing with community service only, along with the 334 covering both community service and financial restitution. The latter part of the introduction to the other volume presents comparable information on the monetary restitution materials included there.

**Content Focus of community service items.** Chart 5 presents cross-tabulated information on the 11 categories by the focus of an item on community service alone or both community service and monetary restitution. As evident from this chart, items addressing only a community service sanction were most frequently classed as conceptual or program description followed by formative evaluation, outcome evaluation, studies of use, legal, public opinion, general summary, historical, and other social science. Items addressing both community service and monetary restitution were more likely to contain conceptual analysis, while items dealing only with community service more frequently dealt with program description.

**Chart 5**  
**Content Focus\* of Items That Address**  
**Community Service Sanctions**

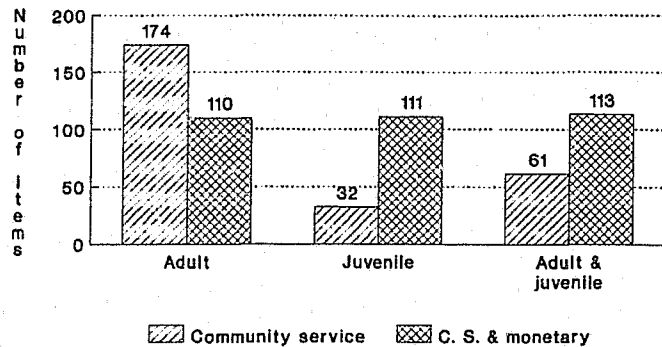


\*Each of the 601 items could be assigned up to three content focuses.

**Age Status of Offenders.**

Chart 6 presents information on the age status of offenders according to whether the sanction(s) addressed by the item was community service only or both community service and monetary restitution. Inspection of Chart 6 reveals that materials addressing only community service are more likely to involve adult offenders while items dealing with both community service and monetary restitution are about equally likely to deal with adults, juveniles, or both.

**Chart 6**  
**Age Status of Offenders in**  
**Community Service Items**

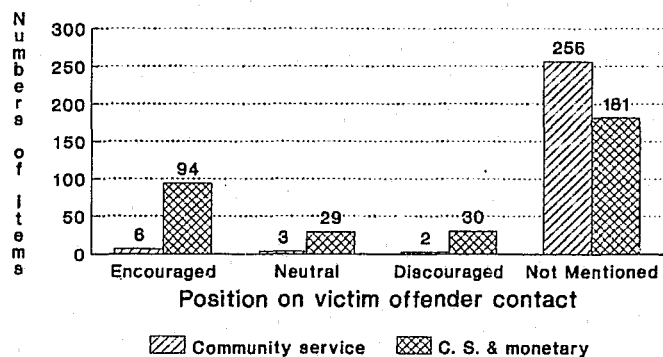


Community service items = 267  
 Community service & monetary items = 334  
 Total items = 601

### Position on Victim Offender Contact.

Chart 7 presents information on whether victim and offender contact is addressed in the particular item, and, if so, the position taken on such contact. As evident from Chart 7, the vast majority (96%) of items dealing only with community service do not discuss victim and offender contact. On the other hand, nearly half (46%) of the items dealing with both community service and monetary restitution discuss contact between victims and offenders. Also, those items dealing with both sanctions are more likely to encourage victim-offender contact than to discourage or take a neutral position on such contact.

Chart 7  
Position on Victim Offender Contact  
in Community Service Items



Community service only items = 267  
Community service & monetary items = 334  
Total items = 601

## CROSS REFERENCING AND USE OF THESE ANNOTATIONS

All of the annotations in this volume are cross referenced in Chart 8 according to 16 classification variables. These classification variables have been arranged in Chart 8 to facilitate easy location of items addressing particular topics or combinations of topics. The first column groups items by year. The second column provides the reference number keyed to the alphabetic listing of the first author's surname. The eleven categories used to identify the content focus of each item follow in columns 3 through 13, with each item placed in up to three categories. Columns 14 through 16 cover age status, followed by type of sanction, position on victim offender contact, and source of abstract.

The abstracts included in this volume came from three sources: the 1983 annotated bibliography<sup>3</sup>, the cited publication, or were written for this bibliography. Of course, the credit for all of this material belongs to the authors of the original publications. However, the responsibility for annotations or abstracts that may be inaccurate or misleading belongs to us. Because of this, we have categorized abstracts that contain even minor editorial changes from the original sources as written for this bibliography--not in an effort to take credit, but to assume responsibility for errors.

<sup>3</sup>Burt Galaway, Joe Hudson, Steve Novack. (1983). Restitution and Community Service: An Annotated Bibliography. Waltham, Massachusetts: National Institute for Sentencing Alternatives, Florence Heller Graduate School, Brandeis University.

An illustration of the use of Chart 8 may be helpful. A person interested in program descriptions of community service programs that dealt with juveniles and appeared before 1971 would find two items: 301 and 302. Neither of these items deals with victim offender contact. Item 301 addresses monetary restitution as well as community service. The abstracts of both these items are found on page 152. Item 301 is an article in the Journal of Criminal Law and item 302 is an article in Reader's Digest. Both articles appear to describe the sentencing behavior of Judge Karl Holzschuh in West Germany.

In addition to the chart of cross references (Chart 8), an Author Index is provided at back of this volume beginning on page 280. Items are identified in the Author Index by the same numbers as used in Chart 8.

CHART 8 CROSS REFERENCES

Year published	Item number	Focus of items											Offender's age status			Type of sanction			Position on victim offender contact			Source of abstract			
		Program description	Conceptual	Historical	Cross-cultural	Formative evaluation	Outcome evaluation	Public opinion	Legal	Other social science	Study of use	General summary	Adult	Juvenile	Adult & Juvenile	Monetary	Community Service	Both M. & C.S.	Encouraged	Discussed Neutrally	Discouraged	Not mentioned	Previous bibliography	From publication	This bibliography
1911	501	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	X	-	-
1947	272	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	X	-	-
1953	96	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-
1956	132	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	X	-	-
1957	254	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	X	-	-
1957	302	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	X	-	-
1957	476	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	X	-	-
1958	110	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-
1958	111	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-
1958	301	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	X	-	-
1959	109	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X
1959	112	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-
1963	222	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	X	-	-
1965	453	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	X	-	X	-	-
1965	454	-	X	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	X	-	X	-	-
1967	263	X	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	X	-	-
1970	219	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	X	-	-
1970	287	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	X	-	-
1970	351	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	X	-	-
1970	408	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-
1970	451	-	X	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-
1970	452	-	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-
1971	286	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-
1972	127	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-
1972	130	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	X	-	-
1972	450	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-
1973	192	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	X	-	-
1973	266	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	X	-	-
1973	285	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-
1973	512	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	X	-	-
1974	17	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-
1974	116	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X
1974	120	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	X	-	-
1974	152	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-
1974	169	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-
1974	190	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	X	-	-

CHART 8 CROSS REFERENCES (continued)

Year published	Item number	Focus of items										Offender's age status			Type of sanction			Position on victim offender contact				Source of abstract			
		Program description	Conceptual	Historical	Cross-cultural	Formative evaluation	Outcome evaluation	Public opinion	Legal	Other social science	Study of use	General summary	Adult	Juvenile	Adult & Juvenile	Monetary	Community Service	Both M. & C.S.	Encouraged	Discussed Neutrally	Discouraged	Not mentioned	Previous bibliography	From publication	This bibliography
1974	191	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x
1974	220	-	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-
1974	240	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	
1974	319	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-
1974	380	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-
1974	446	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-
1974	513	x	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x
1975	27	x	x	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-
1975	74	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-
1975	151	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-
1975	155	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	x	-	-	-
1975	168	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x
1975	239	-	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-
1975	251	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-
1975	305	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-
1975	312	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-
1975	346	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-
1975	349	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-
1975	373	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-
1975	396	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-
1975	411	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-
1975	449	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-
1975	487	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-
1975	507	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-
1976	39	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x
1976	49	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-
1976	67	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-
1976	124	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x
1976	178	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-
1976	179	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-
1976	180	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-
1976	206	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-
1976	238	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x
1976	257	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-
1976	292	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	x
1976	316	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-

CHART 8 CROSS REFERENCES (continued)

Year published	Item number	Focus of items											Offender's age status			Type of sanction			Position on victim offender contact				Source of abstract		
		Program description	Conceptual	Historical	Cross-cultural	Formative evaluation	Outcome evaluation	Public opinion	Legal	Other social science	Study of use	General summary	Adult	Juvenile	Adult & Juvenile	Monetary	Community Service	Both M. & C.S.	Encouraged	Discussed Neutrally	Discouraged	Not mentioned	Previous bibliography	From publication	This bibliography
1976	341	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	
1976	347	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	
1976	365	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	X	-	-	
1976	366	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	X	-	-
1976	393	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X
1976	409	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	X	-	-
1976	417	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	X	-	-
1976	422	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	X	-	-
1976	447	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	X	-	-
1976	448	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	X	-	-
1976	499	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	X	-	-
1976	550	-	-	-	-	X	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X
1976	567	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	X	-	-
1976	575	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	X	-	-
1977	25	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	X	-	-
1977	35	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	X	-	-
1977	41	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X
1977	43	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	X
1977	46	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	X	-	-
1977	47	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	X	-	-
1977	72	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	X	-	-
1977	84	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	X	-	-
1977	108	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-
1977	126	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	X	-	-
1977	144	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	X	-	-	-
1977	145	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	X	-	-	-
1977	146	-	X	-	-	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-
1977	147	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-
1977	162	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	X	-	-	-
1977	163	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X
1977	189	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	X	-	-
1977	223	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	X	-	-
1977	231	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X
1977	237	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	X	-	-	-	-	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X
1977	241	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X
1977	242	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	X	-	-	-

CHART 8 CROSS REFERENCES (continued)

Year published	Item number	Focus of items										Offender's age status			Type of sanction			Position on victim offender contact			Source of abstract			
		Program description	Conceptual	Historical	Cross-cultural	Formative evaluation	Outcome evaluation	Public opinion	Legal	Other social science	Study of use	General summary	Adult	Juvenile	Adult & Juvenile	Monetary	Community Services	Both M. & C.S.	Encouraged	Discussed Neutrally	Discouraged	Not mentioned	Previous bibliography	From publication
1977	275	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-
1977	315	x	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	x	-	-
1977	317	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-
1977	320	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-
1977	344	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-
1977	352	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-
1977	360	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-	-	x	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-
1977	394	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-
1977	395	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-
1977	419	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-
1977	420	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	x	-	-	-
1977	421	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-
1977	426	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x
1977	429	x	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x
1977	475	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	x	-	-	-
1977	479	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-
1977	509	x	x	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-
1977	561	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-
1977	571	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	x
1977	581	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x
1977	583	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x
1977	586	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-
1977	592	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x
1978	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-
1978	14	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x
1978	63	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-
1978	64	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	-	x
1978	76	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x
1978	81	x	x	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-	-
1978	83	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x
1978	153	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-
1978	154	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-
1978	188	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x
1978	195	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	x	-	-	-
1978	230	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-
1978	232	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	x	-	-



CHART 8 CROSS REFERENCES (continued)

Year published	Item number	Focus of items											Offender's age status			Type of sanction			Position on victim offender contact			Source of abstract			
		Program description	Conceptual	Historical	Cross-cultural	Formative evaluation	Outcomes evaluation	Public opinion	Legal	Other social science	Study of use	General summary	Adult	Juvenile	Adult & Juvenile	Monetary	Community Service	Both M. & C.S.	Encouraged	Discussed Neutrally	Discouraged	Not mentioned	Previous bibliography	From publication	This bibliography
1978	235	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X
1978	236	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	X	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-
1978	267	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	X	-	-	-	-
1978	274	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	X	-	-	-	-
1978	284	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	-	-
1978	289	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	X	-	-	-	-
1978	306	X	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	X	-	-	-	-
1978	318	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	X	-	-	-	-
1978	323	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-
1978	337	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-
1978	340	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	X	-	-	-	-
1978	348	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	X	-	-	-	-
1978	375	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	X	-	-	-	-
1978	391	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	X	-	-	-	X	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	X
1978	392	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	X
1978	418	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	X	-	-	-
1978	424	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	X	-	-	-	-
1978	435	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	X	-	-	-	-
1978	437	X	X	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	X
1978	438	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-	-	-
1978	490	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	X
1978	525	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	X
1978	527	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	X	-	-	-	X	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	X
1978	540	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	X
1978	554	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	X
1978	556	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	X	-	-	-	-
1978	564	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	X	-	-	-	-
1978	572	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	X	-	-	-	-
1978	574	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	X	-	-	-	-
1978	580	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	X	-	-	-	X	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	X
1978	594	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-
1979	34	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X
1979	42	-	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	X
1979	75	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	X
1979	97	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	X	-	-	-	-
1979	103	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	X	-	-	-	-

CHART 8 CROSS REFERENCES (continued)

Year published	Item number	Focus of items											Offender's age status			Type of sanction			Position on victim offender contact			Source of abstract			
		Program description	Conceptual	Historical	Cross-cultural	Formative evaluation	Outcome evaluation	Public opinion	Legal	Other social science	Study of use	General summary	Adult	Juvenile	Adult & Juvenile	Monetary	Community Service	Both M. & C.S.	Encouraged	Discussed Neutrally	Discouraged	Not mentioned	Previous bibliography	From publication	This bibliography
1979	104	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-
1979	119	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-
1979	125	X	X	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-
1979	129	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X
1979	150	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X
1979	165	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	X	-	-
1979	171	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-
1979	182	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	X	-	-
1979	196	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	X	-	-	-
1979	197	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-
1979	198	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-
1979	201	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	X	-	-
1979	203	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X
1979	215	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-
1979	216	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	X	-	-
1979	247	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X
1979	271	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-
1979	276	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-
1979	310	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	X	-	-
1979	338	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	X	-	-
1979	353	X	-	-	-	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	X	-	-
1979	364	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	X	-	-	-
1979	368	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-
1979	384	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	X	-	-
1979	404	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-
1979	405	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-
1979	407	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-
1979	427	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-
1979	428	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	X	-	-
1979	439	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-
1979	471	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	X	-	-
1979	478	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-
1979	491	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-
1979	497	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X
1979	511	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X
1979	524	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X

CHART 8 CROSS REFERENCES (continued)

Year published	Item number	Focus of items											Offender's age status			Type of sanction			Position on victim offender contact			Source of abstract			
		Program description	Conceptual	Historical	Cross-cultural	Formative evaluation	Outcome evaluation	Public opinion	Legal	Other social science	Study of use	General summary	Adult	Juvenile	Adult & Juvenile	Monetary	Community Service	Both M. & C.S.	Encouraged	Discussed Neutrally	Discouraged	Not mentioned	Previous bibliography	From publication	This bibliography
1979	563	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-
1979	565	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x
1979	566	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-	
1979	579	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	
1979	593	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	x	-	-	-	
1979	596	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	
1980	11	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	
1980	13	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	
1980	22	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	
1980	26	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	
1980	44	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	
1980	50	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-	
1980	51	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	
1980	55	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-	
1980	56	-	-	-	-	x	x	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	
1980	61	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	
1980	70	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	
1980	87	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	x	-	-	
1980	90	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	x	-	
1980	100	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	
1980	106	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	
1980	118	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	x	-	-	
1980	137	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-	
1980	138	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-	
1980	139	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	
1980	140	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	
1980	141	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	
1980	142	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	x	-	-	
1980	143	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	
1980	148	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	
1980	156	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	x	-	-	
1980	157	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	
1980	159	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	x	-	
1980	181	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	
1980	186	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-	
1980	187	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	

CHART 8 CROSS REFERENCES (continued)

Year published	Item number	Focus of items										Offender's age status			Type of sanction			Position on victim offender contact			Source of abstract			
		Program description	Conceptual	Historical	Cross-cultural	Formative evaluation	Outcome evaluation	Public opinion	Legal	Other social science	Study of use	General summary	Adult	Juvenile	Adult & Juvenile	Monetary	Community Service	Both M. & C.S.	Encouraged	Discussed Neutrally	Discouraged	Not mentioned	Previous bibliography	From publication
1980	193	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X
1980	194	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X
1980	204	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X
1980	205	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X
1980	209	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X
1980	217	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	X
1980	224	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X
1980	225	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	X
1980	226	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X
1980	227	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X
1980	228	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X
1980	229	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-
1980	234	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X
1980	243	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X
1980	245	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X
1980	246	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X
1980	255	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-
1980	269	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X
1980	281	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-
1980	293	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X
1980	303	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X
1980	324	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	X	-	-
1980	328	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X
1980	329	X	X	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X
1980	330	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X
1980	331	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X
1980	339	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-
1980	342	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-
1980	345	X	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X
1980	358	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	X	-	-
1980	361	-	X	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-
1980	371	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	X	-	-
1980	372	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	X	-	-	-
1980	374	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-
1980	388	X	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X
1980	389	X	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X

CHART 8 CROSS REFERENCES (continued)

Year published	Item number	Focus of items											Offender's age status			Type of sanction			Position on victim offender contact			Source of abstract		
		Program description	Conceptual	Historical	Cross-cultural	Formative evaluation	Outcome evaluation	Public opinion	Legal	Other social science	Study of use	General summary	Adult	Juvenile	Adult & Juvenile	Monetary	Community Service	Both M. & C.S.	Encouraged	Discussed neutrally	Discouraged	Not mentioned	Previous bibliography	From publication
1980	390	-	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-
1980	403	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	X	-	-
1980	412	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	X	-	-
1980	416	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-
1980	423	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X
1980	431	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X
1980	433	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X
1980	436	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X
1980	440	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	X	-
1980	461	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	X	-	-
1980	462	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	X	-	-
1980	468	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	X	-	-
1980	472	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	X	-	-
1980	477	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-
1980	485	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	-
1980	486	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	-
1980	496	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-
1980	505	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X
1980	517	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-
1980	523	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X
1980	526	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X
1980	552	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X
1980	555	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X
1980	562	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	X	-	-
1980	568	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-
1980	576	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-
1980	591	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-
1980	599	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	X
1981	2	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-
1981	9	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	X	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-
1981	24	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-
1981	28	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X
1981	32	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-
1981	57	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X
1981	58	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-
1981	73	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-

CHART 8 CROSS REFERENCES (continued)

Year published	Item number	Focus of items										Offender's age status			Type of sanction			Position on victim offender contact			Source of abstract				
		Program description	Conceptual	Historical	Cross-cultural	Formative evaluation	Outcome evaluation	Public opinion	Legal	Other social science	Study of use	General summary	Adult	Juvenile	Adult & Juvenile	Monetary	Community Service	Both M. & C.S.	Encouraged	Discussed Neutrally	Discouraged	Not mentioned	Previous bibliography	From publication	This bibliography
1981	79	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-
1981	80	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-
1981	92	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-
1981	93	x	x	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-
1981	123	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x
1981	136	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-	x	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-
1981	149	x	-	-	-	x	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-
1981	167	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x
1981	172	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x
1981	207	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x
1981	208	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-
1981	233	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-
1981	248	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x
1981	249	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x
1981	252	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-
1981	270	-	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-
1981	279	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-
1981	280	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-
1981	300	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x
1981	313	x	x	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-
1981	314	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-
1981	325	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-
1981	333	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-
1981	354	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-
1981	363	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-
1981	387	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x
1981	406	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-
1981	410	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-
1981	413	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-
1981	430	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-
1981	463	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-
1981	484	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-
1981	503	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-
1981	521	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x
1981	522	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x
1981	528	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x

CHART 8 CROSS REFERENCES (continued)

Year published	Item number	Focus of items											Offender's age status			Type of sanction			Position on victim offender contact			Source of abstract		
		Program description	Conceptual	Historical	Cross-cultural	Formative evaluation	Outcome evaluation	Public opinion	Legal	Other social science	Study of use	General summary	Adult	Juvenile	Adult & Juvenile	Monetary	Community Service	Both M. & C.S.	Encouraged	Discussed Neutrally	Discouraged	Not mentioned	Previous bibliography	From publication
1981	529	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-
1981	536	x	x	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-
1981	537	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	x	-
1981	538	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x
1981	548	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x
1981	551	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x
1981	590	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	x	-	-	-	-	x	-
1981	595	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	x
1982	10	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x
1982	15	x	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	x
1982	23	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	-	x
1982	69	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x
1982	71	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	x	-
1982	91	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-
1982	98	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	x	-
1982	160	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	x	-	-
1982	170	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x
1982	184	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x
1982	185	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	x	-	-	-	-	x	-
1982	214	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x
1982	256	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-
1982	264	-	x	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	x	-
1982	265	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	x	-
1982	273	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	x	-
1982	278	x	x	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	x
1982	288	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-
1982	299	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-
1982	311	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x
1982	322	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-
1982	332	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-
1982	343	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	x	-	-	-	-	x
1982	359	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	x
1982	369	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x
1982	370	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-
1982	376	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-
1982	402	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x

CHART 8 CROSS REFERENCES (continued)

Year published	Item number	Focus of items										Offender's age status			Type of sanction			Position on victim offender contact			Source of abstract			
		Program description	Conceptual	Historical	Cross-cultural	Formative evaluation	Outcome evaluation	Public opinion	Legal	Other social science	Study of use	General summary	Adult	Juvenile	Adult & Juvenile	Monetary	Community Service	Both M. & C.S.	Encouraged	Discussed Neutrally	Discouraged	Not mentioned	Previous bibliography	From publication
1982	434	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-
1982	466	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	X	-
1982	474	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	X	-	-	-	-	X
1982	488	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	X	-	-	-	-	X
1982	489	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	X
1982	495	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	X
1982	520	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X
1982	549	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X
1982	557	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-
1982	570	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	X	-
1982	587	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X
1982	600	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	X
1982	601	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-
1983	12	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	X	-	-	-	-	X
1983	16	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-
1983	20	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	X	-
1983	40	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-
1983	45	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X
1983	54	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-
1983	77	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-
1983	102	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X
1983	114	X	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	X	-
1983	135	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	X
1983	164	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	X	-
1983	173	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	X	-
1983	174	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	X
1983	175	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	X	-
1983	213	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X
1983	218	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	X
1983	250	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X
1983	253	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X
1983	259	X	X	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X
1983	268	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-
1983	290	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X
1983	296	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X
1983	297	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X



CHART 8 CROSS REFERENCES (continued)

Year published	Item number	Focus of items											Offender's age status			Type of sanction			Position on victim offender contact				Source of abstract		
		Program description	Conceptual	Historical	Cross-cultural	Formative evaluation	Outcome evaluation	Public opinion	Legal	Other social science	Study of use	General summary	Adult	Juvenile	Adult & Juvenile	Monetary	Community Service	Both M. & C.S.	Encouraged	Discussed Neutrally	Discouraged	Not mentioned	Previous bibliography	From publication	This bibliography
1983	298	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-	
1983	327	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	
1983	386	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	
1983	425	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	
1983	464	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-	
1983	465	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-	
1983	469	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-	
1983	470	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-	
1983	473	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-	
1983	482	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-	
1983	483	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-	
1983	494	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-	
1983	510	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	
1983	535	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	
1983	544	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	
1983	545	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	
1983	559	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	
1983	569	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-	
1983	582	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	
1983	589	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	
1983	597	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	
1984	31	-	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	
1984	48	-	-	-	-	X	X	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	
1984	66	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-	
1984	85	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	
1984	99	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	
1984	101	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-	
1984	183	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	
1984	258	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-	X	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	
1984	295	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-	
1984	308	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	
1984	335	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-	
1984	362	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-	
1984	377	X	X	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	
1984	381	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	
1984	504	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-	

CHART 8 CROSS REFERENCES (continued)

Year published	Item number	Focus of items											Offender's age status			Type of sanction			Position on victim offender contact				Source of abstract		
		Program description	Conceptual	Historical	Cross-cultural	Formative evaluation	Outcome evaluation	Public opinion	Legal	Other social science	Study of use	General summary	Adult	Juvenile	Adult & Juvenile	Monetary	Community Service	Both M. & C.S.	Encouraged	Discussed Neutrally	Discouraged	Not mentioned	Previous bibliography	From publication	This bibliography
1984	585	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	
1985	8	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	
1985	21	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	
1985	29	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-	
1985	33	x	x	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	
1985	36	x	x	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	
1985	38	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-	
1985	52	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	
1985	53	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-	
1985	68	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	
1985	82	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	
1985	105	x	x	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	
1985	117	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	
1985	128	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-	
1985	134	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	
1985	210	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	
1985	211	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-	
1985	212	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-	
1985	221	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-	
1985	244	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	
1985	262	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	x	-	
1985	282	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	
1985	283	x	x	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	x	-	
1985	291	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	
1985	294	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-	
1985	355	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	
1985	357	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-	
1985	367	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	
1985	378	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-	
1985	385	x	x	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-	
1985	401	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-	
1985	432	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	
1985	455	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-	
1985	457	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	
1985	458	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	
1985	459	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	

CHART 8 CROSS REFERENCES (continued)

Year published	Item number	Focus of items										Offender's age status			Type of sanction			Position on victim offender contact			Source of abstract			
		Program description	Conceptual	Historical	Cross-cultural	Formative evaluation	Outcome evaluation	Public opinion	Legal	Other social science	Study of use	General summary	Adult	Juvenile	Adult & Juvenile	Monetary	Community Service	Both M. & C.S.	Encouraged	Discussed Neutrally	Discouraged	Not mentioned	Previous bibliography	From publication
1985	460	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	X
1985	467	-	-	-	-	X	X	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	X	-	-	-	-	X
1985	481	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-	-	X	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	X
1985	493	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	X
1985	508	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-
1985	519	-	X	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X
1985	534	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	X
1985	539	-	-	-	X	X	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X
1985	577	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X
1985	578	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-
1986	5	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X
1986	6	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X
1986	19	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X
1986	60	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X
1986	62	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X
1986	86	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X
1986	88	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X
1986	89	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X
1986	94	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-
1986	107	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-
1986	161	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	X
1986	200	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X
1986	261	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-
1986	307	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X
1986	321	X	X	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X
1986	334	X	X	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-
1986	336	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-
1986	379	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X
1986	397	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X
1986	398	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X
1986	399	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X
1986	400	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X
1986	442	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X
1986	445	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-
1986	456	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X
1986	492	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X

CHART 8 CROSS REFERENCES (continued)

Year published	Item number	Focus of items											Offender's age status			Type of sanction			Position on victim offender contact			Source of abstract			
		Program description	Conceptual	Historical	Cross-cultural	Formative evaluation	Outcome evaluation	Public opinion	Legal	Other social sciences	Study of use	General summary	Adult	Juvenile	Adult & Juvenile	Monetary	Community Service	Both M. & C.S.	Encouraged	Discussed Neutrally	Discouraged	Not mentioned	Previous bibliography	From publication	This bibliography
1986	498	x	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-
1986	502	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x
1986	506	x	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-
1986	514	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	x	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x
1986	515	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x
1986	516	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-
1986	518	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x
1986	531	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x
1986	532	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	x
1986	533	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	x
1986	541	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x
1986	543	-	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-
1986	573	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x
1987	3	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x
1987	7	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-
1987	18	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-
1987	59	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x
1987	95	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x
1987	121	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x
1987	122	x	-	-	-	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x
1987	166	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x
1987	260	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-
1987	309	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x
1987	414	x	-	-	-	x	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-
1987	415	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-
1987	547	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-	x	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x
1987	584	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x
1987	588	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	x	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x
1988	4	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x
1988	37	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x
1988	133	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	x
1988	158	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x
1988	199	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x
1988	277	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-
1988	326	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x
1988	356	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-

CHART 8 CROSS REFERENCES (continued)

Year published	Item number	Focus of items											Offender's age status			Type of sanction			Position on victim offender contact			Source of abstract			
		Program description	Conceptual	Historical	Cross-cultural	Formative evaluation	Outcome evaluation	Public opinion	Legal	Other social science	Study of use	General summary	Adult	Juvenile	Adult & Juvenile	Monetary	Community Service	Both M. & C.S.	Encouraged	Discussed Neutrally	Discouraged	Not mentioned	Previous bibliography	From publication	This bibliography
1988	383	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	x
1988	443	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x
1988	444	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x
1988	480	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x
1988	500	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x
1988	530	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	x
1988	546	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x
1988	558	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x
1989	30	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	x
1989	176	-	x	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	x
1989	553	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	x
1990	78	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	x
1990	113	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x
1990	115	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	x
1990	177	-	x	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	x
1990	382	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	x
1990	441	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x
1990	542	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	x
1990	560	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x
NK	65	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-
NK	131	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-
NK	202	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-
NK	304	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-
NK	350	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-
NK	598	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-

## REFERENCES AND ABSTRACTS

1

Acres, D. J. (1978). Football hooliganism--An answer in attendance centers? Justice of the Peace, 142, 258-259.

Violence associated with soccer matches could best be handled through the use of community service orders and/or attendance centers. Community service orders offer an effective means of denunciation as well as incapacitation.

2

Ada County District Court. (1981). Juvenile restitution project in the fourth judicial district--Final report. Boise, ID: Ada County District Court.

The report summarizes the results of the juvenile restitution program in Ada County, Idaho, for the 31 months ending in September 1981. The program was one of six sites throughout the United States that were chosen for intensive evaluation. Project goals were to reduce the numbers of incarcerated youths, to reduce recidivism, and to provide redress in relation to the loss suffered by victims. Additional goals were to increase the youthful offender's sense of responsibility and accountability, community confidence in the juvenile justice process, and knowledge about the feasibility of restitution for juveniles.

Restitution plans were developed for 855 of the 1,077 juveniles referred to the program. The court ordered 633 youths to make restitution in the form of monetary compensation, community service, or direct victim service.

About four-fifths of the offenders complied completely with the restitution requirements. The numbers of youths in the program fell short of the projected number of 1,550 because of the excessive optimism of the original estimate and the Federal policy change preventing incarcerated youth from participating in the program. The youths were assigned an average of 35.5 hours of unpaid community service, \$223 in monetary compensation, or 19.9 hours of victim service. The cost per youth ordered to make restitution of any type was \$290. After the elimination of incarcerated youths from the program, the remaining youths served an average of 1.6 days in detention, compared to about 5 days for all juvenile offenders. The program did not affect the district's arrest rate. Recidivism data were not available. Data from exit questionnaires returned from victims showed that victims were overwhelmingly in favor of the program. All the data collected to date also indicate the feasibility of restitution for juveniles in this district. The county hired two full-time restitution officers and a restitution secretary when Federal funding expired.

3

Adair, H., Harman, J., & Hine, J. C. (1987). Community service in the 80s. England: Association of Chief Officers of Probation.

A mail survey of British chief probation officers to secure information regarding how the community service (CS) sentence was being administered and its relation to probation, which is a social work program in England. Open ended questions were used; a 100% response rate was secured. Increasing the actual numbers of CS orders is not a concern but concern was expressed about persuading courts to use CS for more serious offenders. Most of the probation services perceived CS as a high tariff sanction and believed it should be used as alternative to custody.

Several staffing patterns were noted with a trend toward decentralization with community service staff located at several offices in a county rather than administering the sentence from a central office. Concern was expressed about the use of ancillary staff; what is the rationale for ancillary staff and fully trained probation officers performing the same functions? Potential conflict between efficiency in the administration of the CS sentence and effectiveness was noted. Issues of group versus individual placements were identified and several different patterns of group placements noted. Two issues were identified for attention; the need for explicit statement of aim of the community service sentence at each local level to clarify the place of community service in the sentencing tariff and the need to resolve disparities in staffing for community service. The community service sentence is at a crossroads from which it must strengthen and consolidate gains if it is to fulfill its role as a sentence for diverting offenders from custody.

4

Agopian, M. (1988, June). Targeting juvenile gang offenders for community service. Paper presented at the International Symposium of Restitution and Community Service Sentencing, Minneapolis, MN.

Gang members found guilty of committing juvenile offenses are sentenced to community service work removing graffiti, often gang symbols, from public places. The program has been in effect for two years. The average community service sentence is 148 hours. The characteristics of the first 300 offenders sentenced suggest that a typical client was 16-17 years of age, a male of Mexican-American origin, and attending school. Fifty four percent of the offenses were property related and an additional 17% involved substance or alcohol abuse. Seventy two percent of the referrals had 0-2 prior arrests, and 24% had 3-4 prior arrests. Eighty eight percent of the first 300 youths placed completed the community service order. A carefully supervised and intensively monitored community service disposition is appropriate for juvenile offenders who are gang members. The community contained fewer signs of gang activity and participants learned that the community expected law abiding behavior and respect for property from young people.

Albrecht, H., & Schädler, W. (1986). Geminnutzige Arbeit: Current themes in implementing community service as an additional option for fine defaulters in the Federal Republic of Germany. In H. Albrecht & W. Schädler (Eds.), Criminological Research Reports: Vol. 25. Community service: A new option in punishing offenders in Europe (pp. 173-190). Freiburg, Germany: Max-Planck Institute.

Community service may be used in the German adult penal system as (a) a substitute for imprisonment faced by fine defaulters, (b) as an additional condition in the case of a suspension of a prison sentence, (c) as a condition of a suspension of a fine, or (d) combined with a public prosecutors decision to dismiss a case if the offender and court consent. Community service can be used as one of the educational measures in juvenile criminal law.

The city-states of Hamburg (1968) and Berlin (1978) had little success at early attempts to implement community service; Hesse was the first large state to attempt to use community service beginning in 1981; community service will be in effect in all the German states by the beginning of 1987. German penal code permits a person convicted of failure to pay a fine to perform community service in lieu of imprisonment; Hesse was the first state to systematically implement this provision. Community service is tied to the day fine concept with the offender being able to redeem the fine by substituting fixed hours of labor for every per diem of fine. The public prosecutor is unable to collect a fine, the offender is summoned to commence serving a term of imprisonment but is notified of the possibility of working off the fine and is instructed to make contact with a social worker in the prosecutor's office if the offender wishes assistance in obtaining a work site. There are 1,250 community service agencies in Hesse who are able to accommodate 4,000 offenders. Through August 1985 a total of 2,635 offenders in Hesse have partly or wholly worked off their fines and have saved 54,493 days of imprisonment. The development of procedures for community service in relationship to fine defaults have induced judges and public prosecutors in Hesse to make use of the other provisions for community service. Public prosecutors have suspended proceedings in 387 cases on the condition that the offenders perform community service.

Community service must be administered in ways that avoid the constitutional prohibition on penal servitude and restrictions on humiliating punishments. The place of community service in punishment theory and sentencing theory has not yet been clarified. What sentence should be replaced by community service? There is no maximum on the number of days that can be redeemed or the number of hours that judges may order as a condition of suspended sentence. Two areas for possible expansion of community service include use of community service rather than a fine as a condition of suspended sentence and the possibility of allowing unemployed prisoners to do community service to make the work release option available to them.



6

Albrecht, H., & Schädler, W. (1986). Community service in Europe: Concluding remarks. In H. Albrecht & W. Schädler (Eds.), Criminological Research Reports: Vol. 25. Community service: A new option in punishing offenders in Europe (pp. 191-195). Freiburg, Germany: Max-Planck Institute.

With the exception of Great Britain community service in Europe has not developed a position of its own within a spectrum of sanction although it is moving in this direction. The structure to administer community service sanctioning including available community service placement sites should be in place prior to introducing the sanction. The effect of unemployment will likely be to enhance the resocializing aspects of community service and reduce its role as a punishment. Community service should not be compulsory. Future development of community service should become more victim oriented, including the possibility of community service provided to crime victims, as well as the possibility of payment into a fund commensurate with the value of community service work performed from which reparation payments could be made to crime victims. All European countries, with the exception of the Federal Republic of Germany, set a maximum on the number of hours of community service which can be imposed (generally about 250). The possibility of suspending community service sentences should also be considered.

7

Allen, G. F., & Treger, H. (1987). Community service orders: Issues and considerations. In G. J. Ensinger (Ed.), Festschrift for Sarah B. Scharr (pp. 118-130). Des Plaines, IL: Illinois Academy of Criminology.

Unless the goals and objectives of community service orders (CSO's) are defined, their overuse will turn CSO's into another 'fad' alternative to incarceration which may lose credibility and become obsolete.

8

Allen-Hagen, B. (1985). Federal assistance for juvenile restitution programming. In A. L. Schneider (Ed.), Guide to Juvenile Restitution (pp. 159-163). Washington, DC: U.S. Dept. of Justice, Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention.

Federal assistance for juvenile restitution programming is available from the Bureau of Justice Assistance Block Grant Program administered by the states. Technical assistance in the form of training seminars, technical assistance vouchers, and opportunities to visit host sites is available from the Restitution Education, Specialized Training, and Technical Assistance program (RESTTA) of the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency and Prevention. The National Criminal Justice Reference Service operates a National Restitution Resource Center. Some funding may be available from the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention formula grants, which are also administered by states. Addresses and telephone numbers of contact persons are included.

9

Alper, B. S., & Nichols, L. T. (1981). Beyond the courtroom: Programs in community justice and conflict resolution. Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.

A review of and description of several programming thrusts which have developed as alternatives to judicial handling of offenders including restitution, programs to provide assistance to crime victims, arbitration and mediation programs, use of sentencing panels, community service as alternative sentencing, and various forms of community courts.

10

Alternative Behavior Associates. (1982). Dakota County District Court Community Work Service Demonstration Project: Final report. St. Paul, MN: Minnesota Department of Corrections.

Between January 1, 1981 and February 1982, 104 offenders were referred to the project (usually by probation officers) and 90 were accepted; about 75% of the accepted offenders were persons convicted of felonies. Of the first 70 referrals, 61 offenders agreed to participate in the program and of these, 75% completed their work service. Offenders who completed the program were surveyed and asked if they perceived the community work service option as more fair, equally fair, or less fair than their original sentence; about 50% of the offenders responded, and 26 of the 35 respondents indicated that community service was more fair; the other nine reported it as equally fair. Thirty-nine criminal justice officials also were surveyed and asked their perception of the fairness of community work service contrasted with traditional sentences; of 28 respondents, 13 perceived community work service as more fair, 11 as equally fair, and 4 as less fair. The cost of the program was \$366 per participant; participants returned an average value of labor to the community of \$357. It is estimated that the program resulted in 697 saved jail days and 16 years of saved probation supervision.

11

Arbing, P. (1980). Programs for financial aid to victims. Presentation at Canadian Services to Crime Victims Conference, Ottawa, ON.

Restitution might be used more effectively as a victim service but this will require a change in attitude on the part of many criminal justice officials towards victims. Many victims want to meet their offenders and most offenders have ability to pay, especially if restitution requirements are spread over twelve to eighteen months. It is preferable to integrate these practices into probation work rather than to establish specialists; the program at Prince Edward island involves monetary restitution, community service, and victim service in which the offender performs community service obligations to the victims of crime.

12

Armstrong, T., Hofford, M., Maloney, D., Remington, C., & Steenson, D. (1983). Restitution: A guidebook for juvenile justice practitioners. Reno, NV: National Council of Juvenile and Family Court Judges.

Restitution is an appropriate sanction for juvenile offenders because it holds the youth accountable and benefits the youth, victim, community, and juvenile justice system. The arguments for an accountability model of juvenile restitution are developed by directors of restitution projects funded through the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention (OJJDP) juvenile restitution initiative. The accountability model is thought to have some rehabilitative impact in as much as it teaches youth new skills. Steps in designing a restitution program are discussed.

13

Armstrong, T. L. (1980, September). Restitution: A sanction for all seasons. Paper presented at the Fourth Symposium on Restitution and Community Service Sentencing, Minneapolis, MN.

Argues for the use of restitutive sanctions with a wider population of juvenile offenders, including persons who have committed crimes against persons.

14

Aull, J. (1978). Issues in implementing the sole sanction restitution program in Georgia. Atlanta: Georgia Department of Offender Rehabilitation.

A sole sanction restitution program has been operative in four judicial districts of Georgia. Major problems in implementing the program and research were vagueness in defining restitution, overly ambitious research objectives relative to the availability of resources, and problems flowing from attempts at implementing identical programs in four separate locations.

15

Austin, J., & Krisberg, B. (1982). The unmet promise of alternatives to incarceration. Crime and Delinquency, 28, 374-409.

A review of the research on alternatives to incarceration suggests that the promise of reducing the prison population has remained unfulfilled. For each reform strategy, the nonincarcerative options were transformed, serving goals other than reducing imprisonment.

Sentencing alternatives such as restitution and community service reinforced the sanctions of probation and fines instead of replacing incarceration. Similarly, postincarceration

release programs such as work release and work furlough often escalated the level of control over clients and served primarily to control prison populations. Increasing the availability of community corrections facilities has not reduced prison populations; it has merely changed the place of imprisonment from state institutions to county jails.

16

Australian Institute of Criminology. (1983). Community service orders in Australia and New Zealand. Australia: Australian Institute of Criminology.

These 1983 workshop proceedings consider the use of community service orders in Australian States and Territories. An overview discusses the content of community service order legislation being readied for 1984-85 and the status of the use of community service orders in various Australian jurisdictions. Variations in specific provisions, costs, hours of service, and numbers of offenders involved are summarized. Issues of concern to all jurisdictions are explained, including portability, compensation and accident insurance, presentence reports, the types of organizations involved, staff training, community service orders for adolescents, the use of community service as a genuine alternative to imprisonment, fine options, considerations regarding Aborigines, and workloads. Reports from each jurisdiction, some with figures and tables, are included.

17

Azrin, N. H., & Weslowski, M. D. (1974). Theft reversal: An overcorrection procedure for eliminating stealing by retarded persons. Journal of Applied Behavior Analysis, 7, 577-581.

A procedure to eliminate stealing by retarded persons is described as this involves a restitution requirement. The restitution requirement is aimed at educating the offender to assume responsibility for the misbehavior by restoring the theft.

18

Baer, B. F., & Klein, J. R. (1987). Reparative work programs benefit communities and offenders. Corrections Today, 49(7) 84, 86, 101.

An experimental program involving selected Federal inmates in 400 hours in full-time unpaid community service as a means of having their parole dates advanced by two months was well received by the agencies involved and resulted in offers of paid positions to many inmates.

Lack of staff to monitor the project resulted in its termination, but state corrections agencies are urged to adopt the project. The project's first phase began in March 1985. One hundred carefully screened inmates lived in halfway houses in nine municipalities while working in jobs ranging from building maintenance to programming computers.

A partially matched comparison group consisted of 140 inmates released from Federal prisons during 1984. The 100 offenders performed more than \$168,000 worth of work and saved 5,538 days of bed space. Budget cutbacks forced curtailment of the first phase. A second phase involved 32 inmates who stayed in prison while performing the community work. In most ways, the project was a complete success.

19

Balder, J. (1986). Community service in Denmark -- Report on the experiences with community service as a penal sanction. In H. Albrecht & W. Schädler (Eds.), Criminological Research Reports: Vol. 25. Community service: A new option in punishing offenders in Europe (pp. 109-120). Freiburg, Germany: Max Planck Institute.

Development of alternatives to imprisonment has been the major objective of the Danish criminal policy for more than a decade. In 1982 an experiment with community service orders was begun in Copenhagen and northern Jutland using existing powers of courts to set special conditions for suspended sentences. The experiment was intended for offenders who might otherwise serve short nonsuspended sentences of imprisonment. The range of hours can be between 40 and 200 and the length of the performance is generally set at between 4 to 12 months. The target group was young offenders who had committed property offenses. The offender must consent to the sentence. An assessment of suitability for community service is made by the probation department; responsibility for administering the community service sentence rests with probation.

By October, 1985, 459 offenders had been referred for community service assessments; 67% had been found fit for community service, 20% unfit for community service, consent was not obtained from 4%, and a recommendation was still pending for 9%. Thirty five percent of the referred cases were for theft, 29% for other property crimes, 13% for robbery, 6% for drug crimes, 11% for assault, and 6% for other offenses. Of the 973 offenders recommended for community service, however, only 356 were actually sentenced to community service. Of the original 1,459 referred for community service assessments, 24% were sentenced to community service, 22% to imprisonment, 20% received a suspended sentence, 1% were acquitted, 1% received other sentences, and 31% were still pending. Seventy eight percent of the 356 offenders sentenced to community service were property offenders. The median of hours of community service was 100. Eighty two percent of 222 closed cases had been closed because the community service requirement was completed. In 1984 the experiment was extended to the entire nation. Community service has been successfully implemented in the Danish Criminal Justice system although it is not known if the sentence is being used as a substitute for short term imprisonment.

20

Barton, B., & Longenbaugh, L. (1983). Sentencing alternatives. Juneau, AK: Alaska State Legislature House Research Agency.

This report by Alaska's legislative research agency provides an overview of community corrections, restitution, and community service orders; reviews other States' programs in these areas; and examines similar program considerations.

21

Bazemore, G. (1985). Employment components and job assistance. In A. L. Schneider (Ed.), Guide to Juvenile Restitution (pp. 151-157). Washington, DC: U.S. Dept. of Justice, Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention.

Job assistance components have been integrated into some juvenile restitution programs to facilitate completion of the restitution order. Three models of job assistance include private sector job development, public sector subsidized employment, and job training. Each model requires the investment of restitution staff resources beyond those necessary to complete other program activities. There are arguments favoring each of the models of job assistance, but program selection of a model appears to be influenced primarily by local conditions. Staff should feel free to innovate and adapt job assistance components to community constraints and opportunities. Managers must realize that each model implies an allocation of program resources and may present a set of management problems in finding a proper fit between resource allocation to job assistance and other restitution activities.

22

Beck-Zierdt, N. (1980). Tri-county juvenile restitution program. St. Paul, MN: Minnesota Crime Control Planning Board.

This evaluation report describes Minnesota's Tri County Juvenile Restitution Program; analyzes its clients, activities, and costs; and compares these findings with the Steele County Community Work Service Program. The target population for the Tri County program is juveniles admitting guilt or found guilty of any offense except murder, manslaughter, and rape. From January 1987 through July 1979, the program served 382 clients, of whom 72% had committed crimes against property. Drug-related offenses accounted for 14.6% of the charges, other criminal offenses 10.5%, and crimes against persons and status offenses the remaining 2.9%. Clients ranged in age from 9 to 18 years, with the average being 16 years old. Almost all offenders were white, and 85.6% were male. Tri County tries to use monetary or work service restitution in most juvenile cases. A description of the restitution process covers the judge's role and the restitution conference among the victim offender, and restitution officer. Criteria governing the decision to use work service or monetary restitution are discussed.

During the evaluation period, 66% of the offenders completed their restitution satisfactorily, while 15% received an extension to the time limit set and then completed the restitution. Only .52% of the clients failed to receive an authorized extension, and completion of restitution in 18% of the cases is unknown. The Steele County program serves a similar population but deals only with community work service and has dropped

victim involvement. An analysis of costs in both programs shows that average cost per client in Tri County was \$78.46 compared to \$174.58 in Steele County. The Tri County program has administered surveys to victims and offenders to measure achievement of goals, but few conclusions can be drawn from these data because response has been poor. Follow-up information on 203 offenders 6 months after they were terminated from the program in July 1979, revealed that 10.3% had reinvolvement with the criminal justice system.

23

Beck-Zierdt, N., & Shattuck, S. (1982). Juvenile restitution technical assistance package. St. Paul, MN: Department of Energy, Planning and Development.

Guide prepared to assist administrators and program planners in developing monetary restitution and/or community service restitution programs for juvenile offenders. Suggestions are made for resolving issues regarding program goals, offender eligibility, types of compensation, procedures for assessing victim loss, determining type of restitution payments, determining amount of loss, victim participation, developing restitution contracts, accounting and disbursement of payments, and decisions regarding program evaluation.

24

Beger, R. R., & White, P. R. (1981). A case for public service work. Juvenile and Family Court Journal, 32(4), 49-57.

This analysis of the Juvenile Court Public Service Work Program in Winnebago County, Ill., concludes that assigning youths public service work as a condition of probation offers a remedy to the current dilemma over devising fiscally sound but progressive programs.

25

Beha, J., Carlson, K., & Rosenblum, R. H. (1977). Sentencing to community service. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice, National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice.

Sentencing selected offenders to perform services to the community has become an increasingly popular option for judges in lieu of traditional sentences, particularly in cases involving misdemeanors. This document sets forth several types of community service alternative sentencing programs and discusses the issues and problems typically or potentially facing these programs. After an introductory chapter discussing the theory behind alternative sentencing, chapter two describes three different types of alternative community service or court referral programs and identifies major program issues of concern to planners and administrators. Chapter three involves the legal issues concerning sentencing to community service including a discussion of the statutory bases and legal authority for such sentencing, potential constitutional issues, and the

increasingly troublesome issue of potential tort liability. A final chapter is a discussion of the need for and methods of monitoring and evaluating such programs. The extent to which community service sentencing is currently being used and its impact on the judicial system are questions yet to be answered. The projects and the results described suggest that sentencing to community service as an alternative to fines may be of benefit to interested communities.

26

Benek, A. J., Trope, G. B., & Allen, J. (1980, September). Paper presented at the Fourth Symposium on Restitution and Community Service Sentencing. St. Paul, MN: Social Development Associates, Inc.

A matrix system provides a relatively objective framework for use by juvenile courts to secure consistency in ordering community service hours. A matrix is presented based on the variables of offense seriousness (felony/misdemeanor) and prior delinquent history (first time offender/repeated offender). A maximum of 160 hours of community service was established. Implementing a community service matrix facilitates bookkeeping and case management and reduces the time between the final disposition and the youth's work site placement allowing for more efficient program operation.

27

Bergman, H. S. (1975). Community service in England: An alternative to custodial sentence. Federal Probation, 39(1), 43-46.

Origins, implementation, current operations and underlying philosophy of the British community service order program is described. The program has been well received by offenders, the probation service, and the public.

28

Berman, L. N., & Hoelter, H. J. (1981). Client specific planning. Federal Probation, 45(2), 37-43. This article was originally prepared for and presented at the Fourth Symposium on Restitution and Community Service Sentencing, Minneapolis, MN, 1980.

Describes the use of individualized, alternative-to-prison, treatment plans for offenders that commonly involve financial restitution and community service requirements.

29

Besse, A. (1985). Community service corps--A corrections initiative. Madison, WI: Wisconsin Division of Corrections.



This proposal outlines the goals and model program components of a Wisconsin Division of Corrections initiative designed to combine community service with inmate occupational training.

The proposed Community Service Corps has two major goals: to provide participants with skills, a work record, and resources to increase their post-release employment rate, and to provide community service, including conservation duties, of value to the general public. The comprehensive model will include client testing, counselling, education, vocational skills training, and job seeking and keeping skills training. It also will have a formal job development and placement component. Participation will be for up to six months, and a majority of the time will be spent in community service work. Participants will be paid \$3.35 per hour, with provisions for a modest raise for successful performance. Finally, participants will be provided with follow-up and placement services. Specific project design will be dictated by the funding source. Both process and outcome evaluations of the proposed program are planned.

30

Bettmer, F., Messmer, H., & Otto, H. (1989). Informal justice and conflict solution--A research report on new interventive strategies of administrative social work in the field of juvenile delinquency. In P. A. Albrecht & O. Backes (Eds.), Crime prevention and intervention: Legal and ethical problems (pp. 129-143). Berlin: Walter de Gruyter.

Provisions in the German juvenile code permitting prosecutors to divert cases if educational measures have been taken are being used in Bielefeld, Germany to divert juvenile offenders to an informal justice procedure instead of prosecution. Cases are diverted to social workers in the Youth Authority, to determine if educational measures have already occurred in the social situations of offenders and to avoid unnecessary intervention. If informal educational measures have not occurred, the offender is involved in a process designed to effect redress to the victim including victim-offender reconciliation. If the offender cannot be involved in a victim reconciliation process, community work will be negotiated between the offender and the youth worker. One hundred and twenty cases were received in 1987, most of which were single or repeated shoplifting, larceny, damage to property, physical injury, assault, and traffic offenses.

The sessions between the social worker and offender, social worker and victim, and the victim offender mediation sessions are audio-recorded to permit study of the mediation process and its impact on both victim and offender. Preliminary analysis suggests that the talks between the social worker and youth are cooperative, they reach consensus about the negotiation, and offenders cannot maintain techniques of neutralization in the meetings with victims. Victims are able to address expectation for both material and emotional compensation directly to the persons responsible; material settlement is made more quickly, but the emotional help of being able to articulate strain relating to the offense appears to be even more important to victims. Youth workers, whose roles have typically involved contacts with youth or presentation of information to court, are finding it necessary to adapt and learn the role of being a neutral mediator. Informal

procedures are suitable interventions which are comprehensible and acceptable to the parties involved.

31

Bianchi, H. (1984). A Biblical Vision of Justice. New perspectives on crime and justice (Occasional Papers #2). Elkhart, IN: Mennonite Central Committee, U.S. Office of Criminal Justice and Kitchner, ON: Mennonite Central Committee, Canada Victim Offender Ministries Program.

Biblical justifications for concepts of retaliation and retribution underling much of criminal justice may be based on erroneous translations. The word t'sedeka means much more than the English word justice; Buber in his German translations comes closer to capturing its meaning with "to make peace." Thus making peace through conflict resolution is closer to the biblical concept of justice than imposing punishment on wrongdoers.

32

Blackstone Institute. (1981). Improving victim services thru probation--Final report. Durham, NC: Blackstone Institute, American Probation and Parole Association.

This report presents a state-by-state analysis of victim services rendered through probation departments supervising adult and juvenile offenders throughout the United States. A total of 419 probation departments, representing all states except Idaho, reported that they provide services to adults. Of this group, 367 departments serve both juvenile and adult offenders. A total of 85% of the departments help victims obtain financial restitution, 68% supervise offenders in community services, and 63% provide victims with counselling information. More information is required, however, for proper assessment of counselling services. In addition, further research is required with regard to the reported supervising of offenders in community services. Areas of concern would include types of programs used, effect on the offender, and cost benefits. Fifty-three% of the departments reported referring victims to community services. A total of 457 departments, representing all but one state (Vermont), reported that they give services to juveniles. Eighty-five percent help victims obtain financial restitution, and 71% supervise offenders in community restitution. Seventy-four% of the reporting departments provide victims with counselling or information, 58% refer victims to community services, and 68% obtain victim impact statements.

33

Blagg, H. (1985). Reparation and justice for juveniles: The Corby experience. British Journal of Criminology, 25, 267-279.

Reparation has the potential to humanize the justice system, but it can also be an avenue to further diffuse control into civil society. This study focuses on the meaning

reparation had for young offenders who were diverted from prosecution by the Corby Juvenile Liaison Bureau in Northamptonshire, England. The Bureau received 492 referrals between November 1981 and November 1982, 77 of whom took part in some kind of offense resolution. Twenty-one met the victim and compensated him or her in some way. Twenty-seven made an apology directly to the victim but did not pay compensation, and 38 made reparation indirectly through some kind of community work.

Research consisted of interviews with 17 of these young people (2 girls and 15 boys); 14 had done indirect reparation, 11 had compensated the victim in some way, and 7 had made a direct apology. Reparation had quite different meaning to individual youths. One useful distinction is between an institutional reparative model in which a youth is required to make amends to an organization and a personal reparative model in which a youth makes reparation directly to another individual. The institution reparative model offers a restricted scope for reconciliation and understanding because it tends to replicate other more formal encounters between young persons and authority; some of these situations are weighted in the direction of the adults' need to admonish youthful misbehavior and may not provide opportunity for the youth to gain from the experience.

The personal reparative model provided a different experience for the youth because there was less of a need to be accountable to an institution and more of a need for the victim to have anxiety and a sense of threat removed and more desire of the offender to put something right. Personal reparation is often a hard process for youth, but with careful preparation can be a meaningful experience for juvenile offenders. Conflicts arising out of peer group pressure or where there has been a wider dimension of local trouble require some additional counseling to uncover the limits of individual responsibility.

34

Blew, C. H., & Rosenblum, R. (1979). The community arbitration project, Anne Arundel County, Maryland: A juvenile justice alternative. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice, National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice.

Describes the operations and current status of the community arbitration project. Essential elements of the project are prompt case processing, court room setting, involvement of victims, assurance of due process, use of community resources, and constructive sentencing. Benefits of the program for the clients and the juvenile justice system are identified and ways to start a similar kind of program in other communities are suggested.

35

Bluestein, R. S., Hollinger, V., McGowan, L., & Moore, S. (1977). Attitudes of the legal community toward creative restitution, victim compensation, and related social work involvement. Unpublished master's thesis, University of South Carolina.

The attitudes of the legal community in South Carolina toward creative restitution and victim compensation as well as the differences in the attitudes held by three sub-samples of the legal population--judges, private practice attorneys, and prosecuting attorneys--are described. Mailed questionnaires were sent to 57 judges, 51 prosecutors, and 142 defense attorneys in private practice. One hundred questionnaires were returned and ten of these were unusable. The overall response rate was 38% and the response rate for the sub-samples were 57% for private practice attorneys, 22% for prosecuting attorneys, 21% for judges.

Major findings were:

- Strong support was shown for restitution; lawyers in private practice were highly supportive with judges ranking closely behind.
- Respondents between the ages of 36 and 50 had a more positive attitude toward restitution than either younger or older respondents.
- Eighty-nine percent of the respondents saw potential value for the use of creative restitution programs and only four percent of the sample responded negatively.
- Seventy-four percent of the respondents did not think that the state should be obligated to compensate victims of crime and 44% were either uninterested or very uninterested in the concept of victim compensation.

36

Bol, M. W. (1985). C.S.O.'s in the Netherlands. The Hague, Netherlands: Ministry of Justice, Research and Documentation Center.

In 1981 the Dutch began experiments with community service sentencing in eight probation districts. Community service could be imposed by either a public prosecutor or by courts. A shift occurred towards court imposed rather than prosecutor imposed community service so that by May, 1982, 70% of the cases of community service were ordered by courts. Courts are generally content to establish the number of hours of community service and to leave it to the probation service to work out a satisfactory placement. A sufficient number of community service projects have been found although over half of the placements are work such as repair, maintenance, and decorating mostly for welfare institutions. About 90% of community service projects are carried out as agreed. A comparison of persons given community service with those given short custodial sentences shows that a higher proportion among the former are first offenders who had committed property offenses. Questionnaire and interview data collected from organizations receiving community service offenders, prosecutors, and judges indicated satisfaction with the sentence and led to the conclusion that community service sentencing has been successful. Community service experience in other European countries is briefly summarized.

Several matters need attention regarding the further development of community service including its legal nature, the penal objective to be accomplished by community service, the relation of community service to other punishment and measures, the maximum number of community service hours to be imposed, and whether community service should be used as a condition of suspending other sentences. Also at issue are the

lowest age at which persons should be sentenced to community service, ensuring equality in the administration of community service, legal certainty in the sense that the offender should know exactly what he may expect, and the role of probation service in the organization of community service. Community service offers a chance to provide an adequate reaction to serious offenses without removing offenders from society.

37

Boraas, T., & Umbreit, M. S. (1988, June). Community service: An alternative sentence that works. Paper presented at the International Symposium of Restitution and Community Service Sentencing, Minneapolis, MN.

A court referred volunteer program operated by the Minnesota Citizens' Council on Crime and Justice placed over 4,000 offenders (adult felons, adult misdemeanants and juveniles) in community service work sites in 1988. Referrals are received from the courts with placement and monitoring completed by a private agency; the program is staffed by five persons with an annual budget of \$184,000. The mean number of community service hours ordered by the court was 42 for adult misdemeanants, 163 for adult felons, and 12 for juvenile clients, most of whom were pre-trial diversion cases. In 1987, 3,201 offenders were referred to the program, 2,534 placed, and of these, 83% successfully completed. A recent survey of a random sample of offenders who completed their hours indicated a high level of satisfaction with the program; 35% of the offenders reported they were very satisfied and 53% indicated satisfied.

38

Bottoms, A. E. (1985). Neglected features of contemporary penal systems. In D. Garland & P. Young (Eds.), Power to punish (pp. 166-202). New York, NY: Humanities Press.

The use of fines, community service orders, and victim compensation in contemporary sentencing is examined in relation to Cohen's (1979) and Methiesen's (1980) 'dispersal of discipline' thesis, which argues that the state, by increasing the number and variety of sentences, extends its social control mechanisms into more aspects of citizen's lives. The paper demonstrates how these three dispositions are less expressive of the expansion and extension of state control than a reflection of the technology, changes in the nature of work, and the growth of welfarism and corporatism that characterize 'post-liberal' society. The essay concludes with a relevant discussion of the differentiation of discipline, the moral evaluation of crimes, and political initiatives in crime control. The latter discussion indicates the complexity of understanding punishment in modern Western societies.

39

Bourke, C. (1976). Community service: A different view. Justice of the Peace, 140, 441-443.

The British community service program's provision that offenders are not to be sentenced for community service unless the court would otherwise have imposed a custodial sentence is discussed critically. The origins of this view is the policy of community service authorities about returning program defaulters back to court and the Criminal Justice Act of 1972. Breaches of community service order are specified in the Criminal Justice Act as ranking with a fine, the continuance of probation, or with any other form of sentence. Community service must be seen as more than simply an alternative to imprisonment.

40

Brennan, T. P., & Mason, L. (1983). Community service: A developing concept. Federal Probation, 46(2), 49-57.

In its first 11 months, the community service program in the Sixth Municipal District of Cook County, IL, has had 52 defendants complete 2,210 hours of work for the community.

41

Brewer, D. L. (1977, November). The California restitution project. Paper presented at the American Society of Criminology Annual Meeting, Atlanta, Georgia. Update of the California restitution project. Unpublished paper, February 9, 1979.

These two papers report the planning, implementation, and operation of a restitution program for parole violators and its evaluation with an experimental design. Program clients were state prison parolees found guilty of a technical parole violation and ordered returned to prison. At the point of return to prison, and after volunteering to take part, parole violators were randomly selected. Experimentals were continued on parole with a special condition to do restitution. Control group members were sent back to prison. No information is provided on specific data collection procedures that were used. Data are presented in percentages.

Major findings were:

- Between April 14, 1977, and December 15, 1977, the restitution project enrolled 23 experimentals; in addition, ten controls were randomly assigned back to prison.
- Eight of the 23 experimentals absconded before their restitution plan was signed.
- Ten of the signed restitution plans involved service such as counseling, teaching, or supervising; five involved laboring such as landscaping or typing; five involved financial restitution.
- Of the 1,753 hours of service restitution included in the plan, 732 hours (42%) were completed. Of the \$845 in the financial restitution plans, \$90 (11%) were completed.
- During the first year after release from the program, 17 of the 23 experimentals (74%) had at least one arrest. Five of the ten controls (50%) had an arrest during their first year after serving their revocation time.

- The experimental cases served an average of 11 days from revocation to release prior to admission to the program. Controls served only 7 days on average before release. Average prison time saved by doing restitution was 59 days.

42

Bridges, J. H., Gandy, J. T., & Jorgensen, J. D. (1979). The case for creative restitution in corrections. Federal Probation, 43(3), 28-35.

Creative restitution incorporates the idea of reciprocity, thereby satisfying society's need for punishment while providing an offender with the opportunity to become proactively engaged in making amends to victims and society.

43

Brillon, Y. (1977). L'acculturation juridique en Afrique noire et ses incidences sur l'administration de la justice criminelle [Juridical acculturation in Black Africa and its effects on the administration of criminal justice]. Annales Internationales Criminologie, 16, 193-232.

Tribal justice continues in Africa, even in cities, despite efforts to develop a unified system along Western lines. Many persons prefer to handle disputes in more traditional ways contrary to official policy. Strict Western penalties without restitution for victims are incomprehensible to many Africans. Further, an offence does not merit the ensuing process of stigmatization which poses a threat to tribal solidarity because the offender cannot resume normal community life after settlement.

44

British Columbia Corrections Branch. (1980). Community services orders: The B.C. experience. Victoria, BC: British Columbia Corrections Branch.

Community service orders have been informally used in British Columbia for many years but were formally established in nine pilot areas in March 1974. A brief description of the history of the program, current rationale, and objectives is provided. Community service provides an opportunity for offenders to make amends for their offenses and actively involves the community in the justice system. Service directly to the victim is also included and provides an opportunity for the victim and offender to be involved. Community services sanctions are based on the rationales of reparation, restitution, and cost efficiency. Six hundred and one orders were issued in 1976; 2,172 in 1977; and 2,761 in 1978. Completion rates were: 1976, 98%; 1977, 93%; 1978, 90%. Of the total hours ordered in 1976, 17% were to the victim, 6% for 1977, and 10% for 1978. The average hours ordered were 27 for 1976; 40 for 1977; and 45 for 1978.

45

British Columbia Ministry of Attorney General. (1983). Public service by offenders: A brief international review (Working paper #4). In S. A. Thorvaldson (Ed.), Reparative sanctions: Theoretical and legal issues. Victoria, BC: British Columbia Ministry of Attorney General, Policy and Planning Branch.

The concept of labor for the benefit of the public as a consequence of crime has a long history but no clear theoretical rationale. Provisions for sentencing to labor in the Western common law countries with particular attention given to the Canadian provinces, in the Western civil law jurisdictions, and in Eastern Europe and the Soviet Union are reviewed. A challenging question is whether Western notions of community service are at all comparable with penal servitude of the past or corrective labor in present day Eastern European countries and the Soviet Union.

46

Bronfield, T. (1977). Evaluation report: Court referral program. South Orange County, CA: Voluntary Action Center of South Orange County.

The court referral program provides a community source as an alternative disposition for sentenced offenders. The program is seen as an alternative to a fine or incarceration. The court makes the referral to the agency, the agency interviews the offender and arranges the placement, the offender completes the work, and a report is made back to the court. The study design used was a one-shot case study, providing an assessment of the program for a sixteen month period. Data were collected on the basis of unstructured interviews of program staff members, official statistics, and interviews with community agency staff who supervised program referrals.

Major findings were:

- During sixteen months the courts referred a total of 1,097 offenders; the largest percentage of these were from municipal and traffic courts.
- The largest proportion of offenders referred were male, 18-25 years of age, employed, and sentenced for traffic violations.
- The range of hours to be completed were 5 to 212, with approximately 50% under 36 hours. A total of 30,000 hours of service was required during the sixteen months.
- Sixteen percent of offenders referred by the court did not appear at the program. Of those who were assigned to a placement, approximately 71% completed the assignment.
- The average cost per offender in the program was \$42.

47

Brown, B. (1977). Community service as a condition of probation. Federal Probation, 41(4), 7-9.



Describes the operations of a community service program established in the state of Tennessee in 1976. The advantages of such a scheme are identified. The status of the program as of June, 1977, is described in terms of clients in the program and community agencies utilizing referrals for the completion of work.

48

Brownstein, H. H., Jacobs, S. F., & Manti, V. D. (1984). An evaluation of the Suffolk County Community Service program: An alternative to jail. Albany, NY: New York State Division of Criminal Justice Services, Office of Policy Analysis, Research and Statistical Services.

The Suffolk County (New York) community service sentencing program was administered by the Red Cross and established with county funds with the objective of reducing the local jail population. This evaluation covers the first 27 months of operation (August 1, 1981 - October 31, 1983); during that time, 350 referrals were received, 288 cases accepted, and at the end of the evaluation period, 201 of these had successfully completed community service, 42 had failed, and 45 remained in the program.

The evaluation design included development of base expectancy rates from sentencing decisions made prior to program start-up against which program referrals were compared. In order to estimate a decarceration effect, program referrals were compared with offenders sentenced to probation and those sentenced to local jail. Follow-up to assess recidivism of program participants and probation cases was done via interviews with 35 persons including representatives of social agencies who provided work sites, criminal justice officials, and participants.

The goal of reducing jail population was not reached. During the first 27 months of program operation, the jail population increased by 37.1%. The researchers conclude, however, that the program did have somewhat of a decarcerative effect and that the jail population would have increased even more without the program. Estimates based on the base expectancy rates are that the offenders sentenced to the program were diverted from between 4,199 to 4,461 jail days. Cost of operating the program for 27 months was \$187,577. Work returned to the community by the offenders was estimated at a value of \$230,828. Offenders were placed with not-for-profit social service agencies and were generally assigned to perform maintenance work.

Many of the offenders referred to the program were not likely to have been sentenced to jail but when compared with non-program cases, offenders referred to the program were more like those incarcerated than those not incarcerated. When compared with offenders not referred to the program, the program referrals were more likely to be younger than 19 years of age, white, and employed or in school. Program referrals were more likely than non-program offenders to have been charged with a felony or convicted of a felony. In terms of re-arrest and re-convictions, the offenders sentenced to community service posed no greater risk to public safety than offenders sentenced to probation or non-carcerative sentences; the latter group were generally less serious.

Interviews indicate that the program is very well received by offenders, criminal justice officials, and community service agencies. During the 27 months of operation, over 230 local social service agencies participated by providing work sites for offenders. The program should make an effort to secure referrals from the upper courts, since these courts handle offenders with a higher probability of incarceration.

49

Bryson, J. (1976). Survey of juvenile restitution programs. Mimeo report on file with Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, U.S. Department of Justice, Washington, DC.

A survey of juvenile resitution programs.

50

Buerge, J. H. (1980). Community service restitution program--Operational procedures manual. Elkhart, IN: Elkhart County Prisoner and Community Together (PACT), Inc.

This manual describes the organization and procedures used by the community service restitution program (CSRP) of Elkhart County, Indiana, PACT (Prisoner and Community Together), a community-based corrections organization devoted to developing a humane and rational corrections system.

51

Buerge, J. H. (1980). Recording operational procedures: Flow charting a community service restitution program. Paper presented at the Fourth Symposium on Restitution and Community Service Sentencing, Minneapolis, MN.

Describes a community service program and the use of flow charts.

52

Bumsted, K. L. (1985). Management information systems for restitution programs. In A. L. Schneider (Ed.), Guide to Juvenile Restitution (pp. 113-120). Washington, DC: U.S. Dept. of Justice, Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention.

A management information system (MIS) for a restitution program includes the collection, storage, manipulation, and reporting of information about restitution. An MIS requires a well organized administrative structure; a comprehensive policies and procedures manual constitutes the substance of the MIS data requirements and reporting systems. Designing an information system involves a feasibility study and requirements analysis, identification of the objectives of the system, a cost benefit analysis and review of staffing and organization planning for the system, software selection and procurement,

hardware selection and procurement, testing and modifying the system, implementation and staff training, and monitoring and evaluating the system to continue to introduce refinements into the system. MIS programs for juvenile restitution provide information about the case, information about the juvenile offender, information about other parties involved with the case, and information about the history and current status of the case.

53

Bumsted, K. L. (1985). Managing the complex components of juvenile restitution: An automated system helps to administer information. State Court Journal, 9(2), 6-9, 15-17.

This article outlines types of juvenile restitution programs, defines the steps for instituting a management information system (MIS) for these programs, and notes the need for integrating MIS with juvenile restitution programs.

54

California League of Alternative Service Programs. (1983). California league of alternative service programs--1983 index of member program activities. San Rafael, CA: California League of Alternative Service Programs.

This 1983 index identifies by county and describes the activities of 37 California League of Alternative Service programs (CLASP). CLASP is a nonprofit coalition of community service sentence programs, also known as alternative sentence, court referred and public works programs.

It reports an 11 % increase in the number of offenders served, from 69,178 offenders in 1982 to 77,125 in 1983; a 9% increase in the number of hours worked by the offender, from 3,159,212 to 3,444,239; and a 9% increase in the value of those hours worked for a gain of \$961,540. Summary tables present program and client overview data. Three additional tables provide information on the following: program administration base, start data and source, current budget and source, number of clients, and cost per client; client fees and referral criteria; and conversion ratios for fines/jail to community service.

55

California League of Alternative Service Programs. (1980, October). A report on the organizational and training needs assessment of the alternative service programs in California. San Jose, CA: Volunteer Center of Santa Clara County.

In 1980 the California League of Alternative Service Programs staff used a structured interview schedule to interview staff from 62 alternative service programs in the state of California to identify and analyze current operation and training needs. The research found that the programs generally lack organizational plans, written policies, job

descriptions, and written personnel policies. There was no standard among projects in regard to types of data being collected, data being recorded in files, or standardized data collection forms. Considerable diversity was expressed across projects as to the purpose of community service and the types of offenders for whom the sanction was most appropriate.

56

Cannady, L. P. (1980). Evaluation of the Charleston Juvenile Restitution Project Final Report. Washington, DC: MetaMetrics, Inc.

The Charleston South Carolina Juvenile Restitution Project (JRP) was funded by Office for Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention (OJJDP) to provide an alternative sentence for adjudicated delinquents. A project goal was to reduce commitments to state training schools. Unpaid community service was used to increase the severity of probation. Community service was administered to simulate employment, including youths making formal application for a service site. Four staff members administer the program which is located in a United Way organization separate from the juvenile justice system.

Between February 1979 (when the first client was placed) and June 30, 1980, 229 youths had been admitted. Their mean age was 15, 93% were male, and 49% black. Housebreaking and grand larceny accounted for 60% of the offenses. The mean community service requirement was 83 hours. During an average of 2.7 months spent in the program, 186 (75%) of the youths completed their hours of service without reoffending. No association was found between age, race, sex or offence and successful completion. Youth without prior adjudications were more likely to successfully complete than those with prior adjudications. Youth placed with churches, recreation, tourism, and parks were more likely to be terminated successfully than those with public works placements.

A survey of the placement agencies found overwhelming support for community service as a way of dealing with juvenile property offenders and belief that both offenders and agencies benefited. A street survey of 50 persons from five shopping areas found that 80% were mostly favorable to restitution (meaning paying back) as a sentence for juvenile offenders; 38% had a preference for community service restitution, 36% for monetary, and 26% for victim service.

Telephone interviews were completed with 41 victims from the project and 17 victims of a comparison group of youth placed on probation (response rates of 28% and 39%, respectively). The JRP victims were more likely than the probation victims to be satisfied with the way their case was handled by the justice system. Both groups of victims favored restitution as an appropriate way to deal with juvenile offenders although the preference was for monetary restitution.

Attitudes of 70 youth were assessed before beginning their service. Forty were reinterviewed at completion of service. At least three fourths of the youths reported that the number of hours were fair and that JRP was a good idea for them and for the community. These views remained consistent both pre and post service.

Recidivism analysis was conducted by comparing JRP clients with a matched comparison group of probationers. The JRP group performance was better than the comparison group although the difference was not statistically significant. The JRP group, however, had a greater number of prior convictions than the comparison group.

Program costs per youth are much less than incarceration and compare favorably with probation. The recommendation is that the program continue essentially as is with consideration given to some limited program expansion to include monetary restitution.

57

Cannon, A., & Stanford, R. M. (1981). Evaluation of the Juvenile Alternative Services Project (Research Report No. G81b). Tallahassee, FL: Florida Department of Health and Rehabilitative Services.

Findings and recommendations are presented from an evaluation of Florida's Juvenile Alternative Services Project (JASP), which is intended to divert juvenile offenders from judicial processing and limit system penetration. The pilot project, which was implemented in three districts -- District III (Gainesville), District V (St. Petersburg), and District VI (Tampa) -- anticipated that swiftly imposed community sanctions would produce fewer subsequent law violations than judicial processing would. This evaluation describes the JASP operations, determines the extent to which objectives have been accomplished, and assesses the project impact on diversion and recidivism. JASP receives about 350 referrals per month, with the typical referral being a white, 15 year old male with no prior criminal history, who has committed a misdemeanor property offense. The average length of participation is 60 days. Work restitution and community work service are the JASP components most used. The quality of JASP services and sanctions, as perceived by intake counselors and court personnel, is good. Research findings indicate that about half of the JASP participants would have been judicially processed had the program not been available. The other half would have most likely been disposed of at intake. District V has shown the highest level of true diversion (63%), while District III has displayed significant "net widening" (75%). A nine month follow-up of JASP participants and similar nonparticipants showed nonparticipants had a 25% higher rearrest rate. Nineteen percent of the JASP clients sampled were rearrested, compared to 24% of the comparison group. The cost of serving youths in JASP is less than costs of previous alternative dispositions in Districts V and VI but more than in District III. Recommendations bear upon the reduction of "net widening" follow-up procedures, and statements of policy and procedure.

58

Carleton, G. A. (1981). Liabilities for injuries to offenders sentenced to community service. Buffalo Law Review, 30, 387-404.

There is great disparity in the way California's community service programs have handled the issue of injury liability. Recent reports show that few counties have passed resolutions providing workers' compensation coverage for court assignees to the fullest possible degree. Most counties depend on the volunteer agency to provide all the necessary insurance. Even so, most of the programs do not make medical and disability coverage by the volunteer agency a prerequisite for placement. The burden of such insurance coverage should be on the government, since this is a community corrections program operated by the judiciary. Encouragement of a broader participation of volunteer agencies in community service programs will be hampered if they are left to deal with the issue of injury liability.

A possible modification of the medical insurance plan would be to require the volunteer agency to pay the first \$50.00 of medical expenses. This would eliminate many small claims. For disability coverage, the government should pay the entire amount under a system similar to the current disability payment system. The payment of disability benefits to an offender who is disabled as a result of court-ordered work would relieve the offender of the burden of providing for a family during the period of disability. An alternative to insurance paid principally by the government would be to cover all volunteers working in a county agency by a resolution passed by the local board of supervisors declaring adult offenders to be employees for purposes of workers' compensation, as provided in the California and New York codes. Sixty-seven footnotes are listed.

59

Carter, R. M., & Cocks, J., & Glaser, D. (1987). Community service: A review of basic issues. Federal Probation, 51(1), 4-10.

Community service sentencing has been developing rapidly in the United States both as a sentencing alternative and as an enhancement to existing sentences. Criminal justice decision makers should consider several issues before implementing a community service sentencing program including the fit of community service with traditional correctional philosophy, offender eligibility, criteria for offender selection, organizational models for administration of community service, what is to be included in community service investigations, relation of community service to other sentences, types of community service assignments to be used, arrangements for supervision of community service placements, and evaluation of a community service sentencing program.

60

Cartledge, G. C. (1986). Community service in England/Wales -- Organization and implementation of community service: An evaluation and assessment of its outcomes.

In H. Albrecht & W. Schädler (Eds.), Criminological Research Reports: Vol. 25. Community service: A new option in punishing offenders in Europe (pp. 15-38). Freiburg, Germany: Max-Planck Institute.

Community service was introduced in Britain in six experimental districts in 1972 and extended to the entire country in 1975; in 1983 community service could be imposed on juvenile offenders age sixteen and over. Community service must be ordered by a judge who must consider a report from a probation officer regarding the offenders suitability; the possibility of community service may be suggested by the probation officer or defense counsel. The offender must consent to the community service order. Community service is perceived as an alternative to imprisonment and is generally considered as a high tariff disposal; there is no defined system of proportionality between the hours of community service and the length of custodial sentences or the size of fines. The minimum number of hours must be 40 and the maximum is 240 except for 16 year olds for whom the maximum is 120 hours. Community services is administered by the probation service which usually assigns specialist officers to this function.

In 1984, of 210,000 convicted male adult offenders 7% were placed on community service and 7% on probation. In the 17 to 20 age range, of 114,000 convicted male offenders, 13% received community service and 10% were placed on probation. The patterns are different for female offenders; 3% of 39,000 adult convicted female offenders received community service as compared to 17% placed on probation; in the 17-20 age range 5% of 14,000 convicted female offenders received community service and 21% received probation.

In the first half of 1983 40% of the persons beginning community service had served a previous custodial sentence; only 11% had no previous convictions. Twenty three thousand community service orders were terminated in the first half of 1983; 76% had completed the specified number of hours, 11% failed to comply with the requirements, 9% were convicted of another offense, 3% of the closures were for some other change in circumstances, 2% for other reasons. Cases closed in the first half of 1983 were open for a mean of just under eight months.

61

Challeen, D. (1980). Turning society's losers into winners: An interview with Dennis A. Challeen. The Judges' Journal, 19, 4-9, 48-51.

Offenders lack self-esteem and do not respond to punishment or threat of punishment in the same manner as achievers in society. Thus our traditional methods of handling offenders are counter-productive both for the offender and society. What is needed is increased use of the age-old concept of restitution; restitution, however, must be used in a positive manner to enhance offender self-esteem and not degrade or hold offenders up to public humiliation. The best sentence a court can impose is one in which the offender does something for himself. The author, a municipal court judge, recommends

this approach primarily for non-violent offenders and for felons as well as juveniles and misdemeanants.

62

Challeen, D. A. (1986). Making it right: A common sense approach to criminal justice. Aberdeen, SD: Melius and Peterson.

Describes one judge's approach to sentencing--involves restitution, responsibility and personal change. Restitution to the victim, community and to the offender (in the form of counseling, church, and school) is stressed.

63

Challeen, D. A., & Heinlen, J. H. (1978). The win-onus restitution program. In B. Galaway & J. Hudson (Eds.), Offender restitution in theory and action (pp. 151-159). Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.

Describes the Winona County Court (Minnesota) Restitution Project which primarily involves community service work for a population of misdemeanor offenders.

64

Chesney, S. L., Hudson, J., & McLagen, J. (1978, March). A new look at restitution: Recent legislation, programs, and research. Judicature, 61, 348-357.

Describes recent developments in legislation, programs and research dealing with restitution. Laws that provide for restitution provide for restitution as a component of the routine sentencing of adults, as a specific condition for the disposition of juveniles, and as a goal to be achieved through special corrections programs. Fifty-four restitution projects or programs are described. The largest proportion of programs are non-residential, serve primarily adult offenders, and are operated by state-level agencies. Research completed on restitution is summarized in three categories: the manner and extent to which restitution is being used, attitudes toward restitution, and evaluation of the relative effectiveness of restitution programs.

65

Ciallella, J. A. (undated). A management study of Alternative Assignment Project 20. San Francisco, CA: Jefferson Associates, Inc.

This study assesses the operations and impact of Project 20 including the cost effectiveness of the program and benefits to the criminal justice system. The project is aimed at low income persons who are unable to pay fines and are commonly placed in jail. Offenders are referred to community service agencies within the city and county of San Francisco. The project began in June, 1973 and has continued under the county



probation department. Data were collected from project files and criminal justice system records. A sample of persons including probation officers, judges, clerks of court, and offenders who have had contact with and knowledge about the project were interviewed.

Major findings were:

- A total of 249 cases were referred to the project from the courts during the period October-December, 1974, and a total of 474 cases were referred during the period April-June, 1977.
- A success rate of 73% was achieved for the period July 1, 1976 through June 30, 1977. Included in this success rate are persons who decided to pay the balance of the fine rather than complete their work assignment.
- The largest proportion of offenders assigned to the project during April-June, 1977 were referred on the basis of traffic infractions.

66

Clark, A. W. (1984). Court ordered community service. Pennsylvania Association on Probation, Parole and Corrections, 1, 15-21.

Court-ordered community service in Pennsylvania is examined, and the development and implementation of community service sentencing pilot projects in Center, Columbia, and Lycoming Counties are outlined.

67

Clark, D. E. (1976). Community service: A realistic alternative for sentencing. FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin, 45(3), 3-7.

Describes the history and current operations of the Multnomah County Alternative Community Service Program. The program began in 1972 as a community service work alternative for first offense misdemeanants. Defendants choose to participate in the program either as an alternative to more traditional sanctions (fines) or as a supplement to such sanctions. Decreased caseloads in probation are attributed to the program. Between December, 1972, and October, 1975, over 4,900 offenders had been referred to the project. Approximately 150 agencies are involved in receiving referrals. The success of completion rate has been 80%; over 115,000 unpaid hours were completed.

68

Coates, R. B., & Gehm, J. (1985). Victim meets offender: An evaluation of victim-offender reconciliation programs. Valparaiso, IN: PACT Institute of Justice.

An evaluation of victim offender reconciliation programs (VORP) in Southern Indiana and Ohio finds that VORP involved victims in the criminal justice process and has potential as an alternative to incarceration. Data sources were a matched sample from 1973 VORP and 1973 non-VORP offender referrals drawn from three Indiana programs,

interviews with victims and offenders who had participated in VORP, and interviews with VORP staff, mediators, and criminal justice officials. Victims, offenders, and criminal justice officials were found to hold differing views as to the purposes of VORP. No difference was found in the likelihood of the VORP cases being incarcerated as compared to the match sample, but the VORP offenders were significantly less likely to be incarcerated in a state prison (they served jail time) and served considerably less time than the non-VORP matched sample.

The two top priority goals for VORP staff and mediators were to humanize the criminal justice process through face to face meetings and to increase offenders personal accountability for actions. The two top priority goals for victims were to recover loss and to help the offenders stay out of trouble; for the offenders the two top priority goals were to avoid a harsher punishment and to get the whole experience of the crime and consequences finished. For criminal justice system officials the top priority goals were to provide restitution to victims and to provide for useful involvement of the victim in criminal justice. For the VORP sample, 78% were juvenile, 92% caucasian, 93% male, 19% had at least one prior conviction, 93% had no prior post-conviction incarceration, 54% were convicted of burglary, and 27% were convicted of felony theft.

69

Cocks, J. (1982). Use of "third sector" organizations as vehicles for community service under a condition of probation. Federal Probation, 46(4), 29-36.

The United States Probation Office in Los Angeles is combining the actual and potential resources of restitution, reparation, and community service into two service delivery models. The Industry Corrections Interface (ICI) originated when several meat packing companies including their owners and executives were placed on probation. As part of the probation conditions, the offenders had to establish, fund, and help implement a training program to train hard-core, unemployed ex-offenders as meat packers.

Another program, the Foundation for People, Inc., developed from the work of four white-collar offenders and others. This nonprofit public benefit corporation aims to provide vocational training, employment opportunities, information, and referral services to individuals who are on probation and to those who are economically or socially disadvantaged. Both these programs provide ways of using the socially beneficial talents and resources of people and corporations on probation to develop and aid nonprofit corporations in implementing the intentions of the court. Probation offices which choose not to institutionalize this approach can use such alternatives as matching probation clients with available public service agencies and establishing a referral service to the private sector agencies established for community service purposes.

70

Cohen, H. (1980, September). The New York state juvenile restitution program. Paper presented at the Fourth Symposium on Restitution and Community Service Sentencing, Minneapolis, MN.

Describes the design and implementation of a state restitution program.

71

Cohn, A., McConnell, M., & Kramer, A. (1982). Restitution--An approach to sentencing. Reno, NV: National Council of Juvenile and Family Court Judges.

Restitution and community service orders as punishments for juvenile offenses provide a more positive experience of accountability and of responsibility of the offender than does institutionalization, while giving the victim compensation or the community the benefit of positive service.

72

Coker, J. B. (1977). Community service in Hampshire (England). International Journal of Offender Therapy and Comparative Criminology, 21, 114-123.

Describes the history and operations of the community service program in Hampshire and identifies eight principles:

- It should only be made available for offenders who would otherwise be given a custodial sentence;
- The offender should be involved in selecting the sanction;
- The offender's present intentions and motivations should be given more weight and priority than past behavior;
- The good intentions of the offender should be reinforced;
- The work should not be regarded as slave labor;
- The offender should be trusted as a responsible person;
- The sentence should be seen as reparative and not as treatment;
- The success of the program should be judged primarily by satisfactory completion of the sentence.

73

Community Service Restitution Program. (1981). Community service restitution--Policies and procedures manual. Brookline, MA: Community Service Restitution Program.

This manual describes the Community Service Restitution (CSR) Program of Brookline, Massachusetts. and provides a comprehensive outline of operating procedures which are applicable to other programs.

The manual is intended to help in the establishment of new programs and the strengthening of existing programs. CSR became fully operational in November 1979.

The nine member staff serves 26 communities in the area and has made significant strides in attaining program goals. The primary goal was to place approximately 1,200 offenders, primarily young adult misdemeanants, in community environments during the 14 months of the project. Of the 1,200 offenders, 900 are expected to complete all assigned hours. the 75% successful completion rate indicates that \$144,000 in service will be returned to the community.

The majority of CSR goals focus on the community as the immediate beneficiary. Additional objectives are to establish a positive line of communication and understanding between the community and the criminal justice system and to improve services within the system. Community acceptance is essential to the success of any restitution program. To ensure that information reaches as many people as possible, extensive use of the media is recommended. The target population with which most programs work consists of adult offenders, both male and female, age 17 and older. Appropriateness for CSR placement is determined by the nature of the offense, the prior record and background of the offender, the extent of the victim's injury, and the offensiveness of the case. Community service restitution may be used in any of the following stages of the criminal justice system: pretrial, postconviction, and postcommitment. The manual also addresses support services, placement, monitoring, CSR job descriptions, and management tools. Sample forms are included.

74

Community service: A sentencing alternative. (1975, August). Community service: A sentencing alternative. Paper presented at a conference of California court referral programs, Sacramento, CA: California Department of Youth Authority.

75

Community work sentences: Pilot projects in Quebec. (1979). Community work sentences: Pilot projects in Quebec. Liaison, 5(1), 15-18.

Describes a pilot community work project implemented in six cities in the province of Quebec. The aim of the pilot project was to see how well community work sentences corresponded to a need felt by the courts and users of the projects, as well as to evaluate the extent to which the project should be implemented in all judicial districts of the province. Data collected through structured interviews with approximately 100 judges, prosecutors, probation officers, offenders were used to conclude that the program was able to secure a variety of community organizations where the court might place offenders. More precise information is needed on liability insurance for community organizations in case of accidents. Seventy-two cases were studied by probation officers to determine the possibility of obtaining a community work order; 69% (50) were seen as eligible for the program. Case histories are provided. The experiment is defined as a success; community work sentences should be implemented throughout the province.

76

Compass Management Group, Inc. (1978). Superior Court--Juvenile Court Division--Program evaluation of the youth community service project--Final report. Snohomish County, WA: Compass Management Group, Inc.

The Snohomish project is a countrywide work program for court-supervised male youth, age 14 or older who have committed the offense of burglary. Fifteen youths at a time are given work activities designed to help the community. This work is done on weekends during the school year and during the normal work week in the summer months. The evaluation assessed the degree to which the program accomplished the following stated objectives: to determine the effectiveness of the project in terms of reduced burglary recidivism among clients; to examine the deterrent qualities of the program; to analyze cost/benefit effectiveness; to measure the impact of the program on the overall countrywide juvenile justice environment; and to judge the degree of efficient utilization of available facilities for this type of program.

Data on nonproject burglary offenders for 1975, 1976, and 1977 were collected, and recidivism rates were calculated based on the same criteria as the experimental group. The project group exhibited reduced recidivism for burglary, exceeding the 10% target by approximately six times, against a three year average of comparison groups. Other evaluation measures proved favorable to the project, based upon data from project files and appropriate interviews; however, the number of youths processed fell short of the goal by almost 30%. Recommendations are offered in the areas of service delivery, program administration, and cost effectiveness.

77

Connecticut Judicial Department, Office of Adult Probation. (1983). Connecticut judicial department--Office of adult probation annual report, 1981-1982. Hartford, CT: Connecticut Judicial Department, Office of Adult Probation.

The office of adult probation set up the Community Service Restitution Program and handled numerous cases under the Driving While Under the Influence (DWI) Program. The caseload increased 23.9% over last year, with a major contribution from the DWI program. Probation statistics are included.

78

Conrad, J. (1990). VORP and the correctional future. In B. Galaway & J. Hudson (Eds.), Criminal Justice, Restitution, and Reconciliation. Monsey, NY: Criminal Justice Press.

Victim offender reconciliation programs (VORP) that require an offender performance proportional to the offense are working well, recognize the rights of victims, and, while not a panacea, have possibilities for much broader application. VORP and community

service should be ruled out as sentencing options before other sanctions are considered. The fact that this is not occurring demonstrates the inertia of legislators and judges and the absence of creative leadership from correctional administrators. There are pitfalls with VORP and community service, the most dangerous of which is that they may become bureaucratized.

79

Cooper, G., Blum, J. E., Sackett, K. L., & West, A. S. (1981). Handbook on community service restitution. Denver, CO: Denver Research Institute.

Written from a practitioner's perspective, this handbook provides "how to" information to persons considering the development of a community service restitution venture and offers suggestions and alternatives to those already involved in project operations.

The information is based on assessments of seven pilot Community Service Restitution (CSR) projects funded under Law Enforcement Assistance Administration (LEAA). Community service restitution involves offender's payment of service to the community rather than money payments to the victims. As practiced in the United States, CSR can be a sentencing option, a sentencing condition, a means for avoiding formal prosecution, a means for avoiding sentencing, or a means for bonding.

The handbook discusses the legal issues arising from such an alternative program and presents information required for a thorough needs assessment as an initial step in project planning. Issues such as what types of clients to accept and at which point in the criminal processing to pursue referrals are examined. In addition, the handbook considers the advantages and disadvantages of the various types of administrative and managerial designs for a CSR program and identifies staff requirements. A discussion of the interactions between a CSR project, the offender, and the community examines such issues as intake processes, means of developing placement opportunities, and volunteer monitoring. Suggestions are made for case termination procedures and client support services. Finally, the handbook presents evaluation methods and discusses the role of evaluation in the overall credibility of a CSR project. Costs involved in running a CSR project are outlined, along with the means for calculating cost effectiveness. Each section consists of a series of questions followed by brief responses and, in most cases, longer discussions. Examples of CSR project forms, a directory of CSR projects, and adult community service legislation in the United States are appended.

80

Cooper, G., & West, A. S. (1981, May). An evaluation of the community service restitution program: A cluster analysis. Denver, CO: Denver Research Institute, University of Denver.

In 1979 the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration funded seven community service restitution programs as part of a national initiative; projects were located in Minnesota,

Maryland, Massachusetts, Florida, Indiana, California, and Indiana-Virginia (a private agency with sites in both states). This report prepared by the national evaluator contains detailed descriptions of the seven projects.

During the period of federal funding the projects admitted 4,936 offenders; 12% were felons, 87% misdemeanor, and 1% unknown or other. Community service was used as the only sanction for 27% of the offenders. Sixty-six percent of the offenders were white, 22% black, race was unknown for 5%, and the balance were of other minority groups. Seventy-two percent were male. At the time of admission, 12% were students; only 28% were unemployed. Sixty-three percent of the felony offenders had no prior arrest record; 43% of those referred for misdemeanor convictions had no prior arrest record. Five percent of the offenders received an order of less than 10 hours of service, 25% from 10-29 hours, 34% from 30-49 hours, 18% from 50-69 hours, 9% from 70-89 hours, and 9% received orders of 90 hours or over. Twenty-eight percent of the community service agreements were on pre-trial diversion basis. Eighty-six percent of the community service orders were successfully completed; 79% of those offenders referred with felony convictions or charges successfully completed the community service orders as did 80% referred for misdemeanors convictions or charges.

A questionnaire to assess clients' views of their community service experience was given to each offender at discharge; 1,412 questionnaires were returned. Sixty-one percent of the clients indicated that they did not learn new skills as a result of their community service, 79% reported that the community service order was a good choice compared to other alternative sentences, 84% reported that the community service requirement was fair, and 80% reported that the community service experience was positive for them. Community service restitution was found to be a workable sentencing option which was used extensively in each of the jurisdictions under study.

81

Creative Alternatives to Prison. (1978). Trial judges' conference. Sponsored by Creative Alternatives to Prison, Sub-Committee on Administrative Practice and Procedure of the Committee on the Judiciary, United States Senate. Washington, DC: U. S. Government Printing Office.

On October 14, 1978, Creative Alternatives to Prison sponsored a conference on alternative sentencing. The conferees consisted of a group of twenty trial judges from across the country as well as Great Britain, France, and Canada. Also participating were members of both Houses of Congress, the White House, and the Department of Justice. The purpose of the conference was to demonstrate that there was a growing movement within the criminal justice field to put aside traditional forms of punishment in favor of positive and constructive alternative sentences. Creative sentencing is emerging because it offers restitution to the victim, possible rehabilitation of the offender, and savings to the taxpayer. The ever-rising costs of prisons and the developing belief that there must be a better way to deal with law and order issues provide fertile ground for legislative

attention. The transcript of the proceedings presents the views of a wide variety of judges concerning the use of community service work orders.

82

Crites, L., & Rubin, H. T. (1985). Implementation of the restitution program. In A. L. Schneider (Ed.), Guide to Juvenile Restitution (pp. 71-109). Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice, Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention.

Implementing a restitution program involves mobilizing community resources and developing a public relations strategy, staffing the program, setting up an accounting and disbursement system, developing a management information system and evaluation plan, and preparing written material such as forms and manuals. Community support can be mobilized through media, existing organizations, developing relationships with juvenile justice officials, and may include establishing citizen advisory boards. Staffing includes deciding about relying on existing staff or recruiting new staff, determining reasonable case loads, deciding about the use of volunteers, and determining the type of staff training which is necessary. Managing restitution payments involves developing record keeping systems and determining the form of payment, deciding who can receive money, determining administrative surcharges, scheduling disbursements to victims, and determining disbursements in the case of multiple victims for one offender. Procedures need to be developed for collecting and reporting statistical information; the necessary letters, forms, and manuals must be developed. Examples of written materials from several restitution programs are included.

83

Cromer, G. (1978). Doing hours instead of time: Community service as an alternative to imprisonment. Australian and New Zealand Journal of Criminology, 11, 54-56.

On the basis of recommendations made by the committee on Non-Custodial and Semi-Custodial Treatment of Offenders, community service schemes were established on an experimental basis in six probation and after-care areas in January, 1973 in England. Legal aspects of community service are incorporated in the Criminal Justice Act, 1972. Community service is based on the principle of the offender paying reparation to society and can be seen as part of the growing campaign for community-based corrections.

84

Cromer, G. (1977). Doing hours instead of time: Community service as an alternative to imprisonment. Offender Rehabilitation, 1, 143-146.

Describes the statutory basis, rationale, and current status of the British Community Service Program.



85

Czajkoski, E. H. (1984, November). The hidden evil of community service, restitution, and other forms of creative sentencing. Paper presented at the 36th Annual Meeting, American Society of Criminology, Cincinnati, OH.

Probation, diversion, and juvenile justice have been used as little more than mechanisms for imposing non-legal standards of behavior on people. Despite the seductive attributes of community service (helping society) and restitution (helping the victim), both examples of creative sentencing are fraught with similar dangers and are likely to move the criminal justice system into areas on the periphery of its authorized mission.

86

Czajkoski, E. H., & Wollan, L. A. (1986). Creative sentencing: A critical analysis. Justice Quarterly, 3, 215-229.

This article argues that criminal sentencing should not be distorted to serve general social goals, *good works*, no matter how noble the sentencing seems to the judge or how much the judge thinks the community might endorse it.

There is doubt that creative sentencing is efficacious in reducing incarceration levels, but in the long run, that issue is not as important as whether certain freedoms are unduly abused by alternative sentencing practices. Orders of restitution, without full judicial hearing on the loss, represent an obvious danger of injustice. Less obvious is the danger abiding in community service orders where the awesome power of the state compels *good works*. Regardless of whether it is true, we assume that the consensus of society supports the criminal law and its enforcement. We can make no similar assumption in regard to the tremendous number of social causes, ideological perspectives, and *good works* which a sentencing judge might directly support through the sentencing power. The discussion considers moral entrepreneurship in various criminal justice contexts, including probation, parole, diversion, clemency, and juvenile justice.

87

Dagger, R. (1980). Restitution, punishment, and debts to society. In J. Hudson & B. Galaway (Eds.), Victims, offenders, and alternative sanctions (pp. 3-13). Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.

Challenges Randy Barnett's proposal to replace the paradigm of punishment with one which takes restitution to victims rather than punishment of criminals as its central goal. Barnett's proposal views crime as an offense by one individual against another but criminal offenses should also be considered acts against society. The concept of restitution is not incompatible with the view of criminal wrongs against society, but restitution is to be regarded as a form of punishment.

88

Davis, B. (1986). Instead of prison. New York, NY: Franklin Watts, Inc.

For many offenders, restitution, community service, better surveillance during probation, and other sentencing alternatives are preferable to imprisonment.

89

del Carmen, R. V., & Trook-White, E. (1986). Liability issues in community service sanctions. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice, National Institute of Correction.

The liability of corrections staff managing community service programs will vary from state to state. Probation officer, supervisor, and agency liability may exist for negligence in failure to train, negligent hiring, negligent assignment of offenders to community service sites, failure to supervise, failure to direct, negligent entrustment, and negligent retention. Liability to third parties may result from injuries caused by offenders doing community service work or injuries caused by citizen volunteers participating in a community service program. Liability to volunteers may occur by injuries caused by offenders or for other injuries. Liability to offenders may result from disclosure of records, injury in the performance of responsibilities, injuries caused by volunteers, or the liability of government for acts of private agencies or persons. Possible protections against liability may be found in workman's compensation laws, legal representation, and liability insurance. Liability may be further reduced by comprehensive departmental policy, use of court orders, and by law change to limit liability; 13 specific recommendations in these regards are offered.

90

Delgoda, J. P. (1980). Alternatives to imprisonment--Sri Lanka. In W. Clifford (Ed.), Corrections in Asia and the Pacific (pp. 231-234). Australia: Australian Institute of Criminology.

This short overview summarizes the alternatives to imprisonment used by courts in Sri Lanka. They include orders for binding over, warnings, suspended sentences, community service orders, fines, orders for payment of compensation, and probation. Both suspended sentences and community service orders were introduced in 1973. The latter are principally used to reduce the large number of prisoners sentenced to undergo terms of imprisonment for nonpayment of fines, providing an alternative in the form of compulsory service to the community. The provision for compensation is frequently used to replace monies lost by fraud victims.

91

Demooy, L. (1982). Community youth aid panels. New Designs for Youth Development, 3(5), 9-15.

The Community Youth Panel concept involves training local community residents to review cases involving minor juvenile offenders and recommend alternative sentences (i.e., community service work) that keep these offenders out of the formal justice system.

92

Denver Research Institute. (1981). Handbook on community service restitution. Denver: University of Denver.

A handbook, based largely on the experiences of seven Law Enforcement Assistance Administration (LEAA) Initiative funded community service restitution projects, intended to assist other organizations interested in developing community service restitution projects. The handbook contains sections on the background of the concept of community service and the LEAA Initiative, on conducting needs assessments for community service restitution, on operating procedures for community service restitution projects, and on evaluation. The material is largely descriptive of the way these processes have been handled in the seven initiative projects.

93

Dittenhoffer, T. (1981). The victim/offender reconciliation program: A message to correctional reformers. Toronto: University of Toronto, Center of Criminology.

The focus of the present research study is on victim/offender reconciliation programs. These are relatively new sentencing programs in which the offender convicted of a crime agrees to meet his victim and negotiate the amount of harm done and further decide on mutually acceptable terms of compensation. The purpose of this study is two fold. First, the aim is to explore and discover in detail how victim/offender reconciliation programs operate. Despite their increasing popularity, few criminologists and criminal justice practitioners understand these programs beyond general descriptions and stated ideals. Therefore, a detailed description of the program will generally provide information that may be found useful by a variety of audiences. Secondly, based on a more theoretical perspective, the purpose is to evaluate the program by discovering whether it is achieving its intended result, and whether certain pitfalls have become apparent.

94

Divorski, S., & Holland, J. (1986). Directory of adult alternative programs in Canada. Ottawa: Ministry of the Solicitor General.

An updated version of an earlier adult alternatives directory produced in 1984. This report aims at a comprehensive listing of adult offender release programs as alternatives to incarceration. Pre-charge, pre-trial and post-trial programs are included. The adult alternative programs are grouped by province and are further classified according to

program content. Community service order programs, victim offender mediation, drinking and driving programs, employment and counseling services and volunteer services are some of the major categories. A brief description, including administration, jurisdiction, approach, clients and address are provided for each program.

95

Doble, J. (1987). Crime and punishment: The public's view. New York: Edna McConnell Clark Foundation.

Views of Americans towards crime and its correction were explored through focus groups meeting in 10 American cities between April and July 1986; each group consisted of six men and six women evenly divided among three age bands, 28-35, 36-55, and 56 and older. Each group had two or three blacks or Hispanics; one third of each group had college degrees, one third had some post high school education and one third had completed only high school. Twenty observations emerged in three general areas--guiding principles underlying public views about crime and the criminal justice system, views about the crime and the criminal justice system, and views about prison overcrowding and alternatives to incarceration.

Americans tend to define crime in immediate terms by using their geographic area and their experience as reference points. Concern about crime is personal and focuses on what may happen to them and their families in the future. For Americans the primary goal of the criminal justice system should be to discourage future crimes. Americans perceive criminals as products of their environment, and see the underlying causes of crime as factors related to poverty and the values with which children are raised. Two immediate causes of crime are the illegal use of drugs and lack of adequate deterrents to crime. The police are rated as an effective component of the criminal justice system but the courts are inept; sentencing should be uniform for similar crimes, it is important to consider an offenders record in determining an appropriate punishment. Low regard was expressed for the nation's prison system, and the primary goal of the prison system should be rehabilitation but participants were not optimistic that this is occurring. Although aware of overcrowding, the respondents do not recognize its impact on the criminal justice system or the ability of prisons to accomplish goals. They resist confronting the dilemma of prison overcrowding, believe the prison overcrowding is caused by increased crime and simply do not accept that the crime rate has levelled off or that mandatory and stiffer sentencing are causes of the problem. Respondents believed that prisons should be humane but should be harder in the sense that offenders be required to work.

Strong support was expressed for alternatives to incarceration, especially restitution, but also community service sentencing and other therapeutic type alternatives. Support of alternatives increase as the respondents understood the cost of building and maintaining prisons. The most important support for alternatives is the belief that prisons fail to accomplish their primary objectives. Favoring greater use of alternatives excludes violent or repeat offenders or drug dealers.

96

Dockar-Drysdale, P. (1953). Some aspects of damage and restitution. British Journal of Delinquency, 4, 4-13.

Discusses the use of restitution, from a psychoanalytic perspective, in a residential treatment center for aggressive, disturbed children, ages 5-12. Children who do damage strive consciously or unconsciously to make restitution, but there is a wide difference between enforcing restitution and making available the means for spontaneous restitution. The latter is of most therapeutic help to the disturbed child.

97

Dodge, D. (1979, September). Restitution by juvenile offenders: An alternative to incarceration. Paper presented at the Third Symposium on Restitution, Duluth, MN.

Describes aims, implementation problems, research approach, and current status of the national funded restitution initiative of the U.S. Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention.

98

Dodge, D., & Maloney, D. (1982). Accountability justice. Reno, NV: National Council of Juvenile and Family Court Judges.

Following a review of the work of the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention (OJJDP) in initiating and monitoring juvenile restitution programs throughout the country, this presentation argues that properly implemented juvenile restitution programs build upon the research findings regarding the dynamics of positive youth development.

99

Dominelli, L. (1984). Differential justice: Domestic labor, community service and female offenders. Probation Journal, 31, 100-103.

Research on women given Community Service Orders in West Yorkshire found that such orders are made four times less frequently for female offenders than male offenders. At the same time, it was found that women tended to complete their orders more quickly than men, although overall completion rates were essentially the same. Male offenders were more likely to have been breached for re-offending while serving their orders than were women, and male workers were more likely than females to be absent from community service work because of re-offending. Women were more likely than male community service workers to have their work on placement considered of "good" or "excellent" quality.

Donnelly, S. M. (1980, September). Community service orders in federal probation. Paper presented at the Fourth Symposium on Restitution and Community Service Sentencing, Minneapolis, MN.

Guidelines for community service order program design and implementation are drawn from the U.S. Probation Office community service program that has been operating since 1977. Community service benefits (a) the community in that some form of restitution is paid; (b) the offender by giving him an opportunity to rejoin the community in a law-abiding, responsible role; and (c) the courts by producing another sentencing alternative. The program can be administered by probation office staff using existing resources. It must be available uniformly for all offenders except those incapable of performing community service work, who may present a danger to the community, or whose participation may be objectionable to community agencies. Offenders without an opiate abuse history are generally more successful in performing community service work than those with drug records.

The community service order should require, according to the severity of the offense, between 50 and 200 hours to be contributed in unpaid work over a period of one year or less. Each offender should receive orientation to the community service order; individually tailored placements should be sought which best use each offender's interests and abilities. The offender should be interviewed by the prospective employer to increase mutual satisfaction with the placement. Follow-up procedures should involve monthly contacts by the probation officer. The case supervision planned should include assessment of the impact of the community service experience on the offender's behavior, values, and attitudes, as well as its impact on the community. Failure to comply should be reported to the sentencing judge with individual circumstances dictating resulting court action.

Doob, A. N., & Macfarlane, P. D. (1984). Community service order for youthful offenders: Perceptions and effects. Toronto: University of Toronto Center of Criminology.

The evaluation of the Community Service Order Program (CSO) in Durham Region, Ontario, found that the involved juveniles, their parents, and the general public were favorably disposed toward the CSO program. There were some positive impacts on participants' behavior when compared with a control group of probationers.

The samples of juveniles, which were drawn from the court dockets of the provincial courts (family division) in the region, consisted of those juveniles who received CSO's during the designated period (n=100) and a sample of juveniles matched on five variables who received probation but did not receive a CSO. Interviews were conducted

with the juveniles themselves, their parents, their probation officers, and supervisors of CSO work. About 70% of the juveniles in the sample completed their CSO's or were still working on them. Police files were examined to determine the number of recorded police cautions and charges for the juveniles before and after their court appearance. School records were examined, and marks, school absences, and recorded disciplinary problems were noted. Finally, a sample of 100 citizens of the region were polled for their view of CSO programs. Those involved generally held favorable views of the program, as did the public.

While most measures revealed no differences between those receiving CSO's and those receiving regular probation, those receiving CSO's had fewer subsequent police cautions than the control group, although the CSO group had police cautions prior to CSO participation. The CSO group also had fewer instances of reported violation of probation rules. As an alternative disposition for young offenders, these results suggest that the CSO program should be expanded. The appendixes contain the interview forms and discussions of successes in matching experimental and control groups and in conducting interviews.

102

Doob, A. N., & Roberts, J. V. (1983). Sentencing: An analysis of the public's view of sentencing. Ottawa: Department of Justice.

A series of studies found that what appears to be an initial public view, that courts are lenient in sentencing, dissipates when more information is provided to the public; two-thirds of the respondents in one study recommended against imprisonment for a "...first offender convicted of breaking and entering into a private home and stealing things worth \$250." Eighty-eight percent of the respondents answered yes to the follow-up question of "Now instead of (previous response) would you be in favor of having the offender being ordered by the court to do a certain number of hours of work beneficial to the community or the victim or in some other way pay back the victim for the harm done?" Those who initially indicated prison were less likely to tolerate a reparative sanction.

103

Doyle, P., & Gaudet, M. (1979). Community service orders: Justice in the community, the Prince Edward Island experience. Charlottetown, PE: Prince Edward Island Department of Justice.

A description of the development and implementation of the community service order program in Prince Edward Island from December 1976 through July 1979. The program was implemented without difficulty and served 184 offenders during this time frame.

Duckworth, A. M. E. (1979). Restitution: An analysis of the victim-offender relationship: Towards a working model in Australia. Perth, Western Australia: Western Australia Department of Corrections.

This paper briefly traces the history of restitution, its demise and recent reappearance as a model for administering justice, and then outlines a provisional model of victim-offender restitution for Australia.

Interest in restitution has revived in recent years because of disillusionment with the treatment and deterrent models of justice, increasing concern for the victim, and pressures to contain correctional costs. Several restitution programs currently operating in the United States, Canada, and Great Britain are described which illustrate a variety of philosophies and goals, but all represent a common dissatisfaction with the justice system and its neglect of the victim. The community service order popular in Great Britain and to a limited extent, in Australia, requires an offender to perform useful work for the community after normal working hours instead of going to prison. Programs in North America have centered more directly on the victim-offender relationship by negotiating restitution payments or service between the parties.

Duffy, B. P. (1985). A cost effectiveness analysis of the Maryland state restitution program. Dissertation Abstracts International, 46, 1406A. (University Microfilms No. DA85-13645)

Although the concept of cost effectiveness analysis is currently in vogue, it is interesting to note the absence of such analysis in the criminal justice field. An examination of the available research and literature in the area of restitution programming indicates an abundance of descriptive and attitude studies. There is, however, a lack of rigorous quantitative or analytical studies addressing the cost effectiveness of restitution programs. The few studies which have attempted to evaluate the effects of restitution have been flawed, failing to yield useful results.

In an effort to compare the cost effectiveness of incarceration, probation, and restitution, recidivism rates from a sample of 210 Maryland offender files closed in 1981 and from one third of the offenders assigned to the Maryland Division of Parole and Probation were compared. Information on 40 variables was collected, coded, and analyzed using non-experimental designs and logit and multiple regression analyses. Regressions were stratified into 13 offenses to discover any impact of the offense of conviction on subsequent recidivism. While the data confirmed the importance of several independent variables in the occurrence of recidivism, some of the variables traditionally associated with recidivism, such as sentence and drug use, were not related to recidivism in this study.



Efforts to explain these findings testing the differences between the means of the study sample and groups of offenders located across the United States during the same time period. This analysis showed no difference between groups for many key variables. Next, judges responsible for sentencing the offenders included in this study were interviewed to determine which variables, if any, were important determinants of sentence and recidivism.

These consultations suggested that factors not lending themselves to quantitative analyses significantly impact judicial sentencing decisions. It is proposed that for this sample, variables such as offender demeanor may play an important role in the sentencing decision. As a result, variables traditionally associated with post sentence success or failure (recidivism) may have been neglected, thus yielding results such as those observed here. Given the absence of sentencing impact on recidivism, however, this suggests that the least costly sentence, i.e., restitution, should be used.

106

Dukes, T. (1980, September). Implementation of statewide restitution in South Carolina. Paper presented at the Fourth Symposium on Restitution and Community Service Sentencing, Minneapolis, MN.

Description of the design and operation of a statewide juvenile restitution program.

107

Dunkel, F. (1986). Reparation and victim-offender conciliation and aspects of the legal position of the victim in criminal procedures in a Western-European perspective. In H. J. Kerner (Ed.), European and North American juvenile justice systems (pp. 303-327). Munich, Germany: University of Heidelberg, Institute for Criminology. [Deutschen Vereinigung fur Jugendgerichten und Jugendgerichtshilfen Schriftenreihe Heft 16.]

A 1985 survey of 18 West European countries inquired about their pretrial victim-offender mediation, victim trial services, victim-offender mediation as part of sentencing, victim support organizations, and public attitudes toward victim-offender mediation.

In recent years and in most of the countries surveyed, the public, the courts, and the probation services have become more aware of victim-offender mediation. In Great Britain, the Netherlands, and France, victim services and the resolution of victim-offender conflicts through mediation are increasingly being used within and outside of formal case dispositions. Most countries, however, have only had scattered experiments in these programs. The use of pretrial victim-offender mediation has been generally sparse and unsystematic. Although most countries have some victim support services for rape victims, battered women, and abused children, the support does not cover the trial period in most cases. Victim-offender mediation as part of sentencing is most often in the form of restitution, with community service used as a form of restitution. Victim support organizations exist in only a few countries. Overall, the victim's role in the trial and

victim support services provided during the trial are weak. Several reform proposals designed to improve the victim's legal position are being discussed.

108

Eglash, A. (1977). Beyond restitution--Creative restitution. In J. Hudson & B. Galaway (Eds.), Restitution in criminal justice (pp. 91-99). Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.

Describes the central ingredients of creative restitution and provides case examples.

109

Eglash, A. (1959). Creative restitution: Its roots in psychiatry, religion and law. British Journal of Delinquency, 10(6), 114-119.

Describes uses of restitution in the disciplines of psychoanalysis, religion, and law to show how these uses relate to creative restitution as a technique in rehabilitation. Guided restitution includes these elements: an act of a constructive effort by the offender that is related to the offense and reparation that goes beyond simple repair and encourages interpersonal relations between offenders and the supervising authority, between the offenders and victims, as well as between one offender and another.

110

Eglash, A. (1958). Creative restitution: Some suggestions for prison rehabilitation programs. American Journal of Corrections, 20, 20-34.

Creative restitution is a rehabilitative technique in which an offender, under appropriate supervision, is helped to find some way to make amends to those hurt by the offense and to walk a second mile by helping other offenders. Creative restitution can be used as a vehicle for improved interpersonal communication among offenders, between offenders and victims, and between offenders and corrections staff.

111

Eglash, A. (1958). Creative restitution: A broader meaning for an old term. Journal of Criminal Law, Criminology, and Police Science, 48, 619-622. Also in J. Hudson & B. Galaway (Eds.), Considering the victim (pp. 284-290). Springfield, IL: Thomas, 1975.

Emphasis is placed on the voluntary nature of making amends for damages done as well as on the rehabilitative effects of such a process. The role of the probation officer is one of teaching or guiding the offender in the process of making restitution. The self-help nature of making restitution is emphasized.

112

Eglish, A., & Papanek, E. (1959). Creative restitution: A correctional technique and a theory. Journal of Individual Psychology, 15, 226-232.

Creative restitution is defined as providing appropriate supervision so as to help the offender find a way to make amends to those he or she has hurt, making good the damage or harm caused, and going a second mile whenever possible. Creative restitution is distinct from the usual reparation or indemnity but contains no elements actually new to correctional work. The innovation of creative restitution is that it takes familiar elements and combines them into a new gestalt. The various aspects of the technique of creative restitution are described and illustrated, particularly in reference to Adlerian theory.

113

Ervin, L., & Schneider, A. (1990). Explaining the effects of restitution on offenders: Results from a national experiment in juvenile courts. In B. Galaway & J. Hudson (Eds.), Criminal justice, restitution, and reconciliation. Monsey, NY: Criminal Justice Press.

This research documents evidence that restitution and traditional programs both have suppressive effects on subsequent offending, but that the impact of restitution is greater than that of traditional dispositions by approximately eight offenses per year, per 100 youths. The explanation of how and why restitution impacts recidivism is more elusive. Tests were made to determine if the linkages could be explained by deterrence theory, self image theory, or social integration theory. None of these proved satisfactory. Only the self image variable, "lawbreaker," was related in the expected way to subsequent offending.

When the models were examined separately within the two treatment groups, however, interaction effects were observed. It appears restitution experiences alter the predictors of recidivism. Further analysis suggests that one of the most important characteristics of restitution programs is that they require continuing, tangible, positive action by youths that culminates in successful completion of a type not found in traditional programs. Success has a powerful impact on recidivism within restitution programs, but far less effect on subsequent recidivism for juveniles in traditional programs. The conclusion is reached that restitution's impact on recidivism operates largely through the opportunity it presents for positively rewarding the juvenile for actions taken. Traditional programs offer no such opportunities.

114

Evans, R. C., & Koederitz, G. D. (1983). The requirement of restitution for juvenile offenders: An alternative disposition. Journal of Offender Counseling, Services and Rehabilitation, 7(3/4), 1-20.

Restitution is regarded by many as the most promising, logical, and effective means of achieving the dual goals of deterrence and punishment. Surveys suggest strong support for juvenile restitution and several states have recently enacted or amended juvenile restitution statutes. A review of state juvenile codes reveals that a majority of states generally permit courts to require restitution as a disposition and to determine the amount and form of reparation. A survey of juvenile court judges and probation officers representing 14 states which permit some form of restitution revealed that about one-third of the courts require it often and two-thirds seldom or never require it. More than half regard it as an effective deterrent. Data show that the most common form of restitution is money payments, however, there remains much disagreement as to the amount of restitution required.

115

Evarts, W. R. (1990). Compensation through mediation: A conceptual framework. In B. Galaway & J. Hudson (Eds.), Criminal justice, restitution, and reconciliation. Monsey, NY: Criminal Justice Press.

Doing justice requires adherence to the Platonic principle of doing no harm. It must be based on six principles. Compensation is the only way to mitigate harm. Compensation must be done in such a way as to injure neither victim nor offender. Compensation will always be incomplete since some harm is irredeemable. Punishment violates Plato's principle of doing no harm. The absence of compensation and the presence of punishment make both victim and the perpetrator of injury less just. If society's objective is to make people just, then punishment is not permitted but compensation is required.

116

Fautsko, T. F., & Wedden, R. (1974). Recommendations for developing court referral project using misdemeanants as community volunteers--Alachua County, Florida. Washington, DC: American University Law School.

Service to the community will instill a feeling of responsibility for his or her actions in a client. Female shoplifters are the primary recipient of the proposed program. The defendant's adjudication should be withheld, and the trial date set pending successful completion of the community contract. At the preliminary hearing the judge should determine the length of time and the type of area to be worked, such as in a hospital emergency room for the careless driver. Volunteer coordinators should be appointed to coordinate the volunteer workers. Also included are appendixes of sample program guidelines, forms, grant proposals, program descriptions, and a suggested bibliography.

117

Feinman, H. (1985). Legal issues in the operation of juvenile restitution programs. In A. L. Schneider (Ed.), Guide to juvenile restitution (pp. 147-150). Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice, Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention.

Discussion of legal issues relating to statutory authority for restitution programs and to the scope and amount of restitution orders. Some states provide specific authority for restitution. In others the authority is inherent in the legislation authorizing courts to set probation conditions. Monetary restitution involves a deprivation of property and requires compliance with due process requirements. Due process requirements vary, however, because the court must balance the youth's interest in the scope and amount of restitution with the state's interest in maintaining a disposition procedure that is not unduly cumbersome.

Probable cause determination and voluntary, informed decision on the part of the youth and parents will be necessary for diversion cases. Post adjudication cases will require that the youth be informed of the right to counsel, of established eligibility criteria, and of the amount of restitution claimed by the victim. A youth must be provided with an opportunity to be heard, be allowed to present witnesses, and be given an opportunity to cross-examine victim if there is objection to the claimed loss. The final decision on restitution should be made by a judge or a referee, not by probation staff. Selection criteria for participating in the program must insure equal protection and not arbitrarily or unjustifiably discriminate against any group of individuals. The court must determine that the youth has a present ability to pay or is likely to have an ability to pay in the future prior to ordering restitution; a youth cannot be incarcerated for failure to pay restitution unless the failure was willful and there are no alternatives to incarceration available that will satisfy the state's interest in holding the youth accountable.

Using community service and pre-trial diversion will require an effective waiver of rights and consent to participate to avoid being in conflict with the involuntary servitude provision of the constitution; this provision does not apply to punishment of offenders, therefore a waiver is not necessary for post-adjudication. State statutes specify eligible victims and quite often provide that restitution can be ordered to victims for damages for charges that have been technically dismissed. Some statutes are not precise in defining eligible victims. Whether insurance companies and other third party companies will be eligible will depend on court interpretations of the definition of aggrieved parties. Broad definitions of this concept will extend to third parties, whereas courts defining the concept narrowly may limit restitution directly to victims. Generally courts have rejected restitution orders requiring offenders to pay restitution to charitable organizations that have no connection with the offense.

Courts have generally been given wide latitude in assessing the amount of restitution although there must be some relationship to the offender's present or likely future ability to pay. Generally restitution is limited to easily measurable financial loss. Most state courts have held that groups of offenders are jointly and severally liable for the entire loss from a criminal activity. Some states do provide for parental liability for restitution and, where this occurs, the same due process rights extended to the offender must be

extended to the parents. Generally the liability of restitution programs for either injuries experienced by the youth or injuries caused by the youth to third parties will not be assessed unless the program is found to be negligent. Insurance protection can be sought for this liability and participants can be asked to sign a waiver of right to bring claim. There is question, however, about the validity of these waivers.

118

Feinman, H. (1980). Legal issues in the operation of restitution programs in a juvenile court. In J. Hudson & B. Galaway (Eds.), Victims, offenders, and alternative sanctions (pp. 139-149). Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.

Examines the logical and constitutional problems posed by different methods of ordering restitution and the legal issues that arise in the operation of restitution programs at the level of the juvenile court.

119

Female Offenders Program of Western Pennsylvania, Inc. (1979). Program for women offenders--How to start, fund, maintain. Pittsburgh, PA: Female Offenders Program of Western Pennsylvania, Inc.

This handbook describes how to start, fund, and maintain a community services project for women offenders that will prevent them from repeating criminal behavior.

120

Finckenauer, J. O. (1974). Theory and practice in sentencing the political criminal: A comment. Criminal Law Bulletin, 10, 737-748.

Political offenders of the Watergate type should be sentenced to community service positions which would make use of their occupational talents. The personal characteristics of the offender should determine the purposes of a criminal sentence. Supervised release to the community with a condition of unpaid public service is considered to take full advantage of the unique characteristics of political offenders.

121

Finger, B. (1987). Alternatives to incarceration: Fledgling programs forced to grow up; Community service work and related programs. North Carolina Insight, 9(3), 63-65.

Community service in North Carolina is describe within the context of programs designed to reduce jail overcrowding. The community service system is a public program and has four parts--driving while impaired (DWI) community service, non-DWI community service (usually associated with intensive probation), first-offender programs, and community service parole. A \$100 community service placement fee is charged the offender. There

is a difference of view as to whether community service overlaps with probation work (different staff administer the community service program) thus creating another layer of bureaucracy. Community service staff carry a caseload of 145 people. Public acceptance of community service is increased because of the return of free labor.

122

Fischer, D. G., & Jeune, R. (1987). Juvenile diversion: A process analysis. Canadian Psychology, 28, 60-70.

Evaluation of a juvenile diversion program operating in a western Canadian city of 160,000; youths are diverted from formal juvenile justice processing to a program involving community service, victim restitution, and victim offender reconciliation. Referral decisions are made by police. Police have three options: to warn and dismiss, to refer to youth diversion, or to arrest the youth and refer to the juvenile court.

If referral to youth diversion is selected the police officer meets with the youth and parents and explains the program. Subsequently a diversion meeting occurs involving the youth, parents, two community volunteers, the victim, and a representative of the John Howard Society which operates the diversion program. The meeting is held to discuss the transgression and means by which compensation and reconciliation with the victim can be reached. Parents sign a consent form to participate. The youth must acknowledge guilt. Diversion agreements are reached in 97% of the cases referred; only one hearing is required for 95%. The average length of time for diversion hearings is one hour.

Data collection included use of questionnaires, interviews, and participant observation. Data were obtained from youths, parents, volunteers, and victims immediately following diversion hearings; in addition community agencies, police, and the project coordinators were interviewed. During the three year experimental stage, 259 youth were referred to the diversion program; demographic data were obtained on all youth. Average age was 14.5, 85% were male, and 82% white. 59% came from single parent homes. Interview data were obtained from 104 youth, 90 parents, 149 community volunteers, and 7 victims. Only 7% of the victims attended diversion hearings, although in 66% of the cases youths met with victims outside the diversion hearing; 73% of the victims and youths came together before, during, or after the diversion hearing. Corporate victims were generally unwilling to take the time to attend diversion hearings. Most of the referrals were property offenders. Diversion hearing dispositions include monetary compensation (44.7% of total dispositions), work for the victims (13.8%), community service (37.9%), apology (42.7%), referral for counseling (4.7%), referral to agency other than counseling (8.3%) and other (17.8%). Dispositions were reached in 97% of the cases; the remaining 3% were referred back to the court for processing either because the parents felt the court could better provide for the youth or refusal on the part of the youth to admit to the alleged facts as presented by the police report.

Comparison of police depositions for the 10 years prior to the program with the three years in which the program operated showed no decrease in warning and dismissals and a decrease in referral to the court, leading to the conclusion that the program did not have a net-widening effect. The average cost per youth served in the diversion program was \$345, substantially less than court processing costs. Eighteen percent of the youths and 62% of the parents had previously been to court and of these 94% of the youth and 100% of the parents preferred the diversion program. Youths preferred diversion over court because it gave them an opportunity to make restitution, was less public than court and their friends would be less likely to know, they did not have to miss school time, they did not think of themselves as criminals who should have to go to court, and court was frightening and perilous. Parents preferred diversion because it prevented their youth from having a criminal record, provided an opportunity for youth to learn about more personal consequences of delinquent behavior, and it provided an opportunity for compensation to the victim. Victims, volunteers, community agencies, businesses, and police saw diversion as a better way than court for handling low risk youth. Ninety percent of the diversion agreements were completed satisfactorily.

123

Fisse, B. (1981). Community service as a sanction against corporations. Wisconsin Law Review, 5, 970-1017.

Requiring corporations to provide community service may be a better punishment than the fine. This paper suggests statutes to accomplish this and analyses strengths and weaknesses of community service as a punishment for corporations.

124

Flegg, D., Coleman, B., Ellis, J., & Higginson, R. J. (1976). Nottinghamshire consumer survey--1973-1976. unpublished.

This study was conducted to obtain the offender's perception of community service work, to determine any practical or family problems that arose as the result of this work, to assess the offender's perception of the community service order relative to other alternative sentences such as probation or fines, and to assess what difference the community service order made to the offender's outlook, particularly in terms of continuing with the work on a voluntary basis. Nottinghamshire was one of the five pilot areas for the community service scheme as originally implemented in England in 1972. A brief interview schedule was developed and relatively unstructured interviews were completed with the first 100 offenders completing the community service scheme in the target area.

Among the major findings were:

- Offenders appreciated the attempt made to match available tasks with their own preferences;



- Offenders believed that they would have received a custodial sentence in the absence of the community service scheme;
- Offenders felt that community service was a better sanction than being fined or being placed on probation;
- The vast majority of offenders believed that community service had caused no difficulties of a practical or family type;
- Most of the respondents had no difficulty explaining what they were doing to family members or friends and felt no sense of stigma from doing community service work;
- Very few negative experiences were reported by respondents in relation to the type of work completed; most of the respondents were very enthusiastic about the work;
- Only four respondents out of the 100 said that the community service work had not been a worthwhile experience; the majority of the respondents believed that community service work had helped them to remain out of difficulty with the law.

125

Florida Department of Health and Rehabilitative Services. (1979). Community control programs for delinquents--An analysis of implementation of the 1978 Florida Juvenile Justice Act. Tallahassee, FL: Florida Department of Health and Rehabilitative Services.

The study examines the impact of a legislated community control program for juveniles emphasizing community service and restitution. The report examined data on the assignment of juveniles to community work programs for the first seven months following implementation of the legislation and compared the results to probation caseload statistics. Although community work program assignments experienced a large increase, a relatively low percentage had completed their work obligations. Data on restitution indicated that while the number of juveniles paying restitution had increased, the program still involved less than five percent of juveniles under supervision. An underlying assumption of the community control concept was that short-term sanctions would result in decreased caseloads and thus give counselors more time to provide individualized services for clients. While caseloads did decline after the legislation, statistics indicate decreased contacts between counselors and clients. Suggestions for reducing caseloads and shifting to community service programs are given.

126

Flowers, G. T. (1977). The Georgia restitution shelter program (Evaluation Report No. 1-150). Atlanta: Georgia Department of Offender Rehabilitation.

An evaluation of four Georgia residential restitution centers with a capacity of 20 - 25 offenders each. A primary purpose of the programs is to provide courts with an alternative to incarceration. The facilities received offenders directly from the courts as well as from the paroling authority. The research aimed at assessing the extent to which the four centers achieved the goals of providing financial and service restitution to crime victims, acting as an alternative to incarceration, and reducing recidivism. Planned random selection procedures were never implemented. Consequently, the evaluation

amounts to an after-only, non-experimental type of study. Data were collected from official agency reports.

Major findings were:

- It is doubtful whether the programs served as alternatives to prison for many offenders.
- The centers were all slow in accepting referrals so that there were a large proportion of beds empty.
- The cost of the program was more expensive than the use of prison.
- Of the 400 offenders participating in the centers, approximately 80% were received from the court, 20% from the parole board.
- Of the \$270,567 awarded or obligated to victims, only \$54,828 was actually repaid during the evaluation period.
- Thirteen percent of the offenders were placed in the programs on the basis of misdemeanor conviction and the remaining 87% on the basis of felony convictions.
- Fifty-nine percent of the offenders (241) were defined as successful terminations (either the sentence expired, they paid their restitution in full, completed the service restitution, or the sentence was amended); 35% (138) were in-program failures; 45% (62) of these failures absconded; and 55% (76) of all failures had new convictions or were revoked.
- Of the 274 offenders on which data were collected, 31% were rearrested within six months of program release; 59% had been rearrested within one year; 87% had been rearrested within 18 months.
- Of the 40 cases where both arrest and conviction data were present, 45% were defined as successes and 55% as failures within six months; the one year rate for failure was 75%.

127

Fogel, D., Galaway, B., & Hudson, J. (1972). Restitution in criminal justice: A Minnesota experiment. Criminal Law Bulletin, 8, 681-691.

A proposed restitution program that will be integrated within a community-based corrections facility. Participants will be randomly selected from adult male and female property offenders upon admission to prison. These offenders will be offered the option of living in a community corrections center and making restitution as an alternative to incarceration. A field experimental design is proposed to measure the effects of the program relative to the prison program as well as the extent of reconciliation of the victim and offender. Basic to this restitution proposal is a negotiation process by which offenders and victims develop restitution plans.

128

Foley, J. P. (1985). Drunk driver recidivist penalties in Indiana for 1984. West Lafayette, IN: Purdue University Automotive Transportation Center.

This report reviews 1984 compliance with Indiana Criminal Code 9-11-3-4, effective September 1983, that requires persons with repeated convictions of operating a vehicle while intoxicated within a five year period to be imprisoned for at least 48 consecutive hours or to perform at least 10 days of community service.

A total sample of 1,069 second or subsequent offenders in 15 Indiana counties was used in the study. Site visits were made to the courts in all 15 counties. The average weighted percentage of drunk driver recidivists who served 48 consecutive hours in jail was 64%. Adding those who performed at least 10 days of community service increased compliance to 68.7%. There were 181 recidivists (17%) who served neither jail time nor performed community service, 112 (10%) who served some jail time but not 48 consecutive hours, and 132 (12%) who served no jail time but performed less than 10 days of community service.

Problems with determining and ensuring compliance are discussed. Diverse court record keeping systems and delays in retrieving files made data collection difficult. Because there were no checks of driver histories to determine recidivism, courts often did not realize they were dealing with repeat offenders and treated them as first offenders. Overall compliance for the first year of implementation was reasonable, but prospective, ongoing data collection and determination of the true status of defendants at adjudication is recommended.

129

Fortier, J., & Gallant, G. (1979). Une expérience pilote de sentence de travaux communautaires [Pilot experiment of sentencing to community work]. Criminologie, 12(2), 24-40.

A pilot study was conducted in Quebec, Canada, to discover whether sentencing offenders to a certain number of hours of community work rather than to imprisonment would be acceptable to the community and to the criminal justice system. The project was implemented between April 1977 and May 1978. All participants felt that the project should be generalized to all Quebec. Judges and probation officers thought that the sentence filled a gap between incarceration and supervised suspension of sentences. Probation officers felt that the measure enriched their work in the offenders were involved in humanizing and resocializing activities. Community agencies were pleased to participate actively in the criminal justice system. The accused appreciated the opportunity to pay back the public for their crimes and to be consulted personally with regard to their sentence. Finally, the new measure was praised for its cost effectiveness.

130

Foxx, R. M., & Azrin, N. H. (1972). Restitution: A method of eliminating aggressive and disruptive behavior of retarded and brain-damaged patients. Behavior, Research, and Therapy, 10, 15-27.

Describes a procedure to provide disruptive children with re-education, removal of reinforcement for misbehavior, time-out from general positive reinforcement, and restitution requirement. The offender was required by instructions or physical guidance to overcorrect the general psychological and physical disturbance created by the behavior. The procedure was applied to one brain damaged and two retarded patients, who displayed one or more of the following types of behavior: physical assault, property destruction, tantrums, continuous screaming, and biting; the patients had resisted other treatments such as time-out, punishment and social disapproval. The procedure reduced the disturbed behavior of all patients to a near-zero level in one or two weeks and maintained this effect with minimal staff attention.

This method appears to be a rapid and effective treatment procedure for disruptive behavior and emphasizes the individual's responsibility for his actions. The rationale of the restitution procedure was to educate the offender to assume individual responsibility for the disruption caused by misbehavior, by requiring him to restore the disturbed situation to a greatly improved state. The first step required identification of the features of the environment disturbed by the behavior and the designation of the psychological and physical aspects of the disturbance in general and specific terms. This step is necessary for describing the corrected situation that the offender will be required to achieve. Step two is the re-education aspect of the procedure in which the desired response is trained and practiced. The restitutive acts are designed to be directly related to the misbehavior, are required immediately after the misbehavior, are extended in duration, and should be very actively performed without pausing. Restitution amounts to work and effort.

131

Freibert, M. T. (undated). The evolution of restitution. Unpublished paper, University of Southern Mississippi, Hattiesburg, MS.

Provides an overview of the history of restitution, from the Code of Hammurabi through the 1970s. Material is drawn primarily from secondary sources and other summaries of restitution histories.

132

Fuller, G. (1956). Value to prisoners of participation in public service projects. Federal Probation, 20(4), 52-54.

Over 48,000 pints of blood were donated by inmates in American prisons during 1955. The advantages for the community and the inmate of making such donations are described.

Galaway, B. (1988). Crime victim and offender mediation as a social work strategy. Social Service Review, 62, 668-683.

Juvenile offenders and their victims are brought together to discuss the offense/victimization and to negotiate a mutually satisfactory restitution plan. One hundred sixty-five offenders participated in the first two years. One hundred and sixty-two victims were involved in the offenses and 54% (87) decided to meet their offenders. One hundred and twenty-eight agreements were negotiated involving 99 offenders and 84 victims. Seventy-nine percent of the agreements were successfully closed.

Crime victim and offender mediation will be useful for social workers; mediation provides an opportunity for both victims and offenders to actively participate in decision making and an opportunity to challenge stereotypes through a process of communication. From a policy perspective, the practice provides a mechanism to respond to victim interest in participating in the justice system and provides a dispute settlement procedure to replace other responses to property offenders. A growing body of research indicates that mediation is feasible and acceptable to both victims and the general public and public support is growing for replacing prison and jail with restitution, community service, and mediation as the response to property offenders. Such a response should deter the cancerous growth of the jail and prison industry that is using resources desperately needed for education, health, and social welfare.

Galaway, B. (1985). Victim participation in the penal-corrective process. Victimology: An International Journal, 10, 617-630.

Traditional roles for crime victims have been as initiators of the criminal justice process by making a decision to report a crime to the police and as witness to assist the prosecution in securing a conviction. Recent victim rights efforts are extending to victims a further role as recipient of information regarding actions taken by the justice system in relation to the victims' cases.

This paper develops a conceptual model and evaluation research questions for the victim's role as participant in the penal correctional process whereby victims of property offenses are provided the opportunity to meet their offender after guilt has been determined and to engage in a process of developing restorative plan for presentation to the court. The restorative plan is to become the penalty imposed upon an offender and will require the offender to take correctional actions to restore damages done through restitution to the victim and service to the community. The probation officer or other official of the justice system will serve as a mediator to facilitate this process.

Finally the paper answers five common objections to this concept--the criminal justice process will be converted to a procedure for the victim to secure private gain, the process will detract from other penal objectives, victims don't want to be involved in the

justice system, victims will be vindictive, and the process will create a nuisance for justice system officials.

135

Galaway, B. (1983). Probation as a reparative sentence. Federal Probation, 47(3), 9-18.

A reparative sentence requires offenders to restore victim losses through monetary restitution or personal service. Reparation can be made to the community in the form of unpaid service if there were no victim losses or the nature of the offense requires a more severe penalty. The reparative sentence should be implemented in a manner which maximized the possibility of reconciliation of the offender with the community. This requires active victim involvement in all phases of the sentence, involving the offender in the local community for community service restitution, and use of a community sponsor selected by the offender for monitoring implementation of the sentences.

Probation functions will be to develop reparative plans for individual offenders and monitoring compliance with reparative plans. Issues that must be addressed in considering the widespread use of reparation probation are offender financial means and employment potential, whether restitution should be made to insurance companies, backup sanctions when a reparation plan is not completed, the willingness of victims to participate in and accept the plan, public acceptance of reparation as an alternative to imprisonment for property offenders, and the probation bureaucracy's willingness to accept a changed role.

136

Galaway, B. (1981). Traffic offenders and community service sentencing: An overview. Washington, DC: U. S. Department of Transportation, National Highway Traffic Safety Administration.

Review of the literature, review of the files of the National Assessment of Adult Restitution Projects (Hudson, Galaway, Novack, 1980), a survey of the intake of 11 community service restitution projects, and an attitude survey of the judges serving the 11 projects were undertaken to provide data regarding the use of community service as a sanction for traffic offenders. The literature indicates that many community service projects were initiated in response to the need for sentencing alternatives for traffic offenders; there is, however, a very scanty literature with specific reference to community service as a sanction for traffic offenders.

Traffic offenders are probably regularly found in the population of offenders being served by community service projects, but there is no indication of the proportion of traffic offenders to the total case load. A study of the intake over three months of 11 community service projects suggests that traffic offenders are regularly being served by the projects, but that referrals to the projects constitute a very small minority (less than

one percent) of the total traffic offenders sentenced in each jurisdiction. The vast majority of traffic offenders sentenced to community service complete their service requirement, which is typically unskilled labor.

Judges do not express strong support for community service for traffic offenders, although they do indicate that it may be a useful alternative for the individual case in which the court is dissatisfied with present sentencing options. The community service sanction can generally be imposed with very modest costs; the projects studied reported costs from \$36 to \$386 per intake.

137

Galaway, B. (1980). National assessment of adult restitution programs: Project report 14: Porter County PACT Community Service Project, Valparaiso, Indiana. School of Social Development, University of Minnesota, Duluth, MN.

This program was one of 20 included in the National Assessment of Adult Restitution Programs. The project report is the product of an evaluability assessment and contains a description of current operations for 1979, a pre-project history from original idea for the restitution program until funds first became available and a description of implementation from initial funding until beginning of the current program year.

The PACT Project is a non-residential program which provides opportunities for adult misdemeanor offenders to engage in community service work as an alternative to incarceration in the county jail. This post adjudication program serves offenders who are sentenced in the county court in Porter County, Indiana; all offenders have been sentenced to a county jail; community service is used in lieu of serving the sentence.

Generally clients are not on probation status. About 300 intakes are received each year, the vast majority of whom have committed a misdemeanor offense and are between the ages of 18 through 25; the program was established to provide an alternative to jail sentence for young adults because the county court judge was dissatisfied with the use of either fines or jail sentences for this population. The program is administered by a private, non-profit, community based corrections organization. The program started in July, 1977; during the first two years local resources were utilized--special grants from the United Way, a small grant from a local foundation, the use of CETA positions, and some resources from county commissioners. During the current operations year, the project made application and was awarded an Law Enforcement Assistance Administration (LEAA) discretionary grant as part of the national community service initiative. As a result of federal funding, the program has been expanded to provide services to a newly formed county court in the northern part of Porter County (Portage).

138

Galaway, B. (1980). National assessment of adult restitution programs: Project report 16: Rockland County Youth Counsel Bureau, New City, New York. School of Social Development, University of Minnesota, Duluth, MN.

The program was one of 20 included in the National Assessment of Adult Restitution Programs. The project report is the product of an evaluability assessment and contains a description of current operations for 1979, a pre-project history from original idea for the restitution program until funds first became available and a description of implementation from initial funding until beginning of the current program year.

The Rockland County Youth Counsel Bureau is a non-residential program serving primarily young adult misdemeanants (ages 16-19) referred from village and town courts. Rockland County is an affluent, suburban county north of New York City. The project admits approximately 600 clients per year, most of whom are involved in a six month program including community service, counseling, supervision by agency staff, and possibly referral to external agencies for services. Most clients have received their first adjudication in a misdemeanor court; the typical disposition involves either adjournment in contemplation of dismissal (ACD) or conditional discharge (CD). The agency is an autonomous unit of county government with the director reporting to an 18 member county legislature that sets policies and oversees the operation of various units of county government.

139

Galaway, B. (1980). National assessment of adult restitution programs: Project report 18: Adult diversion program, Department of Attorney General, Providence, Rhode Island. School of Social Development, University of Minnesota, Duluth, MN.

The program was one of 20 included in the National Assessment of Adult Restitution Programs. The project report is the product of an evaluability assessment and contains a description of current operations for 1979, a pre-project history from original idea for the restitution program until funds first became available and a description of implementation from initial funding until beginning of the current program year.

The Adult Diversion Program is a pretrial, non-residential project administered by the Rhode Island Attorney General. The Attorney General's office handles felony prosecutions; the diversion program is available statewide. Community service is required of all persons diverted except for some drug offenders; the majority of divertees have a monetary restitution obligation which is expected as a diversion requirement in cases where victims sustain damages. The program staff make referrals to other employment, health, and social service agencies in the community, and require participation in these programs as a condition of diversion. The project admits about 150 felony level offenders each year and serves primarily property offenders who have been charged with their first felony.



140

Galaway, B. (1980). National assessment of adult restitution programs: Project report 20: Georgia Department of Corrections Diversion Shelters, Atlanta, Georgia. School of Social Development, University of Minnesota, Duluth, MN.

The program was one of 20 included in the National Assessment of Adult Restitution Programs. The project report is the product of an evaluability assessment and contains a description of current operations for 1979, a pre-project history from original idea for the restitution program until funds first became available and a description of implementation from initial funding until beginning of the current program year.

The Probation Division of the Georgia Department of Corrections operates 11 diversion shelters located throughout the state of Georgia. The shelters operate as residential community corrections centers, receive adult male felons who are usually on probation status from courts, and serve as an alternative to, and thus diversion from, prison. The 11 centers have approximately 373 beds available, keep residents for an average of four months, and admit approximately 1,100 offenders per year.

Restitution, when court ordered, is a part of the resident's program; additionally, all residents are expected to be involved in unpaid community service activity. Each center is staffed by 13 staff, who, in addition to maintaining security, provide a range of services including individual and group counseling, family counseling, employment assistance, and educational programming. The centers have an out-client phase to provide probation supervision and services to residents for a total of one year (four months in residence, eight months out-client).

141

Galaway, B. (1980). National assessment of adult restitution programs: Project report 7: Pre-prosecution diversion program, San Juan and Mckinley counties, New Mexico. School of Social Development, University of Minnesota, Duluth, MN.

This program was one of 20 included in the National Assessment of Adult Restitution Programs. The project report is the product of an evaluability assessment and contains a description of current operations for 1979, a pre-project history from original idea for the restitution program until funds first became available and a description of implementation from initial funding until beginning of the current program year.

The pre-prosecution diversion program is a pretrial diversion program operating under the administration of the district attorney in two rural, northwestern New Mexico Counties. The project admits approximately 135 clients per year; the clients are predominantly first offenders who have committed property offenses and are diverted from criminal prosecution to a program involving monetary restitution, community service, referral to community agencies for other services, and monitoring to be sure the client is following through on the diversion agreement. The offenders are all adults who have been charged with a felony.

142

Galaway, B. (1980). National assessment of adult restitution programs: Project report 19: Orleans Parish Criminal Sheriff's Restitution Program, New Orleans, Louisiana. School of Social Development, University of Minnesota, Duluth, MN.

The program was one of 20 included in the National Assessment of Adult Restitution Programs. The project report is the product of an evaluability assessment and contains a description of current operations for 1979, a pre-project history from original idea for the restitution program until funds first became available and a description of implementation from initial funding until beginning of the current program year.

The parish sheriff is responsible for the administration of several local correctional programs including institutional facilities serving convicted offenders. The Restitution Shelter Program permits selected offenders to maintain employment in the community but to return to the facility at night. All participants are required to allocate 10% of their salary to restitution that goes first to their victim and, when the victim is repaid or in situations where there is no victim, to a special fund to provide assistance to aged victims of crime. All participants are also required to provide unpaid community service. An extensive diagnostic process is used to screen and accept eligible offenders for the program. The project admits approximately 150 offenders per year.

143

Galaway, B. (1980). National assessment of adult restitution programs: Project report 11: Adult diversion program, County Attorney's Office, Tucson, Arizona. School of Social Development, University of Minnesota, Duluth, MN.

This program was one of 20 included in the National Assessment of Adult Restitution Programs. The project report is the product of an evaluability assessment and contains a description of current operations for 1979, a pre-project history from original idea for the restitution program until funds first became available and a description of implementation from initial funding until beginning of the current program year.

The Adult Diversion Program serves adults charged with their first felony offense; the program has a staff of 11 persons and is administered by the county attorney's office. Restitution and community service requirements are a part of a broader range of program components including supervision/counseling, group counseling, manpower services, and referral to other agencies for a range of social services. Forty hours of community service are required of clients; restitution is required where damages have been done and the victim desires restitution. An intensive intake/screening process is used to filter out referrals from assistant county attorneys who might not be amenable to the program's rehabilitative aims.

Galaway, B. (1977). The use of restitution. Crime and Delinquency, 23, 57-67. Also in B. Galaway & J. Hudson (Eds.), Perspectives on crime victims (pp. 277-285). St. Louis, MO: C. V. Mosby, 1981.

Restitution refers to the payment of money to victims of crime, payment of money to other community organizations, and community service. Possible purposes include redress to the victim, less severe sanction for the offender, rehabilitation of the offender, reduction of demands on the criminal justice system, and the reduction of vengeance. Restitution is being used as a sanction for crime in several exploratory projects, including pre-trial diversion programs, special probation projects, and community corrections centers.

A number of unresolved issues have developed from these preliminary efforts to integrate restitution into correctional programs. A useful classification scheme reflecting the different types of restitution must be developed and program purposes must be clarified. What is the proper relationship of restitution to other sanctions? When is restitution appropriately used as the sole sanction, when should it be used in conjunction with other requirements, and when is it inappropriate? What role should the victim play in a restitution program? Should the victim have veto power over the use of restitution? Should victim/offender communication be encouraged? Attention to these issues is necessary for the orderly development of the concept of restitution and appraisal of its place in the criminal justice system.

Galaway, B. (1977). Is restitution practical? Federal Probation, 41(3), 3-8.

There is a need for careful review the experience of restitution projects to guide further programming. Sufficient experience is available, however, to suggest that many of the practical issues which are frequently raised in regard to restitution programming can be resolved. Fair restitution amounts can be determined. Differences in perceived damages between victims and offenders are resolvable and guidelines are available to deal with the issues of payment for intangible damages, partial restitution, and excessive restitution.

There is no reason to believe major problems will be encountered in enforcing the restitution obligations so long as installment payments are used, implementation of the restitution agreement is monitored, and use is made of job-finding services, public employment, personal service restitution, and a more severe sanction can be imposed if the offender refuses to complete the restitution obligation. Attention should be given to finding types of offenses for which restitution might be a sole penalty. Finally, the issue of victim culpability should not deter from the imposition of a restitution requirement.

146

Galaway, B. (1977). Toward the rational development of restitution programming. In J. Hudson & B. Galaway (Eds.), Restitution in criminal justice (pp. 77-89). Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.

Criminal justice planners and administrators can contribute to the orderly development of restitution in three ways: analysis and dissemination of information from operational projects; creation of controlled experiments; development of descriptive accounts of ways to resolve key questions in the use of restitution.

147

Galaway, B. (1977). Restitution as an integrative punishment. In R. Barnett & J. Hagel (Eds.), Assessing the criminal: Restitution, retribution and the legal process (pp.331-347). Cambridge, MA: Ballinger.

Restitution refers to a sanction imposed by an official of the criminal justice system that requires the offender to make a money or service payment either to the direct victims of the crime or to substitute victims. This definition is broad enough to encompass a number of restitution types, including monetary payments by the offender to the direct or actual victims, monetary payments made by the offender to some community agency, personal service by the offender to the victim, and service to the community.

The idea of restitution appeals to both liberals, as it treats offenders more humanely, and to conservatives, as it requires offenders to pay for the crime and at the same time helps the victim. Four major reasons for assigning restitution a definite role in the criminal justice system are examined:

- Restitution should have a larger role in the justice system because the practice provides an alternative punishment that can be used either in addition to, or instead of, the sanction currently available;
- The restitution sanction has the potential for reconciling victims and offenders;
- Restitution will provide a vehicle for the inclusion of the victim into the criminal justice process;
- Restitution procedures can be integrated into the current organizational structures of the justice system without the need for additional programs requiring substantial public expenditure.

Continued, cautious development of restitution programming is one of the most hopeful and potentially constructive approaches to criminal justice reform.

148

Galaway, B., Henzel, M., Ramsay, G., & Wanyama, B. (1980). Victims and delinquents in the Tulsa Juvenile Court. Federal Probation, 44(2), 42-48.

The victim's program was established in April, 1975, and is staffed by two full-time coordinators. The project is intended for youth referred after guilt has been determined

at an adjudicatory hearing. After the hearing, program staff meet with youth and parents to determine program requirements. Staff then attempt to develop a restitution plan calling for full payment of victim losses, or in the case of excessive amounts, negotiating the amount with the victim and developing a partial restitution plan. Community service is also included. A plan for restitution is presented to the court at the time of the disposition hearing; the court may place the youth on formal probation or continue the case informally. Offenders are responsible for paying victims directly; project staff monitor completion of restitution.

Data were collected from official agency files for all victim cases opened or closed between December 1, 1975 and November 30, 1978. A population of 251 victims and 291 offenders was secured. In addition, a study was made of all youth who received their first delinquency adjudication in the Tulsa juvenile court during 1978 and comparisons were made between those who were and were not referred to the program. The characteristics of youth, victim, and restitution/community service for the three years of program operations were that youth were predominantly middle adolescent, white males who had committed property offenses with no previous referrals to the juvenile court. Approximately half of the youth came from intact families and half from families with less than \$10,000 income per year. Of the 251 victims, 60% were individuals or households, 7% were owner-operated businesses, 26% were managed businesses and 7% were governmental organizations (including schools) or charitable organizations (including churches). The average net loss per victim was \$207. The mean amount of restitution ordered per victim was \$127, while the actual amount of restitution collected by victims was \$90. Five percent of the victims received services directly from the offenders averaging 28 hours per victim. Two hundred and eighteen of the 291 youth had financial restitution obligations averaging \$155.

Seventy-one percent of the victims were willing to meet their offenders, but only 54% actually met with them. Only 6% of the victims were unwilling to meet with their offenders; the files did not indicate victim willingness for the other 22%. Of the 291 youth, 59% had contact with one or more of their victims as a part of participating in the program. No differences were found between the group of youth who received their first adjudication in the Tulsa Juvenile Court during 1978 and were or were not referred to the program in terms of the variables of race, prior number of referrals to juvenile court, and family income. Property offenders were more likely to be referred to the program than non-property offenders, and a significantly higher proportion of offenders adjudicated before a judge were referred to the program than those adjudicated before a referee.

149

Galaway, B., & Hudson, J. (1981). Toward an evaluable community service sanctioning project model. In E. Scullin (Ed.), Special national workshop on criminal justice program evaluation (pp. 24-28). Washington, DC: NILE and CJ.

The procedures for developing a composite evaluable model for community service sanctioning projects are described, and initial impressions about community service sanctioning projects are presented, followed by a preliminary draft of a composite community service sanctioning project.

150

Galaway, B., & Hudson, J. (1979). Evaluation research: A guide for juvenile restitution project managers. Arlington, VA: National Office for Social Responsibility.

Evaluation research should be geared to the present stage of project development and is a continuous process of project assessment. The sequence of steps in planning and implementing evaluation research are examining prerequisites for conducting evaluation research; performing an evaluability assessment so as to develop a conceptual model that specifies the intended project purpose, objectives, and activities; using the methods of formative research to measure program operations and compare to the conceptual model; using the methods of summative research to assess the effects of the project.

151

Galaway, B., & Hudson, J. (1975). Issues in the correctional implementation of restitution to victims of crime. In J. Hudson & B. Galaway (Eds.), Considering the victim (pp. 351-360). Springfield, IL: Thomas.

The Minnesota Restitution Center Program is described and issues involved in applying restitution within this community based corrections program are assessed. The legal status of offenders in the program is parole with the restitution obligation as a primary condition of the parole agreement. A unique feature of the program is the emphasis placed upon the joint involvement of the victim and offender in negotiating a restitution agreement. Particular attention is given to the issues of victim-offender involvement, the amount of damages done by offenders, the amount of restitution to be made, the variety of problems presented by property offenders, the use of restitution as compared to more conventional treatments, and the implementation of the evaluation research design.

152

Galaway, B., & Hudson, J. (1974). Using restitution in the rehabilitation of offenders. International Social Work, 16(4), 44-50.

This paper focuses on the concept of restitution and its historical development, as well as some comparative applications of restitution in the criminal justice system. Emphasis is on the program of the Minnesota Restitution Center.

153

Gallant, G. (1978). Community work sentences--A pilot experience in Quebec (Canada). Crime and Justice, 6(2), 134-138.

The concept of community work was first introduced in Great Britain and similar programs have been founded in Oregon (USA) as well as in British Columbia and Ontario (Canada). After a planning stage of several years, the first program was introduced in Quebec in April 1977, to provide the courts with an alternative to imprisonment, permit the offender to atone for his crime through constructive social service, make possible community participation in administration of justice, and enrich the probation officer's role in social change.

The legal basis for this new type of sentencing is a provision of the probation law that permits judges to suspend sentences, together with a provision empowering judges to impose other conditions that the court considers necessary to assure rehabilitation. The procedures essential for imposition of such a sentence can be found in a guide for courts and probation officers.

The request for community service sentences originates with the court that requests that the advisability of such action be investigated by a probation officer. If the candidate appears stable in attitudes and habits and has not been involved with drugs, alcoholism, or professional crime, a suitable volunteer community resource is found to guide the candidate, to verify working hours, and to report to the probation officer, who bears the primary responsibility for carrying out the sentence. Evaluation of the pilot program at this early stage is inconclusive, but preliminary results indicate that recidivism has occurred in only 1 of 30 sentences, the sentences are imposed mainly for crimes against property, and the program has the support both of the community and of the judicial system.

154

Gandy, J. T. (1978). Attitudes toward the use of restitution. In J. Hudson & B. Galaway (Eds.), Offender restitution in theory and action (pp. 119-129). Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.

Discusses research findings regarding the attitudes of citizens and criminal justice officials toward the use of restitution and discusses the implications of these attitudes for restitution programming.

155

Gandy, J. T. (1975). Community attitudes toward creative restitution and punishment. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Denver.

This study was done to determine community attitudes toward creative restitution, the relationship between attitudes toward restitution and punishment, and if those attitudes

and perceptions toward creative restitution would support or impede program approaches.

Creative restitution includes monetary restitution, personal service restitution, and community service. Mailed questionnaires were sent to six samples including police officers, second year social work graduate students, members of a women's community service club, juvenile and adult probation officers in Colorado, juvenile parole officers in Colorado, and Minnesota parole officers. A total of 705 questionnaires were distributed; 420 questionnaires were returned for a response rate of 60%. Responses varied according to the sub-sample: police had a 34% response rate, social work students 76%, members of a women's club had 75%, and juvenile probation and parole officers 67%.

Major findings were:

- Strong support and acceptance of creative restitution was found with all of the study populations being supportive, although the police showed a lower rate of support.
- All of the punishment scales used were negatively correlated with creative restitution. The rehabilitation scale was positively correlated with restitution.
- Respondents who supported traditional concepts of punishment responded positively toward creative restitution but less so than people holding favorable attitudes toward rehabilitation.
- Increased education tended to be reflected in greater support for rehabilitation and decreased support for punishment.
- Respondents generally favored the use of restitution with property offenses, drunk driving, and burglary. Restitution was seen as inappropriate for crimes against the person.
- Generally, restitution was seen as a substitute for imprisonment for property offenses.
- Generally, respondents viewed the development of a contractual relationship between an offender and a victim as realistic, although there were questions about this.
- Monetary payments and service to the community were considered to have greater potential than service to the victim.

156

Gandy, J. T., & Galaway, B. (1980). Restitution as a sanction for offenders: A public's view. In J. Hudson & B. Galaway (Eds.), Victims, offenders, and alternative sanctions (pp. 89-100). Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.

The study population consisted of all persons listed in the 1979 Metropolitan Columbia, South Carolina telephone book. Approximately 98,000 people were involved. Systematic random sample was used and telephone interviews conducted with 500 respondents. Data collection was carried out between March and June, 1979.

Major findings were:

- Monetary restitution received the strongest support, but community service restitution was almost as strongly supported. Personal service restitution ranked third in terms of public support.



- Approximately half of the respondents noted that they would be willing to become involved in personal service restitution if they were victimized.
- Respondents saw restitution as a viable sanction for burglary, drunk driving, embezzlement, destruction of property, and shoplifting. Restitution was not viewed as a viable sanction for auto theft.
- The sex of the offender was not found to be of significant importance to the public in viewing restitution as a sanction. Age of offender did make some difference with the public tending to view juveniles as compared to adults more appropriate candidates for restitution. Prior record of the offender was of some importance with first time offenders perceived as more appropriate candidates for restitution than those with prior records.
- Little evidence was found to support the notion that the public prefers restitution to be used in conjunction with such other sanctions as probation, prison or jail, revocation of a license, or counseling.

157

Gandy, J. T., Galaway, B., & Novack, S. (1980, September). One public's view of community service sentencing for drunk driving. Paper presented at the Fourth Symposium on Restitution and Service Sentencing, Minneapolis, MN.

As part of a larger survey conducted in 1979 a probability sample of respondents of Columbia, South Carolina were queried regarding their views on the use of community service sentencing for drunk drivers. A random sample of 500 telephone numbers was selected from the local telephone directory; if a child answered the interviewer asked to speak to a parent. If no adult answered or the telephone was not answered a replacement number was drawn. The sample was divided equally between men and women; 79% were Caucasian, 89% had completed high school.

Respondents were given eight situations involving drunk driving by combining offender characteristics of age (16 or 40 years old), sex, first arrest or prior arrest, and were asked to indicate what they would consider to be the most appropriate sanction from a list including service to the community, probation, jail or prison, counseling, or licensing revocation. Selection of community service ranged from 28% for a 16 year old male with prior arrest to 41% for either a 40 year old male or 40 year old female with a first arrest.

Community service was seldom, however, selected as a sole sanction and was likely to be combined with either probation or drivers license revocation. The majority of the sample selected various combinations of other sanctions (probation, jail or prison, counseling, license revocation) as appropriate punishments for each of the drunk drivers. Comparisons were made between the likelihood of community service being selected for drunk drivers to its likelihood of being selected for other offenses included in this study-burglary of a house, auto theft, embezzlement, destroying a home owner's personal property, and shop lifting. Community service, although selected by a minority of the

respondents, is more likely to be perceived as an appropriate punishment for drunk driving than for any of the four property offenses included in the study.

158

Gardella, J. E. (1988, June). On the adoption of probation classification instruments by alternative to incarceration program. Paper presented at the International Symposium of Restitution and Community Service Sentencing, Minneapolis, MN.

The increasing popularity of community service sentencing is placing programs under pressure to handle larger numbers and still maintain a high successful completion rate. Classification instruments developed to assist probation agencies in determining supervision needs of offenders can be used to assist community service sentencing programs to make decisions about the supervision needs of offenders placed in community service and to contribute to high levels of successful program completion.

159

Garfin, D. I. (1980, September). Restitution--A community approach. Paper presented at the Fourth Symposium on Restitution and Community Service Sentencing, Minneapolis, MN.

With the proliferation of restitution and community service sentencing practices and programs in the United States, a variety of individual and institutional rationales and approaches have developed. Such programs focus on offender rehabilitation, punishment of the offender, compensation of the victim, and/or education of the community. Decisions are made on restitution orders without consulting other sources. In addition, court officials must be careful not to subtly discriminate by favoring restitution programs for those offenders whose higher incomes allow them to pay victims more readily.

With regard to the community, one of the major difficulties in the rehabilitation of prisoners has been their separation from familial and community ties. Formal programs can offer opportunities to show restitutioners that they are part of the community, thereby diminishing their alienation. Like offenders, victims have feelings about specific criminal events that could best be served by offering full services or counseling, assistance, and opportunities for emotional expression. Financial reimbursement can certainly begin to satisfy victim desires for repayment but may ultimately foster an alienation of the victim from the offender, court, and community unless preventive measures are taken. Restitution needs the support of local public service organizations such as women's leagues and government agencies. Public sponsorship is necessary for funding and media support. Involvement of the business sector of the community is also crucial for restitution program support and survival. Finally, the teacher, student, or researcher should approach the practice of restitution with a community-based orientation.

160

Gaynes, E. (1982). Restitution at the pretrial stage. Pretrial Issues, 3.

A critical review of the use of monetary restitution and community service sentencing as a part of pretrial diversion programs. These practices may not produce benefits for offenders, victims, or the criminal justice system; more likely they are used as sentencing options, penalties, and sanctions. Punishment is not appropriate at the pretrial stage and restitution (both monetary and community service) differs markedly from other pretrial conditions that a defendant may voluntarily accept. Further, the use of restitution as a pretrial measure may deter from its use to accomplish other objectives such as providing a less severe penalty for convicted offenders or providing a level of benefits to victims which they need and deserve.

161

Gehm, J. (1986). National VORP directory (second edition). Michigan City, IN: PACT Inc.

A survey identifying 47 American victim offender reconciliation programs (VORP) provides descriptive material for each program including start-up date, referral source, place in justice system, number of cases served annually, most common offense, budget, primary funding source and other program information. An appendix identifies 12 Canadian and 19 British VORP programs.

162

Geis, G. (1977). Restitution by criminal offenders: A summary and overview. In J. Hudson & B. Galaway (Eds.), Restitution in criminal justice (pp. 147-164). Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.

Describes the major issues and concerns dealt with during the first symposium on restitution; suggests additional areas for research and study.

163

Gerrard, J. M., & Knight, R. W. (1977). An evaluation of community restitution in-service program. Pima County, Arizona.

The Community Restitution In-Service Program (CRISP) was established in 1975 by the Pima County Arizona Adult Probation Department to provide probationers with an opportunity to do community service work as a condition of probation. Selection and placement in the project occurs during the pre sentence investigation and is imposed as a condition of the probation order. This is a one shot case study using data collected from agency files and interviews.

Major findings were:

- Referral agencies were highly positive toward the community service work performed by offenders;
- A substantial number of offenders indicated that transportation was a major problem in completing the community service work;
- A significant number of offenders stated that they had skills that were not being used in the community service placement.

164

Gettinger, S. (1983). Intensive supervision: Can it rehabilitate probation? Corrections Magazine, 9(2), 6-8; 10-17.

Intensive probation supervision (IPS) has such features as a curfew, heavy surveillance, community service, and restitution, and when used with offenders who would otherwise have been imprisoned, it has proven cost-effective.

165

Gilbeau, D. (1979, September). Local project evaluation/juvenile restitution projects: The Portland, Maine restitution project. Paper presented at the Third Symposium on Restitution, Duluth, MN.

Describes the planning and implementation of a juvenile restitution project in Portland, Maine.

166

Gitchoff, G. T., & Henderson, J. H. (1987, May). Assisting the victim of crime at sentencing. Paper presented at the Fourth International Postgraduate Course on Victims and the Criminal Justice System. International University Center, Dubrovnik, Yugoslavia.

Sentencing hearings need to become more of an adversarial process including introduction of information secured from victims. Often prosecutors demand harsh sentences in the name of doing something for a victim to whom they have usually not spoken. The authors have found from several years of clinical practice that when sentencing options are clearly explained, most victims prefer reparation and restitution over incarceration. As a group, victims tend not to be harsh in their reaction to offenders.

167

Godson, D. (1981). Community service as a tariff measure. Probation Journal, 28, 124-129.

Reviews of recent literature on the use of community service as an alternative to custody might well conclude that it is failing as a tariff measure. Two questions are seen as directly relevant to this debate. First, how valid is such a conclusion in light of the fact that differing sentencing policies exist among different schemes? In a number of local schemes, there is no intention to use community service orders as alternatives to prison, but instead to use them as a sentence in its own right.

A second question concerns those schemes where the aim is to clearly use community service as a tariff sentence and to adequately estimate the number of offenders actually diverted from custody. One way to estimate this is to consider the outcome of the prosecution of breach proceedings for non-compliance with the requirements of an order. If the breach occurs early, and sentence is passed for the original offence, the sentence imposed gives indirect evidence about the sentence which the community service order had replaced.

168

Gold, A. D. (1975). Restitution and compensation and fines. Ottawa Law Review, 7, 301-308.

A discussion of the Law Reform Commission of Canada proposals on restitution, compensation, and fines. The Commission's proposals aim is to place responsibility on the offender to make good the damages done to the victim. This is seen as a basic principle in criminal law. Restitution would be used as a sanction involving the payment of money or action by the offender for the purpose of making good the damage done to the victim. The purpose is to restore financial, physical, or psychological loss and may include apology, monetary payment, or a work order.

These types of sanctions would be used as a central consideration for most offenses, either alone or with supplementary sanctions such as a fine. Some matters of detail are not dealt with by the Commission. The role envisioned for the victim in restitution proceedings is not discussed, there is lack of clarity about the nature of damages for which restitution would be ordered, and the role of pain and suffering is not considered.

169

Goldstein, N. (1974). Reparation by the offender to the victim as a method of rehabilitation for both. In I. Drapkin & E. Viano (Eds.), Victimology: A new focus: Vol. II Society's reaction to victimization (pp. 193-205). Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.

The network of processes by which the victim may obtain reparation for an injury sustained by a criminal act is still deficient in ensuring the total rehabilitation of all victims despite the introduction of state compensation boards. Reparation by the offender might remove some of these deficiencies. This method might also be beneficial to the offender rehabilitation process. Reparation by the offender need not be only financial and should be carried out while the criminal remains in the community.

170

Goldstone, J. (1982). A fresh look at community service orders. The Magistrate, 38, 71-72.

Suggests the appropriate length of a community service order, the types of offenders on whom such orders should be imposed, the types for whom it should not be used, and procedures for dealing with the breach of community service orders.

171

Gottesman, R., & Mountz, L. (1979). Restitution--Legal analysis. Reno, NV: National Council of Juvenile and Family Court Judges.

Though restitution does have some inherent punitive aspects, the overall benefit to both the offender and the victim with its use is consistent with rehabilitative goals. However, restitution programs should comply with the equal protection clause of the 14th Amendment by establishing neutral guidelines for selection and the filling of vacancies and by refusing to discriminate against offenders based on their inability to pay. Such programs should also protect participants' due process rights by ensuring that juveniles who have not been adjudicated guilty of any offense are not coerced into entering the program nor denied their right to challenge their required participation when they are in the program. Due process rights should also include the participant's right to counsel at the dispositional stage of proceedings and the right to refute inaccurate presentence reports.

Details of the program should be made clear to juveniles one hour before a decision deadline and the details of work assignment, scope of payment, and infractions which might constitute a breach of the agreement should be outlined. Additional due process protection should be provided if program participants face additional loss of property or liberty resulting from infractions of the restitution order, or the participant faces probation revocation. Other elements of restitution programs that should be considered are: eligibility criteria used in implementing restitution payments; scope of payment; parental liability; labor-related issues such as working papers, wages, hours, and conditions; liability-insurance issues; and the victim's participation and role in these programs. Footnotes are provided.

172

Grau, C. W., & Kahn, J. (1981). Working the damned, the dumb, and the destitute: The politics of community service restitution. In J. J. Alfani (Ed.), Misdemeanor courts: Policy concerns and research perspectives (pp. 196-244). Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice, National Institute of Justice.

A study of the use of community service in one district court in Pierce County, Washington (Tacoma) to explore the issues of who gets community service and what do they get. The district court handles misdemeanors and typically imposes sanctions of jail, fines, probation, community service, and court costs. In 1978, the second year of operation for a community service program, about three percent of the dispositions involved community service. An examination was made of the effect of five social factors (age, race, sex, employment status, and income) and one legal factor (charge) on the decision to sentence offenders to community service. The group of offenders ordered to community service was compared to those who received probation; community service was assumed to be a more severe sanction inasmuch as persons on community service were required to complete 50 hours of community service whereas persons sentenced to probation were required to report to the probation office for approximately one hour per month.

The sample included the entire group of offenders who received community service (n = 143) or who received probation (n = 652) during the period of October 1978 through July 1979. A few offenders received both probation and community service and were included in the community service group. Persons who were employed full time were much less likely to receive community service than persons not employed full time. Young misdemeanants were more likely to be sentenced to community service than older misdemeanants. No association was found between race and likelihood of receiving community service compared to probation. Women were found more likely than men to receive community service. Finally, persons found guilty of driving while intoxicated (DWI) were much less likely to receive community service than persons convicted of either non DWI traffic offenses or other criminal offenses. Generally persons from lower income families were more likely to receive community service than persons from higher income families; an exception to this was young persons from higher income families who were more likely to receive community service than probation.

The number of hours of community service restitution ordered ranged from six to 480 with a mean of 50 and a standard deviation of 47.9. The only variable that correlated with the number of community service restitution hours was employment status; employed offenders tend to receive a lesser number of community service hours than unemployed offenders. Fifty-six percent of the community service restitution orders invoiced worked for governmental agencies; 44% were for work with other community agencies. The agencies receiving community service restitution referrals identified 44 different tasks which the offenders had completed; 32 of these involved janitorial, clerical, or maintenance tasks.

173

Griffin, T. G. (1983). Corporations and the Federal Probation Act--Is the community an aggrieved party?: *United States v. William Anderson Co.* St. John's Law Review, 58, 163-181.

The Federal Probation Act enumerates five special probation conditions. A trial judge is not limited to selecting among these special conditions, but courts have generally held that the imposition of a specified condition is subject to limitations recited in the statute. The 'Anderson' court (Eighth Circuit Court of Appeals) held, however, that although a probation order may have been selected from a probation condition specified in the act, the court is not required to comply with the language qualifying that condition. The court directed that the corporate defendants make payments to charitable organizations having no logical relationship to the defendants' antitrust violations. Courts should require corporate defendants to redress their victims through community service and a fluid recovery form of restitution (reducing the cost of the corporate product or service for a specified period). This would compensate the victims, assist in rehabilitating the defendants, and thus conform to the restrictions of the Federal Probation Act.

174

Griffith, W. R. (1983). Restitution as an alternative to incarceration--Experimental results from Ada County, Idaho. Eugene, OR: Institute of Policy Analysis.

A comparative study of juvenile offenders randomly assigned to restitution or incarceration treatments in Boise, Idaho, suggests that incarceration has no greater effect on recidivism than restitution and possibly produces negative consequences.

In the project, 83 youths were assigned restitution that involved a monetary or unpaid community service order, while 95 were sentenced to incarceration--on the average one week in an institution. No significant statistical differences existed between the two groups. Both were predominantly white males with a mean age of 15 who attended school full-time. Data on recidivism were collected from official court records. For youth assigned restitution, 47% committed no subsequent offense, while 41% of youths assigned to incarceration did not recidivate. When rates were calculated and standardized to reflect the number of offenses per 100 youths per year, annual rates of reoffending were about 14% higher for the incarcerated group. Another study of these referrals in Boise showed lower rates of reported self-delinquency among restitution youths. These two sets of findings, coupled with the lower costs of a restitution program and the benefits produced for the victim, the community, and the offender, suggest that the restitution project be continued.

175

Griffith, W. R. (1983). Self-report instrument--A description and analysis of results in the national evaluation sites. Eugene, OR: Institute of Policy Analysis.

This paper documents the administration of the self-report survey used in five sites of the national evaluation of the Juvenile Restitution Initiative and provides site-by-site descriptive information. The self-report survey was designed to be administered to a youth every six months from the date of referral up to 18 months after referral. Four different forms were used: the intake self-report, the six month self-report, the 12 months



self-report, and the 18 month self-report. Surveys began in February 1980 and concluded in February 1983. At each of the evaluation sites, on site data coordinators collected the names and addresses of the juvenile offenders under study in the national evaluation. Initially, surveys were mailed from the local sites by the coordinators, but starting in July 1981, a centralized data collection method, known as AUTOTRAK, was instituted. Findings from each site are presented and are organized by site, rather than by topic.

176

Griffiths, C., Kennedy, M., & Mehanna, S. (1989). Social change, legal transformation, and state intervention: Youth justice in the Arab Republic of Egypt. In J. Hudson & B. Galaway (Eds.), State intervention on behalf of youth. The Netherlands: Kluwer Academic Publishers.

A multi-year study of the juvenile justice system in the Arab Republic of Egypt was designed to examine the response to juvenile delinquency by the formal, adjudicative system of juvenile justice operating in Cairo and by the traditional, negotiative systems of dispute resolution at the village level. The formal system of juvenile justice is used to sanction large numbers of juveniles who are dependent and neglected and has little appreciable impact on the conditions precipitating their involvement in the justice process. The village-based systems are more effective in addressing the needs of youths, their victims and the community.

177

Griffiths, C. T., & Patenoude, A. (1990). The use of community service orders and restitution in the Canadian North: The prospect and problems of localized corrections. In B. Galaway & J. Hudson (Eds.), Criminal Justice, Restitution, and Reconciliation. Monsey, NY: Criminal Justice Press.

The native Indians and Inuit of Canada's Northwest Territories have traditionally enjoyed justice systems based upon the restoration of order and reparation to the injured party. Existence of these types of traditional justice have been ignored by the Anglo-Canadian criminal justice system, although their applications could serve as mechanisms to increase the self determinism of native people while reducing their socio-structural dependence on dominant society. Community service, restitution, and victim offender reconciliation are approaches which could make the delivery of justice services more relevant to individual communities and their residents.

Although enthusiasm surrounded the development and implementation of community corrections programs involving these concepts, several difficulties have hindered their potential effectiveness. The difficulties include dependence of Indian and Inuit communities on outside government to initiate, fund, and support community corrections programs; conflict between traditional Indian and Inuit notions of conflict resolution and those represented by community service order and restitution programs; and the operational difficulties of developing and maintaining community service order and

restitution programs in Northwest Territory communities. Rather than optimally using the isolation and small size of the Northwest Territory communities and the traditional customs of Indian and Inuit residents, the community service order and restitution programs have been designed and delivered by outside agencies and administrations.

178

Griffiths, R. (1976). Community service by offenders--II. New Law Journal, 126, 193-195.

Information about age, sex, previous record, and present offense of offenders selected for community service in the six experimental areas in England. Concludes that there is no such thing as a typical recipient of a community service order and provides some data about the relative extent to which offenders selected for the program completed it in each of the six experimental areas.

179

Griffiths, R. (1976). Community service by offenders. New Law Journal, 126, 169-171.

Describes the history and implementation of the British Community Service Program. The legislation contained in the Powers of Criminal Courts Act of 1973 is summarized. The general purpose and justification of the legislation is described in relation to rising prison populations, the negative effects of imprisonment, and changing methods of treatment. The administration and implementation of the legislation is described in terms of the types of community service work being used and the kinds of offenders participating in the scheme.

180

Groves, P. H. (1976). A report on community service treatment and work programs in British Columbia. In Community Participation in sentencing (pp. 119-150). Ottawa: Printing and Publishing Supply and Services Canada.

Examines current and proposed use of community service treatment in British Columbia. Development of work service programs is one of five major planned innovations. The types of work service proposed include involvement of probationers in existing community projects, arranged work projects of a public nature, and special social service programs for offenders who already possess specific skills. Several reports on the actual use of community service treatment in British Columbia are provided, with the comments of judges and probation officers. Finally, an analysis of problems involved in these types of programs is presented. The appendix provides a discussion of the use of community service in Indian communities.

181

Hackett, C. (1980, November). The community service order program in Newfoundland. St. John's, NF: Newfoundland Department of Justice, Adult Corrections Division.

Report of the first six months (April through September 1980) of the community service order program in Newfoundland. Community service is imposed by the courts as a condition of probation for offenders guilty of an offence for which a prison sentence could be imposed, who do not represent a threat or danger to the community, and who consent. During the first six months 16 male property offenders were placed; four had previously served prison sentences. Ten of the 16 had other probation conditions. Mean hours ordered was 82. Six other offenders had been found not suitable for community service by the probation officer. A judge declined to sentence one other offender to community service although community service was recommended by the probation officer.

182

Halacy, W. (1979). The restitution alternative. Kennebunkport, MA: Gary P. Smith.

A policy and procedures manual for the Restitution Alternative, an Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention (U.S.) funded juvenile restitution project which operated in Cumberland County, Maine. The program philosophy is described, along with detailed procedures including staff job descriptions. The program is intended to serve juvenile offenders who might otherwise be incarcerated and is based on the view that the juvenile offenders are responsible persons who have made a mistake and who are being given the opportunity to correct the mistake. Making restitution to the victims will provide juvenile offenders with an opportunity to regain a sense of self-worth; furthermore, the program provides judges with an intermediate sanction for offenders whose behavior merits something more serious than probation. Project staff supervise juveniles providing restitution to victims, and, through referrals, assist both juveniles and victims to secure necessary social services.

183

Harding, J. (1984). Reparation: Prospects for criminal justice. Probation Journal, 31, 140-142.

Pilot projects in one metropolitan area of England suggest that reparation schemes involving victim and offender meetings can be adopted for local use in and out of court, and be well received by victims of crime. All three of the schemes operating in the West Midlands of England are small and designed to test out the efficacy of reparation and mediation.

184

Harding, J. (1982, August). International perspectives on restitution, community service. Paper presented at the National (U.S.) Juvenile Restitution Association Conference. Louisville, KY.

Reviews development of community service restitution in England and the United States. The intended purpose for community services requires clarification; clear guidelines are needed to ensure implementation consistent with purpose.

185

Harding, J. (1982). Victims and offenders: Needs and responsibilities. London: Bedford Square.

Reform of the criminal justice process is necessary to ensure that victims of crime are compensated for their losses and offenders are involved in providing the compensation. Restitution can provide valuable assistance to both parties. The history and development of restitution is described and successful schemes operated in the United States are presented, specifically as these involve the participants (victim, offender and mediator) working to develop a plan for the recovery of losses.

186

Harding, J. (1980). Community service orders: The British experience and its implications for the American justice system. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.

Reviews development and current status of the British community service order scheme and suggest possible implications for American criminal justice.

187

Harding, J. (1980, May). An investigation into the current status and effectiveness of juvenile and adult restitution programs in the United States of America. Unpublished report.

A record of observations made by a British probation agency administrator after a three week tour of juvenile restitution programs in Quincy, Massachusetts; Portland, Maine; Minneapolis, Minnesota; St. Cloud, Minnesota; and New Orleans, Louisiana and adult programs in Dorchester, Massachusetts; Duluth, Minnesota; Paschagoula, Mississippi; New Orleans, Louisiana; and Marin County, California.

Monetary restitution programs represent a move away from a primary focus on offenders to the needs of the victims; readjusting program priorities is not easy because program managers must continue to accommodate offender needs--especially rehabilitative interests. Some projects are able to involve the victim in mediation process that need

not be scenes of uncontrolled emotion or mutual recrimination. The best programs illustrate the importance of every project member understanding the aims and objectives of the project and his or her role in carrying out tasks. Community service restitution lacks a secure footing as part of a sentencing procedure in America and is used primarily at the discretion of courts; there is need to develop procedures and principles regarding determination of the number of hours of community service to avoid arbitrary decision making.

188

Harding, J. (1978). The development of community service: Its application and relevance to the criminal justice system. In N. Tutt (Ed.), Alternative strategies for coping with crime (pp. 164-185). Oxford and London: Basil Blackwell Publishers and Martin Robertson Publishers.

Describes operation of the British Community Service Program in the six pilot areas in which it was initially established. Analyses organization of the service, rationale and purpose for community service, and impact of community service on courts, probation services, community, and offenders. A brief description is provided of the Community Service Volunteers (CSV) Program established in 1971 and used with Borstal trainees.

189

Harding, J. (1977). Community-service restitution by offenders. In J. Hudson & B. Galaway (Eds.), Restitution in criminal justice (pp. 101-130). Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.

Describes the central ingredients and operation of the British Community Service Program; provides some evaluation results and suggests future directions for expansion.

190

Harding, J. (Ed.). (1974). Community service by offenders: The Nottinghamshire experiment. London: National Association for the Care and Resettlement of Offenders.

Reports on the pilot community service order program set up in six British probation areas and designed to present the courts with community services as an alternative to a custodial sentence. Offenders were sentenced to a specified number of hours of community service work to be performed in their leisure and/or after work hours. Offenders usually serve as volunteers in community agencies.

The organization of the program is described, including collecting suitable tasks from volunteer organizations, discussion and training with judges, magistrates, and court clerks, and informing probation officers about the program. Selection of offenders for the program, matching offenders to available community service jobs, pattern of work and

the difficulties encountered in staffing, and the response to community service on the part of offenders, probation officers, and the public is also discussed.

Five brief case studies of offenders who participated in the program are presented along with the written reactions of program supervisors and participants. A brief bibliography is included. The appendix contains lists of the tasks performed in community service, the community organizations participating in the project, and data on the program itself.

191

Harding, J., & Simpson, A. (1974). Community service orders--The Nottinghamshire pilot scheme--Report of a conference. Coventry, England: Coventry Council of Social Services.

A transcript of a brief oral presentation outlining the operations of an experimental program in Nottinghamshire, England, to provide a community service alternative to prison sentences for some offenders. Following assessment of a social enquiry report submitted by the probation service, the crown or magistrate's court may recommend an individual for community service. An effort is made to find an area of service suited to the individual's abilities or interests. A community service sentence of 40 to 120 hours is handed down as an alternative to prison. Community service may be rendered during free or leisure time, so as not to interfere with employment. The project directors report favorable results, with a number of offenders remaining as volunteers after their terms of service are complete.

192

Harding, J. K. (1973). Community service--A beginning. Probation Journal, 19, 13-17.

Describes the rationale and purpose of the British Community Service Program with particular attention on implementation of the scheme in the Nottinghamshire area in terms of the types of tasks assigned to offenders, the role of local voluntary organizations, and the process of referral from the courts.

193

Harland, A. T. (1980). Court-ordered community service in criminal law: The continuing tyranny of benevolence? Buffalo Law Review, 29, 425-486.

Examines some of the assumptions underlying the expansion of community service sentencing, reviews statutes, case law, and related developments in the law in respect to community service sentencing, and critically appraises some of the potential legal or constitutional conflicts that community service may provoke.

In general, community service is not found to be an alternative to incarceration, nor a truly voluntary endeavor on the part of most offenders. Doubt is cast on the

rehabilitative effects of community service. Reviews of community service sentencing laws provide little indication of an overriding purpose behind the statutes, and comparably little specific guidance as to who might be an appropriate service candidate, the amount of service to be required, the type of service to be performed, the recipients of the community service work, along with questions about tort liability.

194

Harland, A. T. (1980). Court ordered community service in criminal law. Duluth, MN: School of Social Development, University of Minnesota.

Despite an apparently growing enthusiasm for the use of community service dispositions, only isolated opinions may be found in which the appellate courts have considered the use of community service by sentencing judges. Although explicit statutory authorization is becoming more common, case law and legislative activity in the area remain negligible in comparison to the extensive use of the sanction in numerous jurisdictions throughout the United States. In the absence of explicit authorization, individual sentencing judges have ordered community service under their broad discretionary powers to require conditions of probation or conditional discharge. In addition, formal programs to implement and administer community service provisions are spreading rapidly throughout the United States, usually under similar non explicit, discretionary statutory authority.

The purpose of this report is to examine some of the assumptions underlying the expansion of community service sentencing, and to provide legislators and criminal justice practitioners with a review of statutes, case law, and related developments in the law, as well as a critical appraisal of some of the potential legal or constitutional conflicts that community service may provoke. Discussion is divided into two general areas; authority of the courts to impose community service and specific issues in the implementation and administration of community service penalties.

195

Harland, A. T. (1978). Theoretical and programmatic concerns in restitution: An integration. In J. Hudson & B. Galaway (Eds.), Offender restitution in theory and action (pp. 193-202). Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.

Summarizes and discusses the major theoretical and program concerns including definitions of restitution, practical implications of theory, the role of crime victims, and future directions.

196

Harland, A. T., Warren, M. Q., & Brown, E. J. (1979). A guide to restitution programming. Albany, NY: Criminal Justice Research Center.

A guide prepared for persons considering developing monetary restitution or community service programs based on experiences of attempting to evaluate seven newly funded pilot projects. Topics covered include program purposes and objectives, program location in the criminal justice system, scope of the restitution process, intake procedures, formulation of restitution plans, accounting and disbursement of restitution funds, monitoring and enforcement, and program evaluation. A recurrent theme is the potential effects of differing program purposes on the subsequent decisions. Program purposes may be to benefit offenders, victims, and the criminal justice system. While these three purposes may be found in a given program, there are inherent conflicts among them that may require prioritizing the goals either implicitly or explicitly as program decisions are made.

197

Harland, A. T., Warren, M. Q., & Brown, E. J. (1979). Evaluation objectives, evaluation methodology and action research report. Albany, NY: Criminal Justice Research Center.

This report, the fourth in a series of reports detailing the progress of the first phase of a national evaluation of adult restitution programs, explains the evaluation design, objectives, and methodology; documents current progress toward objectives; and generalizes major implementation issues encountered.

The national evaluation, established because of the paucity of information about the use of restitution and its effects, aims at describing the restitution programs in detail, assessing the relative and differential effects of restitution, and contributing to the general body of knowledge about restitution. Components of the general design include the use of random allocation to experimental (restitution) and comparison (nonrestitution) conditions, the collection of extensive data comparable across programs, and a uniform data analysis plan. A two-stage analysis plan is intended to provide a comprehensive description of each program and to assess the effects of restitution.

At the descriptive level, analyses are underway to construct profiles of restitution case characteristics and to examine the relationships among restitution case components. Effectiveness assessments are being done in a variety of ways, including pre- post-assessments of offenders' and victims' attitudes; monitoring indicators of offenders' domestic, economic, and social stability; and examining official records to detect any offender contact with the criminal justice system subsequent to program involvement. In addition, data on restitution performance are being collected to assess the degree to which offenders are in compliance with requirements set for the amount and schedule of restitution required.

Objections to the experimental design used focus on the propriety and/or practicality of the design; as well as the political relevance of using the design and the findings resulting from its use. Most of the objections by program administrators have been laid



to rest through lengthy discussions, and an experimental design was implemented, with varying degrees of success, in each of the six programs.

198

Harland, A. T., Warren, M. Q., Brown, E. J., & Buckman, M. R. (1979). Restitution programs in six states--Policies and procedures. Albany, NY: Criminal Justice Research Center.

This report, which is one of a series on the national evaluation of adult restitution programs, describes policies and procedures of the six restitution programs being evaluated and highlights significant shifts or gaps in policy and procedure.

199

Harman, J. C. (1988, June). Community service in England and Wales: Results and issues from a natural survey. Paper presented at the International Symposium of Restitution and Community Service Sentencing, Minneapolis, MN.

Community service grew so rapidly in Britain that concern developed about the ability of the social work oriented probation service to manage the sanction. A 1985 survey was conducted of chief probation officers to explore the position of community service in the sentencing tariff, its organizational and staffing structure, the nature of community service work order taken by offenders, and to assess whether it has been possible to maintain the operation of community service within the social work base of the probation department.

A 100% response rate was received from the chief probation officers. The results provide a healthy picture of the probation service coping with the group of community service orders and integrating schemes into their organizations. An imaginative range of work in the community by offenders has developed, often as an alternative to prison sentences. The survey also discovered tensions being demonstrated by probation managers.

200

Harris, M. K. (1986). The goals of community sanctions. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice, National Institute of Corrections.

Community sanctions may be based on just deserts, general deterrence, incapacitation, or rehabilitation sentencing philosophies. The philosophy will specify the basis for the sanction, the information needed to determine the sanction, key actors, the best time to determine the sanction, and characteristics of appropriate sanctions. The way in which goals may influence program development is illustrated through victim offender mediation, community service sentencing, and intensive probation. Connections between goals and day to day program operations and issues need to be made explicit.

201

Harris, M. K. (1979). Community service by offenders. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice, National Institute of Corrections, National Council on Crime and Delinquency.

A descriptive report on the use of community service sentences based on a review of the literature and site visits. Community service is considered as an alternative to incarceration, fines, and other penalties and is advocated as a sentencing practice. Descriptive material is presented regarding the practice of community service.

The process of starting a community service program is described including the formation of a core group, defining the problem, enlisting cooperation, obtaining funding, staffing, recruiting, and screening work sites. Some descriptive material is presented regarding program procedures and processes including determining the amount of community service, intake, screening, placement and follow up processes. The issues of involuntary service, discrimination, disparity, and expansion of social control are discussed. Community service is advocated as an alternative to incarceration.

202

Hawaii, the Judiciary. (undated). Community service sentencing program. Honolulu, HI: State of Hawaii, The Judiciary, Office of the Administrative Director.

A policy and procedure manual for a statewide community service sentencing program administered by the state probation agency; includes recommended data forms.

203

Heath, M. (1979). The fine option program: An alternative to prison for fine defaulters. Federal Probation, 43(3), 22-27.

Describes the establishment and first three years of experience with the Saskatchewan (Canada) fine option program that was developed as an alternative to prison for persons who default on payment of a fine. The program was first established in January, 1975 and amounts to providing offenders with a choice between paying a fine or completing a specified number of community service hours. The amount of work required to discharge a fine is computed by dividing the amount of the fine by the current provincial minimum wage rate.

204

Heide, K. M. (1980, September). Classification of offenders ordered to make restitution by I-level and by specific personality dimensions. Paper presented at the Fourth Symposium on Restitution and Community Service Sentencing, Minneapolis, MN.

Virtually no attention has been given to identifying the personality or psychological characteristics of offenders associated with successful completion of restitution. A study is underway to classify offenders ordered to make restitution by I-level and by other personality characteristics. The aims of the study are to assess the relationship of I-level and subtype as well as the relationship of specific personality characteristics of offenders to restitution outcome.

Additionally, the study will assess the gains made by using personality data alone or in combination with demographic, social, and prior record data to predict which offenders will succeed in a restitution program and under what types of conditions. The study will assess the validity of using I-level theory in a field setting. The study's outcome may provide practitioners with a theoretical basis for assigning different types of offenders to different types of restitution programs according to their level of personality development.

205

Heinlen, J. F. (1980, September). Probation as it relates to restitution. Paper presented at the Fourth Symposium on Restitution and Community Service Sentencing, Minneapolis, MN.

Traditional misdemeanor probation has been replaced in Winona, Minnesota, with a restitution program in which the offender makes proposals at sentencing as to steps he or she will take to make restitution to the community, the victim, and to himself or herself.

206

Heinz, J., Galaway, B., & Hudson, J. (1976). Restitution or parole: A follow-up study of adult offenders. Social Service Review, 50, 148-156.

A study was conducted comparing 18 male property offenders released on parole to the Minnesota Restitution Center after four months imprisonment to a group of matched offenders who were released to conventional parole supervision. The two groups were individually matched on the variables of age at first offense, previous felony convictions, age at release, type of offense, and race. Follow-up occurred at 16 months after release; official records were used to determine new offenses, parole-violation reports, the percentage of time employed, and to secure an overall assessment of parole success. The restitution group had fewer convictions, were employed for a higher percentage of time, and were rated higher on the Glaser scale of parole success. The study, although limited, offers support for continued experimentation with the use of restitution as an alternative to imprisonment for property offenders.

207

Henderson, J. H., & Gitchoff, G. T. (1981, July). Victim perceptions of alternatives to incarceration: An exploratory study. Paper presented at the First World Congress of Victimology, Washington, DC. Also an unpublished paper, San Diego State University, Criminal Justice Administration, 1981.

Nine years clinical experience and over 100 disposition reports have found that victims are not demanding jail or prison for property offenders. Victims may initially request jail because they are unaware of the sentencing options such as community service and restitution. Most victims agree to an alternative sentence when fully informed. With property offenders most victims are more interested in having their property restored than vengeance toward the offender.

208

Hermann, S. (1981). Community service order programme in Ontario: Part 3--A one year follow-up. Scarborough, ON: Ontario Ministry of Correctional Services.

This third report in a series dealing with community service orders (CSO) as a sentencing alternative in Ontario, Canada, focuses on probationer perceptions of the CSO program one year after the completion of their assigned hours. The CSO as a sentencing alternative assigns offenders to work a certain number of hours in community service projects. This study involved a subsample of 207 CSO probationers, the majority of whom were male, single, about 22 years old, and stable in the areas of education and employment. Most of the sample had been sentenced to the CSO for a single property offense. Data were collected using the Client Information Fact Sheet, the CSO Experience Form, and Follow-up Interview Schedule, and a Recidivism Data Coding Form.

Although the majority of the sample reported that their CSO assignments had little practical application to their work or school, they viewed the CSO disposition as a positive experience, believing that the work performed was helpful to the community as a whole or to the individuals served. Most offenders perceived the CSO sentence as 'fair' and reported that the CSO had proven to be a better experience than they had anticipated. When the subjects compared the CSO to three other sentencing alternatives, the CSO was preferred as the most beneficial alternative. The recidivism rate was also examined for the subsample for the one year period following CSO completion. About 12% of the sample had been reconvicted during the one year period. The majority of the recidivists received an additional probation term, while one-third of the recidivists were incarcerated. The follow-up interview form is appended, and supporting tabular data are provided.

209

Hibbs, B. E. (1980, September). Evolution and development of Georgia's statewide diversion center program. Paper presented at the Fourth Symposium on Restitution and Community Service Sentencing, Minneapolis, MN.

Description of an adult residential restitution program in Georgia that deals with both monetary restitution and community service orders.

210

Highway Traffic Safety Administration, National. (1985). Community service restitution programs for alcohol related traffic offenders--the 5 A's of community service, Vol. 1. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Transportation, National Highway Traffic Safety Administration.

These procedures for planning and operating a successful community service program for persons convicted of drunk driving focuses on program attitude, administration, agencies, accountability, and advertising.

211

Highway Traffic Safety Administration, National. (1985). Community service restitution programs for alcohol related traffic offenders--Case studies and resource materials, Vol. 2. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Transportation, National Highway Traffic Safety Administration.

This study of community service programs for convicted drunk drivers across the nation consisted of site visits to 11 programs in six states and telephone contacts with 20 other programs.

The study focused on program emphases and philosophies, legal authorization, costs and funding sources, staffing patterns, recruitment of user agencies, matching offenders and agencies, monitoring procedures, record keeping and statistical reports, measurement of effectiveness, and the solicitation and maintenance of community support. Since most of the programs were less than a decade old and resources were limited, evaluation methodology was unsophisticated. Most programs used the percentage of completed service assignments as the primary if not only measure of effectiveness. Programs instituted to reduce prison overcrowding generally did so. Benefits have been achieved for the offender, the community, and the criminal justice system, and the programs have been endorsed by diverse constituencies. The site studies are compared in details, and a chart shows the comparative characteristics of all 31 programs.

212

Highway Traffic Safety Administration, National. (1985). Community service restitution programs for alcohol related traffic offenders--bibliographies, Vol. 3. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Transportation, National Highway Traffic Safety Administration.

Two annotated bibliographies list publications pertaining to community service programs and alternatives to incarceration, with particular emphasis on programs for convicted drunk drivers.

213

Highway Traffic Safety Administration, National. (1983). DWI (driving while intoxicated) sanctions--The law and the practice. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Transportation, National Highway Traffic Safety Administration.

All 50 states and the District of Columbia mandate the use of license actions for driving while intoxicated (DWI) offenders, and 26 states stipulate a mandatory penalty that cannot be suspended or prorated by the courts. A total of 22 states have adopted community service as sanction for DWI offenders, with 11 of these mandating the sanction on a statewide basis. This study documents state-of-the-art DWI sanctioning practices nationwide and provides new information about the sanctions on the books and those actually imposed on DWI offenders. It provides the first practical review of DWI sanctioning practices in each of the 50 states and the District of Columbia, as well as detailed information about mandatory confinement, license actions, and community service as DWI sanctions.

214

Hoelter, H. J. (1982). Make the sentence fit the felon. The Judges' Journal, 21(1), 48-54.

The project director for the National Center on Institutions and Alternatives describes the center's Client Specific Planning (CSP) program, that provides courts with individualized sentencing plans for offenders that reflect an emphasis on restitution, deterrence, and rehabilitation.

215

Hoffarth, R. (1979). Community service program--Juvenile division--McLean county court services. Bloomington, IL: McLean County Court Services, Juvenile Division.

A community service program for juvenile offenders in McLean County, Illinois, is described.

216

Hofford, M. (1979, September). A practical perspective on local evaluations. Paper presented at the Third Symposium on Restitution, Duluth, MN.

Briefly describes the Juvenile Restitution Program established in Charleston County, South Carolina, and presents detailed information about the design, methods, and current status of the evaluation research being done.

217

Hofrichter, R. (1980). Techniques of victim involvement in restitution. In J. Hudson & B. Galaway (Eds.), Victims, offenders, and alternative sanctions (pp. 103-119). Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.

This research was to identify features in the design and practice of restitution programs that impede or facilitate meeting the needs of crime victims. Questions addressed by the research were: (a) Is the excluding of the victim as a central participant in restitution programs inevitable because victim objectives are incompatible with restitution objectives? (b) What kinds of design features and practices exist in restitution programs that could be designated as victim-oriented? (c) What obstacles impede merging victim and offender related goals in a single restitution program?

Site visits were made to ten restitution programs and telephone interviews completed with an additional eight restitution programs. The projects included for study varied in relation to misdemeanor/felony types of offenses handled, juvenile/adult criminal courts, and administrative auspices. Data were collected by interviews on site as well as by telephone. Case examples are presented. The most general finding of the research is that it is good for the victim, good for the system, and good for justice if victims are restored to a participatory role in the adjudication of criminal offenses.

More specific findings were:

- There is a greater likelihood that victims will receive financial and psychological benefits when victims are involved as central participants in the restitution process.
- Victims experience greater satisfaction and reciprocate by cooperating more fully to the extent that they are seen as important actors who are kept informed and available for participation rather than perceived as instruments of other officials.
- Involving the victim will not lead to an unfair result for offenders.
- Two conditions must be met if victim involvement is to be a major component of restitution programs. First, formally instituted procedures must be put into effect to permit the victim to play a role at each critical point in a program. Second, victims need to be encouraged to participate and be provided with needed support services.
- Well planned, face-to-face negotiations between victims and offenders appear to offer the most promising form of direct victim participation in restitution programs. Such negotiations provide an opportunity to resolve conflicts and ensure benefits that less direct forms of participation cannot achieve.

218

Home Office. (1983). Reconvictions of those given community service orders (Statistical Bulletin 83/18). London: Her Majesty's Stationary Office.

A two year follow-up of 2486 offenders given community service orders in Britain and Scotland during January and February 1979. Within two years of the order, 51% of the offenders had been reconvicted; the reconviction rates for males under 21 was 58%, for males 21 and over 46%, and for females 37%. The reconviction rate for the first year was 36% and 15% for the second year. Of those reconvicted, two-thirds were reconvicted before completing the community service order and one-third after termination of the order.

219

Home Office, Advisory Council on the Penal System. (1970). Non-custodial and semi-custodial penalties. London: Her Majesty's Stationery Office.

220

Hood, R. (1974). Criminology and penal change: A case study of the nature and impact of some recent advice to governments. In R. Hood (Ed.), Crime, criminology and public policy: Essays in honour of Sir Leon Radzinowicz (pp. 375-417). London: Heinemann.

An historical analysis of criminology and penal change in Great Britain from World War II through the mid-seventies. Shifting emphasis in correctional strategy over a quarter century's time from treating imprisoned offenders to one of restricting imprisonment and releasing those imprisoned through parole in shorter periods. Recommendations of the Widgery Committee on Reparation by the Offender and the Wooton Committee on Non-Custodial and Semi-Custodial Penalties, concerning suspended sentences, restitution, and community service orders is criticized for basing proposals on implicit ideological appeal rather than upon knowledge of the factors fostering or inhibiting crime and upon an assessment of why the present methods were proving unsatisfactory. Proposals for community service orders are criticized because recommendations are based on a commitment to the evaluation of the scheme through experimentation and follow up rather than rooted in theory.

221

Hough, M., & Moxon, D. (1985). Dealing with offenders: Popular opinion and the views of victims--Findings from the British crime survey. Howard Journal, 24, 160-175.

This paper presents findings from the 1982 and 1984 sweeps of the British Crime Survey. The British Crime Survey suggests that neither public opinion nor victims' views are more punitive than current practice, and that people favor sentences involving compensation by offenders either to the victim or to the community. The paper also considers what factors make for punitive attitudes.



222

Houser, R. (1963). Prison reform and society. Prison Service Journal, 3(9), 2-18.

Author suggests alternatives to prison including selective service in which offenders would complete work of social value.

223

Howard League for Penal Reform. (1977). Making amends: Criminals, victims, and society. Chichester, Sussex, Great Britain: Barry Rose.

A discussion of the means available in Great Britain by which society and offenders can be required under law to make amends to victims of crime. The court can apply compensation orders, restitution orders, and criminal bankruptcy orders as dispositions with offenders. Victim compensation and support schemes are reviewed. Community service orders are also considered.

224

Hudson, J. (1980). National assessment of adult restitution programs: Project report: Court Community Service Project, Gainesville, Florida. Duluth, MN: University of Minnesota, School of Social Development,

The Court Community Service Project operates in the Criminal Division of the Alachua County Court in Gainesville, Florida. This is a non-residential program located at the pretrial level and uses community service as an alternative to offenders paying court costs.

After a nolo or guilty plea, selected first time misdemeanor offenders are given an opportunity by the judge to complete a specified number of hours of community service work as an alternative to court costs. This project is under the administrative auspices of the Junior League of Gainesville, which formally sponsors the program on the basis of a written agreement with the Alachua County Court, and relies on all volunteer staff.

225

Hudson, J. (1980). National assessment of adult restitution programs: Project report 5: Delaware Department of Corrections Work Program, Wilmington, Delaware. School of Social Development, University of Minnesota, Duluth, Minnesota.

The program was one of 20 included in the National Assessment of Adult Restitution Programs. The project report is the product of an evaluability assessment and contains a description of current operations for 1979, a pre-project history from original idea for

the restitution program until funds first became available and a description of implementation from initial funding until beginning of the current program year.

The Work Program operated by the Bureau of Adult Corrections involves two primary components--community service and work referral. The community service component aims at operating as an alternative to incarceration for misdemeanor offenders by placing clients in non-profit community or state agencies to complete a judicially imposed number of community service hours. Most offenders in this program are on formal probation status; failure to complete the assigned number of hours is likely to result in incarceration. Of the 67 community service cases carried at the end of March, 1979, 40 (60%) were under formal probation supervision. The work referral program is designed to enable offenders who are unable to pay off fines or court costs to work off such costs by working in non-profit community agencies. A substantial proportion of offenders in this component are also on formal probation status and assigned to do community service work as a sentence condition in lieu of paying fines or court costs. Of 243 cases carried at the end of March, 1979, 154 (63%) were on formal probation status.

Both of these program components are non-residential and administered by the same agency. The work program is operated on a statewide basis with offices in each of the three counties. The Kent and Sussex County offices were staffed by a total of three persons out of a Law Enforcement Assistance Administration (LEAA) Grant. State funds were used for the operation of the New Castle county office which was staffed by three persons. For the 27 month period from January 1, 1976 through March 31, 1978, a total of 1,668 persons were referred to the work referral program and a total of 339 persons were referred to the community service program.

226

Hudson, J. (1980). National assessment of adult restitution programs: Project report 13: Community Options Court Referral Program, Santa Cruz, California. School of Social Development, University of Minnesota, Duluth, MN.

The program was one of 20 included in the National Assessment of Adult Restitution Programs. The project report is the product of an evaluability assessment and contains a description of current operations for 1979, a pre-project history from original idea for the restitution program until funds first became available and a description of implementation from initial funding until beginning of the current program year.

Community Options is a private, non-profit organization that administers the court referral program. The program is non-residential and is operated as a sentence condition with offenders referred to the program to complete a specified number of community service hours. Referrals are made largely from municipal court with smaller numbers from superior courts and juvenile courts. Approximately 1,200 referrals are handled per year. The majority of offenders are on summary or unsupervised probation status and, for the most part, have chosen to complete community service work as an alternative to a fine or a jail sentence.

227

Hudson, J. (1980). National assessment of adult restitution programs: Project report 6: Marin County Volunteer Work Program, San Rafael, California. School of Social Development, University of Minnesota, Duluth, MN.

The program was one of 20 included in the National Assessment of Adult Restitution Programs. The project report is the product of an evaluability assessment and contains a description of current operations for 1979, a pre-project history from original idea for the restitution program until funds first became available, and a description of implementation from initial funding until beginning of the current program year.

The Volunteer Work Program is a non-residential, court referral project serving as a sentence for offenders who might otherwise have received a fine or jail term. The project is located under auspices of the County Probation Department and serves largely offenders placed on summary of unsupervised probation who have been referred by the municipal courts, with a small number of superior and juvenile court probation referrals. The project made approximately 1,200 placements to community agencies during the current year and offenders were responsible for completing approximately 42,000 hours. Offenders served are largely misdemeanants convicted of substance abuse, driving offenses, driving while intoxicated, open container in the car, non-substance abuse driving offenses such as speeding or failing to stop, and property crimes such as petty theft, bad checks, and burglary.

228

Hudson, J. (1980). National assessment of adult restitution programs: Project report 8: Alternative service program, Dodge-Filmore-Olmsted Community Corrections, Rochester, Minnesota. School of Social Development, University of Minnesota, Duluth, MN.

The program was one of 20 included in the National Assessment of Adult Restitution Programs. The project report is the product of an evaluability assessment and contains a description of current operations for 1979, a pre-project history from original idea for the restitution program until funds first became available, and a description of implementation from initial funding until beginning of the current program year.

The Alternative Service Program is a non-residential community service project in three southern Minnesota counties. The project operates as a program component of the Justice System Volunteer Project. The bulk of the ongoing staff work is completed by a part time person. The project accepts referrals from any point in the adult or juvenile justice systems; approximately 70% of referrals are on unsupervised probation status from the county courts (misdemeanant) and 30% on formally supervised probation (district or juvenile court). In 1978, 153 offenders participated in the project--98 adults

and 55 juveniles. Misdemeanant offenders from county court make up the largest proportion of adult referrals.

229

Hudson, J. (1980). National assessment of adult restitution programs: Project report 12: Alternative Community Service Project, Bethesda, Maryland. School of Social Development, University of Minnesota, Duluth, MN.

The program was one of 20 included in the National Assessment of Adult Restitution Programs. The project report is the product of an evaluability assessment and contains a description of current operations for 1979, a pre-project history from original idea for the restitution program until funds first became available and a description of implementation from initial funding until beginning of the current program year.

The Alternative Community Service Project is a non-residential community service program administered by the county government in Montgomery County, Maryland. The project operates at the pretrial level as a diversion from formal court processing for selected adults charged with misdemeanor offenses. In addition, the project accepts referrals of juveniles from police, court intake, or the court. Approximately 60% of intakes are adult offenders and 40% are juveniles. Project staff are involved in interviewing and screening referrals from state's attorneys, setting the number of community service hours to be completed, placing the defendant in community agencies, and monitoring and reporting back to the court. Defendants are eligible to have the court record expunged upon the successful completion of the assigned community service work. An average of 100 referrals are received per month.

230

Hudson, J. (1978). Self-sentencing restitution program. Journal of the American Criminal Justice Association, 41(1), 23-26.

Intermediate types of sanctions between probation and jail are urgently needed in criminal courts. Restitution to crime victims can be used as such an alternative type of sanction and has been receiving consideration at different points in the adult/juvenile justice systems. The Winona County Self-Sentencing Restitution Program is an attempt to incorporate both financial and community service work within a misdemeanor court. After a plea or finding of guilt, offenders are offered an opportunity to participate in this program and are involved in making determinations with court services staff about the form, amount, and schedule of restitution to be made. Advantages for the victim, offender, and system of justice are suggested, and problems and difficulties in implementing such a scheme are identified.

231

Hudson, J. (1977, April). The evaluation of outcome and process: The case example of the Minnesota restitution center. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Midwest Sociological Association.

The Minnesota Restitution Center was a community-based residential corrections program operated by the Minnesota Department of Corrections for adult male felons received from the state prison after having completed four months of a prison sentence. Major components of the program were a community corrections residential center, diversion from the prison program, use of restitution as the primary intervention, and the involvement of offenders and victims in the development of a restitution contract.

The residential nature of the program had implications for the dilution of the restitution sanction relative to more conventional treatment approaches. The evaluation research implemented concurrent with the program took the form of a before-after experimental design. Conflicts between the releasing authority and the requirements of the evaluation design are discussed and implications assessed for the outcome findings. Also discussed are the implications of the findings for planning and conducting of experimental designs within newly implemented social agencies, as well as the phenomenon of expanding degrees of social control imposed within explicitly defined diversion programs.

232

Hudson, J., & Chesney, S. (1978). Research on restitution: A review and assessment. In J. Hudson & B. Galaway (Eds.), Offender restitution in theory and action (pp. 131-148). Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.

Describes the major descriptive and evaluative research conducted on restitution, presents major findings, suggests problems with the research, and proposes directions for further work.

233

Hudson, J., & Galaway, B. (1981). Restitution and the justice model. In D. Fogel & J. Hudson (Eds.), Justice as fairness: Perspectives on the justice model (pp. 52-65). Springfield, IL: Anderson.

Reviews the historical development of restitution, considers more recent policy, legal, and program developments, and assesses the extent to which restitutive sanctions are consistent with the justice model for corrections.

234

Hudson, J., & Galaway, B. (1980). National assessment of adult restitution programs: Preliminary report 2 (revised): A review of restitution research. Duluth, MN: University

of Minnesota, School of Social Development. Also in Victims, offenders, and alternative sanctions. Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.

Questions arise about how restitution is being used in various program applications, the effects of this use, and the way such sanctions are perceived by significant decision makers. This report describes and assess research that has dealt with these concerns.

The specific questions addressed include:

- What categories of research have been completed on the use of restitutive sanctions?
- What are the characteristics of this research in relation to study purposes, use of theory, program description, data collection methods, measures, and research design?
- What are the major findings from this body of work and to what extent do these have implications for policy, programming, and research.

A literature search uncovered 43 studies that met the criteria of being based on empirical data and having restitution as either a dependent or independent variable. Thirty-one of the studies are evaluations of restitution projects or programs; the remaining twelve assess opinions or attitudes about a restitution sanction. The extent to which generalizations can be made from this body of research is limited, due to the one-shot case study design utilized in most evaluations, as well as other shortcomings.

Some of the trends and findings include:

- The studies dealing with community service projects show that large numbers of clients can be handled at relatively low costs, with few in-program failures, and with resulting large amounts of service work being performed. Questions do arise, however, about whether these programs are expanding social control over offenders.
- Restitution can be used as a means of diverting offenders from incarceration but studies indicate a large proportion of participants will fail to complete the program.
- Studies reveal that most property offenses result in relatively small losses, restitution requirements also tend to be small, and the amount actually paid is smaller yet.
- Restitution is most frequently ordered in conjunction with a fine.
- Financial restitution and community service sanctions are endorsed by criminal justice officials and lay citizens.
- State legislators, correctional administrators, probation and parole officers, offenders, and victims generally respond favorably to the notion of offender victim contact within a structured restitution scheme.

235

Hudson, J., & Galaway, B. (1978). National assessment of adult restitution programs: Preliminary report 1: Overview of restitution programming and project selection. Duluth, MN: University of Minnesota, School of Social Development.

Describes procedures used to identify the universe of projects considered for the study, the criteria used to recommend a sample for the study, and specific recommendations

regarding the sample; provides summary information for all projects included. The identification process uncovered 82 adult level projects that place explicit emphasis upon the use of monetary restitution and/or community service as a primary focus of program intervention.

236

Hudson, J., & Galaway, B. (1978). Introduction. In J. Hudson & B. Galaway (Eds.), Offender restitution in theory and action (pp. 1-11). Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.

Introduces the major concerns addressed at the Second National Symposium on Restitution held in Minneapolis Minnesota in 1977. The symposium addressed definitional problems, recent developments in legislation, programs and research.

237

Hudson, J., & Galaway, B. (1977). Introduction. In J. Hudson & B. Galaway (Eds.), Restitution in criminal justice (pp. 1-17). Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.

Introduces the central concerns addressed at the First National Symposium on Restitution held in Minneapolis, Minnesota, in November, 1975.

238

Hudson, J., & Galaway, B. (1976). Crime victims and public social policy. Journal of Sociology and Social Welfare, 3, 629-635.

The administration of criminal law has traditionally ignored the role of the victim and focused on the criminal offender. Increasingly, however, social policy and programs are beginning to take into consideration the situation of the crime victim. Programs designed to focus on offender restitution to crime victims are being developed and implemented at various stages of the criminal justice system, while programs of state compensation to crime victims are being implemented in an increasing number of jurisdictions. This paper defines the concepts of restitution and compensation, provides program examples, and identifies the potential benefits of such programs.

239

Hudson, J., & Galaway, B. (1975). Introduction. In J. Hudson & B. Galaway (Eds.), Considering the victim (pp. ix-xxv). Springfield, IL: Thomas.

Provides an overview of victimology with particular attention to systems of reparation; traces the history of restitution and identifies central issues.

240

Hudson, J., & Galaway, B. (1974). Undoing the wrong. Social Work, 19, 313-18.

Describes a program initiated at the Minnesota Restitution Center to deal with offenders who commit crimes against property. The center is a community-based residential corrections facility operated by the Minnesota Department of Corrections. The program randomly selects adult male inmates recently committed to the state prison for crimes against property and offers them an opportunity to negotiate a restitution contract. Restitution refers to payments in either goods, services, or money, made by offenders to the victims of their crimes. Outlined are the criteria for inmate selection, formulation of the contract, the program at the center, and the benefits. This is an innovative program that develops a contractual relationship between the offender and victim, diverts offenders from the prison setting, carries out research, and is accountable to the larger public through a community advisory board.

241

Hudson, J., Chesney, S., & McLagan, J. (1977). Parole and probation staff perceptions of restitution. St. Paul: Minnesota Department of Corrections.

A study to assess the extent to which parole and probation officers in Minnesota define different aspects of restitution as problematic. The study involved the use of a mailed questionnaire administered to a population of parole and probation officers and supervisors in Minnesota. A total of 263 subjects were sent questionnaires; 197 questionnaires were returned for a response rate of 75%. Approximately half of the respondents were probation officers, 6% parole officers, 43% having both probation and parole responsibilities. Thirty-seven percent of the respondents handled juvenile clients, 34% adult clients, and 29% handled both juvenile and adult clients.

Major findings were:

- Approximately 91% of the respondents indicated a belief that restitution should be extensively used within the criminal and juvenile justice systems.
- Only 19% of respondents noted that restitution should be limited to property offenders.
- Forty-six percent of the respondents agreed that it is desirable to involve the victim with the offender personally in making a restitution plan.
- Major problems with the use of restitution were courts failing to specify the amount of restitution to be made, time-consuming aspects of restitution, lack of suitable tasks for community service offenders lacking the earning ability to make financial restitution, and victims reporting losses dishonestly.

242

Hudson, J., Galaway, B., & Chesney, S. (1977). When criminals repay their victims: A survey of restitution programs. Judicature, 60, 312-321.



Information regarding use of restitution was obtained from a survey of 19 restitution programs in the United States and Canada. The nature of the restitution sanction and the amount of restitution that should be ordered are discussed. Other topics addressed are the role of the victim in the restitution scheme, the relationship of restitution to other criminal justice sanctions, and restitution as a condition of probation. Further studies should be made of the most appropriate method of instituting restitution, the classes of offenders for whom to require it, and its effects on victims and offenders, in order to make this mechanism a more viable part of the criminal justice system.

243

Hudson, J., Galaway, B., & Novack, S. (1980). Final report of the national assessment of adult restitution programs. Duluth, MN: University of Minnesota, School of Social Development.

A state-of-the-art summary of restitution and community service sentencing programming for adult offenders in the United States. This is a review of the literature and a summary of past research. Characteristics of 198 projects identified in 1978 are summarized; data were obtained from telephone interviews with project directors. Twenty projects were selected for site visits for study of project development and current operations. Proposed operational models identifying project inputs, activities, outputs, and outcomes are developed for both monetary restitution and a community service sentencing projects based on data secured from the site visits. Input, activity, and output/outcome measures are recommended. This state-of-the-art study suggests that attempts to measure restitution program effects or outcomes are premature; attention should be directed toward clarifying program design and accurately measuring program inputs and activities, including program costs, before attempting to measure program effects.

244

Huls, M. E. (1985, February). Alternative sentencing, 1979-1984: A selective bibliography (Public Administration Series: Bibliography #P1625). Monticello, IL: Vance Bibliographies.

This bibliography includes 108 alphabetized citations to both in depth articles and to a selection of news item type pieces. According to the author, "news items were included if they contained information on a specific program or project."

245

Hunt, S. M. (1980). Restitution for adult males: A preliminary impact evaluation report on the Orleans parish criminal sheriff's restitution shelter/diagnostic unit. New Orleans, LA: New Orleans Mayor's Criminal Justice Coordinating Council.

The restitution center and diagnostic unit began operations in June 1977 and became part of a pre release center test site in April 1979. Offenders accepted into the program proceed through three phases of increased freedom that eventually lead to full release. The program was designed to ensure monetary payments to victims and performance of community service work by all participants. It also aimed to increase participants' educational levels and employment or training. Potential participants were screened to guard against acceptance of participants who posed a threat to the public and were escape risks. Participants were placed in individualized learning programs and in jobs from which they accumulated savings from which a restitution payment would be deducted upon release. They also contributed a percentage of their income for room and board in prison.

The program demonstrated significant progress toward meeting all of its goals, except for the educational goal. Over four-fifths of all participants worked, and a total of almost 4,000 hours of community service work were contributed. However, only 32% of all participants attended educational classes. The typical offender took part for 56.8 days, worked for 49.7 days, attended 27.4 hours of educational classes, and contributed 18.5 hours of community service. The typical offender also received about 10 hours of individualized counselling, attended five group counseling sessions, paid \$146 in restitution, paid \$129 to the sheriff, and received \$323 in savings when released. Recidivism was not measured, as the program was not designed to affect it. Improved screening, program expansion, improved educational services, and exclusion of offenders charged with criminal neglect of families are recommended.

246

Hunt, S. M. (1980, September). Two restitution programs: Similarities and differences. Paper presented at Fourth Symposium on Restitution and Community Service Sentencing, Social Development Associates, Inc., St. Paul, Minnesota.

The Orleans Parish Criminal Sheriff's Adult Restitution Program, which has been operational since 1977, provides diagnostic intake functions, job development and placement, education, counseling, and security for adult offenders. The Orleans Parish Juvenile Court Juvenile Restitution Program, operational since 1978, provides screening functions, job development and placement, counseling, and teaching services to juvenile offenders. While both programs share common goals of victim compensation, offender rehabilitation, deinstitutionalization, and improving confidence in the criminal justice system, each emphasizes different aspects of the problem. Both appear to be more offender-oriented than victim-oriented regarding services.

The adult program is located in a renovated elementary school. All counseling and education occurs at the school in the evening after participants have returned from work. Participants' paychecks are collected by the staff and deposited into individual accounts, from which restitution payments are deducted. Most participants are accepted with only a few months of their sentences remaining.

Assignment to the juvenile program is imposed in lieu of incarceration as a condition of probation. The program relies on subsidized employment of participants at community service placement sites. Restitution payments are based on the number of hours worked per week and the amount of restitution due. However, the 6.5% unemployment rate in New Orleans in 1979 affected the employment potential of participants. Additional problems include the lack of support from local judges in making referrals.

During 1978 through 1979, the adult program accepted 363 participants, and the successful completion rate was 58%. The juvenile program accepted 140 youths, and the completion rate was 57%. Although both programs appear to be gaining momentum, they still utilized the restitution concept below its maximum potential.

247

Hunt, S. M. (1979, June). Offenders who pay their way: The preliminary impact evaluation report on the Orleans parish criminal sheriff's restitution shelter-diagnostic unit. New Orleans, LA: New Orleans Mayor's Criminal Justice Coordinating Council. Also reported as Evaluating a restitution project: A case study of a second year preliminary impact evaluation. Paper presented at the Third Symposium on Restitution, Duluth, MN, September, 1979.

The Orleans Parish Restitution Shelter is located in the Community Correctional Center, a 448 bed medium security prison in New Orleans. The program has two components. The diagnostic unit receives referrals from the district courts, prosecutors, state prison, and other sources and completes a screening process, primarily around security risks. The shelter then provides testing and placement of the offender in an individualized learning program. The type and amount of restitution to be made by the offender is determined in a contract signed by the offender and the sheriff. The offender is placed on a job and works to accumulate savings from which restitution is deducted upon release. Room and board payments are made to the facility. The research design was a pre-experimental single group, after-only study. Data were collected from official files and are presented in frequency distributions.

The major findings were:

- Between June 30, 1977, and December 31, 1978, 414 referrals were made to the shelter. One hundred and seventy-four referrals were accepted into the shelter. Ninety-five successfully completed the program early, 50 were unsuccessfully terminated, 16 were still participating in the program on December 31, 1978.
- Analysis of the differences between successful and unsuccessful participants indicated that successful completions were older, had been referred from within the prison as compared to the court, and had been charged with less serious offenses.
- Program participants earned a total of \$130,220 in salaries from employment. One hundred and five offenders paid an average of \$110 to victims for a total of \$11,608 in restitution payments. These types of victim restitution were used: 51 offenders paid to the Elderly Victim Relief Fund, which compensated elderly victims; 28 offenders

were ordered to pay victims and 22 of these paid an average of \$282; 19 offenders paid restitution to their wife and family for criminal neglect offenses.

- A total of \$26,741 was repaid to the criminal justice system for operating expenses and room and board.
- Victims received 11%, the criminal justice system received 25%, and offenders retained 64% of earnings.
- Fifty-three individuals contributed community service for a total of 7,506 hours. In addition, all participants were required to attend educational classes.
- The cost per accepted referral for the diagnostic unit was \$341. The cost per successful completion of the shelter program was \$1,678. The combined costs for successful completion for both the diagnostic unit and shelter program were \$2,303. Cost per day for each successful completion of the diagnostic unit and shelter program was \$22.23.

248

Hurd, J. L., & Miller, K. D. (1981). Community service: What, why, and how. Federal Probation, 45, 39-41.

Community service restitution is used by the federal courts in the Western District of Kentucky for about five percent of defendants who are given the option of community service instead of a jail term. Program is administered by the federal probation officers. The ideal length of community service is from 80 to 120 hours.

249

Hutzler, J. L., Vereb, T. S., & Dixel, D. R. (1981). Restitution and community service as dispositional alternatives in delinquency cases. Pittsburgh, PA: U.S. Department of Justice, National Center for Juvenile Justice Research Division.

Findings are presented from a survey of the 50 states and the District of Columbia to determine their authorization for restitution and community service programs for juveniles. A table shows the presence or absence in each state's juvenile code of an express reference to the authority of the court or probation department to impose restitution or community service as a disposition or condition of probation in delinquency cases. Following the table, the text of the relevant statutory provision in each state is presented, with an indication of how long such a provision has existed in each state's code and an indication of how current the survey's information is on legislation in each state.

A total of 34 states expressly authorize the juvenile court to impose restitution as a disposition or condition of probation in delinquency cases. In two other states, although such authority is not expressly granted by the statute, it is implied. A total of 21 states expressly authorize the imposition of a community service requirement as a disposition or condition of probation in delinquency cases. Of these states, 18 authorize both restitution and community service dispositions. Only 11 jurisdictions do not specifically

identify either restitution or community service as potential dispositions or probation conditions in delinquency cases. No jurisdiction prohibits restitution or community service orders as dispositions or probation conditions in cases of delinquency.

250

Immarigeon, H. (1983). Community service programs. Jericho, Spring.

Community service programs can be designed as an alternative to prison but careful attention must be paid to issues of intent, feasibility, target population, support networks, case control, evaluation, and relation to other alternatives.

251

Inner London Probation and After-Care Service. (1975). Inner London probation and after-care service--Community service by offenders--Annual report. London: Inner London Probation and After-Care Service.

After a brief introduction and discussion of the highlights of the year, the impact of the community service program is investigated through an analysis of the statistics. Reports from individual units operating the community service program are included as well. The report attempts to demonstrate how the program operates and the size and nature of its effects on sentencing and the judiciary as well as its contribution to the community, its effect on improving relationships between the offender and the community, and the social implications of the program for offenders.

252

Jameson Group. (1981, May). Research: The defensible base for juvenile restitution. Manuscript.

Based on the work of Robert Carkhuff whose research suggests that delinquents are deficient in living, learning, and working skills, the authors defend restitution programming as a way of both holding youth accountable and assisting them in developing skills necessary for non-delinquent lifestyles.

253

Jardine, E., Moore, G., & Pease, K. (1983). Community service orders, employment and the tariff. The Criminal Law Review, 17-20.

Examines two questions about factors used in setting the particular length of a community service order. First, the extent to which the length of a community service order is related to the employment status of the offender. Second, the extent to which the length of a community service order reflects tariff or individualized considerations. The research procedure used to test the relationship between employment status and the

length of the community service order involved work in a single probation area of Northern Ireland.

Data were collected on 265 persons given community service orders. Data on current offence, number of previous convictions and number of previous custodial sentences were collected, along with an indication of the offender's employment status at the time of the offence.

The effect of employment status on order length was tested by controlling for the effect of nature of current offence, number of previous offenses and number of previous custodial sentences as well as for the effects of interactions between employment status and these other variables. The prediction that unemployed offenders would receive longer community service orders was confirmed. The fact of unemployment, in and of itself attracts a longer community service order than would otherwise be imposed. It was also found that current offence was not a significant determinant of order length, either alone or in combination with employment status. Employment status was, however, such a determinant.

In respect to the second question about the length of community service order reflecting tariff or individualized considerations, it was found that offenders with a previous custodial sentence received an order of 144 hours on average, those with a fine as their most severe previous sentence were given an order of 135 hours on average, and those with no previous convictions an average of 136 hours. This strongly suggests that, overall, previous record was not used as an important factor in determining sentence length. The authors conclude with regret that the factor of employment seems to be used to extract extra punishment from those without a job.

254

Jeffrey, C. R. (1957). The development of crime in early English society. Journal of Criminal Law, Criminology, and Police Science, 47, 647-666.

Traces the development of crime and criminal law in England from 400 A.D. until 1200 A.D. The aim of the article is to analyze the legal changes occurring in England during this time in terms of changing social conditions. It is noted that the pattern of social change in England from 400 to 1200 A.D. was a change from tribalism to feudalism to nationalism. The land-tie replaced the blood-tie as the basis for social order. A new social structure emerged in England and as a result a new legal system came into existence. During the tribal period the legal system was in the hands of the tribal group and justice was based on the blood-feud. As tribalism gave way to feudalism, the feud was replaced by a system of compensations. Justice passed into the hands of landlords. State law and crime came into existence during the time of Henry 11 as a result of the separation of state and church and as a result of the emergence of a central authority which replaced the authority of the feudal lords. Henry replaced feudal justice with state justice by means of a system of royal courts. Common law emerged as the law of the crown available to all men. The state became the offended social unit, and the state

was the proper prosecutor in every case of crime. Justice became the sole prerogative of the state.

255

John, E. D. (1980). Wisconsin juvenile restitution project--First annual report: March 3, 1979--February 29, 1980. Madison, WI: Wisconsin Department of Health and Social Services.

This annual report examines the first year's status of the Wisconsin Juvenile Restitution Project (JRP), covering the period March 1, 1979 to February 29, 1980. The JRP is designed to serve juveniles who are adjudicated delinquents or who have agreed to a consent decree order. Restitution obligations performed by participating youths may be in the form of monetary payment to the victim, direct service to the victim, service to the community, or a combination of the three.

256

Jones, J. P. (1982). Oakland county court community service program--A court/community effort. Pontiac, MI: Oakland County Court Community Service Program.

An explanation of the rationale for community service as an alternative to traditional sentences accompanies guidelines for the involvement of nonprofit private and public organizations in the court-administered community service program in Oakland County, Michigan.

257

Jones, R. (1976). Community service orders and SSDS. Social Work Today, 7, 43-44.

Describes the British Community Service Program and assesses the relationship of this program to social service departments. In particular, the author raises questions about situations in which social service departments are asked to participate in community service schemes by providing programs of work for community service offenders. The author suggests that the social worker supervising the community service program may find himself becoming responsible for offering casework assistance to the offender, and this supervision would be more appropriately offered by a probation officer.

258

Junger-Tas, J. (1984). The Dutch experiments with community service. The Hague, Netherlands: Research and Documentation Center, Ministry of Justice.

In 1981, the Dutch established pilot community service programs, in eight experimental court districts, to test the concept as a basis for recommendations regarding possible law change. Community service could be ordered by either the prosecutor or judge. The

overriding objective of the pilot schemes was to replace prison sentences of up to six months. The maximum number of hours to be completed was set at 150 to be completed within 6 months.

The report is based on the analysis of the first 453 cases referred to community service in the first 14 months of operation. Ninety five percent of the offenders were male, nearly half between 18 and 24 years of age, and another third between 25 and 29 years of age. Two thirds of the group were not working. The largest group of referrals were property offenders including burglary. The next largest group was traffic offenders with two thirds of this group being drunk drivers. Fifty five percent of the referrals had a previous criminal record.

Offender participation was voluntary since the projects were being implemented on a pilot basis without specific legislation. Offenders seldom refused the offer of community service which was generally preferred over the alternatives. About half of the proposals for community service came from probation officers, about 25% from lawyers, and the balance of proposals coming from prosecutors, the offenders themselves, or other sources. 143 cases were handled by prosecutors and 304 by judges. Prosecutors typically negotiate a community service requirement as a part of a conditional dismissal. Eighty percent of the community service requirements accepted by judges involves use of a suspended sentence. Sixty percent of the placements were at neighborhood centers, club houses, hospitals, and homes for the elderly. Only 5% of the placements, however, had anything to do with nursing and youth work; most were maintenance, painting, domestic work, and outdoor work in parks and woods.

One of the problems with the pilot schemes was that judges and prosecutors were reluctant to consider 150 hours of community service (the maximum recommended) as an equivalent of six months imprisonment. Another problem occurred in the area of control and reporting back to the judiciary. Probation officers were reluctant to take on a control function. Eighty nine percent of the community service requirements were completed successfully within the assigned time limits.

During the period of study, 178 requests for community service were refused; this group was compared with a group for which community service was accepted and did not differ in age, life situation, education, or employment. Seventy one percent of the refused offenders had committed property offenses compared to 47% of the accepted. Seven percent of the refused offenders had committed traffic offenses compared to 24% of the accepted offenders. Refused offenders were also more likely to be remanded into custody for a trial.

An examination was made of the community service group compared to the group of offenders who received prison sentences. The community service group was younger and were more likely to be living with their parents or family. Sixty percent of both groups were unemployed. Sixty percent of the CS group compared to 40% of the prison group committed a property offense. The community service group had committed slightly less aggressive offenses. Seventy percent of the community service group was detained for



pretrial for 12 days or less compared to 48% of the prison group. Thirty seven percent of the community service group were first offenders compared to 12% of the prison group.

Supervisors at community service site agencies were interviewed and generally found the measure positive, better than prison, and improved the offenders attitude. They felt that adequate supervision of the offender was a primarily condition for successful outcome. Researchers were only able to interview about 50% of the offenders who did community service; more than 90% of these judged the experience as positive and two thirds considered community service as a real sanction.

In response to a postal questionnaire, 70% of the judges and probation officers perceived community service as sanction but only 50% of the prosecutors and members of the bar did so. Generally community service was thought to displace short term imprisonment; increasing the maximum from 150 to 240 hours may make it more likely that community service will be used in place of six month prison sentences. Community service agreements were successfully completed and community service provided a positive experience to both the agencies and offenders. Most participants considered community service as a real sanction and not a soft option. The organization of the scheme should be with the probation service.

259

Junger-Tas, J. (1983). Community service in the Netherlands. The Hague, Netherlands: Research and Documentation Center, Ministry of Justice.

In 1981, the Netherlands piloted community service schemes in 8 of 19 court districts. Community service was to be piloted and evaluated as a basis for determining if the measure should be introduced into Dutch penal law. The explicitly stated objective of community service was to replace prison sentences of up to six months with 150 hours of community service. Community service can be imposed by the prosecutor or judge as part of unconditional dismissal, suspension of a decision to prosecute, conditional dismissal, suspended sentence, or as a special condition of a non-custodial sentence.

Between February, 1981 and May, 1982 447 community service cases had been recorded; 95% were men, nearly half were offenders between 18 and 24 years of age, a third were between 25 and 39. Fifty eight percent are property offenses, 8% aggressive offenses, 15% traffic offenses, and 11% both property and offenses of aggression, 4% drugs or sexual offenses, 5% were other. Fifty-five percent of the offenders had a previous criminal record. One hundred and forty-three cases were handled by prosecutors. Community service for 30% was as a part of a conditional dismissal, 24% were conditional dismissal plus probation, 17% for suspension of decision to prosecute, 14% for unconditional dismissal, 12.5% in return for no demand in court for a prison sentence, 2% for a conditional recommendation for amnesty, and 0.5% in lieu of a fine. Three hundred and four cases were handled by judges; 88% were as a condition of a suspended sentence and 9% involved probation plus community service, and 3% were

for others including recommendations for amnesty. Prosecutors tended to use community service for property offenses (58%) and seldom for traffic offenders (8.5%); 30.5% of the community service orders imposed by judges were for traffic offenses. Half of the cases handled by prosecutors were first offenders, and half had been convicted previously; 25% of the cases handled by judges were first offenders.

The connection between the community service work and probation is unclear; probation officers seemed willing to initiate proceedings, prepare an acceptable plan and submit this to the judiciary, but are less willing to function as a controlling agent in enforcing the community service requirement. Eighty-nine percent of the community service projects were completed. Community service appears to have found its place among existing sanctions; 150 hours of community service is generally substituted for a three rather than six month custodial sentence. Probation service stresses the rehabilitative and re-educative side of community service whereas the judiciary tend to perceive it as a sanction.

260

Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, Office of, (OJJDP). (1987). National directory of juvenile restitution programs 1987. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice, OJJDP, Restitution, Education, Specialized Training, and Technical Assistance (RESTTA) Program.

This directory contains the names, addresses, and descriptions of 296 juvenile restitution and community service programs throughout the United States.

261

Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, Office of, (OJJDP). (1986). Community justice alternatives - restitution and reconciliation. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice, OJJDP, Restitution, Education, Specialized Training, and Technical Assistance (RESTTA) Program.

This conference manual presents outlines of the addresses presented at the 2 day community justice conference held in Oak Ridge, TN, in 1986, which focused on the costs, benefits, successes, and failures of restitution, reconciliation, and alternative sentencing programs in Tennessee and other U. S. jurisdictions.

262

Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, National Institute of, (NIJDP). (1985). Introducing RESTTA (restitution education, specialized training, and technical assistance program). Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice, NIJDP, RESTTA.

The rationale, goals, training provisions, and program foci of the Restitution, Education, Specialized Training, and Technical Assistance (RESTTA) program for youthful offenders are outlined.

263

Katende, J. W. (1967). Why were punishments in pre-European East Africa mainly compensative rather than punitive? University Law Journal, Dar Ses Salaam, 2, 122-133.

The aim of this article is to examine how the African system of punishment came to be what it is. Specifically, the author considers why punishment in East Africa was once concerned with compensation rather than penal sanctions, and why the reverse is true today. The author notes that African countries developed a "reconciliation" system of justice because they feared what their opponents might do to them if no satisfactory conclusion was reached. Most people practiced witchcraft, and consequently, one had to be extremely careful how one treated a person, because that person or a friend of that person might be a witch doctor.

In such a society, where everybody suspected everyone else of being a witch and where everybody knew the misery a witch doctor could cause, it was a necessity that as far as possible, persons should be on good terms with one another. Consequently, if a conflict arose which was likely to threaten these good terms, reconciliation between the offender and the offended was the only sanction. Punitive sanctions could only upset peaceful coexistence and bring hatred between the families. From this sheer practical necessity of reducing risks developed the African system of punishment by compensation. A dispute settlement system was commonly used in which six or seven neighbors and relatives acted as informal courts.

Contrasts are made with the European system of punishments. Finally, the author raises the question as to why the English system of punishment is being readily accepted in such a short period by East African communities in place of the indigenous system of reconciliation and compensation. It is concluded that the biggest influencing factors have been education and the coming of religions from the east and west. These two factors have made people realize the folly of believing in witchcraft and its exaggerated powers. The fear which originally created the reconciliation-compensation system has gone, but its features of reconciliation, restitution, and compensation are still part of the East African judicial system, although in a very minimal role.

264

Katz, M., & Harding, J. (1982). International perspectives on restitution, community service (Audio Cassette). Reno, NV: National Council of Juvenile and Family Court Judges.

The setting for the development of restitution programs is indicated to be an awareness of the poor cost-effectiveness of incarceration, disillusionment with the rehabilitation

ideal, a focus on offender culpability and accountability, and increased attention to victim needs. In Great Britain, community service programs have given varying degrees of attention to punishment, reparation, and rehabilitation, although lack of precise legislative standards for community service has contributed to confusion about the implementation of restitution programs and community service in America due to an absence of precise legislation specifying the objectives and procedures for restitution programs. Legislation should specify the maximum limits for restitution sanctions according to offense so as to set parameters for judicial discretion. The effectiveness of restitution in both Great Britain and the United States can be measured by the percentage of offenders who complete restitution assignments, the extent to which it serves as an alternative to incarceration, and reduction in recidivism. In the first area, restitution orders do have a high percentage of completions, but it has had limited impact on the numbers of persons incarcerated, primarily because there is no statutory specification for its use with serious offenders. While there is no clear evidence yet in either country that restitution is more effective than incarceration in reducing recidivism, it is certainly not less effective, and is less costly than incarceration. Suggestions are offered for how restitution programs can be improved.

265

Katz, M., & Schneider, P. R. (1982). Forms of restitution and how to combine them (Audio Cassette). Reno, NV: National Council of Juvenile and Family Court Judges.

This report on an evaluation of 85 restitution projects throughout the country compares their effectiveness according to the variables of relationship to the court, how the restitution order is determined, whether monetary restitution and community service are combined, whether the government provides a wage subsidy, type of supervision offered during the restitution program, and consequences if restitution not completed. "Under each of the variables, the evaluation analyzed the percentage of referrals completed, in-program reoffense rate for the first 12 months, and the portion of the restitution payment made. The study found that regardless of the structure or operations of a restitution program as determined by the identified variables, the programs yielded a high completion rate, a low in-program reoffense rate, and a high rate of portions of restitution paid; however, program outcomes are somewhat better when only one aspect of restitution is used (either monetary payment or community service) and a government wage subsidy is provided.

266

Kaufman, C. L. (1973). Community service volunteers: A British approach to delinquency prevention. Federal Probation, 37(4), 35-41.

Describes the British Community Service Volunteer Program aimed at using all kinds of young people in providing services to the community as volunteers. It is important to note that this program is distinct from the British Community Services Program which is to be used as an alternative to incarceration for young offenders. The Community

Service Volunteer Program resembles the VISTA Program in America. The aim is to involve young people in providing a service to others. Volunteers serve from four to twelve months in a wide variety of social agencies. The program has been experimenting with ways to involve institutionalized offenders as volunteers. Program statistics up to July, 1972, at the end of ten months of program operation, are provided and case examples given.

267

Keldgord, R. (1978). Community restitution comes to Arizona. In J. Hudson & B. Galaway (Eds.), Offender restitution in theory and action (pp. 161-166). Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.

The Community Restitution in Service Program (CRISP) is described as it operates in Pima County, Arizona. Evaluation results are presented.

268

Kelly, R. J. (1983). Westmoreland county adult probation office community volunteer work program. PAPPC Journal, 2(2), 15-23.

This article describes the successful implementation of a community volunteer work program by the Westmoreland County (Pennsylvania) Adult Probation Office.

269

Kent, L. B. (1980, September). Overview of the alternative community service restitution program for women offenders. Paper presented at the Fourth Symposium on Restitution and Community Service Sentencing, Minneapolis, MN.

A program in Duluth, Minnesota combines monetary restitution and community service sentencing with other services as an alternative to fines, probation, incarceration for adult female offenders. Outstanding financial obligations such as fines may be converted to community service at the rate of \$5 per hour. During the first 18 months, the program received 281 referrals from diversion projects, pretrial intervention projects, county court, and district courts, and accepted 276 clients. Emphasis is placed on education, job training and other support services to clients.

270

Kentucky Department for Human Services, Office of Research and Planning. (1981). Juvenile restitution project--An evaluation. Louisville, KY: Kentucky Department for Human Services Office of Research and Planning .

Youths adjudicated for property offenses and some nonproperty offenses are referred to the project by the district court in Louisville/Jefferson County. If the court orders

monetary restitution, the project locates work for the youth and monitors job progress. Symbolic restitution can take the form of volunteer work or victim serviced hours. The primary methodology of this evaluation involves an update of those youths admitted to the project from October 1, 1979 through October 31, 1980. Findings reveal that by the conclusion of the second project year, the project has been successful in obtaining positive results with victims and offenders. Since the program's 1979 inception, 288 victims have received or are receiving compensation from youths in the program. Thus far, 90.0% of the youths have paid back all of the money ordered by the court. In a survey administered to 25% of those youths participating in the program, 94.1% said that they were pleased to have a job. Approximately 91% felt that restitution was a fair punishment. Results from a survey of victims involved with the program show that almost 74% said that the court was more fair than they had previously believed. Over 90% of those youths finishing the program have done so successfully. The average length of stay in the program was 3 months, the average age of the participants was 15.9 years, and approximately 94% of the youths were male. Problems with the project include lack of the projected number of referrals and little or no impact on the number of youths incarcerated.

271

Kentucky Department For Human Services, Office of Research and Planning. (1979). Louisville/Jefferson county (KY)--juvenile restitution project--A preliminary evaluation. Louisville, KY: Kentucky Department For Human Services, Office of Research and Planning.

Program goals are to involve 400 youths per year to provide partial redress for victims of juvenile crime, to demonstrate the feasibility of restitution, to develop an increased sense of responsibility in youths, to increase confidence in the juvenile justice system, and to reduce commitments and recidivism. The evaluation was based on examination of the program's goals and objectives and the extent to which they were met by September 30, 1979. the population studied included youths admitted to the project from March 1, 1979, through September 30, 1979. During this period 76 victims received compensation and 7 victims received symbolic restitution. All victims surveyed felt that the program should continue. Over 90% of the 71 youths involved in the program finished it successfully. Average age of those in the program was 15.9 years. All the youths were males, three-fifths were white and two-fifths black. Most were first and second offenders. Burglary was the most common offense. Average length of stay in the program was 2.5 months. total restitution paid was \$6,595 and 430 hours of volunteer service. Average restitution ordered was \$198. The program has succeeded in providing partial redress for victims of juvenile crime and has enhanced the image of the juvenile justice system. Nevertheless, it has failed to attain its projected number of participants. Data on recidivism are not yet available. To obtain more referrals, judges, prosecutors, and court assessment workers should be kept informed of the program. A continuous and positive relationship between restitution staff and assessment staff should be fostered.

272

Keve, P., & Eglash, A. (1947). Payments on 'a debt to society.' NPPA News, 36, 1-2.

Briefly describes the concept of creative restitution and presents case examples of how the concept has been used with law violators.

273

Keve, P. W. (1982). Reintegration of the offender into the community. In L. J. Hippchen (Ed.), Holistic approaches to offender rehabilitation (pp 415-435). Springfield, IL: Thomas.

Although some are questioning the value of parole to the extent of recommending its abolishment, parole systems still provide the major organizational matrix to foster and conduct a variety of program elements designed to help the ex-inmate reenter the community effectively. The big effort in coming years must be to increase the intensity and extent of the helping process at the time of reentry to help resolve the problems associated with return to the community. Halfway house programs have been widely applied as a way of enabling ex-prisoners to live in the community while developing their earning power. Work release programs, which are sometimes used in combination with halfway houses, also enable the ex-prisoner to reenter the community without the handicap of being unemployed. A promising reentry approach that has been under used is the use of ex-prisoners in social service assignments. The benefits gained by the person who renders a useful service to another have been proven, and these benefits for ex-inmates can be experienced through their involvement in restitutional community service programs, regular employment in service occupations, or through voluntary ex-offender organizations.

274

Keve, P. W. (1978). The therapeutic uses of restitution. In J. Hudson & B. Galaway (Eds.), Offender restitution in theory and action (59-64). Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.

An assessment of the extent to which restitution can be used as a rehabilitative device; specific elements of a rehabilitative restitution scheme are identified and discussed.

275

Kirkaldy, A. D. (1977). Community service order program--The British Columbia experience--Vol. I. Background and description of initial cases. Victoria, BC: British Columbia Department of the Attorney General.

The British Columbia program was set up in 1975 and by the end of May 1976 had admitted 1459 offenders. The length of the service order is a maximum of 200 hours within a 6-month period for adults, and 100 hours in a 3-month period for juveniles. After the first year of operation two major recommendations were made. The first, already implemented, was to formally expand the program from Vancouver to the entire province. The second, not yet implemented, has been to change federal and provincial legislation to enable community service to exist as a separate disposition under the criminal code and the juvenile delinquents acts. This report includes a statistical description of the first 1,459 admissions. A second volume, to be issued later, will summarize the 3,000 cases admitted June 1976 to June 1977. Generally, juvenile cases account for 55.7%; 88% are male; native Indians account for 9.0%. The most common offenses are 'theft under \$200' and 'break and enter'. About one-third are admitted by probation officer enquiry, the others by a court standard probation order. Almost all the participants are assigned work for the community rather than for the victim. Half of the orders are for work in a community or service agency, 36.1% are for community recreation facilities and park development, 4% work for the victim on jobs not related to the offense, 1.4% repair damage related to the offense. Community volunteer groups supervise 66% of the work orders. Almost all (93.3%) of the work orders are completed. The program has received positive comments from court and probation officials. The report also analyses program participants according to region of the province; the Vancouver Island region accounts for 46%. It is noted that the program is too new for the effectiveness to be measured.

276

Kittel, N. (1979). Evaluation of the tri-county (Stearns, Benton, and Sherburne) juvenile restitution program. Unpublished evaluation report completed on the Tri-County Juvenile Restitution Program, St. Cloud, MN.

The evaluation of this project includes a program description, analysis of program statistics from the program's beginning on January 1, 1978 through December 31, 1979, and an assessment of goal attainment in the program's first two years of operation. Results of routine pre- and post-program offender and victim surveys are presented. A cost benefit analysis and recommendations for program improvement are included.

277

Klein, A. R. (1988). Alternative sentencing: A practitioner's guide. Cincinnati, OH: Anderson.

A handbook written by a practitioner for practitioners, including defense attorneys, prosecutors, probation officers, judges and others concerned with solving the problems of criminal sentencing. The focus is on alternative sentencing, including its possibilities and applications. Alternative sentences are defined as criminal sentences that avoid long term incarceration, effectively punish offenders for their crimes, and address common sentencing concerns including rehabilitation, deterrence, retribution and justice. The first



section of the book describes the criminal sentencing process as it actually works, with particular attention on plea bargaining, pre-sentence investigation reports, the participation of crime victims and the sentencing hearing. The second section presents individual examples of alternative sentences for particular types of crimes, including non violent and violent crimes. The third section presents federal and state case and statutory law on restitution, community work service, financial sanctions other than restitution, mandatory treatment. The discussion of restitution focuses in particular on victim involvement. The fourth section looks at how alternative sentences can be enforced by the courts and how they can be evaluated. Detailed check lists are provided that cover factors needing to be considered in designing, enforcing and evaluating alternative sentences.

278

Klein, A. R. (1982). Earn-It. The Judges' Journal, 21(1), 37-43 & 59-60.

Brief descriptions of several cases of restitution sentencing are presented. Issues related to these cases and the Quincy Court's Earn-It program are discussed. The Earn-It business model has been successfully replicated by chambers of commerce in Burlington, VT; Charleston, SC; and Wilmington, NC. The author concludes that court-ordered restitution and work service are clearly effective sentencing tools that benefit victims, offenders, and the community at large.

279

Klein, A. R. (1981). The earn-it story. Waltham, MA: National Institute for Sentencing Alternatives, Brandeis University, 2nd edition.

Describes the growth and development of the Earn-It Program in the Quincy District Court, Quincy, Massachusetts, since 1975. The document also includes information on the day-to-day operations of the program as well as sample forms and brochures.

280

Klein, A. R. (1981). Earn-it: The story so far. Quincy, MA: Citizens for Better Community Courts.

This booklet details the philosophy, structure, staffing, procedures, activities, client characteristics, and effects of Quincy's Earn-It Program (Mass.), a restitution and community service program for adult and juvenile offenders.

281

Klein, A. R., & Kramer, A. L. (1980). Earn-it: The story so far. Quincy, MA: Earn-It, Quincy District Court.

Earn-It, is the largest adult and juvenile restitution program in the Nation. In 1979, over 1,200 adult and juvenile defendants participated in the program performing work for the community in over 60 public and nonprofit agencies and earning wages in private jobs to pay more than \$175,000 in restitution to victims. The program began under the leadership of a Quincy District Court judge, who proposed to put youthful first offenders to work as a means of assuming responsibility for the consequences of their offenses. The program was initiated by inviting local businessmen to a meeting to explain the philosophy of the program and then recruiting them to provide jobs for offenders under the restitution program. A restitution or community service order is put in writing as a contract between the defendant and the victim or the court (when there is no victim). Once offenders are referred to Earn-It for a job, they are referred to the job developer, who has the list of available jobs. Most are placed immediately. An effort is made to match the offender and the job. Community service placements are used in lieu of fines or to fulfil court work orders where there is no victim in the offense. Defendants are assigned to work with nonprofit private agencies and with city public service departments and agencies. Caseload statistics and financial data are provided, along with case descriptions. Forms used in the program are also included.

282

Klein, A. R., Schneider, A. L., Bazemore, G., & Schneider, P. R. (1985). Program models. In A. L. Schneider (Ed.), Guide to Juvenile Restitution (pp. 21-67). Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice, Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention.

Description of underlying philosophy and program processes (including sample forms and letters) of three contrasting juvenile restitution program models. A financial and community service model is an accountability oriented approach that offers both community service and monetary restitution. Some programs following this model include employment components. A victim-offender mediation and service model is a full-service approach to restitution placing more emphasis than the other models on victims and devoting resources to victim services while not necessarily reducing emphasis on offender accountability and employment. These programs also offer community service and monetary restitution but have victim offender mediation components. Third, a victim financial restitution model is a scaled-down approach that emphasizes collecting restitution and returning it to victims. These programs often arise out of the victim rights movement and focus almost exclusively on the collection and enforcement of restitution orders. Processes of developing, implementing, and enforcing restitution orders is discussed in conjunction with each model.

283

Koch, J. R. (1985). Community service and outright release as alternatives to juvenile court: An experimental evaluation. Dissertation Abstracts International, 46, 2081A. (University Microfilms No. DA85-20628)

Juvenile diversion was originally proposed in response to the presumed failures of the juvenile justice system. By providing an alternative to the formal system, diversion was to avoid the negative labelling of youths that was thought to lead to further delinquency (President's Commission, 1967). Despite the substantial attention devoted to diversion over the past 17 years, few conclusions can be drawn about the effectiveness of diversion (Binder, 1977; Klein, 1979a). Evaluations examining the effectiveness of diversion programs have frequently suffered from methodological problems, and there is little evidence that the programs evaluated were successfully implemented.

In the current study, two models of diversion were compared to traditional processing (TP) by the juvenile justice system: diversion without services (DWS) (i.e., outright release) and diversion to the Community Service Program (DCSP). The Community Service Program provided a setting for the arbitration of conflicts, the payment of restitution, and the placement of youths in voluntary community service positions. The program was based on the rationale that participation in community service activities would strengthen the youth's bonds to pro-social society, thus reducing future delinquency (Hirschi, 1969). Participants (n = 243) were randomly assigned to one of the three "treatment" conditions (i.e., DTP, DWS, and DCSP) following their referral to the project by one of four police departments. The major referral criterion was that the youth would have normally been referred to court for the instant offense. Sixteen weeks following project intake, all youths participated in an interview which included assessments of delinquency labelling, social bonding, and self-reported delinquency. Police and court records were used to assess "official" recidivism and diversion implementation.

In contrast to many prior studies, this study provided consistent evidence of successful diversion implementation. At the same time, no evidence was found to indicate that diversion was more effective than traditional processing in reducing labelling or delinquency (official and self-reported). In addition, no between-group differences were found in the levels of pro-social bonding. However, these results must be interpreted in light of the relatively mild intervention provided in the TP condition.

284

Koegel, J. (1978, June). Sacramento county probation alternative sentencing procedures. Final First Year Evaluation Report. Sacramento, CA: Sacramento Area Criminal Justice and Delinquency Prevention Planning District.

The Alternative Sentencing Procedures Project is operated by the Volunteer Bureau of Sacramento. Staff are responsible for screening and placing court referrals in volunteer community service agencies. Clients are referred from the courts as an alternative to other sentences. Clients are screened, placed in a community agency, and monitoring contacts are made. At the completion of the ordered community service, the offender is referred back to court and discharged. The research design is an after-only, non-experimental design. Data was collected from three sources: project staff completed

information about the offender and the placement at admission; data was collected from court records; financial data was collected.

Major findings were:

- During the first year of funding, 832 offenders were sentenced to community service work; over 70% of these cases came from the municipal courts.
- Approximately 18% of referrals did not successfully complete the project; most commonly, program failures had higher numbers of previous arrests and convictions than those who successfully completed the program.
- Offenders who completed the project were more likely to be male with less than a high school education, between the ages of 26 to 30 years, unmarried and on welfare.
- Approximately 43% of referrals had been convicted of driving charges, 7% of theft, and 2% of burglary.
- It is estimated that it cost approximately \$77 to refer, screen and replace each participant during each year of program operation.

285

Kole, J. (1973). Arbitration as an alternative to the criminal warrant. Judicature, 56, 295-297.

Reports on the 4-A Program of the American Arbitration Association operating in Philadelphia and Hartford. Efforts are made to solve intrafamily and neighborhood disputes through arbitration rather than court proceedings when the victim has sworn a criminal warrant. The less formal handling is thought to reduce animosity, encourage rebuilding of friendly relationships, and provide for a satisfactory method of resolving wrongs.

286

Korn, R. (1971). Of crime, criminal justice, and corrections. University of San Francisco Law Review, 6(1), 27-75.

A critical view of crime, justice, and corrections in contemporary American society. In place of the system of punishment, the author argues for a system of restitution aimed at reconciling the offender with the community. From this view, the criminal offense is seen as a joint responsibility and a symptom that something is wrong and action needs to be taken to correct it. Restitution and mutual service are seen as instruments of reconciliation. The author suggests that the new context of correctional efforts should involve community-based programs that are informal and personal rather than formal and professional; evocative, enabling, and creative rather than repressive or therapeutic; and mutually contractual rather than unilaterally obligatory. Most generally, the change called for by the author is the transformation of the criminal justice system based on retaliation and disablement to a system based on reconciliation through mutual restitution.

287

Korn, R. (1970). Retribution as a form of relief for the victim: Another look at the oldest argument for punishment. Catalyst, 5, 59-63.

In defense of punishment of criminals it is argued that punishment satisfies the need of those angered and injured for retribution. But excessive and cruel punishment prevents contrition and reform in the offender. It is held that if punishment is seen this way, the traditional conflict between punishment and treatment resolves itself: effective rehabilitation becomes the only means for accomplishing the original goals of punishment, while the inflicting of suffering violates and forecloses these goals. Contrition and guilt are self-administering--they are consequences of the fundamentally social character of human nature. Corrections should offer the criminal the incentive to rejoin human society by providing him with the tools, the social skills, and the opportunity to make restitution in an atmosphere of human fellowship rather than enmity.

288

Krajick, K. (1982). Community service: The work ethic approach to punishment. Corrections Magazine, 8(5), 70-81.

This article discusses the nature of community service programs, the types of offenders generally involved in them, and some of the problems they pose for sentencing.

289

Kurlychek, R. T. (1978). Toward holding the criminally non-responsible defendant more responsible: Some therapeutic concerns. Corrective and Social Psychiatry, 24, 144-145.

Suggests that holding mentally ill offenders accountable will be therapeutic. Restitution is suggested as a mechanism by which these persons should be held accountable for their behavior.

290

Lacey, M., Pendleton, J., & Read, G. (1983). Supervision in the community--The righting of wrongs. Justice of the Peace, 147, 120-123.

Reconciliation of victim and offender and offender and community should be the aim of probation. This can be done by bringing victim and offender together to plan for restitution and by involving the offender and the community.

291

Launay, G. (1985). Bringing victims and offenders together: A comparison of two models. The Howard Journal of Criminal Justice, 24, 200-212.

Evidence which suggests that victims of crime and criminal offenders can benefit from being brought together is briefly reviewed before two models of such encounters are compared. These are the victim offender reconciliation program (VORP) model, which involves the victim meeting his/her offender to discuss terms of reparation and the Rochester model where victims and unassociated offenders meet as a group. It is concluded that the Rochester model is more effective in providing victims and offenders with a learning experience through which their prejudices and stereotypes can be dynamically challenged.

292

Law Reform Commission of Canada. (1976). Community service orders: The view of the court. In Community participation in sentencing (pp. 151-177). Ottawa, Canada: Printing and Publishing Supply and Services Canada.

Comments from the court (judges) regarding sentencing and the sentences imposed in three Ontario cases.

293

Leiber, H. (1980, September). Development and utilization of a special group community service project. Paper presented at the Fourth Symposium on Restitution and Community Service Sentencing, Minneapolis, MN.

Since 1972 the alternative community service program of Multnomah County, Oregon has placed over 14,000 people in community service programs with 82% completing their assignments successfully. The program offers offenders an alternative to incarceration or a fine; approximately 165 public service and nonprofit agencies work with the program on a regular basis to provide placement sights. Large groups of offenders are often placed for intensive short term placements involving special projects such as a four day downtown art festival which requires a large number of volunteers to work for a short period of time. This type of placement provides increased visibility for the alternative community service program and enhances support for the program and for community sentencing generally.

294

Leibrich, J. (1985). Use of community service in New Zealand. Australian and New Zealand Journal of Criminology, 18, 85-94.

This statistical analysis focuses on the demographic characteristics of offenders sentenced to community service in New Zealand from February 1981 to October 1982 as well as their offenses, their sentence lengths, and their receipt of additional sentences.

A random sample of 1,534 persons was drawn from the total population of persons receiving community services sentences in the first 21 months of its use. Information about court appearances was obtained from the national law enforcement data base. Data analysis shows that although women compose only one-seventh of the general offender population, one-third of those sentenced to community service were women. Forty-one percent given community service were Maoris; they compose 33% of the general offender populations. Fifty-eight percent of the sample was under 25 years old, and less than 10% were over age 40. Ninety-one percent pleaded guilty, and most were represented by counsel. Fifty-five percent of the offenses involved were property offenses, with traffic offenses being the next most common offense type (27%). The average sentence length was 89 hours; 24% of the offenders received over 100 hours of community service. An additional sentence of probation, drivers license suspension, or fine was given to 52% of the sample.

295

Leibrich, J. (1984). Criminal history and reconvictions of two sentence groups--Community service and non-residential periodic detention. Community Service Orders in New Zealand--Three research reports (pp. 159-204). Wellington, NZ: New Zealand Department of Justice., 159-204.

The reconviction rates of New Zealand offenders given sentences of community service or intermittent detention depended to a great extent on factors other than the type of sentence received.

A total of 38% of the study sample sentenced to community service were reconvicted within 1 year of receiving the sentence, compared to 59% of people sentenced to nonresidential intermittent detention. However, significantly more of the people sentenced to community service had the kind of history indicating less likelihood of being reconvicted. Therefore, meaningful comparisons of reconviction rates required comparisons of people who were equally likely to offend before they experienced the actual sentence. People with the same likelihood of reoffending prior to sentencing were found to have the same reconviction rates following either community service or intermittent detention.

296

Leibrich, J., Galaway, B., & Underhill, Y. (1983). Community service orders in New Zealand. Wellington, NZ: New Zealand Department of Justice.

Community service was introduced as a sentence in New Zealand effective in February, 1981. This three part study was undertaken as an evaluation of the sentence. Part I compares a 50% random sample (n = 1,534) of offenders sentenced to community service during the first 21 months of the sentence to all offenders sentenced in 1980. A higher proportion of women and the Maoris were found in the group receiving community service than in the total group of offenders sentenced; community service was

used for moderately serious offenders; the mean number of hours sentenced was 89; 48% of the offenders sentenced to community service received only a community service sentence. Part II contains results of interviews with samples of judges, probation officers, community service sponsors, and offenders sentenced to community service regarding their views of the aims and implementation of the sentence. Generally the aim is seen as benefitting the offender, implementation issues have to do with where community service falls in the tariff and whether it is an alternative to prison, the desire of sponsors for more contact with the probation agency, and the desire of offenders for a greater range of community service opportunities. Part III consists of a one year follow-up study of a sample of 491 persons sentenced to community service during the first half of July, 1981, compared to a sample of 459 (1/2 of the total) offenders sentenced to non-residential periodic detention during this same time frame. Thirty eight percent of the persons sentenced to community service were reconvicted within twelve months compared to 59% of the offenders sentenced to non-residential periodic detention. The offenders sentenced to community service were more likely to be women, were more likely to have experienced their first conviction at a later age, as a group had shorter criminal histories, but were somewhat more likely to have committed a more serious offense than the group sentenced to periodic detention.

297

Leighton, B. (1983). Community service by offenders: Administrative issues. In A. B. Thorvaldson (Ed.), Reparative Sanctions: Administrative Issues (Working paper 6). Victoria, BC: British Columbia Ministry of Attorney General.

A review of Canadian law and issues in regard to administering community service orders in relation to the clarity of the aim; case selection including eligibility criteria, offender willingness, and screening; administrative structures including selecting administrative control structures, correctional services structures, using volunteer supervisors, and resource allocation; the administration of community service orders including determining appropriate work, maintaining the supply of work, liability questions, and determining the amount of community service to be ordered; and enforcement of community service orders including crediting compliance, technical order failures, proving wilful default, and administering breach proceedings.

There is great variation in the concept and aim of community service resulting in its use in inconsistent and disparate ways. It is unlikely that this can be solved statutorily because such action would encroach on the discretionary powers of the courts. But it is feasible to require courts to offer reasons for sentencing at the time of disposition and to specify the aims of the sentence.

Screening offenders for eligibility is currently being done by criminal justice officials who have wide discretion resulting in considerable disparities as to who is receiving the community service order and probably limiting community service from its widest possible application. A more adventurous policy and screening guidelines are necessary so that community service may be available to more serious offenders.



Mandatory pre-sentence reports are not necessary for community service and may be delaying implementation of the sentence. It may be useful to distinguish offender consent from choice of a disposition to avoid contravening international conventions against involuntary servitude. Selection of the most appropriate administrative model (government bureaucracy, privatized, or mixed) will depend on the relative cost, degree of flexibility required, strength of the belief that more citizens should be involved in the administration of justice, power of larger political aims such as desire to limit the size of the civil service, and importance attached to uniform administration of the law across a province.

Explicit standards need to be developed to resolve matters related to defining the type of work appropriate for community service; the issues include questions such as the degree of work difficulty, manual versus mental labor, enjoyable versus unpleasant work, and the extent to which community service tasks should be selected to provide the offender with vocational skills. The quantum issue is likely to be resolved once a broad range of hours for community service has been established; after this occurs a informal tariff for offense categories will emerge but development of such a tariff will be enhanced by informal guidelines.

298

Leivesley, S. (1983). Community service--An evaluation of the impact of the community service order scheme in Queensland. Australian Criminology Research Council, Phillip, Act.

A 3 months evaluation of community service orders in Queensland, Australia, focused on the response to the program by community groups, the offenders, and the probation and parole agency.

The study began in January 1983. An evaluation team visited 4 centers, interviewed 39 people, did detailed case studies of 2 geographic areas, and did an extensive literature review. The program was found to have been successful during its first 2 years. The most successful placements were in charitable organizations with full-time staff to supervise offenders. The probation and parole agency's employment of some supervisors was partly responsible for the low failure rate of placements in organizations. The supervisors found satisfaction in their work. The relationship between probation officers and the program has yet to be determined. Nearly all offenders performed satisfactorily, and over the 23 months examined, only 6% failed to comply with their orders by absconding or breaching their agreements. Offenders did not regard the program as a lenient sanction; instead, they saw it as a fair chance to use skills. Costs were far below that of imprisonment. Judges had positive perceptions of the program.

Levi, K. (1982). Relative redemption: Labeling in juvenile restitution. Juvenile and Family Court Journal, 33(1), 3-14.

An evaluation of the Public Service Restitution program (PSR) in Bexar County, Tex., shows that it mitigates the stigmatization (labelling) of being a first offender and reduces recidivism, largely because the participants develop positive labelling from their program supervisors.

Under PSR, juveniles sign a restitution agreement stipulating they will work a certain number of hours for a given business or government agency in the community. The clients are supervised by personnel regularly employed at the workplace. In the first phase of the evaluation, all 12 juveniles assigned to PSR at the time were studied. Some were interviewed while others were covertly observed at their workplace, and 10 of the 12 responded to questionnaires. A separate set of interviews and questionnaires was administered to 9 juveniles' parents and supervisors and to all 13 intake officers in the probation department. In the second phase of the evaluation, a second population consisting of the 41 juveniles released from the PSR program from 6 months to 1 year ago were contacted; twenty-one responded to questionnaires. All 41 juveniles were compared to a randomly drawn comparison group of 65 juvenile first offenders with similar offenses who had been either dismissed or placed on 'informal adjustment'. Findings show that the PSR juveniles had a low sense of being stigmatized, while experiencing positive labelling from their work supervisors. Their rate of recidivism was less than that of either those who were given 'informal adjustment' or dismissal dispositions. The positive relationship with supervisors was found to be the primary factor in reducing recidivism, along with the juveniles' feelings they had been given one more chance to avoid the juvenile justice system, which they perceived as dispensing harsh treatment

Link Consultants. (1981). Attitude assessment of the New Zealand judiciary about sentencing and penal policy. Wellington, NZ: New Zealand Department of Justice.

A mailed survey of all New Zealand District and High Court judges (91) regarding the objectives and purposes of available sentencing options. Response rate of 81%. Judges reported the principle goals of restitution as retribution (59%) and individual deterrence (55%). Restitution was considered the most appropriate penalty for white collar and serious property offenses. Fifty-nine percent of the judges thought the existing legal provisions for restitution should be used more frequently but overwhelmingly rejected the concept of restitution as a penalty in its own right; 85% thought restitution should be used in conjunction with other penalties. The principle goal for community service was rehabilitation (71%); community service was perceived as most appropriate for drunk driving although other penalties (fine and non residential periodic detention) were perceived as more appropriate and community service was not perceived as appropriate for other offenses.

301

Littell, R. (1958). Let reparation fit the crime. Journal of Criminal Law, 22, 167-170.

Describes the community service sanctions used by Judge Karl Holzschuh in West Germany in relation to the practice of financial restitution in English courts. The legislation in England allowing judges to order financial restitution is adequate; suggests problems with the West German community service sanctions.

302

Littell, R. (1957). Let reparation fit the crime. Reader's Digest, 71, pp. 127-130.

Brief account of Judge Karl Holzschuh, "the chocolate judge," and his sentencing practices. This West German judge was a pioneer in requiring creative restitution and community service from juvenile offenders to atone for wrongdoing while at the same time building self-respect.

303

Livingston, C. F. (1980, September). Remarks at the Fourth Symposium on restitution and community service sentencing. Paper presented at the Fourth Symposium on Restitution and Community Service Sentencing, Minneapolis, MN.

Reduction of drunk driving is essential to increase highway safety. The possibility that community service sentencing for drunk drivers may reduce the incidence of drunk driving needs to be seriously examined.

304

Lowe, V. L. (undated). Observations on correctional programs and policies in selected European countries. Washington, DC: U.S. General Accounting Office.

The purpose of this five-nation tour of European countries was to identify certain policies and programs used in these countries to develop alternatives to imprisonment, minimize the adverse effects of imprisonment, improve offender employability, and address various issues of interest to the United States. England's community service order program is an alternative to incarceration and is discussed at length. Aimed at reducing prison overcrowding while involving offenders in tasks which help create a positive self-image, individuals seventeen years of age or older who have committed crimes normally punished by imprisonment receive community service orders. Most have committed property offenses, while others have been convicted of serious traffic violations, assault, arson, and weapons charges. By allowing offenders to remain in the community, continue regular employment, and complete non-paid order assignments, the state avoids the cost of imprisonment as well as the possible expense of supporting

defendants and providing sources of labor to voluntary social service agencies. A listing of suitable community-based work assignments and success and recidivism data are included.

305

Lowenberg, D. (1975). Pima County Attorney's Adult Diversion Project, second annual report. Tucson, AZ.

The Adult Diversion Project operated by the Pima County Attorney's Office requires that a large proportion of defendants make financial restitution and community service restitution for crime victims. The program operates at the pretrial, post arraignment level and involves primarily property offenders. Direct victim-defendant meetings are structured for the purpose of negotiating the amount of restitution to be made. The research design employed here was an after-only, non-experimental design. Data was collected as a routine part of project operations.

Major findings were:

- During 1976, 157 of 331 cases (47%) were accepted into the project.
- Approximately 86% of all defendants admitted to the project successfully completed their contract.
- Non-violent, non-drug offenses amounted to 72% of offenses, and 19% were misdemeanor offenses involving marijuana.
- Eighty-nine percent of defendants admitted to the program had no adult record.
- Victims were composed largely of businesses (60%), private citizens (25%), and public agencies (7%); 8% were victimless offenses.
- The mean restitution payment in felony cases was \$385.

306

Macri, A. (1978). Off days sentencing program. In J. Hudson & B. Galaway (Eds.), Offender restitution in theory and action (pp. 167-170). Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.

The Off Days Sentencing Program in Dade County, Florida, is described; adult misdemeanant offenders are sentenced to community service work.

307

Maestracci, N. (1986). Le travail d'interet general: The French option in substituting short-term imprisonment. In H. Albrecht & W. Schädler (Eds.), Criminological Research Reports: Vol. 25. Community service: A new option in punishing offenders in Europe (89-107). Freiburg, Germany: Max-Planck Institute.

Community service has been available to French courts as a penal measure since January 1984; the purpose of the law was to provide a credible alternative to short term

imprisonment, to avoid negative side effects of short term imprisonment, as well as the problem of overload in French prisons. Community service can be used as a sole sanction if the offender has no prior convictions within five years or it may be used as an additional condition of a suspended prison sentence. The offender must declare that he accepts the community service sentence. The range of hours is from 40 to 240 and must be completed within a period fixed by the court but not to exceed 18 months. Community service may also be used in the children's court for minors age 16 or 17 years; the range of hours is 20 to 120 hours and the order must be adapted to the juvenile's educational and rehabilitative needs. If the community service is not completed in the case of being used as a suspended sentence the court may revoke the suspension and order that the prison sentence be served; in the case of a sole sanction, the court may revoke the community service order and impose a new sentence. The community service program is administered by correctional courts and the probation service. Concerns related to community service are responsibility if the offender suffers a work place accident and responsibility for damage and harm caused by the offender during community service. The correctional administration is considered the employer for persons on community service as defined by French social security laws.

The cost of administering each community service order is between 100 and 300 franks which compares to the daily cost of maintaining a prisoner of 170 franks. In the first year (1984) 2,231 offenders were sentenced to community service, in 1985 the figure more than doubled to over 5,000 offenders. The most common offense is theft which accounts for 61% of the offenders. Other offenses, none of which achieved more than 6% of the total persons sentence, are driving without insurance, assault, drunken driving, receiving or concealing stolen goods, criminal damage or vandalism, and driving with out license. In 1984 the average number of community service hours was 103 but there is wide variation; 53% of the cases completed less than 80 hours, 6% of the offenders served the maximum of 240 hours. In 1984 14% of the offenders sentenced to community service failed to complete the sentence. 61% of the community service placements involved maintenance of public facilities, houses, parks and so forth. 95% of the offenders sentenced to community service are male, 36% are age 20 or less, and another 32% are between 21 to 25. 68% are unemployed at the time of their sentence. Half of the offenders sentenced to community service had a prior conviction. In the juvenile system, 122 offenders were sentenced to community service in the first year (1984); in the first half of 1985 an additional 165 orders were placed.

308

Maguire, M. (1984). Meeting the needs of burglary victims: Questions for the police and the criminal justice system. In R. Clark & T. Hope (Eds.), Coping with burglary (pp. 219-232). Boston, MA: Kluwer-Nijhoff.

Criminal justice services for burglary victims should include attention to the psychological impact of victimization, provision for victim participation in case processing, the facilitation of financial restitution or compensation, and other practical aid or advice.

Burglary victims commonly experience immediate shock or panic, fear about the offender returning, sleeping difficulty, reluctance to leave the house unguarded, and a feeling that their home has been contaminated. Police can relieve some of these effects by responding to the call within 30 minutes, adopting a sympathetic approach to the victim, spending time with the victim, explaining police actions to follow, and providing advice for making the home more secure. Following the initial contact, police should maintain a concerned attitude and conduct a thorough investigation. Greater involvement of burglary victims in case processing should include the opportunity to meet with the offender and develop a reparation agreement. Police should routinely collect information relevant to a compensation order, and police prosecutors should make compensation central in every case.

309

Maher, R. J., & Dufour, H. E. (1987). Experimenting with community service: A punitive alternative to imprisonment. Federal Probation, 51(3), 22-27.

Community service orders are a viable alternative to prison and considerable experience exists in England and the United States in the use of such programs. Experience with community service in the United States Probation Office, Northern District of Georgia is described and it is noted that probation departments are in a unique position to give direction to such community service schemes.

310

Maloney, D. (1979, September). Perspectives on state and local implementation. Paper presented at the Third International Symposium on Restitution, Duluth, MN.

Describes the organization and implementation of a statewide juvenile restitution effort in Wisconsin; also describes the evaluation research being conducted on this project and significant issues impacting on it.

311

Maloney, D., Gilbeau, D., Hofford, M., Remington, C., & Steenson, D. (1982). Juvenile restitution: Combining common sense and solid research to build an effective program. New Designs for Youth Development, (May-June, July-August), 3-8, 1-6.

An accountability model for dealing with delinquent youth involves victim-offender contracts and youth in clearly defined efforts to restore victim loss. Such a model will contribute to rehabilitation of the youth who will be treated as responsible person. Excuses for delinquent behavior are not accepted; staff are task managers hold youth accountable for completion of the restitution plan.

312

Marcus, M., Trudel, R. J., & Wheaton, R. J. (1975). Victim compensation and offender restitution: A selected bibliography. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice, National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice, National Criminal Justice Reference Service.

A listing of selected materials dealing with state compensation and victim-offender restitution.

313

Markham, G. R. (1981). A community service program for elderly offenders. Police Journal, 54, 235-238.

This article describes a special program of the Essex Police Department (England) which takes into account the elderly offender's medical and social status before a referral decision is made.

When an elderly person (60 years or older) is arrested or reported for a criminal offense in Essex, the police officer on the case notifies the community services branch, which assesses the seriousness of the offense and the circumstances of the accused. If the accused is considered 'at risk,' the branch officer can administer an immediate caution or seek authority to take no further action. The officer then contacts the offender's doctor, as well as voluntary and statutory agencies, to obtain help with the offender's problems. Referral to any agency or person is done only with the knowledge and consent of the elderly person. Reports are submitted to the superintendent of the Community Services Branch who ratifies the decision and reviews the action taken to help the offender. During the first 14 months of the program, 412 elderly offenders committed 421 criminal offenses in Essex. Of the 412 offenders dealt with, 65 were prosecuted, 316 were cautioned, and no further action was taken with 31 persons. Case examples are supplied.

314

Martin, S. E. (1981). Restitution and community service sentences: Promising sentencing alternative or passing fad? S. E. Martin, L. B. Sechrest, & R. Redner (Eds.), New directions in the rehabilitation of criminal offenders (pp. 470-496). Washington, DC: National Academy Press.

Examines the meaning, history, and theoretical bases for restitution; explores program issues and current knowledge about the implementation and effectiveness of restitution programs; describes current efforts to evaluate restitution programs funded by Law Enforcement Assistance Administration (LEAA) for both adults and juveniles; and raises further questions about restitution as a sentencing alternative and about the strategy for generating knowledge about it.

315

Martin, T. K. (1977, May). Restitution revisited: An old dog learning new tricks. Champaign, IL: National Clearinghouse for Criminal Justice Planning and Architecture

Restitution is considered from its historical background through its current usage in the criminal justice system. The author distinguishes between offender restitution and victim compensation programs. The variety of restitution formats are considered, including the victim's role in the restitution process. The resurgence of interest in restitution is linked to three factors: growing concern for equitable punishment of offenders, concern for cost-effective sanctions, and a need for improved perceptions of offender and the criminal justice system on the part of the general community. Finally, the programs included in the National Evaluation of Adult Restitution Initiative are described along with the goals of the research effort.

316

Mathews, K. E., & Geist, A. M. (1976, June). Seattle community accountability program: Crime impact and twelve month recidivism analysis. Seattle, WA: Seattle Law and Justice Planning Office.

The Seattle Community Accountability Program was established to reduce juvenile crime in selected target areas of the city. In conjunction with community accountability boards, the program was designed to achieve this goal through both direct and indirect effects upon juvenile offenders. The direct effect of preventing an offender from committing additional crimes was presumed to occur when individual youth were obliged to perform either financial or community service restitution for their offenses. The indirect effect of preventing others from committing crimes was presumed to occur by locating accountability boards within the program's census tract areas. The accountability boards were to deal with all of the juvenile offenders residing within designated areas of the city, regardless of where the actual offense may have occurred. It was assumed that knowledge of such a program would become known to the youths in the program areas and serve as a deterrent.

Three central questions were addressed by the study:

- Have reported residential burglary, larceny, and auto thefts decreased within the program areas as compared to the rest of the city?
- Have total juvenile contacts decreased within the program areas as compared to the rest of the city?
- Has juvenile involvement in the program resulted in lowered recidivism and how does such change relate to different program services and components?

Two major research procedures were used. In relation to the first and second objectives of the study, a non-equivalent control group design was used with the individual program area designated as the experimental group and the rest of the city of Seattle as the



control group. Pre-measures were taken for the period, September 1, 1972 through August 31, 1973. Comparisons were then made for the most recent twelve month period of program operations (May 1975 through April 1976). The third research objective was assessed on the basis of using actuarial predictions of recidivism in order to create a statistical control group to be used as a comparison with the experimental group. Data was collected from program records and official police records. Data analysis involved frequency distributions and chi square analysis.

Major findings were:

- The combined rate for reported burglary, auto theft, and larceny increased 7.2 In the total program areas compared with a 13.4 Increase in the city of Seattle minus the target areas. The differences were found between the program and non-program areas in reported burglary or auto theft. However, the increase of 9.2 In larceny in the program area was significantly different at the .05 level from the 19.3 increase in the non-program areas.
- The total number of juveniles contacted for crimes within two of the three program areas were down significantly. In the third program area of the city, juvenile contacts showed a non-significant increase, as compared to the rest of the city.
- Program client recidivism rates were significantly lower than comparisons with actuarial recidivism rates.

317

Mathieson, D. (1977). Community service--Impact for change. Justice of the Peace, 141, 730-731.

In its first five years as a sentencing option, the community service order scheme developed rapidly in British society. The community service order has filled the vacuum which the courts and general public believed existed between a custodial sentence and a probation order. The concept of reparation, which is so central to both the philosophy and practice of community service, could be the basis of new developments in penal reform over the next decade. The main criticism of community service at this stage is that while it should be both punitive and therapeutic, practice has turned it increasingly into an almost exclusively punitive measure. Perhaps the most remarkable achievement of community service is that it has confounded the longstanding negative stereotype of the offender; not only can offenders detract from the community, but they can also contribute something back if given the right opportunity.

318

McAnany, P. D. (1978). Restitution as idea and practice: The retributive process. In J. Hudson & B. Galaway (Eds.), Offender restitution in theory and action (pp. 15-31). Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.

The central question addressed is whether restitution can fit within a retributive framework of sentencing. While the two do fit, there are elements of both conception and practice that militate against an easy fit.

319

McCaldon, R. J. (1974). Reflections on sentencing. Canadian Journal of Criminology and Corrections, 16, 291-297.

In Canada the sentencing of criminals is singularly unimaginative, having only three dispositions: fine, probation, or incarceration. Formal psychotherapy or counseling is impractical in many cases. The unproven hypothesis that some therapeutic relationship or form of interpersonal treatment will cure an individual's propensity to crime is wishful thinking. Restitution should be the major therapeutic program in criminal justice. In Sweden, offenders are often sentenced to pay one-third of their wages to the state for a specified period of time. In England, young offenders recently have been sentenced to perform some public service (e.g., sweeping the streets). Such approaches are much better than retributive brutality. Compensating society for the harm an offender has caused without subjecting him to incarceration is more productive. Incarceration should be reserved for unstable, unwilling, and dangerous people; modern psychiatry can identify the most dangerous offenders.

320

McCarty, F. (1977). How one judge uses alternative sentencing. Judicature, 60, 316-317.

An example of how one judge uses both monetary and service restitution as a condition of probation with offenders.

321

McDonald, D. C. (1986). Punishment without walls: Community service sentences in New York City. New Brunswick, NJ: Rutgers University Press.

This study examines what happened when a new criminal sentence --an order to perform 70 hours of unpaid service to the community -- was introduced by the Vera Institute of Justice into three different New York City Courts between 1979 and 1981; Bronx, Brooklyn, and Manhattan. Offenders sentenced to community service work in these three projects were supervised by institute-employed foremen in small work teams. Site foremen were responsible for monitoring attendance, directing the work, and moving offenders from one work site to another during working hours. By the end of 1983, approximately 2400 offenders sentenced by the courts in the three burroughs had worked without pay for approximately 142,800 hours or the equivalent of approximately 78 man/years. The project aimed at drawing half of its participants from offenders who would otherwise have gone to jail for up to 90 days. The other half would include offenders not headed for jail but charged with offenses requiring some judicial response.

The community service requirement was formally imposed by the courts as part of a conditional discharge. The community service sentence was to be first and foremost the just desserts or punishment deserved by offenders because of their crimes.

It was found that throughout the projects' history, the vast majority of offenders completed their assigned community service obligations. Those few cases failing to complete their obligations generally were brought back to jail and received approximately 90 day jail terms.

Three questions formed the focus of the project's evaluation: would judges use the sanction as an alternative for jail sentences; what is the impact of the community service experience on the offender; do the benefits of community service outweigh the costs? It is concluded that the project was successful in its efforts to be used by the courts as a substitute for jail.

Offenders' views on the community service project were generally positive: almost none would have preferred a jail sentence; probation was also seen as less preferable; many would have preferred a fine, although the amount was an important issue; community service was seen as fair and was not seen as a means of making restitution to the offenders' victims. Community service was seen literally as doing work, simply because it was ordered by the courts as a penalty.

Approximately 40 to 50% of those in the sample of community service offenders were rearrested within six months of having been sentenced. Most of the new charges were for the same kinds of crimes that the offenders had been charged with in the past. Jailing these offenders, instead of ordering them to perform community service would not have been more effective in turning them away from crime. Once released from jail, people with backgrounds similar to the participants were also rearrested at almost identical rates as the participants in each of the boroughs. It is therefore concluded that the community service sentence exercises the same, if any, deterrent and rehabilitative effects on offenders as does a jail sentence. City wide, it is estimated that about 15 fewer arrests would have occurred for each 100 participants sentenced to the Vera project had the project not existed.

322

McDonald, D. C. (1982). When the defendant is too poor to pay a fine. The Judges' Journal, 21(1), 44-47.

This report describes three community service programs operated in New York City by the Vera Institute of Justice. The programs' screening criteria are designed to ensure that only convicted offenders are accepted and that this alternative is not used as an additional punishment for defendants who otherwise would have received lesser sentences. The Vera Institute established the Bronx Community Service Sentencing Project in 1978, a Brooklyn Criminal Court project in 1980, and a Manhattan program in 1981. Clients work in teams supervised directly by project personnel, 70 hours,

generally on a full-time basis. Most clients are unskilled and unemployed. They sweep, mop, move furniture, sort clothes, remove rubble, paint building interiors, install smoke alarms, and do other tasks for public or private nonprofit agencies. Although agencies and the offenders have had positive responses to the program; between 10 and 15% of the participants fail, usually by not showing up for work. Each project has a full-time service broker who helps the participants find jobs and other needed services. The Vera Institute is developing a method to determine the savings from averted jail use. The program incurs costs and must compete for the same limited funds as jails. Among the many unanswered questions concerning restitution sentencing are whether offenders perceive that they are making amends for the suffering they have caused and whether the sentence serves as an effective crime control tool.

323

McDonald, W. F. (1978). Expanding the victim's role in the disposition decision: Reform in search of a rationale. In J. Hudson & B. Galaway (Eds.), Offender restitution in theory and action (pp. 101-109). Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.

The issue of victim involvement is assessed in relation to sentencing and dispute settlement procedures, as well as within formal criminal justice dispositional processes.

324

McKinney, M., Rhodes, C., & Dobmeyer, T. (1980, August). Perceptions of the juvenile restitution project: Results of a survey of the juvenile division and the juvenile court. Minneapolis: Walker Associates.

The Hennepin County (Minneapolis) Juvenile Restitution Project was established in March, 1979, to provide monetary restitution and community service restitution sanctions to juvenile offenders. The project constitutes a special unit within the Hennepin County Juvenile Court. During the summer, 1980, interviews were conducted with the five juvenile court judges, and questionnaires were used with the probation staff, including supervisors, to determine their views regarding the project. Both the judges and probation staff saw the restitution project as providing a useful dispositional alternative, indicated that public officials within the juvenile justice system had favorable opinions of the project, and perceived that staff contacts with victims and holding juvenile offenders accountable were the primary strengths of the project. More staff contact with victims and increasing the number of work sites available to juvenile offenders were perceived as the major necessary changes. There was disagreement between the judges and juvenile court staff concerning responsibility for implementing restitution orders with the judges tending to perceive that this should be a joint responsibility between the probation staff and the restitution project staff, whereas the juvenile probation staff could not agree on the placement of this responsibility.

325

McKnight, D. J. (1981). The victim-offender reconciliation project. In J. Hudson & B. Galaway (Eds.), Perspectives on crime victims (pp. 292-298). St. Louis, MO: C. V. Mosby.

Description of the Victim Offender Reconciliation Project (VORP) located in Kitchener, Ontario, Canada. Both adult and juvenile offenders were referred to the project by either the court or the probation office. Project staff would act as a third party and mediate community service and/or restitution agreements between offenders and victims. Staff would also promote reconciliation between the parties. The article presents both the experiences encountered and data collected over the pilot stage of the project (Fall, 1975 - June, 1976). Discussion topics include victim-offender meetings, offender motivation, and problem areas in the reconciliation process.

326

McLagan, J. (1988, June). Sentencing to service: A project of the Minnesota Department of Corrections and the Minnesota Department of Natural Resources. Paper presented at the International Symposium of Restitution and Community Service Sentencing, Minneapolis, MN.

The 1986 sentencing to service program was started in Minnesota as a cooperative effort between the Department of Corrections. Non dangerous adult offenders are assigned to work crews to do conservation work usually on Department of Natural Resources property. Crew leaders are salaried. The program is intended as an alternative to jail or fine. Offenders typically return to jail at night but receive some decrease in the jail sentence for every day of work provided. There are several risks in the program which must be guarded against including using community service as an add on sanction, developing a chain gang orientation, finding financial support (it cost about \$40,000 per year to maintain a crew), potential threat to union employees, and it may be easier to place offenders on the program than order monetary restitution to crime victims. The program was initially funded with foundation grants and is currently receiving an appropriation from the state legislature.

327

McLaughlin, A. (1983). An analysis of victims--Victim witness needs in Yukon. Unpublished report, Yukon Department of Justice.

Reports the results of a survey of crime victim needs in the Yukon Territory. This Territory lies in the extreme northwest corner of Canada with a population of approximately 24,000 people spread over 204,000 square miles. The survey found that crime victims overwhelmingly wanted some form of restitution for the losses sustained and many supported the concept of community service work, either for those who could not pay or in conjunction with restitution. Over half the respondents noted that the best sentences for property crimes involved restitution, as compared to straight probation or

jail. Of the respondents who had experience with restitution, the most common observation was that it had not been received and, in reference to community service work, comments generally noted that it had not been done. Dissatisfaction was evident in respect to the perceived lack of enforcement of restitution orders. In the Yukon in 1981-82 in adult courts, there were 191 probation orders made that ordered restitution and 230 ordering community service work. Together, these represented over half of all cases in which probation had been ordered. No data is available about the number of instances in which restitution ordered had not been paid. In respect to community service work, probation officers reported an 80% completion rate. In the largest community, Whitehorse, there has been little reported problem at finding suitable community work placements. Outside of Whitehorse, the situation varied significantly from one community to another. Conclusions made by the study are that the public supports the concept of restitution as appropriate redress for crimes but there remains some degree of inconsistency within the justice system in respect to methods used for determining the amount of restitution to be paid, the lack of feedback to the victim about the restitution order, the basis for the order and subsequent compliance. Recommendations made include the police, crown attorney and probation officer developing a policy for routine consultation with victims in respect to the actual financial losses or damages sustained; victims receiving information about the rationale for the amount of restitution ordered being less than the estimated loss; exploring the possibility of victims being paid restitution directly by the court.

328

McWilliams, B., & Murphy, N. (1980). Breach of community service. In K. Pease and W. McWilliams (Eds.), Community service by order (pp. 92-114). Edinburgh: Scottish Academic Press.

Describes the types of actions taken for breaches of community service orders in the British scheme. Describes a specific probation and after-care area where conscious decisions were made to adopt a new policy on breaching and describes a "last resort" model of breach decisions and suggests a topological approach to the breaching process.

329

McWilliams, W. (1980). Selection policies for community service: Practice and theory. In K. Pease and W. McWilliams (Eds.), Community service by order (pp. 43-60). Edinburgh: Scottish Academic Press

Describes policy and practices in respect to selecting offenders for community service in the British scheme. Presents a case study of a probation area that set up a community service scheme and identifies differences between selection practices and selection policies. A theoretical explanation is then presented as to why the differences were found to occur. It is concluded that the policy in the British community service scheme in relation to selection for service moved through three fairly distinct phases. First, a central policy was articulated in general terms at a senior management level; the policy

was then interpreted in a variety of ways at the operational level; the policy was then reformulated and functionally justified.

330

McWilliams, W., & Pease, K. (1980). Models of man and community service. In K. Pease and W. McWilliams (Eds.), Community service by order (pp. 14-26). Edinburgh: Scottish Academic Press.

Examines the ways in which community service orders engage with conceptions of man current in the practice of the criminal justice system generally, and with clients of the probation service in particular--what are the concepts of the offender implicit in the philosophy and practice of community service? Notes that the community service scheme has placed an emphasis on the view that the offender has the capacity to act responsibly, make reasoned choices and function as a free moral actor. This view comes through at each of the three stages in the community service process--determining the suitability of an offender for the scheme, choosing work placements, assessing the performance of work done. This is reflected by the offender's selection of community service, choice of work placements and the punishment provided if there is failure to work.

331

McWilliams, W., & Pease, K. (1980). The future of community service. In K. Pease and W. McWilliams (Eds.), Community service by order (pp. 136-143). Edinburgh: Scottish Academic Press.

Presents an number of alternative futures for community service in Britain. Among the scenarios presented are those of the bureaucratization of the scheme, probationisation, penalisation and standardization. It is concluded that several of these alternatives can well coexist in different areas of the country at the same time, largely as a result of the discretion available to those who operate local community service schemes.

332

Medendorf, E., Wrightson, J., & Asplund, A. (1982). Community service development process--Victim service and mediation (Audio Cassette). Reno, NV: National Council of Juvenile and Family Court Judges.

One presentation provides guidelines for the development of community service orders for juveniles based on the experience of Oklahoma County, OK., and another speaker describes the process used in Maryland whereby youth participate in the selection of and the development of their community service work.

333

Medler, J. F., Schneider, P. R., & Schneider, A. L. (1981). Statistical power analysis and experimental field research: Some examples from the national juvenile restitution evaluation. Evaluation Review, 5, 834-850.

The application of statistical power analysis (determining the probability that a significant effect can be found when an effect actually exists) to field experiments in which subjects 'trickle in' through a case flow process is discussed.

334

Menzies, K. (1986). The rapid spread of community service orders in Ontario. Canadian Journal of Criminology, 28, 157-169.

Between 1977-78 and the 1982-83 fiscal years, community service orders increased from being a condition of less than 1% of probation orders in the province of Ontario to being a condition attached to approximately one third of probation orders (from 206 orders to over 11,000). Judicial activism introduced community service orders and then helped their spread. The Ministry of Correctional Services policy of privatization created a group of people (community service order coordinators and their employing organizations) whose ideology and self-interest led them to mobilize various potentially interested parties on behalf of this sentencing option. The reorganization of the Ministry of Correctional Services created interests for different groups of bureaucrats to expand the community service program. The spread of community service orders is not the result of their capacity to reduce the jail population, for they have not, even though this was initially a central justification for them by the government. Instead, the rapid spread of community service orders is a result of judges, the private agencies running the community service order program, the Ministry of Correctional Services, and politicians all defining the situation in ways that produced a conjunction of ideology and self-interest in support of the community service order program.

335

Merritt, F. S. (1984). Corrections law developments: Community restitution--An alternative disposition for corporate offenders. Criminal Law Bulletin, 20, 355-360.

Community restitution sentences the corporate offender to payment of a fine. Payment of that fine is suspended and the corporation is placed on probation on the condition that it make specified payments to certain 'charitable' organizations. The eighth circuit on appeal, taking a contrary position to that adopted by the tenth circuit, found that the provisions of 18 U.S.C. #3815, providing for restitution as a condition of probation, did not limit the ability of the trial court to impose a monetary condition of probation. A factor that bears upon the eighth circuit's break with tradition is the development of probation for corporations. Another major change in judicial attitude supporting the eighth circuit was the acceptance of community service as a condition of probation. Cases subsequent to the eighth circuit's decision generally reject the tenth circuit's



approach and permit the imposition of an order of community restitution for corporate offenders. Unless the Supreme Court intervenes, it is reasonable to assume that community restitution will become an accepted alternative for the disposition of corporate offenders.

336

Michigan Sheriff's Association Jail Resource Center. (1986). Washtenaw county community work program--Washtenaw county sheriff's department. Lansing, MI: Michigan Sheriff's Association Jail Resource Center.

The Washtenaw County, MI Community Work Program is a sentencing alternative through which offenders live at home and maintain their employment while completing assigned community service work.

The program replaces jail sentences. Most participants are first offenders and misdemeanants. The program costs \$100,000 per year and produces more than \$1 million in benefits, including savings of jail costs, rental of jail beds to other law enforcement agencies, and services to the community. In December 1985, offenders provided 533 days of community work. Most participants go directly to the program and spend no time in jail. District and circuit court judges place people in the program according to the individual's disposition, character, and prior records. Offenders entering the program from jail receive careful background investigations. The program includes extensive supervision and careful record keeping. Both governmental and nonprofit agencies use the offenders' services. Participants' jobs include roadside litter collection, brush cutting, street sweeping, and clerical work.

337

Midwest Research Institute. (1978, December). Restitution criteria. Kansas City, MO: Paper developed for Law Enforcement Assistance Administration (LEAA).

Criteria developed to guide LEAA funding decisions regarding restitution projects: topics covered include program definition, offender status, offender screening, offender rights, victim involvement, and insurance. Specific definitions and measurements are recommended in each area.

338

Miller, C. A. (1979, September). Paper presented at the Third International Symposium on Restitution, Duluth, MN.

Describes the Juvenile Restitution Project recently established in the Fourth Judicial District in Idaho.

Millham, S., Bullock, R., Haak, M., Hosie, K., & Mitchell, L. (1980). Give and take-A study of community service volunteers project for young people in care. London: Community Service Volunteers.

England's Community Service Volunteers (CSV) program, which provides for juvenile offenders to work voluntarily in ancillary roles to care for children, the elderly, and the handicapped, has been found to be successful in facilitating a juvenile's subsequent integration into the community and reduction in delinquent behavior.

During the first 3 years of the project, 432 juveniles were referred by social workers for placement. Since there are no selection criteria, all were accepted, but a small percentage withdrew before placement, usually because they had secured employment. Most of those referred were female (63%) aged 15 or 16 at time of referral. Those referred were found to be much more likely to be emotionally unstable and under stress than other juveniles under care. The CSV program is intended to provide work and social-skill development for juveniles who are unemployed or having trouble at school. Of the 432 volunteers referred to the program, 349 worked, and 75% of these remained in their first placements for the duration of their community service experience. Efforts to match adolescents to work situations proved unnecessary because of the ability of the participants to adjust to a wide variety of placements. The evaluation of the program included a survey of all participants 9 months after they had completed their last placement. A questionnaire asking about the juvenile's present circumstances was also sent to the supervising social worker. In all, 230 participants were eligible for study, and 166 social-worker questionnaires were completed (72% response rate). Nine months after leaving the program, 84% of the juveniles were living in the community. Comparing this situation to the sample's living situation at the time of referral shows an encouraging move toward independence in the community. To assess the impact of the project on offending, convictions incurred within 6 months of leaving the program were determined. Forty-three percent of the 'serious offender' boys and 33% of the girls in the program committed an offense either while in the program or within 6 months of leaving. These rates compare well with institutionalized juveniles' post-release recidivism, although the number of youth involved is not large enough to make comparison conclusive. Reoffending rates were more encouraging for less criminally experienced youth, as only 29% of the boys and 13% of the girls with less than six convictions prior to referral committed an offense within 6 months of leaving the program. While the results of the evaluation are not conclusive, it appears that the CSV project has helped some serious offenders as much and perhaps more than institutionalization.

Minnesota Department of Corrections. (1978). Minnesota Restitution Unit. St. Paul, MN: Minnesota Department of Corrections.

With the closing of the Minnesota Restitution Center in 1976 due to lack of residents, the focus on restitution within the Minnesota Department of Corrections changed. The

number of restitution program staff was reduced and the responsibility changed from developing restitution agreements and supervising offenders on parole to developing restitution agreements with responsibility for parole supervision left to the assigned parole officer. The offender population eligible for the restitution program expanded from property offenders in a seven-county metropolitan area to property offenders in state prisons or reformatories anywhere in Minnesota. The victim-offender involvement in reaching restitution agreements was dropped, and inmates who developed agreements in cooperation with program staff now are released on conventional parole. In addition to these program changes, the Corrections Department formed a restitution unit to develop and maintain a clearinghouse of restitution literature, to undertake restitution research, and to train and lend technical assistance to local units of government interested in restitution programs statewide. The Minnesota Corrections Board adopted a matrix system designed to eliminate inconsistencies in paroling decisions, and the Corrections Department began a pilot program to assist minimum security prisoners with the process of community reintegration and to enable offenders to pay restitution debts by employing them as conservation workers on state-controlled projects.

341

Minnesota Department of Corrections. (1976, May). Interim evaluation results: Minnesota Restitution Center. St. Paul, MN: Minnesota Department of Corrections.

The second research report issued on the Restitution Center Program by the Department of Corrections. An after-only field experiment was implemented concurrent with the program. Offenders admitted to the state prison who met specified criteria were randomly assigned to either the control (prison) or experimental (restitution center) groups. Between May, 1972, and March, 1974, 144 men met the program criteria and 69 were randomly assigned to the control group and remained in prison to complete that program prior to release on either parole or flat discharge. A total of 75 men were randomly assigned to the experimental group. Of the experimentals, four declined the opportunity to develop restitution agreements and nine were denied release to the center by the paroling authority. Sixty-two members of the experimental group were actually admitted to the center.

The largest proportion of financial restitution obligations held by the experimental group members admitted to the program totaled \$200 or less; the total obligated amount of monetary restitution was \$16,934.99, and of this amount, \$9,459.10 was paid as of August 1, 1975, while 1,084 hours of community service restitution was obligated during this time and 372.2 hours completed as of August 1, 1975. A larger proportion of control group members as compared to experimenters had received paroled discharge and new court commitments eighteen months following prison admission, while a larger proportion of experimenters had been returned to prison on technical parole violations. Because the members of the two groups had variable at-risk periods of time in the community, the differences noted may be a function of time in the community. Experimentals as compared to controls served significantly shorter periods of time in prison and significantly longer periods on parole as of August 1, 1975. For the experimentals and

controls discharged from parole as of August 1, 1975, the experimental group members had served significantly longer overall (prison and parole) time periods under supervision than had the controls.

342

Minnesota Legislature. (1980). Report of the senate select committee on juvenile justice. St. Paul, MN: Minnesota Legislature.

Minnesota's Select Committee on Juvenile Justice developed recommendations on restitution and fines, parental liability, status offenders, due process, and serious offenders. Overall, the Committee encourages the continuation and State financial support of restitution programs.

343

Minnesota State Planning Agency Criminal Justice Program. (1982). Repairing the damage: A Juvenile Restitution Guide. St. Paul, MN: Minnesota State Planning Agency.

This guide will assist communities to design and implement restitution programs. Purposes must be clear, and decisions should be made about the extent that purposes relate to benefiting the offender, the victim, or the juvenile justice system. Decisions are required regarding program goals, offender eligibility, type of compensation to be required (money payments to victim, direct services to victim, compensatory service, and symbolic service). An insurance model and a negotiation model are identified as ways of assessing restitution. Procedures for determining the amount of payment, encouraging victim participation, developing restitution contracts, collecting and disbursement of restitution payments, and evaluating restitution programs are discussed.

344

Morash, M. (1977, June). Characteristics of community organizations that develop positive ties with juvenile misdemeanants: Implications for implementing and replicating the community arbitration program. Paper prepared as part of the evaluation of C.A.P., Anne Arundel County, MD.

This research was conducted as part of the evaluation of the Community Arbitration Program in Anne Arundel County, Maryland. Through the Community Arbitration Program, juvenile offenders were diverted from court to community agencies for counseling and/or to community organizations to complete service restitution requirements. The qualitative and exploratory study considered here was intended to provide evidence for the arbitration staff and for individuals who were interested in replicating the model used by the Arbitration Program.

Six agencies offering counseling services and six providing work placements for youth were included in the study. The twelve organizations were selected from a population of all organizations to which arbitration staff refer. The specific programs chosen for study were selected after staff completed a process of ranking the best and worst organizations in the counseling category and the work site category. After an average ranking was calculated the three best counseling agencies, the three worst counseling agencies, the three best work sites, and the three worst work sites were selected. Staff members from the twelve organizations were interviewed by means of a series of multiple choice and open ended questions about the goals and functions of their organizations in working with youths, the type of relationship that was formed between adults and youths, the type of relationship that was formed between adults and youths, the level of the organizations resources, the degree to which the organizations provided different types of youths access to their programs, and incentives and disincentives for organizations to become involved with lawbreaking youths.

Data analysis consisted of a search for patterns of answers that could be related to the organizations rank of high or low. The findings of the study indicated there would be limitations in replicating the community arbitration program. Although resources in the form of organizations willing to work with offenders are necessary for the success of such a program, the study suggested work sites most conducive to youth-organization ties had the most stringent screening standards, and the best counseling agencies were those most often opposed by the other community groups. However, the characteristics found associated with good work sites are not rare: some professional staff; few clients referred by the courts; a priority placed on job-related rather than correctional objectives; a goal of providing service to some disadvantaged population; and a volunteer program that is unrelated to the justice system.

345

Morgan, C., & Ruffles, M. (1980). Community service and community agencies. In K. Pease and W. McWilliams (Eds.), Community service by order (pp. 61-74). Edinburgh: Scottish Academic Press.

Describes the way in which the British community scheme operated in different communities and with a variety of community groups. Notes that at the simplest level, the provision of work placements put the probation service into a wider range of contexts with outside groups, changes the nature of the agencies involved in the scheme by allowing a range and type of operations that were not previously considered by them.

346

Morrish, P. (1975). Community service orders. Justice of the Peace, 139, 269-272.

A summary of the relevant law pertaining to community service orders as expanded to be available to all areas of England and

Wales as of April 1, 1975. Topics include: objects of community service; the community service order; assessment of offender for community service; procedure upon making the order; breach of requirements; amendment or revocation of a community service order; types of tasks selected; type of offender.

347

Mowatt, R. M. (1976). The Minnesota Restitution Center: Paying off the ripped off. In J. Hudson & B. Galaway (Eds.), Restitution in criminal justice. St. Paul, MN: Minnesota Department of Corrections.

Describes the operations of the Restitution Center Program and provides empirical data for a 36 month period (August, 1972 -July 31, 1975).

348

Mowrer, O. H. (1978). Applications and limitations of restitution. In J. Hudson & B. Galaway (Eds.), Offender restitution in theory and action (pp. 67-71). Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.

The concept of restitution is assessed from the perspective of dealing with children. Management methods often used with children are not very different from those used with convicted persons. Instead of retaliatory punishment we need to rely more on logical consequences and restitution can be a useful type of consequence. The Alcoholics Anonymous program is an example.

349

Mowrer, O. H. (1975). Loss and recovery of community. In J. Hudson & B. Galaway (Eds.), Considering the victim (pp. 265-283), Springfield, IL: Thomas.

Traces the central ingredients of the "Integrity therapy" approach to changing behavior. Psychopathology is seen as a result of one's own socially irresponsible behavior which has been kept hidden from others. The emphasis is placed upon wrong behavior and the role of ignorance as compared to traditional approaches which stress the place of wrong emotions or feelings and the role of illness. The helping person is seen as a teacher more than a treator. The central conditions for change in behavior are viewed as self-disclosure and restitution.

350

Multnomah County District Court. (Undated). Alternative community service programs. Program Brochure, Portland, OR.

An alternative community service program was established in Multnomah County, Oregon, in 1972 and is coordinated by one staff person. More than 1,000 persons

participated in the first year of the program's operation. More than 200 community agencies are used for placement.

351

Murzynowski, A. (1970). Reparation as an element of the new penal policy. Panstwoi Prawo, 25, 711-726.

More diversified forms of punishment should greatly contribute to reducing the number of prison sentences--hitherto used too often, chiefly because of the lack of satisfactory alternative penalties. Reparations to be made by the accused for the damage caused may reduce the frequency of prison sentences. Reparation can be made in three principal forms:

- Restoration of, or compensation for the damage done;
- Redressing the wrong caused;
- Financial and/or personal services for public benefit, as an indirect form of compensation for the harm done.

Penal policy should evolve towards a gradual elimination of prison sentences in favors of the accused's being charged with the duty to compensate for the effects of his offense by various forms of service--financial and non-financial--on behalf of the injured party or a public fund. To this end, penal and civil consequences of an offense should be jointly adjudged in one criminal suit, use being extensively made of the civil by-claim. As a result any divergence between the judgments of civil and criminal courts might be eliminated. At present a lot can be done along these lines by the public prosecutor more frequently making a civil claim on behalf of the injured, or by practically helping the injured with his civil by-claim within criminal proceedings.

352

Nader, L., & Combs-Schilling, E. (1977). Restitution in cross-cultural perspective. In J. Hudson & B. Galaway (Eds.), Restitution in criminal justice (pp. 27-44). Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.

Illustrates how restitution works in non-western societies, the aims and purposes of it, and its variations.

353

Nakamura, A., & Fujimoto, R. (1979, December). Community service sentencing in Hawaii: A descriptive study. Honolulu, HI: State of Hawaii, The Judiciary.

A study requested by the state legislature to ascertain the ability of community service to provide staff for public projects, relationships to other sanctioning, implementation issues, and possible legislative change. Offender demographic data were analyzed for all offenders (699) ordered to community service during the period of June 30, 1978

through May 31, 1979. The second part of the study involved the collection and analysis of questionnaire and interview data from offenders, judges, and representatives of agencies which were the recipients of community service. No effort was made to study recidivism. Data was also not presented regarding the rate of program completion.

Most of the offenders ordered to community service came from the misdemeanor level district court (548 offenders); 102 came from family court, and 49 from circuit courts. District courts ordered an average of 27.5 hours of community service, the family courts an average of 19, and the circuit courts an average of 65. The largest group of offenders receiving service were traffic offenders (235), with the second largest being persons who committed crimes against property (153). Most of the community service offenders were male (524) and most were in the 18-30 age range (368).

Community service was thought to be useful to provide manpower for public service work, but it was not generally perceived as an appropriate method of providing employment training except, possibly, for a few juveniles. The sanction was used predominantly in combination with other sanctions; for the district court cases (misdemeanants), only 11% of the offenders received just a community service sanction. Community service was most frequently combined with a fine or traffic points which could lead to suspension of driver's license. Typically judges did not view community service as an alternative to incarceration. Initially offenders reported that they tended to be neutral about the community service requirement; about an equal number reported positive or negative initial reactions, although the majority reported that their initial reactions were neutral. After being involved with community service, a substantial majority reported that they were satisfied with a community service placement, that the work was not wasteful of time and energy, that the work helped them to better understand the community, and that they felt good about the community service program. The offenders did not believe, however, that they developed useful employment skills from the community service opportunity. The agencies receiving community service offenders were generally satisfied with the program, as were the judges.

354

National Association of Probation Officers. (1981). Community service orders--Practice and philosophy. Surrey, England: National Association of Probation Officers.

Community service orders represent approximately 10% of probation departments' caseloads, but often the work is carried out by paraprofessional rather than regular staff. Findings of a survey of 29 community service programs show the typical community service offender to be a male, 17 to 20 years old, who was convicted of a property crime but had not previously received a custodial sentence. In most areas program success is measured by the offender's completion of the community service order; by this standard the success rate is approximately 80%. Most schemes assign offenders to manual tasks and other practical work in playgrounds, homes for the elderly, and other community service settings, or in improvement of public property such as parks and museums. Major administrative problems include requirements for a specialized staff,



organizational separation from the overall operation of the Probation Service, and discontent among paraprofessionals who wish higher pay and more career opportunities. Despite these and other problems, the Probation Service is expected to continue administering community service orders, perhaps as one of several specialized departments. Public attitudes toward community service have been very favorable. However, it was found that community service orders are used primarily as alternatives to noncustodial sentences, and thus have failed to make dramatic reductions in the prison population. Variations in the way community service operates is attributed to the different weight accorded its three justifications -- punishment, rehabilitation, and reparation. The debate about its position in the sentencing tariff, in particular the urgent issue of whether community service should be seen only as an alternative to prison, is closely bound up with these three stances.

355

National Associations Active in Criminal Justice. (1985). Criminal justice and victim-offender-community reconciliation. Ottawa, ON: National Associations Active in Criminal Justice.

A report based on a seminar dealing with criminal justice and victim-offender-community reconciliation held in September, 1985 in Ottawa, Canada. Reconciliation was presented as a new paradigm for crime that can be characterized as "restorative justice," in which crime is seen as conflict, with interpersonal dimensions. Emphasis is given to attending to the human needs that must be met and this requires a new learning process for all parties involved -- victims, offenders, communities, and justice system officials. Obstacles to reconciliation are identified and discussed. An overview of current programs fostering reconciliation in communities and in institutions is presented, including mediation, restitution, community service, victim, offender and community sensitization to each other, and victim-offender trauma assistance. Examination was given to the question of reconciliation within correctional institutions and how principles can be applied in prison systems.

356

National Center for State Courts Institute for Court Management. (1988). Restitution improvement curriculum: A guidebook for juvenile restitution workshop planners. Williamsburg, VA: National Center for State Courts Institute for Court Management.

This guide to planning, organizing, and presenting conferences and workshops on juvenile restitution provides detailed outlines on 18 topical restitution issues.

Among the issues outlined are a national overview of juvenile restitution programs, creative funding for restitution programs, restitution programming in a private agency, restitution policy and procedures, and the determination of restitution program philosophy. The outline for each module contains the estimated time to present the module, a short summary of what the module is about and what the participants will gain, subtopics with time allotments, and program materials.

357

National Institute of Justice. (1985). Community work service--Dakota county district court demonstration project final report and guide. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice, National Institute of Justice.

The Dakota County (Minnesota) Work Service Demonstration Project was a cost-effective alternative to incarceration and demonstrated the feasibility of using community service work sanctions with adult felons and misdemeanants.

Most of the 61 participants were first-time offenders. The sentence completion rate was higher for first-time offenders (64%) than for repeat offenders (28%). Nonprofit agency placements had a higher completion rate than those in public agencies. Offenders perceived the community service sentence as more or equally fair relative to their specific original sentence. Total program cost was \$32,926, a cost of \$365.84 per client; this cost was less than the cost of traditional sentences for the same offense. In implementing similar programs, preliminary planning requires a consideration of program viability and the identification of clear objectives.

358

National Institute on Drug Abuse. (1980). Project scout: Involving drug abusing offenders in community services for senior citizens. Project connection best strategy #6. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.

Description of the development and implementation of a project for drug abusing offenders residing in a residential facility who are involved in providing community services to senior citizens in their neighborhood. The provision of services has therapeutic value to the offenders as well as assisting them in maintaining community and neighborhood contacts. The community services are provided in cooperation with the police and include activities like shopping, escort services, delivering meals, and phone alerts to check on the health condition of isolated senior citizens. In addition to its possible therapeutic value, the project "can help reverse traditionally adversarial relationships within the community by promoting mutual understanding and respect between two groups that generally have little contact with each other." The major initial obstacle in implementing the program came not from the community but rather from resistance on the part of treatment staff who were fearful that the community service might displace more traditional forms of treatment.

359

Native Counselling Services of Alberta. (1982). Creating a monster: Issues in community program control. Canadian Journal of Criminology, 24, 323-328.

NCSA began a diversion program in 1977 to divert adult and juvenile offenders from the formal justice systems to community programs involving meetings with victims, restitution, and service for the community. The program which was intended to be flexible, innovative, and educational, and to involve considerable community input became another arm of the formal justice system because of the unreasonable control exercised by criminal justice agencies both in terms of defining who was eligible for diversion and controlling specific diversion decisions. A community-based program must have control firmly in the community and the private agency administering the program, not in the formal agencies of criminal justice.

360

New York Department of Correctional Services. (1977). Restitution center concept as a part of the criminal justice system. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice.

The feasibility of establishing restitution centers as an alternative means of dealing with property offenses in New York State is considered. Restitution Centers are halfway houses for offenders and have been implemented in Georgia and Minnesota as an alternative to incarceration and/or probation for such offenses as burglary, unauthorized use of a motor vehicle, forgery, and fraud. A formal contract is drawn up between the offender and the victim; the contract details a satisfactory restitution settlement which the offender agrees to pay the victim. The offender also agrees to find employment in order to fulfill the contract and to support him or herself and dependents. Case histories of restitution centers in Georgia and Minnesota are presented, as are statistics of New York's non-violent offenders who would be candidates for restitution center referral. It is estimated that the introduction of restitution facilities could reduce the state's inmate population by 14%. Corrections costs in New York and possible savings from a restitution program are considered, and the cost effectiveness of a restitution program is projected. It is estimated that a restitution program could save the state \$3,865 per individual offender per year. Recommendations for establishing a restitution program in New York cover planning, program philosophy and intent, target population, client selection, cost effectiveness, research design, community involvement, and flexibility. Correspondence is appended.

361

New York State Senate Minority Task Force on Criminal Justice. (1980). Criminals must pay: Restitution in New York state (Report of the New York State Senate Minority Task Force on Criminal Justice). Albany, NY: New York State Senate Minority Task Force on Criminal Justice.

This report examines the infrequent use of restitution and community service work by both juvenile and adult courts in New York and compares it to the more extensive and successful use in other States; legislative and administrative recommendations are made. In 1978, less than 4% of the juveniles arrested for property offenses paid restitution through the family court. Moreover, the New York City Family Court has no formal

restitution program. This sparse use of restitution contrasts with one recent national survey which found that 70% of all juvenile court property cases resulted in a restitution order. In 1978 in New York City, restitution was only ordered in 4% of adult property offense cases. A presumption of restitution, including a community service work alternative, should be a condition of probation or discharge for all convicted juvenile and adult property offenders. Standard procedures should be established for imposing a restitution sentence, determining the amount, and dealing with the nonpayment. Additional recommendations cover the use of Federal funds and call for collection and reporting procedures for these cases. Tabular data are provided.

362

New Zealand Department of Justice. (1984). Community service orders in New Zealand--Summary. Wellington, NZ: New Zealand Department of Justice.

This summary report provides statistics on community service orders in New Zealand between 1981 and 1983 and highlights of a survey of 42 probation officers, 65 community sponsors, 68 offenders, and 11 judges regarding implementation of the community service sentence.

Figures on 1,534 people, approximately half of all those who received a community service sentence during the first 21 months of its use, show that most were young and had committed property or traffic offenses. The average sentence was 89 hours. While most individuals involved in community service orders had positive attitudes, the survey identified several problem areas. For example, many offenders did not appear to be in a position to give a well-informed consent to the community service sentence. A common problem for sponsors was poor attendance, while finding it hard to put in hours was the most common difficulty for offenders. About three-quarters of all placements made with the sponsors interviewed had either been completed successfully or were still in progress at the time of the survey. Probation officers suggested improvements in the area of administration, sponsors wanted better liaison with placement officials and clearer instructions, and offenders wanted more variety in jobs, especially skilled, meaningful, and educational work. A study of offenders sentenced to community service compared to those given nonresidential periodic detention concluded that for people with the same likelihood of re-offending prior to sentencing, there is unlikely to be any difference in reconviction rates following community service as opposed to periodic detention.

363

New Zealand Department of Justice. (1981). Opportunities for service--A guide to groups sponsoring offenders. Wellington, NZ: New Zealand Department of Justice.

In a question and answer format, this booklet provides information on the community service sentence for sponsoring organizations in New Zealand. Topics covered include the goals and mechanisms for such sentences, offender-group matching, appropriate services to be performed by offenders, and supervision of offenders. The role of the

probation department also is delineated, as are the procedures for cooperation between the department and sponsoring organizations. Guidelines also are provided for dealing with special problems such as record keeping, rule infractions, accidents, and expenses associated with provision of community service.

364

Newton, A. (1979). Sentencing to community service and restitution. Criminal Justice Abstracts, 11, 435-468.

This article provides an update on restitution and community service sanctions from an earlier article by the author: "Alternatives to imprisonment--day fines, community service orders, and restitution," Crime and Delinquency Literature, 8:1, 1976, pp. 109-25. In this article the author summarizes recent legislation and presents a number of program examples in the area of both community service and restitution. Programmatic issues and cost effectiveness are briefly discussed.

365

Newton, A. (1976). Aid to the victim, Part 1: Compensation and restitution. Crime and Delinquency Literature, 8, 368-390.

The first of a two-part series on victims and services, this paper discusses the two major types of financial aid provided to innocent crime victims--compensation paid by the state and restitution paid by the offender. A brief overview of compensation schemes in eleven American states, including highlights of the New York Program, is followed by an examination of the elements of a model compensation program. A discussion of offender restitution in the U.S. focuses on the Minnesota Restitution Center, which uses restitution as a condition of probation; the Georgia Restitution Program, which functions as a diversionary alternative for probationers and parolees; and the Iowa Restitution in Probation Experiment, which utilizes restitution as a condition of probation or deferred sentences.

366

Newton, A. (1976). Alternatives to imprisonment: Day fines, community service orders, and restitution. Crime and Delinquency Literature, 8, 109-125.

This paper defines and analyzes various alternatives to imprisonment and presents information on the utilization, effectiveness, and administration. Examples of such punishments as fines, community service orders, and restitution are drawn from the United States, Sweden, West Germany, and Great Britain. Methods of applying these punishments are noted, and the author concludes that such noncustodial sanctions are needed for the great majority of offenders--the non-dangerous.

367

Nicholson, D. (1985). CS: Turning burglars into businessmen? Probation Journal, 32 100-102.

Describes two small schemes in the Manchester (England) area to develop creative ways of using community service work orders as an effective tool in helping offenders find employment and achieve economic self reliance. While working on community service orders, offenders have been helped to set up different forms of business, including a car valeting service, furniture making and window frame manufacturer. The role of community service staff has been that of supportive catalysts. The hope is that these activities will develop into full time permanent businesses. In this scheme, a successful community service order is not only one where the hours are successfully completed but one where, in the process of so doing, the potential for employment rehabilitation is successfully realized.

368

Niemiera, E. J. (1979, September). State of New Jersey Juvenile Restitution Program. Paper presented at the Third Symposium on Restitution, Duluth, MN.

Describes the history and current implementation status of the New Jersey Juvenile Restitution Program; this project is funded by the Office of Juvenile Justice.

369

North Carolina Citizens Committee on Alternatives to Incarceration. (1982). Final Report. Durham, NC: Author.

Both monetary and social (community service) restitution are suggested as methods for reducing reliance on imprisonment.

370

North Carolina Governor's Advisory Council on Children and Youth. (1982). Women, families and prison. Raleigh, NC: Author.

Prison facilities and programs for women are inadequate and should be restructured to accommodate the special needs of incarcerated mothers. Nondangerous women should be sentenced to restitution or community service rather than to prison.

371

Novack, S. (1980). National assessment of adult restitution programs: Project report 10: Court Referral Program, Owensboro, Kentucky. School of Social Development, University of Minnesota, Duluth, MN.

The program described was one of twenty included in the National Assessment of Adult Restitution Programs. The report is the product of an evaluability assessment and contains three sections:

- Current Operations, describes operations during the program year in which the first site visit occurred (1979);
- Pre-Project History, covers the period of time from original idea for the restitution program until funds first became available;
- Implementation, covers the period of time from initial funding until beginning of the current program year. The focus is on change: change from pre-history expectations and change during implementation.

The Court Referral Program (CRP), located in Owensboro, Kentucky, is a joint effort between the courts, CRP, and community service agencies. Courts refer offenders to CRP with a specified number of community service hours to be completed in lieu of a fine or jail sentence. CRP staff interview referrals and make appropriate placements in local community service agencies. The Voluntary Action Center, a non-profit corporation, administers the project. Both juvenile and adult offenders are referred to CRP, typically at the post-conviction level. The project made 289 placements to community agencies during the current operations year and offenders were responsible for completing approximately 19,004 hours of work to these agencies. The clients served have committed largely misdemeanor type offenses. Examples include illegal possession of alcohol, traffic offenses, shoplifting, disorderly conduct, theft, and burglary.

372

Novack, S., Galaway, B., & Hudson, J. (1980). Victim and offender perceptions of the fairness of restitution and community-service sanctions. In J. Hudson & B. Galaway (Eds.), Victims, offenders, and alternative sanctions (pp. 63-70). Lexington, MA: Lexington Books. Also reported in National assessment of adult restitution programs: Preliminary report 11, School of Social Development, University of Minnesota, Duluth, MN. 1980.

Two primary objectives were set for this study: First, to present the results of findings about the perceptions toward the fairness of financial restitution and community service sanctions; second, to explore among offenders and victims the extent to which contact between the parties was seen as desirable in the offender's disposition. Nineteen individual restitution projects operating at different points in the criminal justice system were the focus of the study. A mailed questionnaire was sent to a sample of victims and offenders who were involved with financial or community service restitution programs. Areas covered in the questionnaires included: perceptions of victims and offenders toward the fairness of the restitution sanction; the desirability of offender/victim contact; offender perceptions about the usefulness of the community service experience; and offender victim choice of sanction for the crime committed. Study samples were drawn from program admissions for a three month period.

Major findings were:

- A total of 1,012 questionnaires were mailed; 661 went to offenders and 351 to victims. The overall return rate was 34%. The average return rate for offenders was 30% and the average return rate for victims was 43%.
- The offenders responding were primarily young, white males. The majority of cases involved property crimes against businesses. Thirty-five percent of the victims were owner-operated businesses.
- The majority of offenders and victims indicated that they would want to meet with the other party to determine program requirements. In six of the seventeen projects surveyed, 90 or more of the offenders would have preferred to meet with their victim. Only a small proportion of offenders and victims actually had met with the other party to determine program requirements.
- Offenders who had participated in projects at the diversion level and who had requirements of both financial and community service restitution were proportionately more satisfied with their overall treatment. The largest proportion of offenders dissatisfied with their overall treatment by the court were those incarcerated and having requirements of monetary restitution. The degree of victim satisfaction was less than that for offenders across all projects. As with offenders, victims were most satisfied with the offender's overall treatment when the offender had been required to complete both financial and community service restitution, either at the pretrial or incarceration/work release level. Victims having the least favorable attitudes came from projects at the probation level.
- The majority of offenders and victims thought that the offenders' monetary restitution requirements were fair. Most (79%) of the offenders thought that their community service requirements are fair.
- With regard to offenders rating their community service experience as relatively useful, 31% responded that it was very useful, 40% defined it as useful, and 29% thought that it was of little or no use.

373

O'Hearn, P. J. T. (1975). Restitution and compensation and fines. Ottawa Law Review, 7, 309-315.

A discussion of the Law Reform Commission of Canada Working Paper on Restitution, Compensation and Fines. The author notes that the working papers emphasize use of restitution as a function within the formal legal process and largely exclude any discussion of the use of restitution within a pre-trial settlement or conciliation situation. Further, the point is made that many offenders do not have the financial means to make restitution for the harm caused. The existing Canadian statutes having to do with restitution are reviewed and discussed.

374

O'Neal, F. (1980). Pretrial diversion for alleged shoplifters--A structured program of community service. Pretrial Services Annual Journal, 3, 159-171.



A pretrial diversion program which uses community service programming for restitution from first offender shoplifters in Fairfax County, Va. is described, with emphasis on client screening procedures, the program's relationships with the courts, monitoring strategies, and methods for dealing with noncompliance. During 1 year of operation, 93% of all participants completed their 50-hour assignment. Many completed service in addition to the 50-hour requirement. Evaluations by defendants and participating organizations have been overwhelmingly positive. Footnotes and copies of forms are included.

375

Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention (OJJDP). (1978). Juvenile restitution. In Program announcement: Restitution by juvenile offenders--An alternative to incarceration (Appendix I). Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice, Law Enforcement Assistance Administration.

This paper outlines the meaning of restitution within the criminal and juvenile justice process, and briefly discusses its historical development. The rationale for restitution programs is presented along with a review of evaluation efforts, related research, and problems of implementation. The paper considers the proper use of restitution in terms of program location; offender and victim types; monetary versus service restitution; full or partial restitution; relationship of the victim to the program; involvement of the offender and victim in the program; scope of restitution; the combination of restitution and other penalties; enforcement; and termination of the restitution process.

376

Osbourne Association, Inc. (1982). Federal community service sentencing demonstration project final report. New York, NY: Osbourne Association, Inc.

This report describes a demonstration project in which community service sentencing was used in the Southern District of New York. The project provided Federal offenders with the opportunity to work and perform volunteer community services instead of serving prison sentences.

The project operated during 1980 and 1981 and accepted both cases which were alternatives to incarceration and those in which incarceration would not be appropriate. The district court sentenced 210 persons to community service during the project period. A total of 33 nonprofit agencies took part in the project. The group included hospitals, nursing homes, agencies serving the handicapped, senior citizen centers, governmental agencies, settlement houses, day care facilities, drug and alcohol rehabilitation programs, and community centers. The offenders ranged from 19 to 70 years of age, with a median age of 38.8. Most were male and were employed full-time. Clients came from all income levels. Those with histories of drug or alcohol problems were no more prone to problem behavior during their service than were those without such backgrounds.

Single clients had a slightly higher incidence of problem behavior than did married clients. Only one client was returned to court.

377

Oxley, P. (1984). Evaluating rehabilitation: Community service orders in South Australia. Adelaide, Australia: Department of the Attorney General.

South Australia's community service scheme has a number of objectives but this research concentrated on discovering how community service rehabilitates. A theoretical model was constructed to explain how community service might affect rehabilitation involving the elements of working along side community minded volunteers, helping less fortunate persons, giving something back to society and participating in education and undergoing changes in attitudes and skills. To test whether these things happen in practice the process was divided into three stages (immediate activities, intermediate changes in individuals, and ultimate outcomes of not reoffending).

Data for the research was procured from a review of files on the development of community service in South Australia, an analysis of offender records of all persons referred for a community service assessment during the first six months of the operation (this involved 84 assessments of which 69 resulted in a community service order and 18 of the 69 had terminated their community service at the time of the study), a study of department records regarding community service agency involvement, questionnaires to 12 magistrates and 4 judges who had made the community service order by the end of 1982, and interviews with correction administrators, community service coordinators, community service agency supervisors, and with offenders).

The Department of Correctional Service emphasized punitive aspects of community service to secure public acceptance and enhance its use as an alternative to prison although rehabilitation was perceived as a desired side benefit. The judiciary, in contrast, considered rehabilitation to be the prime purpose of community service at least at a philosophical level; in analyzing specific cases, however, judges and magistrates relegate rehabilitation to third place with a higher emphasis on community service as an alternative to prison and on reparation. Statutory eligibility is flexible but the Department has issued detailed guidelines which are aimed at avoiding offenders who may be a threat to the community and who are acceptable and manageable by the scheme; offenders tend to come from settled backgrounds although 61% were unemployed; seven out of ten had previous convictions and only 9% had previously been sentenced to imprisonment. Legislation dictates what kind of community agencies may receive community service workers; the Department attempts to secure placement close to offenders' homes, which offer tangible benefits to the community, and which have other volunteer involvement.

The community organizations want to be involved in community service to secure extra assistance with their work, provide a service to offenders, and to support the concept of community participation. Community service is administered by the probation and parole

branch. Matching offenders to the appropriate placements is thought to be important for the completion of the order, providing successful services to the agencies, and to rehabilitate the offender although rehabilitation is not an overriding consideration when placing offenders. Only about half of the community service efforts involve offenders working along side with other volunteers; approximately half of the projects offered an opportunity for offenders to assist people less fortunate than themselves. Examination was made of the ways in which community service activities can be converted into changes in the individual offenders attitude and skills; this might involve the nature of the work, extended contact with other people, type of supervision given, and discipline and enforcement. About 80% of the community service hours were spent on labor and maintenance tasks. Most offenders thought the work was useful to the community, most liked the work, and in half the cases the offender was learning something new. About 60% of the community service hours were devoted to projects with a high level of contact with volunteers or public.

A rehabilitation model identified 13 intermediate outcomes relating to changes in offenders attitudes and skills. Only three outcomes were thought to have been achieved in a reasonable proportion of cases-facilitating the correction of anti-social behavior, having a genuine sense of achievement and self-satisfaction, and community services being a worthwhile social experience. A latter stage of the rehabilitation model suggest that community service reduces reoffending. This was not addressed directly in the study. Both offenders and correction officers were asked to assess the likelihood that the offender would reoffend; offenders were more optimistic than community service officers about crime free futures. Both groups agreed on the ways community service might achieve this but this was not the constructive opportunity described in most rehabilitative theory. Rather, community service acts as a deterrent--the offenders would not want to repeat the hassle of community service.

Indications are that community service does not rehabilitate but that the sentence is appreciated by the various participants. Offenders prefer it to custody and to fines, courts on the whole have accepted it as a sentencing option that they would like to see more widely available, community agencies see it as a positive development in corrections that contributes to the organization and the community, and community services staff are enthusiastic about the way the sentence has been accepted and optimistic about its potential. Selecting offenders who present more of a challenge for rehabilitation, deliberately placing offenders on sites that provide a reasonable frequency and depth of contact with the people in the community, and thinking about the definition of community in order to keep the scheme local are necessary to increase the possible rehabilitative use of community service.

378

Pacific Institute for Research and Evaluation. (1985). Guide to juvenile restitution. Lafayette, CA: Author.

This manual is designed to guide decision making pertaining to the development, implementation, and management of juvenile restitution programs without telling users what decisions to make. Decision making options are portrayed, based upon the experiences of existing juvenile restitution programs. The guide opens with a discussion of the most fundamental decisions: program philosophy and goals, organizational structure, location within the juvenile justice system, and the target population. Restitution program models are then described. They include the financial/community service model, which is oriented toward offenders being financially accountable for their offenses and performing community service; the victim-offender mediation model, which focuses on victim-offender reconciliation; and the victim reparations model, which has offenders compensate their victims for financial losses resulting from the crimes. In providing guidance to program implementation, the manual addresses community support, staffing, caseloads, the management of restitution payments, the use of volunteers, the development of a management information system, and the preparation of forms and written materials. A major section is devoted to the development of management information systems for restitution programs as well as designs for continuing evaluation that serves the informational needs of the program. The final section of the guide contains an assortment of papers on resources available for restitution programs.

379

Paliero, C. E. (1986). Community service in Italy: Legislation and practice. In H. Albrecht & W. Schädler (Eds.), Criminological Research Reports: Vol. 25. Community Service: A new option in punishing offenders in Europe (pp. 151-172). Freiburg, Germany: Max-Planck Institute.

Community service was included in the Italian penal code of 1889 which provided for work in the public interest instead of imprisonment for minor offenses at the ratio of two days service as the equivalent of one day of imprisonment; the sanction was seldom imposed, however. At the turn of the century, ten years after the introduction of the sanction, only 65 community service orders had been given in Italy during a period of 5 years compared to an annual number of imprisonments exceeding 80,000. The penal code in 1930 excluded community service and the practice was not rediscovered by Italian legislatures until the 1970s. Community service was reintroduced into Italian penal law in 1981; the courts had ruled that converting fines into imprisonment as an enforcement action was unconstitutional. Presently community service only replaces fines in the amount of 1,000,000 lira for single fine or 3,000,000 lira in the case of several, simultaneously imposed fines. The legislation provides a ratio of 50,000 lira equalling one day of work and provides that the offender may not work less than one day per week. The sentence of community service must be preceded by a personal application from the offender, not from the attorney. While community service is now possible it is getting practically no use in Italy; in the first half of 1985, only 7 community service orders were pronounced in the Milan district and none in the rest of the country. These orders were only in the Veltlin, an alpine valley close to Switzerland and under the jurisdiction of the Milan district. Since its introduction only 22 community service orders have been entered, all in the same district.

380

Palmer, J. W. (1974). Pre-arrest diversion: Victim confrontation. Federal Probation, 38(3), 12-18.

Under the authority of prosecutor's discretion, the Columbus Night Prosecutor's Program has developed a workable system of pre-arrest diversion of interpersonal disputes which result in criminal offenses, reports Professor John W. Palmer of Capital University Law School. During the latest fiscal year discussed, approximately 6,000 criminal cases were diverted out of the criminal justice system prior to the participants' being formally involved in the criminal process. In lieu of arrest-booking-trial, an administrative hearing is scheduled between the parties based upon the concept of "victim confrontation." Less than two percent of the cases result in the filing of formal criminal charges, and less than three percent return on the same or similar conduct. In effect, the program has been successful in assisting individuals who must come into contact with each other in the future to resolve their problems and avoid criminal conduct.

381

Parliamentary All-Party Penal Affairs Group. (1984). A new deal for victims. London: The Group

Contains recommendations by the Parliamentary All-Party Penal Affairs Group on reparation by offenders in Great Britain. It examines the existing sentencing law and practice, proposes the use of a mediation panel which would aim to reach agreement between victim and offender on reparation. Lists means by which offenders can be required to perform the agreed reparation. Discusses victim support and compensation schemes. Recommends that a range of experiments should be developed, which between them employ reparation directly to the victim or in the form of community service at a variety of points in the criminal justice process. Also recommends that these experiments should be closely monitored and evaluated and the findings used to assist the development of reparation into a central feature of the criminal justice and penal systems. During the experimental period, the Home Office should be prepared to finance such schemes with a 100% grant. It should be a clear long term aim of penal policy to make reparation a central part of custodial, as well as non-custodial sentences. The Home Office should establish a system of central government grants to approved victim support schemes similar to its grant systems to organizations managing after-care hostels and other resettlement services for offenders. The Home Office should make a feasibility study of alternative ways of providing a comprehensive system of compensation for loss or damage resulting from crime and, as a first step, publish a consultative paper inviting comment on the alternative options. There should be a wide ranging official review of the rights and needs of victims of crime and their position in the criminal justice process.

382

Pate, K. (1990). Victim-young offender reconciliation programs in Canada. In B. Galaway & J. Hudson (Eds.), Criminal Justice, Restitution, and Reconciliation. Monsey, NY: Criminal Justice Press.

A review of the use of victim offender reconciliation programming (VORP) as one of the alternative measures (diversion) under the Canadian Youth Offender Act. Discussion focuses on eligibility criteria, referral processes, variations on a reconciliation model, follow-up and evaluation, programming trends, and administration of the VORP programs.

383

Pate, K. J. (1988). Face-to-face: Victim offender mediation under the Young Offenders Act. In J. Hudson, J. P. Hornick, & B. A. Burrows (Eds.), Justice and the young offender in Canada (pp. 105-122). Toronto: Wall and Thompson.

Describes the operation of victim-offender reconciliation programs under the alternative measures provisions of the Canadian Young Offenders Act. The significant components of such programs are identified as financial restitution, community service, and victim-offender involvement. Along with the rationale for this type of program, the relative extent of its popularity across the country and the implications held for policy and programming under the Act are examined.

A number of significant issues must be addressed if such programs are to operate efficiently, effectively, and equitably. These include the need to clarify program objectives, receiving appropriate referrals (especially in terms of cases that would, in fact, be prosecuted and cases in which there is an individual victim), securing victim willingness to participate, and lodging programs in private agencies as compared to governmental agencies.

384

Pearce, W. N. (1979, September). The Iowa Juvenile Victim Restitution Program. Paper presented at the Third Symposium on Restitution, Duluth, MN.

Describes the history, implementation, and current status of the Iowa Juvenile Victim Restitution Program.

385

Pease, K. (1985). Community service orders. In M. Tonry and N. Morris (Eds.), Crime and justice: An annual review of research (Vol. 6, pp. 51-94). Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Community service orders are penal sanctions in which convicted offenders are placed in unpaid positions with non profit or governmental agencies. Proponents typically urge the use of community service as an alternative to imprisonment. Community service programs have been established in many countries. The most extensive and most studied experience is British. Following a 1970 recommendation of the Advisory Council on the Penal System, enabling legislation was passed in 1972 and pilot programs were initiated in 1973 in six probation districts. By the late seventies, community service programs were in place throughout the United Kingdom. In 1982, more than 30,000 orders were imposed on 8% of offenders sentenced for serious crimes. A major Home Office evaluation of the British system used four different methods to calculate the extent to which those sentenced to community service would otherwise have been imprisoned. By every method, it appeared that no more than half would have been imprisoned. Research in Great Britain and in several other countries confirms this finding. For community service to be justified as an alternative to incarceration but used as a supplement to nonincarcerative sentences is hypocritical. Offenders who would not have been imprisoned in the absence of orders may find themselves later imprisoned for violation of an order. Among the major problems of implementation are disparities in the extent of imposition of orders, in the length of order, and in the use of sanctions against offenders who do not comply with orders. There have been few efforts to assess the impact of the use of orders on recidivism, and the results are inconclusive.

386

Pease, K. (1983). Penal innovations. In J. Lishman (Ed.), Social work with adult offenders (pp. 72-85). Aberdeen, Scotland: University of Aberdeen.

Because of lack of clarity in the legislation, penal innovations such as community service have often been irrelevant to the overriding penal need of recent years of reducing use of custody. Guidelines for the evaluation of penal innovations should include a provision for funding research proportional to the total innovation cost and should concentrate on program processes rather than on outcome data in the early stages.

387

Pease, K. (1981). Community service orders: A first decade of promise. London: Howard League for Penal Reform.

Reviews and analyzes the British experience with community service orders from the time they were introduced in six pilot districts in 1972 through 1980. The use of community service grew rapidly; 1,019 offenders were given community service orders in 1974 compared to 22,232 in 1980; in 1980 24,915 offenders completed community service; 75% completed the specified number of hours, 13% failed to complete the hours, 9% were convicted for new offenses, and the balance failed to complete for other reasons. Community service is a penal sanction ranging from 40 to 240 hours, generally performed on weekends and taking from between 2 and 12 months to complete. The order can be imposed for any imprisonable offense; the court decides the length of the

order and a probation officer works with the offender to find an appropriate placement. Community service can be looked upon as reparation by offenders to the community, as a penalty but one which is not necessarily unpleasant, and as rehabilitation by offering the possibility that the offender will learn from the experience. A 240 hour order is the equivalent of one day a week a year and is not a soft option. There is no evidence that community service orders lead to a higher or lower rate of recidivism than other penal sanctions, less expensive than imprisonment, have fewer social costs, and offer the advantage that useful work is carried out. There is no research evidence to suggest that any categories of offenders are bad risks. Most offenders on whom community service orders are imposed have previous convictions; a survey in one area show that 40% had undergone one or more institutional sentences. Suggestions have been advanced that community service orders should be available for breach of probation, for offenses which are not imprisonable, for fine defaulters, and for 16 year olds. None of these proposals are supported by the author. Community service work is chosen for its usefulness to the community and its suitability for the offenders' abilities, not for its unpleasantness. Community service should not replace work normally done by paid workers. Enforcement should be reasonably consistent and strict. There needs to be a system of monitoring to ensure this. If too much stress is placed on rehabilitative aims, The order may be used too selectively and it may not be strictly enough enforced. There are differences of view as to whether community service should be used strictly as an alternative to imprisonment or as a sentence in its own right; Practice in this area is inconsistent. As community service schemes develop, organizers should avoid the danger of probationization (inadequate enforcement) and penalization (unimaginable work and inadequate financing). Community service is a very promising new penal measure.

388

Pease, K. (1980). A brief history of community service. In K. Pease and W. McWilliams (Eds.), Community service by order (pp. 1-13). Edinburgh: Scottish Academic Press.

The tradition of using offenders for the public service has a long and not always distinguished history. It has been used at different times in different places, including impressment, German and Norwegian penal code amendments which allowed for the payment of uncollectible fines by labor, related schemes in Argentina, Tanzania, Greece, amongst other countries. The reasons why community service orders emerged as an attractive penal option in England are described, along with the six distinct stages leading up to program implementation in 1972.

389

Pease, K. (1980). Community service and prison: Are they alternatives? In K. Pease and W. McWilliams (Eds.), Community service by order (27-42). Edinburgh: Scottish Academic Press.



Deals with questions about the place of community service in the range of sentencing alternatives, specifically the place of the British Community Service scheme as an alternative to imprisonment. Traces the historical evolution of the 1972 Criminal Justice Act and its implementation in different parts of the country. Presents evidence to indicate the proportion of cases in which the community service order stands instead of custody and notes that three of the four methods of estimating diversion from custody produced figures for diversion of between 45 and 50%. Identifies problems that follow from the use of community service as a partial diversion from prison and suggests ways to rectify these problems. Two principles are suggested: First, that community service orders of less than 100 hours be imposed in cases where the order is not an alternative to custody. The second principle is that 240 hours of service should be made equivalent to a custodial sentence of not less than one year. In this way, the range of 100 to 240 hours would be the length of order which could be treated as equivalent to a custody sentence up to one year plus. Orders between 100 and 135 hours would substitute for prison sentences of up to 3 months, 136 to 170 hours between 3 and 6 months, 171 to 205 between 6 and 9 months and 206 plus hours for sentences of 9 to 12 months or more.

390

Pease, K. (1980). The future of the community treatment of offenders in Britain. In A. E. Bottoms & R. H. Preston (Eds.), The Coming penal crisis: A criminological and theological exploration (pp. 137-155). Edinburgh, Scotland: Scottish Academic Press.

the rehabilitative ideal in the treatment of offenders is dead in theory but still expected to adversely influence penal policy in such matters as the inscrutability of the parole process and the use of discretion in deciding the length of imprisonment. However, there are trends toward a new model of penal policy which views the offender as the party responsible for the committed crime and recognizes the role of the penal system in meting out just punishment. the implementation of this new ideal will not result in harsher sentencing since imprisonment will no longer be justified by the need for treatment (as in the rehabilitative ideal). the use of noncustodial sentences (i.e., fines, community service orders, and reparation), which are more cost effective than imprisonment, will be preferred. However, even though the trend toward such measures as reparation is strong, their full use will involve restructuring the penal system to combine findings of guilt with the assessment of damages, which is not feasible in the near future. In the meantime, other means (such as insurance schemes) should be explored.

391

Pease, K. (1978). Community service and the tariff: (3) A reply. The Criminal Law Review, 546-549.

Response to articles by Willis and Trewartha about an initial paper arguing that the use of community service orders relative to custody is confused and inconsistent. With the

tremendous growth in the use of community service, this problem is only likely to increase and this interpretative latitude is giving rise to the underemployment of community service as an alternative to active custodial sentences.

392

Pease, K. (1978). Community service and the tariff. The Criminal Law Review, 269-275.

Reviews the 1972 Criminal Justice Act in respect to Parliament's intention for community service orders to be used as alternatives to custody. Concludes that while public pronouncements, including statements in Parliament and the Home Office's Memorandum of Guidance to probation areas emphasize the use of community service orders as an alternative to custodial sentences, there is nothing in the statute to give force to such an emphasis. In fact, the best estimates available suggests that between 50% and 55% of those given community service orders would not otherwise have received custodial sentences. That is not necessarily a cause for regret. What is unfortunate are differences between courts and between probation officers in policy as to place of community service. This may cause the introduction of inequities into sentence use. Also of cause for concern are cases of breach of a community service order. If sentencers differ in their views of the place of community service in the tariff, then an offender appearing for revocation of an order will be sentenced on the basis of the view of community service held by the revoking court and this may not coincide with the actual view of the sentencing court. What should be strived for is consistency in the use of orders of a given length, relative to other sentences. Two general principles are recommended. First, that orders of less than 100 hours should be imposed only in cases where the order is not an alternative to an active custodial sentence. The second principle is that 240 hours should be regarded to equivalent to a custodial sentence of not less than one year. In this way, orders between 100 and 135 hours would substitute for prison sentences of up to three months, 135 to 170 hours between three and six months, 171 to 205 between six and nine months, and 206 plus hours sentences of nine to twelve months or more. The major objection to this is that it assumes a tariff basis of calculating hours of community service, rather than calculating on individualized principles in terms of the offender's capacity to perform the work. The issue is one of individualized sentences as compared to a tariff sentence.

For further commentary see "Community Service and the Tariff: (1) A Critical Comment" by A. Willis (1978), "Community Service and the Tariff: (2) A Further Comment" by R. Trewartha (1978), and "Community Service and the Tariff: (3) A Reply" by K. Pease (1978) address this article.

393

Pease, K., & Earnshaw, I. (1976). Community service orders: A suitability check list. Probation Journal, 23, 12-14.

Presents a clearly defined set of criteria of suitability for community service. A check list is presented which is to be filled in by probation officers in all cases in which they are preparing a social inquiry report on someone legally eligible for community service. The check list amounts to nine items, answered yes or no. Each no response is a vote in favor of a community service order. If the final tally is five or more no's, there is a strong case for recommending a community service order.

394

Pease, K., & McWilliams, B. (1977). Assessing community service schemes: Pitfalls for the unwary. Probation Journal, 24, 137-139.

The habit of thought of the probation and after-care service derived from its experience with probation orders and after-care cases is misleading when applied to community service orders. The kinds of error made by probation officers are such as to favor the inefficient community service organizer over the efficient one. Three specific suggestions are made:

- Do not judge a community service organizer on his caseload, but on his throughput of cases.
- When considering throughput of cases of a community service organizer, bear in mind the average length of orders he deals with compared with his colleagues in other areas.
- Calculate breach rate as a proportion of completed cases, not of current caseload or number of new cases.

395

Pease, K., Billingham, S., & Earnshaw, I. (1977). Community service assessed in 1976. (Home Office Research Study Number 39 Unit Report). London: Her Majesty's Stationery Office.

This study assesses two questions: what happened in terms of subsequent reconviction for a sample of offenders who participated in community service work orders; and secondly, if community service had not been available to the courts when these offenders were dealt with, what sentences would they have received. The program dealt with here is the Community Service Order scheme introduced in six areas in 1973 in Great Britain.

The study design used to estimate the number of those given community service orders who would otherwise have been given a custodial sentence involves an examination of four categories of offender:

- Those for whom an assessment existed of the sentence thought likely if the community service order were not made;
- Those who violated the requirements of a community service order;
- Those for whom the courts requested an assessment of suitability for community service;

- Those recommended by probation officers as suitable for community service but did not receive it.

The design used to assess the effect of those receiving community service orders involved the calculation of one year reconviction rates. A comparison group was generated composed of offenders recommended for, but not subsequently sentenced to, community service. The period under study was one year from sentence in the case of non-custodial sentences and one year from release in the case of custodial sentences. The aim was to obtain reconviction data on the first year at risk after sentence.

Major findings were:

- Three of the four methods used to estimate the displacement of custodial sentences produced estimates of from 45% to 50%. in short, approximately half of those given community service orders would otherwise have received a custodial sentence.
- Approximately 44% of all those sentenced to community service during the first year of the scheme in the six experimental areas were reconvicted within a year of the sentence.
- There is no evidence of any reduction in reconviction rates following community service.
- There was a direct relationship between age and rate of reconviction as well as between number of previous reconvictions and rate of reconviction.

396

Pease, K., Durkin, P., Earnshaw, I., Payne, B., & Thorpe, J. (1975). Community service orders (Home Office Research Study Number 29). London: Her Majesty's Stationery Office.

The aim of this study was to describe the characteristics of the population of offenders admitted to the British Community Service Program during the first eighteen months of operation. Section 15 of the Criminal Justice Act of 1972 empowered courts to order offenders to perform unpaid work as a service to the community. The work order is to be made for offenders who would otherwise be imprisoned. The number of hours to be worked is to be not less than 40 and not more than 240.

A number of data collection procedures were used in this study, including content analysis of 519 pre-sentence reports made in the six community service experimental areas; a sentencing exercise carried out by 55 probation officers concerning the factors influencing the recommendation for community service; a data collection form completed by probation officers when preparing pre-sentence reports on offenders considered for community service; and interviews with community service supervisors, probation officers, offenders, judges, and others.

Major findings were:

- There was general agreement found between probation officers concerning important factors for them to know about when arriving at a recommendation for community service.
- Most commonly, a community service order followed a probation officer's recommendation.
- No estimate can be made about the number of offenders placed in community service who otherwise would have been put in prison.
- Offenders on community service were primarily between the ages of 17 and 34 years; community service work was most commonly done on weekends; the average time taken to complete the order of 240 hours was close to the year allowed by legislation.
- The median number of previous convictions of those ordered to community service was between three and four.
- Between 38% and 50% of offenders on community service had had experience with a custodial sentence previously.
- Those offenders with longer criminal records and those who had served a custodial sentence were less likely to complete the order.
- The majority of probation officers and offenders had positive attitudes towards community service work.
- There have been no difficulties in relationships with trade unions.

397

Peat, Marwick and Partners. (1986). Fact book on community service order programs in Canada. Ottawa: Department of Justice, Policy, Programs and Research Branch.

The first community service program in Canada was implemented in British Columbia in 1974. In the next six years, most of the other provinces followed. Two aims are common to all of the programs; providing an alternative to incarceration and engendering a sense of responsibility in the offenders. Three common criteria for offender eligibility are: court disposition of a community service order as a probation condition; offender willingness to participate; non-violent offender behavior. Provincial programs in Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, Quebec, Ontario, Manitoba and Saskatchewan each have insurance coverage for injury/damage related to their community service program.

398

Peat Marwick and Partners. (1986). Fact book on fine option programs in Canada. Ottawa: Department of Justice, Policy, Programs and Research Branch.

The first Canadian fine option program was implemented in Saskatchewan in 1975, with programs established in Alberta and New Brunswick in 1976. Currently six jurisdictions make extensive use of fine option programs - New Brunswick, Quebec, Manitoba, Saskatchewan, Alberta, Northwest Territories. Four of the six jurisdictions with widespread programs use point of sentence delivery models in which a potential participant is notified following sentencing that the opportunity to discharge the fine through community service work is available. Participation in these programs is not

dependent upon fine default. New Brunswick employs the point of default model under which the offender is notified of the program either on default or when it appears that default is imminent. All of the programs give the main objective as one of providing an opportunity for offenders to discharge their fine through community work. Eligibility for the programs generally require that an offender has been assessed a fine and given time to pay; is willing to work and consents to participate in the program. The minimum wage is the hourly credit for determining work period and completion date in most of the programs. Program participants in four of the jurisdictions are covered by the Workers Compensation Board Act for injuries incurred while performing community work to settle a fine.

399

Peat Marwick and Partners. (1986). Fact book on restitution programs in Canada. Ottawa: Department of Justice, Policy, Programs and Research Branch.

The Department of Justice Canada engaged the Ottawa office of Peat, Marwick and Partners in December, 1985 to develop Fact Books on the current program use in Canada of three community-based alternatives to sentencing: Fine Option Programs, Community Service Order Programs and Restitution Programs. This document addresses the use of Restitution Programs across Canada. Major findings are that a formal restitution program is currently operating province-wide only in Saskatchewan. A restitution "process" with formal policies and/or procedures is operating in Prince Edward Island, Quebec, Ontario, Manitoba, Alberta and the Yukon Territory. A third type of restitution "program," without any formal policies and/or procedures is operating in Newfoundland, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, British Columbia and the Northwest Territories. A restitution program "Needs Study" and an "Impact/feasibility Study" are currently in progress in Newfoundland and the Northwest Territories. Victim/offender Reconciliation Programs have been implemented in Ontario and British Columbia.

400

Pereira, L. M. O. M. (1986). Community service in Portugal: How did community service perform since its implementation in the 1982 amendment of the penal code? In H. Albrecht & W. Schädler (Eds.), Criminological Research Reports: Vol. 25. Community Service: A new option in punishing offenders in Europe (pp. 139-150). Freiburg, Germany: Max-Planck Institute.

The Portuguese penal code of 1982 is based on the philosophy that penalties should be carried out with pedagogical and rehabilitative goals; work is not perceived as an instrument of punishment but as a tool for reintegration of the delinquent into society. Work is an important part of prison programs but the code also permits substitution of work for fines. Community service can also be used for offenses which call for imprisonment of up to three months. Community service must be unpaid, provided to state or public institutions or private entities considered to be of interest to the community, application of the penalty cannot coincide with normal working hours, the

minimum number of hours is 9 and the maximum 180, work cannot be scheduled on more than two consecutive days, and the agreement of the offender is required. Implementation of community service is the responsibility of the probation service.

Community service has had little use in Portugal; by October 31, 1985 only six community service orders had been applied. There may be several reasons for the lack of use of community service. The proposal including work site must come from either the offender or the prosecutor who have little knowledge of resources; the probation service is only responsible for the control of the application of the measure and not for the preparation of placement proposals. In Portugal prison sentences of less than six months must be compulsorily converted into fines leading to a stronger likelihood that fines would be used rather than community service. Modifications are currently being proposed to allow the court to request community service plans from probation, to provide for up to three months after adjudication for the probation department to allocate work to the offender, and to provide procedural changes making it easier to substitute labor for fines.

401

Perrier, D. C., & Pink, F. S. (1985). Community service: All things to all people. Federal Probation, 49(2), 32-38.

Community service has gained the support of both liberals and conservatives by promising to achieve punishment, restitution, rehabilitation, and reintegration in equal measures, but whether or not community service fulfills these expectations is debatable.

402

Plecas, D., & Winterdyk, J. (1982). Community service: Some questions and answers. Provincial Judges Journal, 6(1), 11-19.

Reports on the results of an evaluation of the use of community service in five probation offices in British Columbia. Findings are based on the results of personal and telephone interviews with 37 community agencies and 120 offenders and an analysis of a mail survey of citizen attitudes toward offender work program. Results show that most offenders felt that they were getting something worthwhile out of the community service program, that the work they do is appreciated, that the program helped them stay out of trouble and that they are paying back the community for having committed an offence. Offender's attitudes changed as a result of participation in the community service program and the most positive attitudes were associated with those offenders who had completed the greatest number of community service hours and been on the program for the longest time. Other relationships were that females had more positive attitudes toward community service than males, first offenders more positive attitudes than repeat offenders and adults more positive attitudes than juveniles. Provincial policy is to make an effort to provide direct services to victims whenever possible. Results of a survey of Vancouver area residents found that the overwhelming majority of citizens

did not want victim assistance in the form of direct service by the offender. The same survey revealed that nearly half of the community would prefer to have nothing to do with the offender who committed an offence against them.

403

Polonoski, M. (1980, February). The community service order programme in Ontario: Participants and their perception. Scarborough, ON: Ontario Ministry of Correctional Services, Planning and Research Branch.

Debriefing interviews were held with the 192 probationers who completed community service orders (CSO) in Ontario during 1979 to assess their perceptions of the community service experience. CSO is providing both an alternative sentencing disposition and a positive experience for the offenders. Of the 192, 97% have been successful completions; for the group the range of community service hours ordered was 10 - 400 with a mean of 65.8 hours. Generally the probationers thought that they had been treated fairly by the courts and one-third indicated that they felt that they would have gone to jail if they had not agreed to the community service order. They tended to remain at one community placement, about half performed manual labor jobs. The majority enjoyed their placements and thought they had been treated fairly by the community service agencies. In terms of perceived benefits, the participants most frequently cited personal satisfaction in their work efforts; the most frequently mentioned drawback was that they had to take time normally spent with their families, at work, or at school to complete the community service order.

404

Polonoski, M. (1979). The community service order programme in Ontario: Part 1. A description of the initial cases. Scarborough, ON: Ontario Ministry of Correctional Services, Planning and Research Branch.

Preliminary finds from a 2-year investigation of Ontario's community service orders (CSO's) programs are presented. Covering the program's first year, 1978, the findings concern 12 pilot projects serving 689 clients. The CSO's were introduced to provide an alternative to incarceration of offenders where the usual terms of probation were an insufficient disposition.

During the first year, 264 probationers completed their orders. The majority of the CSO probationers completed their orders. The majority of the CSO probationers in the pilot projects were male, under 20 years old, single, and had acquired at least some high school education. They had mostly been sentenced to one offense only, often a property-related offense. The most common crime of which CSO probationers had been convicted was theft of under \$200. The probation terms issued by the judiciary were usually just over a year in duration. The CSO probationers who had completed their orders were assigned an average of 52.7 hours of community service work. The orders ranged from 8 to 348 hours, and almost half the probationers had been assigned 30



hours or less. During the 12 month period, probationers worked a total of 12,798 hours of unpaid community service.

The overall successful completion rate of the CSO assignments was 93% and over half of the offenders completed their hours within 2 months of beginning them. Community placements and the respective tasks varied with the resources available in the pilot project areas, but the most common chore was simple manual labor. At least 8 out of every 10 probationers were brought into contact with the beneficiaries of their efforts at some time during their community service. Probationers usually worked alongside and were supervised by regular agency paid staff. Most of the agencies reported total satisfaction with the probationers' efforts, and one fifth of the probationers continued their volunteer work after the completion of their assignments. A further 5% became employees at their community placements. Thus, the CSO program appears to be providing a community-based sentencing option in the treatment of offenders. However, it is, as yet, difficult to determine whether the program is providing an alternative to incarceration of offenders.

405

Polonoski, M. (1979). The community service order programme in Ontario: Part 2. Participants and their perceptions. Scarborough, ON: Ontario Ministry of Correctional Services, Planning and Research Branch.

The social histories, experiences, and perceptions of 192 participants in a community service order (CSO) program in Ontario, Canada are described. This report focuses on a subsample of probationers who completed their orders during 1979 and who were subsequently given a debriefing interview. The majority of the participants were male, about 22 years old, single, with a fairly stable education and employment history. Most had been sentenced for a single property-related offense, such as theft under \$200. They had been sentenced to a mean of 13.7 months of probation in addition to their CSO assignments, which ranged from 10 to 400 hours. The mean assignment was 65.8 hours.

On the whole, probationers felt they had been treated fairly by the courts. One third of the sample, however, thought they would have gone to jail if they had not agreed to the CSO and 70% asserted that the CSO experienced would help to keep them out of further trouble with the law. Probationers tended to remain at one community placement throughout their work assignment, and at least half performed manual labor while there. The majority enjoyed their placements and said they had been treated no differently from other personnel and had been treated fairly by the community agencies. A total of 11,778 hours of free service was provided by these 192 offenders. Only 2.9% had been reconvicted of an offense during the performance of their CSO assignment; 97% completed their orders successfully. Several probationers reported that their CSO assignments had an influence on their lives, particularly on their families and friends had shown some interest in their CSO work. In terms of perceived benefits of the CSO program, participants most often cited personal satisfaction from their work efforts. The time the CSO program took away from being with families, from work, or from school

was cited as a drawback. Half of those who gave recommendations suggested that the program be expanded. Thus, it appears that the CSO program is successfully providing an alternative sentencing disposition and a positive experience for offenders.

406

Polonski, M. L. (1981). Community service order programme in Ontario: Part 4 Summary. Scarborough, ON: Ontario Ministry of Correctional Services, Planning and Research Branch.

Three instruments were used to record information obtained from probation and parole services, the local community service order (CSO) organizers, the computerized adult information system of the Ministry of Correctional Services, and office files. The results were found to be highly consistent with the preliminary findings of prior phases of the study. The type of offender being selected for the CSO program tended to be a low-risk offender with nonserious criminality. The offender usually was male, single, and about 21 years of age, with evidence of a stable lifestyle. When examined individually, the 12 pilot project areas were found to be dealing with similar types of offenders. In contrast, there was little agreement among the judiciary on the actual use of the CSO option. Although the CSO program was initially intended to act as an alternative to incarceration, the low-risk nature of the CSO population indicates that it is unlikely that the CSO is being used as an alternative to incarceration to any great degree. It appears that the program is being presently used as a separate sentencing alternative. Broad variations and extremes in orders given by judges for similar offenses were evident across the Province. The overall recidivism rate for the period of time from the assignment of the CSO to 1 year following the completion of hours was found to be 18%.

407

Priestly, P. (1979). Victims, the key to penal reform. Christian Action Journal, England.

Both incremental prison reformers and prison abolitionists miss the point that prisons do not serve rational but rather symbolic purposes of defining behavior boundaries, of articulating an account of good and evil, and of promoting social cohesion. Penal reform cannot be accomplished through rejection of these social functions, but by seeking symbolic rather than rational substitutes for imprisonment; one possible area of interest lies in the relationship between offenders and victims. The present system of isolating victims from the criminal justice process results in victim resentment at being uncompensated and ignored, a constituency in society which identifies with this resentment and often calls for punitive actions against offenders, and offenders frequently feeling resentment because of the painful and pointless treatment they frequently receive. One way to bring about reform and intervene in this cycle of resentment is to provide

opportunities for offenders to take responsibilities for restoring victim losses including opportunities for direct interaction between offenders and victims.

408

Priestly, P. (1970, January). What about the victim? National Association for the Care and Resettlement of Offenders, Regional Information Paper. England.

Summary report of the Bristol Victim-Offender group, a broadly based group which met in 1969 and 1970 to reconsider the "collusion" of silence, regarding victim roles in criminal justice. Problems of victim neglect, victim stigma, and the isolation of the offender from the consequences of illegal behavior were noted. The criminal justice system needs to become more personalized with both offenders and victims responded to as people, not roles. Processes should be established whereby the offender can make reparations to the victim and whereby the possibility of positive feelings between offenders and victims can be developed.

409

Prins, H. (1976). Whither community service? British Journal of Criminology, 16, 73-77.

The author comments on recent evaluative reports on community service pilot projects in England. The legislative history of community service is traced. Further comments are made on a group of reports from three pilot areas that stress the need for planning before community service schemes are proposed to the court.

410

Prisoner and Community Together, Inc. (1981). Community service restitution--A re-examination. Michigan City, IN: Prisoner and Community Together (PACT), Inc.

This paper re-examines the community service restitution programs operated by Prisoner and Community Together, Inc. (PACT) in four Indiana counties for young, first time misdemeanor offenders, with attention to the criticism that most community service orders are really not alternatives to incarceration.

411

Probation and After-Care Department of the Home Office. (1975). Community service by offenders. The Magistrate, 31, 52-53.

The Powers of Criminal Courts Act 1975 allows magistrate courts to a sentence to community service alternative. Eligibility criteria, sentencing guidelines, and monitoring requirements under the Act are discussed. Community service orders were authorized

in six probation areas on a pilot bases in 1972; impressions of results from the experimental stage of community service orders in six probation areas are offered.

412

Pryor, D., & Henry, D. A. (1980). Pretrial practices: A preliminary look at the data. Pretrial Issues, 2(1).

A 1979 survey of 131 adult pretrial diversion programs found that 68.7% of the programs require either financial restitution, community service, or both as a condition of admission, contrary to standards developed by the National Association of Pretrial Service Agencies. Community service and monetary restitution, rather than being used as an exception as suggested by the standards, appear to have become the norm for most of the programs.

413

Puerto Rico Department of Addiction Services. (1981). Community action for restitution in services for minors achievements (CARISMA)--Final narrative report, Oct. 15, 1978-- Dec. 31, 1980. Río Piedras, PR: Puerto Rico Department of Addiction Services.

CARISMA is a restitution program whereby juvenile offenders either compensate the victims of their crimes or render service to the community. Objectives of the program are (1) to help juvenile offenders become aware of and accept responsibility for their damage to others, (2) provide an alternative to institutionalization for juveniles, (3) help juveniles develop useful and marketable skills, (4) give victims participation in the rehabilitation process, and (5) increase confidence in the juvenile justice system. As of December 31, 1980 CARISMA has had 244 clients. The project has induced a significant number of juveniles to go back to school and to work. Clients have provided 24,043 hours of restitution services, of which 23,946 were for community services and the rest for victims. The value of the services is estimated at \$72,129. Only 10 clients did not complete their restitution contracts, and 10 committed new offenses. Data indicate that CARISMA is meeting or surpassing its goals and objectives. Information is provided on the characteristics of the clients and the project management history. Also provided are statistical reports, a list of nonexpendable property purchased, the final financial report, and the evaluation and brochure of the program.

414

Purdue University Automotive Transportation Center. (1987). Community service as an alternative sentence for DUI (driving under the influence) convictions: A report to the governor's task force to reduce drunk driving. West Lafayette, IN: Purdue University Automotive Transportation Center.

This study documents the current use of community service sentences for drunk drivers in Indiana, determines judges' attitudes toward the use of this sentence for drunk drivers, and proposes steps for establishing a model community service program for drunk drivers.

Of the questionnaires mailed to 120 Indiana judges, 57% were completed and returned, representing responses from about 65% of Indiana's counties. Approximately 82% of the responding judges use community service in their sentencing, although several indicated that drunk drivers are excluded from community service sentences. A majority of the judges perceive community service to be a valuable alternative to jail and would sentence drunk drivers to such programs if they were more certain of their effectiveness. Indiana should establish a model community service program that addresses these judicial concerns. Steps in this endeavour should include the identification of relevant laws, task force creation, funding, determination of the types and availability of placement agencies, setting program goals and objectives, establishment of a policy on insurance coverage, and the determination of staffing requirements. Other steps include developing the budget, intake/screening, monitoring procedures, record keeping procedures, and program evaluation procedures.

415

Purdue University Automotive Transportation Center. (1987). Drunk driver recidivist penalties in Indiana for 1986. West Lafayette, IN: Purdue University Automotive Transportation Center.

This report reviews the third annual study of compliance with Indiana drunk driver recidivist penalties, which require persons with repeated convictions within a 5 year period to be imprisoned for at least 48 consecutive hours or perform at least 10 days of community service.

A total sample of 5,964 second or subsequent offenders from 10 Indiana counties was used in the study. Site visits were made to courts in all 10 counties. A total of 3,818 recidivists (64%) served 48 consecutive hours in jail and 1,062 (17.8%) performed at least 10 days of community service. A total of 4,880 persons served the minimum mandated penalties, bringing statewide compliance to 81.8%. A total of 1,084 (18.2%) did not receive the mandated penalty and 983 (16.5%) of those escaped serving any jail time or performing any community service. Problems in determining and ensuring compliance are discussed. Diverse court record keeping systems continue to impede data collection and judges continue to treat recidivists as first offenders because of a lack of evidence in court records indicating recidivism. Recommendations include identifying repeat offenders because of a lack of evidence in court records indicating recidivism. Recommendations include identifying repeat offenders so that they receive appropriate penalties, standardizing court record keeping to readily capture data, maintaining relevant documents in files, determining where there are annual increases in the number of recidivists, and promoting effective community service programs since community service has caused compliance to increase from 68.7% in 1984 to 81.8% in 1986.

416

Ralphs, P. (1980). Community service:--A going concern, but where to? International Journal of Offender Therapy and Comparative Criminology, 24, 234-240.

The present status of community service programs for offenders in England and Wales is discussed. Community service is an alternative sentence in which offenders carry out tasks in the community, usually on weekends, for a particular number of hours. In 1978, 19,400 offenders were offered and accepted this sentence. About two-thirds were under 25 years of age, nearly half were convicted of theft or handling stolen goods, a quarter of offenses were for burglary, and between 5 and 10% of offenses involved violence against persons. Of the sentences terminated in 1978, about 75% were completed satisfactorily, about 10% were terminated because of a failure to comply with the requirements of the court order, and about 10% were ended because of convictions for further offenses.

Since the inception of community service in 1974, courts, probation officers, voluntary agencies, and offenders have seen it as essentially positive and constructive. Although the probation service manages the service programs, management structures vary locally. Probation officers often view community service supervision as something apart from their normal work since this sentence includes aspects of social work and penal measures independent of probation. In some areas, community service supervisors carry out much of the actual supervision and are themselves supervised by the probation officers. The service supervisors are specially trained and often manage most of the service programs themselves. Other areas use voluntary agencies for the direct supervision of clients or accept the help of sessional supervisors, weekend volunteers with useful practical experience. The future possibility of a supervisory service independent of probation officer management is considered.

417

Ralphs, P. (1976). Community service orders in England. International Journal of Offender Therapy and Comparative Criminology, 20, 58-64.

Discusses rehabilitation by service to the community--both as an alternative to prison and as part of a treatment oriented program. One such pilot scheme in Kent describes the type of offender and projects involved, procedure, results, management aspects, and future.

418

RCMP Gazette. (1978). Dauphin restitution committee. Royal Canadian Mounted Police Gazette, 40(10) 14-17.

Cooperation between the community of Dauphin, Manitoba in Canada and the criminal justice system has been successfully initiated by the Dauphin Restitution Committee.

419

Read, B. (1977). Offender restitution programs in Georgia. Atlanta: Georgia Department of Corrections and Offender Rehabilitation.

A 2-year Law Enforcement Assistance Administration (LEAA) pilot project started in Georgia in 1975 set up a resident offender restitution program. Under this program the courts and parole board may require offenders to make financial restitution to the victims of the crime and/or community service restitution while residing at the centre under close supervision. The program is described in detail. It has proved so popular with judges and parole officers as well as the community at large that the state legislature voted to continue funding after the pilot grant expired. A second program, a nonresident restitution plan for offenders who do not need such close supervision, has been set up under a new 2-year LEAA grant. The target population of the residential centre program includes both probationers and parolees while the nonresident program is aimed at first offenders. The residential program has four centers operating 24 hours a day in "Atlanta, Albany, Macon, and Rome. The core staff of counsellors is supplemented by volunteers; sponsorship of various aspects of the community service program is spread widely among churches, schools, and civic groups. The offender is required to get a job. The centre supervises the budget. A set amount is put aside each pay period to reimburse the victims. Payments are made either face to face or by mail.

The public likes the idea that offenders are working, taxpaying, and off welfare. Social workers like the fact that there is less family disruption and a more positive approach to punishment. Judges and parole officers appreciate a viable alternative to incarceration. During the first 18 months offenders paid \$126,897 to victims, paid \$241,690 in state and federal taxes, returned \$342,937 to the state in project income (room and board maintenance charges which are included as part of the budgeting process), spent \$431,704 in the community for living expenses, paid \$139,513 in financial support to families, saved \$84,156 for use when released, and contributed 4212 hours of public service work. Cost of the centre for the first year was \$116,000. Cost of incarcerating 30 offenders is \$121.35. Supervision for 30 on parole is \$6150. The concept is not cost-saving if used for those on parole, but is if used for incarceration. To date those released from the centre have had a 66% positive termination rate. Work is underway to expand the concept.

420

Read, B. (1977). How restitution works in Georgia. Judicature, 60, 322-331.

Describes Georgia's residential and non-residential programs of offender restitution that are regulated by the Department of Corrections/Offender Rehabilitation (DCOR). The fact that every effort is made within these programs to involve the community in the

treatment and rehabilitation of local offenders is the core of DCOR's rehabilitative philosophy. Further, the Department realizes that through service restitution, the public offender becomes a community resource rather than a community liability. Offender eligibility, program administration, cost effectiveness, victim involvement, and community reactions to the two types of programs are discussed. Future directions in restitution programming are also commented on. Georgia's long-range plan emphasizes pretrial diversion programs and a broad range of specialized alternatives to traditional criminal justice sanctions. Also considered important is the formulation of a positive and objective system of contracting with inmates whereby they must earn their release from prison.

421

Read, B. (1977). Restitution as it meets public expectations in Georgia's restitution programs. Paper presented at the 1977 American Correctional Association Congress.

The ways restitution programs in Georgia try to satisfy public expectations for a safe, meaningful, beneficial, and socially useful plan are discussed. The Georgia Department of Offender Rehabilitation currently operates both a residential and non-residential offender restitution program to formalize, refine, and expand the use of payment of compensation by the offender to the victim. To satisfy public demand for safety in the program, offenders are carefully screened by both probation personnel and the district attorney's office. After assignment to the program, the offender is supervised closely and the program personnel can ask that the probation be revoked if cause is found. In Georgia a four-stage screening process has evolved to protect public safety. To make the program meaningful, a penalty is assessed in addition to the actual compensation to the victim. This is individually determined depending on the circumstances of the case. Such a procedure also helps the public perceive the program as beneficial and socially useful. In addition, the positive aspects of the program are publicized in the community through involvement of volunteers, through the participation of offenders in community service projects, and through perception of reduced welfare and incarceration costs resulting from the program.

422

Read, B. (1976). The Georgia restitution program. In J. Hudson & B. Galaway (Eds.), Restitution in Criminal Justice, St. Paul: Minnesota Department of Corrections.

Describes the planning and operation of four restitution centers in the state of Georgia; provides descriptive data on the first year operation of these facilities.

423

Read, G. (1980). Area differences in community service operation. In K. Pease and W. McWilliams (Eds.), Community service by order (pp. 75-91). Edinburgh: Scottish Academic Press.



Identifies differences in the way community service has been implemented in different areas of England. Among the differences noted are those of philosophies with some identifying community service as a tariff sentence and others as an alternative to imprisonment; amount and type of evidence required for breach proceedings; selection differences.

424

Read, G. A. (1978). Community service: Concept and practice--Part I & II. Justice of the Peace, 142, 559-561; 142, 571-72.

In seeking to draw together some of the discussion during the past three years about the place of community service in the spectrum of sentencing alternatives, three broad and interrelated issues have emerged:

- The nature and philosophy of community service,
- The quality of community service schemes,
- The organization, staff, and maintenance of community service schemes.

There are three conclusions which can be drawn from the discussion:

- The punishment/treatment differences need to be recognized and worked with as a tension much as probation officers in prisons, hostels, or courts work with a tension in trying to reconcile punitive approaches with the provision of opportunities for offender to have satisfactory but law-abiding lives. One step in this direction would be the establishment, unambiguously, of the community service order as an alternative to imprisonment. Treatment aspects would become secondary but remain important. As a further consequence, an offender who could benefit from a community service type experience but whose offense does not justify the deprivation of liberty that an order would imply, could be introduced to opportunities for service to the community which could be undertaken voluntarily.
- Most of the experience of community service organizers in this group suggests that the individualization of community service placements achieves the best outcome, not only in terms of punishment, the primary objective of completing the hours ordered by the courts, but also in terms of opportunities to change the offender's self-concept. Such schemes require a good deal of time and supervisory investment. The probation service should be clear that such investment cannot be provided cheaply and that cheap, large-scale impersonal projects are best avoided.
- Community service is a distinctive aspect of probation work. Specialist ideas and practices are being developed. Some staff participating in that kind of development are untrained but become "professional" because of the way in which they work. This has important implications for the structure and organization of the probation service which should be tackled now.

425

Reed, D. E., & Stevens, A. O. (1983). Holding youth accountable: A manual for organizing a community based restitution program for delinquent youth. Chicago: Law Enforcement Study Group.

A manual designed to assist citizens to develop effective responses to youth crime. The model assumes that citizens must be involved and in control rather than abducting this responsibility to professionals. Restitution can meet the criteria of protection of society, rehabilitation of the offender, public expiation of guilt, and punishment. Critical points in operating community based restitution program include intake, restitution plan development, work site placement, monitoring progress, responding to poor performance or failure, and determining success. Issues to be considered in setting up a community based restitution program include determining who is eligible, the form restitution should take, how should the victim be involved in the program, who should organize the program, and what geographical area should the program served. Issues to be considered in operating a community based restitution program include what are the goals of the program, defining the programs relationship with the court, securing funding, determining the number of staff required by the program model, and insuring community safety.

426

Remer, L. (1977). Criminologist for the defense. Human Behavior, 6(12), 57-59.

Several case illustrations of Thomas Gitchoff's work preparing sentencing recommendations for the defense. Gitchoff believes incarceration is usually harmful and typically presents sentencing recommendations calling for community service or restitution.

427

Remington, C. (1979). New slant on restitution. Youth Authority Quarterly, 32(4), 14-18.

A Ventura County, CA, restitution project is described, in which juvenile offenders make financial payments to their victims for losses incurred.

428

Remington, C. (1979, September). Evaluation and research: Ventura County Juvenile Restitution Project. Paper presented at the Third Symposium on Restitution, Duluth, MN.

Describes the implementation and current operation of the Ventura County Juvenile Restitution Project as well as the experimental design being used for evaluation.

429

Renfrew, C. B. (1977). Reflections on white-collar sentencing: The paper label sentences--An evaluation. Yale Law Journal, 86, 589-618.

In 1974 Judge Renfrew imposed fines and suspended jail sentences on five corporate executives convicted of price fixing. As a condition of the suspended sentences each executive was required "to make an oral presentation before twelve business, civic, or other groups about the circumstances of this case and his participation therein." The rationale for the sentence is explained and the results of an evaluation the judge conducted using questionnaires from audiences who received the presentations and letters solicited from attorneys, judges and law professors. Generally the sentences received support from members of the business community who heard the speakers and attorneys who counsel businessmen. More mixed reactions were expressed by judges and law professors.

430

Restitution Alternative. (1981). Maine district court--The restitution alternative--Operations and procedures manual. Portland, ME: The Restitution Alternative.

This manual presents step-by-step guidelines for use in the juvenile restitution program associated with the Maine District Court.

431

Rhyme, R. F., & O'Connor, W. F. (1980). Making restitution work: An historical perspective. Paper presented at the Fourth Symposium on Restitution and Community Service Sentencing, Minneapolis, MN.

Describes key elements of a restitution program.

432

Richards, N., & Maull, G. (1985). Community service for offenders co. ltd? Probation Journal, 32, 98-99.

Describes the Wiltshire Community Service (England) scheme which is based on the philosophy that the positive experience of community service is achieved through the direct caring relationship established between offender and beneficiary -- the person who is also disadvantaged, elderly or handicapped. This happens in autonomous projects that are created and managed by the Community Service Unit. These projects aim at meeting needs that no other group in the community has met in the form of providing caring services directly to the disadvantaged.

433

Roberts, J. (1980). Strands in the development of community service: Reflections and suggestions. In K. Pease and W. McWilliams, Community service by order (115-135). Edinburgh: Scottish Academic Press.

Offers some reflections on the current status of the British community service scheme and proposes some suggestions for future attention. Among the issues addressed are those of the availability for offenders, suitability of types of offenders and the risks posed, consistency and its lack between and within different implementation areas.

434

Roberts, J., & Roberts, C. (1982). Social enquiry reports and sentencing. Howard Journal of Penology and Crime Prevention, 21(2), 76-93.

This article describes an analysis of the provision of social enquiry reports, the various sentencing outcomes in magistrates' courts and differences in the level of resources in 34 probation areas. It demonstrates that the level of report provision is strongly associated with the use of probation service administered disposals (i.e. probation and community service orders) but has little effect on the use of custodial disposals. The second part reviews the reasons for the apparent absence of influence in reports on the use of custodial sentences and the ways in which probation officers might enhance their impact on sentences via the preparation of reports, especially in relation to the use of tariff sentences.

435

Robinson, P. (1978, July). Work referral/community service program: An evaluation report. Governor's Commission on Criminal Justice, State of Delaware.

This is a phase one study of a proposed two-phase evaluation to examine the performance of the work service programs in Delaware from January, 1976 through March 31, 1978. The study aims at assessing program inputs, activities, and outputs. The work service programs were established within the Department of Corrections in Delaware in 1974. The program has two components--a work referral project and a community service project. The work referral project accepts offenders from courts who are sentenced to work for a state or municipal agency to pay off fines at the rate of \$2.00 per hour. The community service project is used as an alternative sentencing option for non-serious offenders. Offenders are sentenced in conjunction with probation to perform a specified number of hours of work for a state or community agency. Unlike the work referral project, an offender sentenced to community service has no option to pay off the sentence. An after-only, non-experimental design is used. Data was collected from project forms, interviews, and official records. Frequency distributions are presented.

Major findings were:

- In New Castle (Wilmington) County, a total of 1,668 persons were referred to the work referral program and sentenced to work a total of 150,468 hours. Of these, 772 (46%) completed their sentences working off \$310,140 in costs and fines. Three hundred and thirty-four directly paid off \$62,227 in costs and fines, 323 were returned to court for failure to complete the sentence, and 239 were still active at the time the study was completed.
- In New Castle (Wilmington) County, a total of 339 persons were sentenced to community service and of these, 201 completed their sentences totaling 4,422 days of community service work.

436

Roe, J. (1980, September). Involving the private sector in administering the Ontario community service order program. Paper presented at the Fourth Symposium on Restitution and Community Service Sentencing, Minneapolis, MN.

Community Service Orders (CSO's) in Ontario were formally introduced in November 1977 as pilot projects in six locations. They were designed to provide an alternative to incarceration and to involve the private sector in program administration. By April 1980, 35 projects were contracted. Economic rather than ideological considerations have fueled the move towards community programs for minor offenders in Ontario. Privatization was encouraged because of evident private sector interest, necessary services could be secured more economically, public services would not have to be increased, decision-making could be decentralized, accountability to the community could be increased, more innovative programs could be promoted, and more flexible use of human resources would be permitted. CSO's have also encouraged a broadened, more aware, and concerned public constituency. Criticism of community correctional programming is deflected at the local level because the boards are generally comprised of reputable concerned citizens. Critics of the program charge that private sector interests are being subjected to government interests. Early problems in involving the private sector included the reluctance of the judiciary to make use of the CSO disposition, the problem of legal liability in the event of injury to offenders while performing community services, and the attitude of unions fearful of jobs being taken away from nonoffender employees. Overall privatization appears to be working successfully in Ontario.

437

Rook, M. K. (1978). Tasmania's work order scheme: A reply to Varne. Australian and New Zealand Journal of Criminology, 11, 81-88.

Two claims made by Varne (1976) are disputed: first, that the introduction of the Work Order scheme in Tasmania had little effect on the number of people sentenced to terms of imprisonment and, as a corollary to this, that those sentenced to Work Orders would not have gone to prison in the first place in contrast to the legislative intent. The second claim is that the work done by those sentenced to Work Orders amounts to little

more than hard labor exercises. A twelve month investigation of the Work Order scheme produced findings contrary to the claims made by Varne.

Varne's analysis is confusing and inaccurate. The number of persons imprisoned for 1972 was already affected by the introduction of the Work Order scheme, which had been in operation for nearly half of the year and therefore the drop in the number of prison admissions is not, as Varne claimed, in the year prior to the introduction of the scheme, but occurs in the first year of operation of the scheme. There is also a problem with the imprisonment figures used by Varne in that they are not consistent within her article, nor with the numbers published by the Controller of Prisons in his Annual Reports. Furthermore, Varne's Figures 2 & 3 show a considerable decrease in the prison population and yet in the text this is brushed aside as no observable changes.

A more accurate appraisal of the effect of the introduction of Work Orders on the rate of imprisonment can be made by plotting the number of prisoners received each year and calculating the line of least squares for an equivalent number of years both before and after the introduction of the Work Order scheme. On this basis, there is found to be a pronounced decrease in the number of prisoners received with the introduction of the Work Order scheme and the trend of increasing prison admissions from 1967 to 1971 is reversed to one of decreasing receptions from 1972 to 1976; this reversal coincides with the implementation of the Work Order scheme. An analysis of the daily average prison population shows a similar trend and therefore it can be concluded that the introduction of the Work Order scheme has had a considerable effect in reducing the number of prisoners received each year in Tasmania.

Varne's corollary, that Work Orders are not used exclusively as an alternative to imprisonment and that only 5 out of 30 (17%) would actually have gone to prison, is grossly distorted. On the basis of the line of least squares and the reference points for the number of Work Order sentences handed down by the bench each year, it is found that by the end of 1972 an estimate 54% of those sentenced to Work Orders would not have gone to prison. This has gradually decreased to an estimated 39% by the end of 1975. This is a far cry from Varne's estimate of 83% who would not have gone to prison and means that the Work Order scheme has had a pronounced and continuing effect on the imprisonment rate in Tasmania and that at least one half of those sentenced to Work Orders would have gone to prison had this sanction not been available. Varne's second claim about the quality of the Work Order projects is also inaccurate and it is found that the work projects are varied, of benefit to the community, help to develop new interests in the employees, and are anything but hard labor exercises.

438

Rook, M. K. (1978). A practical evaluation of the Tasmanian work order scheme. Unpublished master's thesis. University of Tasmania, Psychology Department.

The work order scheme was introduced into the Tasmanian criminal justice system in 1972 as an optional alternative to imprisonment. It provides for offenders to be sentenced to a maximum of twenty five days of work on community projects, to be completed during normal leisure hours. The introduction of the scheme was accompanied by a reversal of trends from an increasing to a decreasing daily average prison population. Although this would appear to be related to the introduction of the work order scheme, a similar reversal of trends occurred in the other Australian states, indicating an Australian-wide change in sentencing policy.

A six month analysis of the operation of the scheme involving 451 offenders showed an average weekly attendance of 63%, 12% absent without leave and 24% absent with permission. The absconding rate was 5.5% and 1.6% were breached for non compliance with their work order instructions. Significant differences in performance were found between the five administrative regions as well as the three different types of work projects.

The characteristics of offenders sentenced to work orders were similar to those found throughout the criminal justice systems in the western world, mainly poorly educated, young, single males working in the semi skilled or unskilled jobs with a record of prior offenses. A comparison of recidivism rates between comparable groups of offenders sentenced to work orders and those sentenced to three months or less of imprisonment, showed that 44% of the work order group were convicted of subsequent offenses compared to 58% of the short term prison group within a six to eighteen month follow-up period. Similar differences were found between the two groups for subsequent offenses compared to 31% of the short term prison group.

A comparison of the costs of imprisonment and the costs of the work order scheme showed the gross cost of imprisonment in 1974/75 to be around \$145 per prisoner per week, compared to an estimated gross cost of about \$4 per work order employee per week. This cost difference was increased when the value of production was considered. Qualitative information in the form of anecdotes highlighting outstanding success and failures on the scheme are considered and suggestions made for improving the scheme.

439

Rosberg, G. R. (1979). Community service sentencing--Social restitution to the community. In R. O. Darnell (Ed.), Alternatives to prisons: Issues and options. Iowa City: University of Iowa, School of Social Work.

A Des Moines, Iowa, community service sentencing program is described, and its benefits and problems are discussed.

440

Rowe-Cornelius, P., & Garman, J. S. (1980, September). Financial and community service restitution for adult misdemeanants--A viable alternative. Paper presented at the Fourth Symposium on Restitution and Community Service, Minneapolis, MN.

A brief description of the alternative sentencing program of Portsmouth, VA, as contributed during a symposium on restitution and community service held during 1980, is presented.

441

Rowley, M. S. (1990). Comparison of recidivism rates for delinquents processed in a restitution diversion program to a matched sample processed in court. In B. Galaway & J. Hudson (Eds.), Criminal Justice, Restitution, and Reconciliation. Monsey, NY: Criminal Justice Press.

The Vermont juvenile court diversion program requires juvenile offenders to make restitution to their victims and to the community in the form of unpaid service. Court records were used for a long term follow-up (1981 through 1987) of 60 male 16 or 17 year old diversion participants who were compared to a matched sample of youth who were not diverted. The groups were matched on the variables of sex, age, prior experience with the juvenile justice system and presenting offense. Diversion participants showed significantly less subsequent offending in terms of both incidence and severity.

442

Rowley, M. S. (1986). Does equity even the score? A preliminary investigation of equity mechanisms in the Vermont juvenile division program. Burlington, VT: University of Vermont.

A pilot study to test equity theory propositions that justification will decrease and self esteem will increase for youth who make monetary restitution to their victims. The study group consisted of twelve juvenile offenders; three were ordered to provide monetary restitution to their victims and nine were ordered to render community service. The youth providing monetary compensation were also ordered to provide community service and program staff stress the restitution nature of providing service to the public. A pre-post design was used to collect data on self esteem and justification scales. Justification decreased across all twelve subjects and self esteem increased; no post program difference was found between the group ordered to provide monetary restitution and the group that provided community service.

443

Rubin, H. T. (1988). Fulfilling juvenile restitution requirements in community correctional programs. Federal Probation, 52(3), 32-42.



Enforcement of monetary restitution and community service sentencing requirements for juvenile offenders is often delayed because of offenders' involvement in day treatment settings, residential care, drug and alcohol treatment programs, or detention. A series of program examples are presented which illustrate that these types of programs can incorporate paid and unpaid work opportunities into their programming to enable the juvenile offender to immediately begin complying with restitution or community service requirements. Juvenile courts should review and make explicit their policies regarding expectations that these requirements are part of the program of juvenile offenders; community placement agencies need to incorporate complying with restitution and community service requirements into their program purposes. Community placement agencies must be aware of the restitution community service requirement; the restitution community service must be appropriate and consistently administered to assist placement agencies to collaborate with fulfillment of these requirements. Placement agencies need to review their insurance coverage for juveniles fulfilling restitution requirements, to review what deductions may be required for restitution from the offenders' earnings, to develop procedures for obtaining restitution monies from juvenile earnings, to develop policy concerning the offenders' retention of a portion of the earnings, and to develop procedures to sanction restitution non-compliance.

444

Rubin, H. T. (1988, June). Police administration of juvenile restitution. Paper presented at the International Symposium of Restitution and Community Service Sentencing, Minneapolis, MN.

A survey of law enforcement agencies discovered conflicting policies ranging from the rejection of restitution use due to the lack of formal authority and concerns regarding coercive compliance to an embrace of restitution, both monetary and community service work. Descriptions of three police departments using restitution as a diversion program are presented. Issues with police use of diversion include legal and due process concerns, program management issues, and the need for integration of police programs with juvenile court procedures and sanctions. Restitution diversion is best administered by non coercive community agencies but police departments should assist in the development of this type of program by community agencies. Failing this, law enforcement administration of restitution diversion should continue but under specified safeguards. Benefits to victims and juveniles accruing from restitution diversion are superior to police diversion accompanied only by a lecture or threat of sanction upon a subsequent offense.

445

Rubin, H. T. (1986). Community service restitution by juveniles: Also in need of guidance. Juvenile and Family Court Journal, 37(1), 1-8.

A court-initiated community service hours matrix is preferable to legislatively enacted guidelines. Such matrixes used in Dakota County, MN; Dallas County, TX; Dane

County, WI; and Suffolk County, NY; relate the number of community hours served to offense severity and other factors related to culpability. Additions and subtractions may be made to the matrix hours in accord with aggravating, mitigating, and other factors. The ideal design process for a court-initiated matrix uses an intrasystem task force that includes the presiding judge, a juvenile prosecutor, a public defender or private attorney who regularly represents juveniles, a juvenile police official, probation administrative personnel, and private restitution staff. Design content should use proportionality as its guide, requiring more hours for more serious and repetitive offenses and fewer hours for informally adjusted cases. Recommended hours should apply only to adjudicated offenses or offenses adjusted at intake for which there is probable cause and an admission by the juvenile. Community service hours matrixes are presented for the four counties.

446

Rubin, H. T. (1974, January). Exemplary project field report: The Minnesota Restitution Center. Cambridge, MA: Abt Associates, Inc.

Describes the original plan and organization of the Restitution Center Program as well as recent developments in relation to the firing of the director. The report is based upon interviews with program staff as well as published reports on the program.

447

Ryan, M. (1976). Radical alternatives to prison. Political Quarterly, 47, 71-81.

An historical analysis of recent developments of England's Radical Alternatives to Prison (RAP) group--an organization dedicated to correctional reform. The article includes the group's arguments against the British Community Service Order scheme. Community service orders are perceived as containing conflicting aims (punitive and rehabilitative) and supporting bourgeois values.

448

Saskatchewan's fine option experiment. (1976). Saskatchewan's fine option experiment. Liaison, 1(11), 5-6, 15.

A fine option program which began in 1975 in Saskatchewan provides offenders the choice of working out a fine at the prevailing minimum wage in lieu of a cash payment. Four hundred and sixty-five offenders participated during the first year; approximately half were between the ages of 16 and 21. Questions are raised about the effect the program has had on incarceration rates, changes that need to be made in the structure of the program, and whether the program should be legislated throughout the province.

449

Schafer, S. (1975). The proper role of a victim-compensation system. Crime and Delinquency, 21, 45-49.

Compensation to the victim of a criminal injury is not effective if it consists merely of financial remedy supplied by the state. It should take the form of punitive restitution; that is, it must come from the offender's resources (either money or service) and it must be part of the criminal court sentence by being tied to whatever reformatory plan is contemplated. Correctional restitution goes a significant step further than compensation by requiring the offender to maintain a relationship with the victim until the victim's pre-injury condition has been restored to the fullest extent possible. It compensates the victim, relieves the state of some burden of responsibility, and permits the offender to pay his debt to society and to his victim. Thus it makes a contribution to the reformatory and corrective goals of criminal law and finds its proper place in the criminal justice system. Six rationales for compensation programs are identified and all found to be insufficient to justify a public victim compensation program, unless the offender is also involved; the rationales are legal obligation, social welfare, grace of government, crime prevention, political reasons, and anti-alienation.

450

Schafer, S. (1972). Corrective compensation. Trial, 8, 25-27.

The criminal justice system's emphasis on reform and rehabilitation of the criminal has resulted in neglect of the victim. A system of correctional restitution would have three elements of punishment: protection of law and order, reform of the criminal, and restitution to the victim. The offender would be required to maintain a relationship with the victim until the victim's pre-injury condition had been restored to the fullest extent possible.

451

Schafer, S. (1970). Compensation and restitution to victims of crime. Montclair, NJ: Patterson Smith.

The author states that he has approached his study from two angles in an attempt to serve not only the ideas of victimology, but the tasks of penology as well. Restitution should help not only the victim, but at the same time it should refine the practical concept of punishment. Schafer's approach differs from past solutions in which restitution appeared almost entirely as a criminal retribution. Schafer studies the common past of restitution and punishment and the decline of restitution from a historical perspective. He then covers legislation in various countries of Europe, the Americas, the Middle and Far East, Australia, Africa, and Communist territories. Special emphasis is given to the United Kingdom. Punishment and restitution are examined from the standpoints of restitutive concept of punishment, punitive concept of punishment, and justification of compensation and correctional restitution. Developments

in victim compensation to 1970 are examined for New Zealand, the United Kingdom, and the United States. The appendix contains a survey questionnaire that served as a basic starting point for further investigation and statutes on governmental compensation for the states of California, Hawaii, Maryland, Massachusetts, and New York, and a proposed federal bill (S.9).

452

Schafer, S. (1970). Victim compensation and responsibility. Southern California Law Review, 43, 55-67.

Reviews both historical and contemporary programs of compensation and restitution. The author suggests that in those cases where incarceration is not a practical necessity, the reformatory and rehabilitative functions of the criminal law would be enhanced by a system of correctional restitution.

453

Schafer, S. (1965). The correctional rejuvenation of restitution to the victim of crime. In W. C. Reckless & C. L. Newman (Eds.), Interdisciplinary Problems in Criminology (pp. 159-168). Columbus, OH: Ohio State University.

Correctional restitution may be distinguished from civil damages in that while the latter are subject to compromise and are not in every case satisfied by the wrongdoer himself, restitution, like punishment, should always be the subject of judicial consideration in the criminal procedure. Correctional restitution is a part of the personal performance of the wrongdoer, and should even then be equally burdensome, reformatory, and just for all criminals, irrespective of their means and crimes, whether they be millionaires or laborers, murderers or shoplifters. If restitution is unconnected with the offender's personal work, and can be performed from his property or by others, this would help the victim, but would minimize restitution's reformatory-corrective character. On the other hand, if the performance of the restitutive obligation affected the freedom of work of the offender, or even his personal liberty, this would mean the extension of his sentenced punishment. If the offender were at liberty after he had served his punishment, but had to make restitution to his victim through his personal work, restitution would retain its reformatory-corrective character, and could be regarded not as an extension but a part of the sentence.

454

Schafer, S. (1965). Restitution to victims of crime--An old correctional aim modernized. Minnesota Law Review, 50, 243-265.

After establishing an historical perspective of criminal punishment and victim restitution, the author proposes a new concept of correctional restitution combining civil law compensation with the medieval notion of composition. "Composition" as used here refers

to the medieval punitive approach of "making up" or "making whole." included in the paper are some results from the author's research into offenders' willingness to compensate victims.

455

Schmitt, G. R. (1985). Alternative sentencing: A proposed state model. Journal of Legislation, 12, 225-242.

This note discusses court ordered work and restitution as alternatives to incarceration, examines the implementation problems of current alternative sentencing legislation, and proposes a model State law for alternative sentencing.

456

Schneider, A. L. (1986). Restitution and recidivism rates of juvenile offenders: Results from four experimental studies. Criminology, 24(3), 533-552.

One of the major changes in juvenile justice during the past decade has been the increased reliance on restitution as a sanction for juvenile offenders. Although a great deal has been learned during the past 10 years about the operation of restitution programs, much remains unknown regarding its impact on recidivism rates. This report contains the results from four studies in which youths were randomly assigned into restitution and into traditional dispositions. These experiments were conducted simultaneously in four communities: Boise, Idaho, Washington, DC., Clayton County, Georgia, and Oklahoma County, Oklahoma.

The outcome measures (dependent variables) were:

- Prevalence. Percent of juveniles who committed a subsequent offence which resulted in a referral to adult or juvenile court during the follow-up period. Excluded were incidents where the record indicated the case was dismissed for lack of evidence or the youth was found not guilty; and
- Annual Offense Rate. Sum of all offenses for the group, divided by the time at risk (days), and converted to an average annual average rate per 100 youths.

Results. On the whole, the results show that restitution may have a small but important effect on recidivism. In Washington, D.C. and Clayton County, Georgia, approximately 10% fewer of the restitution group were re-contacted during the follow-up. The annual offense rate of the restitution program cases was almost 10 fewer crimes per 100 youth per year than the controls in these two programs. The differences in these differences were statistically significant.

In Boise, Idaho restitution program youths did better on both measures of recidivism by six percentage points and an annual rate differential of 14 incidents per 100 youths per year. However, these differences were not statistically significance at the .05 level because there were fewer persons in this program than in either Washington, D.C. or

Clayton County, Georgia. The study in Oklahoma County revealed no differences among the three groups of sufficient size to merit policy consideration.

These results should not be viewed as inconclusive or as contradictory. Rather, the lesson here is that restitution can have a positive effect on recidivism, but it does not necessarily have this impact under all circumstances.

The reasons for the success of restitution in reducing recidivism--in those instances when it was successful--remain a matter of speculation and theory. As with any effective intervention, it is reasonable to assume that the intervention must have an impact on one or more variables which influence delinquency. And, since the restitution intervention was directed primarily at the juvenile (rather than his or her parents, friends, or neighborhood), it is reasonable to believe that the effect is transmitted through changes in the juvenile's perceptions or attitudes which, in turn, alter behavior. However, not all programs will be able to achieve this effect, either because of program management and strategy, community circumstances, or other factors.

Youths in the restitution groups never had higher recidivism rates than those in probation or detention conditions. In two of the four studies, the juveniles in restitution clearly had fewer subsequent re-contacts with the court during the two-to-three year follow-up.

457

Schneider, A. L. (1985). Evaluating restitution. In A. L. Schneider (Ed.), Guide to Juvenile Restitution (pp. 121-133). Washington, DC: U.S. Dept. of Justice, Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention.

Programs must be accountable to the public, but the program manager should be the first to know whether the program is effective and to suggest ways to improve. Evaluation planning involves determining the purpose of the evaluation, identifying the data needed, developing a design for data collection and analysis, and implementing the evaluation plan. Evaluation can be undertaken to meet information needed by external constituencies or for internal diagnostics which means providing information necessary for the program manager to improve performance. Performance measures may include cost per case, successful completion and program recidivism rates, number and seriousness of referrals, amount of restitution paid, and proportion of victim loss which is repaid. Some performance measures are offender-based indicators and others are victim-based indicators. Data analysis and reporting may involve judgement and experience in which information is provided but is not compared against any standard and simply interpreted using judgement and experience; information can be reported to compare actual program experience with management objectives; comparisons can be made with other standards, such as past performance, comparisons with concurrent programs, internal comparisons within a restitution program. Information can be reported to assess the cost benefit of the program; evaluation can also be used to test causal relationships between the restitution program and particular performance measures.

458

Schneider, A. L. (1985). Fundamental decisions in restitution programming. In A. L. Schneider (Ed.), Guide to Juvenile Restitution (pp. 7-18). Washington, DC: U.S. Dept. of Justice, Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention.

Fundamental decisions regarding program goals and philosophy, organizational sponsorship, relation to other sanctions, target population, program components, and victim roles will influence a program's environment and guide its overall operations. Decisions about goals and philosophies are frequently made among holding juveniles accountable, providing reparations to victims, treating and rehabilitating juveniles, and punishing juveniles. Choices about organizational placement include with probation, as a part of private organizations, or court operated but separate from probation. Decisions must be made about where restitution falls within the juvenile justice system and its relationship to other sanctions.

459

Schneider, A. L. (Ed.). (1985). Guide to Juvenile Restitution. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice, Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention.

A guide, drawing heavily on the experiences of the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention (U.S.) Juvenile Restitution Initiative, prepared to assist groups and individuals planning to establish a juvenile restitution program. Juvenile restitution refers to monetary restitution, community service restitution, or both. Materials identify fundamental planning decisions, conceptualize different models for juvenile restitution programs, discuss matters to be addressed in implementing juvenile restitution programs, development and use of management information systems, procedures and questions to be addressed in evaluating juvenile restitution, provides a summary of current research findings, conceptualizes legal issues to be addressed in juvenile restitution programs, discusses employment components which may be incorporated in juvenile restitution programs, and identifies possible sources of federal assistance for juvenile restitution programming.

460

Schneider, A. L., & Schneider, P. R. (1985). The impact of restitution on recidivism of juvenile offenders: An experiment in Clayton County, Georgia. Criminal Justice Review, 10(1), 1-10. Also Eugene, OR: Institute of Policy Analysis, 1984.

Juvenile offenders from Clayton County, Georgia (a suburb of Atlanta) who were 13 years of age or older, had been convicted of an offense with a demonstrable loss, had not been convicted of murder, attempted murder, rape, or attempted rape, did not have serious drug or alcohol problem, and were not mentally retarded or emotionally disturbed were randomly assigned four treatment strategies--restitution, mental health counseling, restitution and mental health counseling combined, a control disposition which would

consist of the normal disposition to be used. Seventy eight percent of this latter group were placed on probation, five percent were incarcerated, and the balance received some other disposition. Youth from the restitution group were ordered to do monetary restitution or do community service; service restitution was the most common involving 60% of the youth. The counseling consisted of being assigned to a mental health therapist for a diagnostic session followed by treatment. The restitution group was monitored by restitution workers and were under supervision for an average of 3.5 months; the counseling group was monitored by probation officers and were under supervision for a period of 5.6 months; the restitution plus counseling group were monitored by restitution officers and were under supervision for 5.8 months.

Data on pre and post offending were secured and standardized to a rate of offenses per 100 youth per year; the rate of offending for the restitution group was reduced by 26 offenses per 100 youth per year and reduced for the counseling and restitution group by 8 offenses per year; offending rate for the counseling only group increase by 20 offenses per 100 youth per year and remained unchanged for the control group. The restitution groups had lower recidivism rates than those given more traditional juvenile court dispositions; restitution works quite well on its own and does not need to be combined with mental health counseling.

461

Schneider, A. L., & Schneider, P. R. (1980). An overview of restitution program models in the juvenile justice system. Juvenile and Family Court Journal, 31, 3-22.

Seven general models of juvenile restitution programs are described using the variables of major organizational goals and purposes, types of restitution, scope of eligibility, development of restitution plan, offender services, victim services, and source of control. The models are illustrated with examples from juvenile restitution programs participating in the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention funded Juvenile Restitution initiative.

462

Schneider, A. L., & Schneider, P. R. (1980). Policy expectations and program realities in juvenile restitution. In J. Hudson & B. Galaway (Eds.), Victims, offenders, and alternative sanctions. Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.

Describes the implementation of the Juvenile Restitution initiative funded by the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention and examines factors contributing to the difficulties experienced by projects in implementing restitution.

463

Schneider, A. L., Schneider, P. R., & Bazemore, G. (1981). In-program reoffense rates for juveniles in restitution projects. Eugene, OR: Institute of Policy Analysis.



This report analyzes in-program reoffending rates for more than 9,000 juvenile offenders referred to 85 different restitution programs. An estimated 8.4 to 8.8% of the youths referred to the restitution projects reoffend during the time they are under the projects' auspices. The average amount of time spent in these programs is 6.2 months. The likelihood of reoffending is higher for youths who had a history of prior criminal acts than for first offenders. The proportion expected to reoffend within 6 months of referral is 6% for those with two priors and 13% for those with three or more prior offenses. The likelihood of reoffending is not related to the seriousness of the immediate offense and not significantly related to the youths' age, sex, or race. There were some differences in the reoffense rates of youths in different income categories. Other findings are reported. Tables, graphs, and 20 references are supplied. Methodological notes are appended.

464

Schneider, P. R. (1983). Impact of organizational characteristics of restitution programs on short-term performance indicators. Eugene, OR: Institute of Policy Analysis.

This paper isolates the organizational characteristics of a number of juvenile offender restitution programs and assesses the impact of those characteristics on program performance.

All of the 85 programs included in this study were funded by the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention as part of the National Juvenile Restitution Initiative. Three indicators of short-term client performance were selected to assess the impact, if any, of the choices made by the organizers of the programs. These indicators are (1) successful completion of restitution, (2) proportion of monetary restitution order paid or community service requirement worked, and (3) in-program offense rate. Options available to restitution project planners are identified as those available for siting the project and for arriving at the restitution requirements, those available in formulating a restitution plan for the offender, and those available for supervising the referrals and imposing sanctions in lieu of compliance with the restitution order. The evidence presented strongly suggests that while particular models of restitution projects - defined as mixes of organizational components -- have some impact on the success of clients in those programs, the effect is, in most instances slight.

465

Schneider, P. R. (1983). Juvenile restitution in the United States--Practices, problems and prospects. Eugene, OR: Institute of Policy Analysis.

This paper reviews some of the evaluation research on the National Juvenile Restitution Initiative, discusses various reactions to restitution programs, and appraises the future of juvenile restitution programs in the United States.

Opening sections of the report review practices and preferences for various types of restitution, types of offenders and offenses encompassed in restitution programs, and the performance of offenders in restitution projects. Findings on in-program reoffense rates are reported and compared with reoffense rates for juveniles receiving other dispositions. A discussion of major implementation problems focuses on (1) employment for referrals to restitution programs, (2) client supervision, (3) accurately assessing the amount of victim loss, (4) restitution payment procedures, and (5) the determination of sanctions when restitution orders are not completed. The discussion of prospects for juvenile restitution in the United States briefly describes the institutional components fuelling restitution as a national movement. These components are the National Juvenile Restitution Association, the Institute of Policy Analysis, and the National Institute for Sentencing Alternatives.

466

Schneider, P. R. (1982). Restitution as an alternative disposition for serious juvenile offenders. Eugene, OR: Institute of Policy Analysis.

Using data collected in the national evaluation of the Juvenile Restitution Initiative, this study examines the restitution completion rate for serious juvenile offenders and the recidivism rate of serious juvenile offenders who complete restitution compared to serious offenders who received more traditional dispositions.

In identifying serious juvenile offenders, the criteria used were the type of property offense and the extent of the monetary loss, as well as prior record. The performance of 4,032 serious offenders in restitution projects was examined. Recidivism rates for serious offenders in experimental and control groups were compared in five intensive evaluation sites: Oklahoma County, OK; Washington, DC; Dane County, WI; Venture County, CA; and Ada County, ID. Recidivism was measured by official reports of delinquency at 6 and 12 months after completion of sentences for the experimental and control groups. Serious juvenile offenders completed restitution orders at a rate slightly less than that for all offenders; however, their recidivism rate was greater than that of serious offenders who received traditional dispositions. The recidivism differences were consistent but not statistically significant. The positive view is that serious juvenile offenders can be expected to complete restitution orders and compensate communities and victims for damage without posing a community threat significantly more serious than offenders receiving traditional dispositions that provide no compensation for damages.

467

Schneider, P. R., & Bazemore, G. (1985). Research on restitution: A guide to rational decision making. In A. L. Schneider (Ed.), Guide to Juvenile Restitution (pp. 137-146). Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice, Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention.

A summary of research findings, primarily from the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention's Juvenile Restitution Initiative. Judges are not reluctant to order restitution even for serious offenders where organized restitution programs exist. Half of the more than 18,000 referrals had a prior offense, and 22% had three or more priors; 54% of the program referrals had been adjudicated for a serious or very serious offense. Fears that juveniles will not pay restitution or complete community service work are unfounded. Eighty-six percent of the cases are closed with full compliance with the original or adjusted restitution order. Over 75% of the ordered restitution amount is paid. Over 80% completion rate is found for all offender groups; race, age, sex had no impact on completion rates. Eighty-nine percent of the offenders in school completed restitution orders compared to 79% of those not in school; 92% of the offenders from families with income over \$20,000 completed orders successfully compared to 81% earning under \$6,000. Referrals with no prior offenses had a 90% successful completion rate; this dropped by about 2% with the addition of each prior. However, even referrals with six or more prior offenses had a 77% completion rate. No correlation at all was found between successful completion of restitution orders and offense seriousness.

Program components such as type of restitution, services offered, type of agency administering the program, location in the juvenile justice system, use of subsidies, and use of victim-offender mediation have little impact on successful completion. Size of order, for both monetary restitution and community service restitution, did have an inverse correlation with successful completion. The use of employment subsidy may have slightly increased the successful completion rate, especially for the highest risk group (poor, non-white, chronic offenders with large orders) where subsidized employment may have increased the successful completion rate by as much as 20%. Neither the amount of the subsidy nor the amount of earnings the offender was permitted to keep, however, had a noticeable effect on completion rates.

Youth with restitution as a sole sanction had more successful completion rates than youth in which restitution was combined with probation supervision; the effect of sole sanction orders remains strong even when the relationship was controlled for race, gender, income, prior offenses, and offense seriousness. Restitution is more likely to be collected when a programmatic focus is on restitution rather than treating it as a ad hoc probation condition. Youth were randomly assigned to restitution programs and alternative treatments (restitution compared to weekend detention, restitution determined through victim-offender mediation compared with probation, restitution alone compared with restitution and probation, restitution compared with mental health counselling) at four different sites; a before and after comparison of offense rates found that youth in the restitution programs consistently did as well or better as youth in the alternative programs.

Substituting restitution for other programs will not result in an increase in recidivism. Careful monitoring of referrals found that about one third of referrals to restitution projects were in the most stringent seriousness category and less than 10% were in the least serious category, suggesting that projects may have diverted some offenders from

incarceration. Data available in five sites from a comparable group of offenders suggested that some reduction in incarceration occurred in three jurisdictions. Research on the cost-effectiveness of restitution has been rare. Great variation was found in expenditures per youth across programs ranging from \$250 to \$2,500. Seventy-one percent of the programs had costs per case of less than \$1,250; and the average cost per case, including both start-up and operational costs over a two year time period, was \$820.

468

Schneider, P. R., & Griffith, W. (1980). Juvenile restitution as a sole sanction condition of probation: An empirical analysis. Eugene: Institute of Policy Analysis.

An examination of the first 7,000 closed cases from the National Juvenile Restitution initiative found a 95% successful completion rate for youth who had only a restitution sanction compared with an 87% successful completion rate for youth who received a sanction of restitution combined with an order of probation or suspended commitment. Successful completion means the youth completed the restitution obligation and did not reoffend while in the program. The relationship between successful completion and presence or absence of probation remained strong when controls were introduced for school attendance, family income, number of prior offenses, offense seriousness, and amount of restitution ordered.

469

Schneider, P. R., & Schneider, A. L. (1983). Analysis of recidivism rates in six federally funded restitution projects in juvenile courts--A statistical summary. Eugene, OR: Institute of Policy Analysis.

This report summarizes recidivism rates in six federally funded restitution projects in juvenile courts.

Tables present statistics giving a profile of referrals, types of referral offenses, reoffense patterns by evaluation group and offense type, pre-post-comparisons of offense rates for youths in each of the six evaluation groups, and multiple regression analysis of recidivism rates of youth randomly assigned to restitution or to probation.

470

Schneider, P. R., & Schneider, A. L. (1983). Selected summaries of research reports and documents from the evaluation of the national juvenile restitution initiative. Eugene, OR: Institute of Policy Analysis.

This document contains 15 summaries of research reports on juvenile restitution programs, prepared as part of the National Evaluation of Juvenile Restitution.

Two summaries cover the experimental design, research objectives, and performance of the National Juvenile Restitution project, while several others focus on the program models implemented by juvenile courts, their rates of completion, and reoffense rates. Other topics discussed are reasons for programs' implementation failures, legal issues that pose problems for restitution orders, and legal rights and responsibilities involved in paying restitution to insurance companies. Methodological issues addressed include the application of statistical power analysis to research in field settings and use of the Juvenile Offender Instrument in selected sites. Other reports examine whether restitution should be used alone or as a condition of probation, factors contributing to successful completion rates, State-administered programs, and job subsidies in juvenile restitution projects.

471

Schneider, P. R., & Schneider, A. L. (1979, September). The national juvenile justice restitution evaluation: Experimental designs and research objectives. Paper presented at the Third National Symposium on Restitution, Duluth, MN.

Describes the national evaluation being completed on the Juvenile Restitution initiative funded by the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention. Eighty five separate restitution projects in 26 states, Puerto Rico, and the District of Columbia are included. Thirty five of the projects are directly funded, and 50 others operate under omnibus grants to six statewide agencies. Study design involves a variety of experimental and non-experimental research designs to assess the population of projects. Six project sites are using an experimental design, focusing on outcome measures and involving comparisons between restitution and non-restitution dispositions. The second major type of design is non-experimental and aimed at documenting the progress of the programs. Data is being collected through a variety of means, including official records, interview schedules, participant observation, and management information system forms.

A variety of analytic procedures are being used. The research is still in progress and any findings presented are tentative in nature:

- Information is being received from 55 of the 85 projects funded. Ten of the sites have been in operation for ten months, 36 for seven months, and 53 for five months.
- Preliminary findings indicate that the funding initiative is behind schedule in two respects: the projects took longer than expected to get started and are receiving approximately 3/4 of the number of referrals anticipated.
- The projects are diverse in terms of organization, but typically involve a youth required to make financial restitution and placed in a subsidized job in which 75% of the earnings are paid to the victim. The youth is most likely to be on probation and can expect to receive some kind of counseling and transportation to and from the worksite. Completion of the restitution ordered does not automatically terminate the probation.
- The typical juvenile offender in the project is white, male, between 15 and 16 years of age, and comes from a family income of approximately \$10,000. The offense

resulting in the referral is most likely burglary of a private home, and there often has been at least one prior involvement with the juvenile system.

- The first phase of the cost effectiveness analysis has compared the budgets of the funded projects and great variations were noted. Two year budgets ranged from \$120,391 to \$1,124,841 and the cost per case ranged from \$228 to \$3,818. Personnel costs amount to the largest single budget item, averaging approximately 55% across the projects, with the second largest item the subsidy for employment, averaging about 21% of costs across the project budgets.

472

Schneider, P. R., Schneider, A. L., & Griffith, W. (1980). Measures and predictors of success or failure in juvenile restitution: some preliminary results from the national evaluation. Eugene, OR: Institute of Policy Analysis.

A report based on the first 7,000 closed cases from the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention (OJJDP) funded National Juvenile Restitution Initiative. Nearly 80% of the closures were closed as successful completions. There was no difference in successful or unsuccessful closure by age or sex; whites tended to have a higher successful closure rate than non-whites, youths from higher income families had a higher success rate than youths from lower income families, and youths in full-time school had a higher success rate than youths not in full-time school. Successful completion rate correlated negatively with the number of prior or concurrent charges and with the seriousness of the offense. The lowest successful completion rate, however, was 77% of youth with six or prior or concurrent charges. Successful completion meant that youths satisfactorily completed restitution requirements as originally ordered or as subsequently adjusted. Youths with restitution as sole sanction had a higher successful completion rate than youths with restitution with probation; this relationship held even when controlling for offense seriousness.

473

Schneider, P. R., Schneider, A. L., Griffith, W. R., & Wilson, M. J. (1983). Juvenile restitution--Two-year report on the national evaluation: Executive summary. Eugene, OR: Institute of Policy Analysis.

In 1978, the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention (OJJDP) funded 41 restitution programs nationwide. In the first 2 years of operation, 17,354 offenders were referred to restitution projects. The average offender was a 15 year old white male; about 30% of referrals were minorities. More than 30% were serious or chronic offenders; most had committed crimes such as arson, burglary, robbery, or assault. Most offenders (65%) were asked to pay monetary restitution and paid, on average, \$169 apiece. Of all offenders accepted into restitution projects during the first 2 years, 86% completed their requirements successfully. There was a high rate of success even among the riskiest referrals. Overall recidivism rates were low (8%); youths most likely to reoffend had prior criminal records. Offenders making restitution as their sole sanction

had substantially higher completion rates and lower re offense rates than those who were also on probation. Employment subsidies (for public service work, etc.) were largely successful. Overall, restitution is a feasible, relatively inexpensive dispositional option for juvenile offenders.

474

Schneider, P. R., Schneider, A. L., Griffith, W., & Wilson, M. (1982). Two-year report on the national juvenile restitution initiative: An overview of program performance. Eugene, OR: Institute of Policy Analysis.

Twenty-four months data from the 85 sites in the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention (OJJDP) juvenile restitution initiative, 17,354 referrals were received, 15,829 (91%) of which resulted in restitution plans. Fifty-four percent of the plans were for monetary restitution, 32% were for community service restitution, 12% were for both, and 2% were other plans including victim service restitution. Eighty-six percent of the youth had committed a property offence (burglary was the most common); 72% of the youth were white, 90% male, and 50% first offenders. Average family income was \$12,000. The offenses involved 18,390 victims, 66% of whom were personal or household victims. Estimated total victim loss was \$9.5 million of which \$3.2 million was reimbursed by insurance or other sources. Monetary restitution orders accounted for 90% of the unreimbursed victim losses. Eighty-six percent of the cases were closed successfully meaning that the restitution obligation was completed without reoffending while in the program. Seventy-seven percent of victim losses were repaid. Reoffending rates for youth referred to the projects was 14% at the end of one year from referral. Project costs were \$820 per youth (including start up costs) or \$160 per youth per month.

475

Schneider, P. R., Schneider, A. L., Reiter, P. D., & Clearly, C. M. (1977). Restitution requirements for juvenile offenders: A survey of the practices in American juvenile courts. Juvenile Justice, 28(4), 43-56.

The objectives of this study were to assess the scope and history of restitution use in American juvenile courts, assess the types of restitution used, goals of restitution, and attitudes and expectations about restitution. A sample of 197 juvenile courts was drawn from the population of juvenile courts listed by the National Council of Juvenile Court Judges Association. Mailed questionnaires were sent to each of the sample of courts and a follow up telephone call was made. A total of 133 (68%) completed questionnaires were obtained. Sixty-four courts did not respond. The respondents were 106 (77%) judges; 13 (9%) juvenile probation officers; 4 (3%) social caseworkers.

Major findings were:

- The use of restitution was reported by 114 courts (36%) and these courts noted that they had been using it for an average of 16.9 years. Restitution was most commonly used for cases involving property loss. Almost all of the courts (109) provided for

some sort of monetary restitution payment and approximately half (52) required restitution in the form of work. Only fourteen courts indicated that monetary restitution was made directly to the victim and only five indicated that work was performed directly for the victim.

- Youth who had only a restitution sanction compared with an 87% successful completion rate for youth who received a sanction of restitution combined with an order of probation or suspended commitment. Successful completion means the youth completed the restitution obligation and did not reoffend while in the program. The relationship between successful completion and presence or absence of probation remained strong when controls were introduced for school attendance, family income, number of prior offenses, offense seriousness, and amount of restitution ordered.
- The amount of loss suffered by the victim was the most important factor in determining the amount of restitution to be ordered. Judges played the major role in determining the amount of restitution to be ordered (66%) with probation officers given this responsibility in approximately 20% of the cases, and victims in 15%. Probation officers were primarily responsible for enforcing the restitution order (66%) while approximately 33% of the jurisdictions provided for some sort of follow up by the court.
- Forty-eight percent of the respondents said that restitution increases the juvenile's rate of contact with the juvenile justice system. The goals of reducing recidivism and assisting victim were defined as equally important by approximately 75% of the respondents.
- Belief in the effectiveness of restitution was greatest for programs that:
  - Required direct payment to the victim rather than through an intermediary,
  - Made available work restitution in addition to financial restitution;
  - Enforced the restitution order by the court rather than by individual probation officers; or
  - Saw the program goal for restitution as being the benefit of the youth rather than the compensation of the victim.

476

Schnier, J. (1957). Restitution aspects of the creative process. American Imago, 14, 211-223.

Paper presented on the restitution aspects of the creative process (In the arts) according to psychoanalytic theory. Author contends that in most instances the subject matter of art represents symbols or substitutes for unconscious ideas or instinctual urges seeking expression. Through the process, the artist is provided with a powerfully effective symbolic means for performing an act of restitution. The spectator upon viewing the artist's successful creation similarly experiences unconsciously this resurrection. Through his enjoyment of the work of art. he is purged of guilt, feels a decrease of inner tensions, and a heightening of his self-esteem.



477

Scutt, J. A. (1980). Restoring victims of crime: A basis for the reintroduction of restitution into the Australian criminal justice system. Canberra: Australian Institute of Criminology.

A pilot program or programs should be established to reintroduce restitution in Australia in a formalized way, rather than leaving the issue of restitution to chance, as is currently the case. Magistrates and judges should be required to consider at the outset whether an offender would be better placed in a community program than in prison, and a demonstrated desire to repay the victim should have some influence on final disposition. Restitution should not become another mechanism for imposing coercive measures on the offender, but should be viewed as an equitable way of having offenders redress their crimes without incarceration. If the offense warrants more than restitution, a restitution order could be awarded in conjunction with another order or penalty. Sentences of imprisonment should be capable of being deferred or suspended while a restitution program is negotiated, and if the program is properly concluded, the prison term should lapse. Where an offender does not have sufficient funds to make complete restitution, a partial restitution order could be combined with an order for 'symbolic restitution' consisting of community work agreed upon as cancelling the damage caused by the offense. Full and adequate funding should be made available for the pilot program so that it may be given full opportunity to operate effectively and be evaluated. Thorough training of personnel, particularly those who are to act as mediators/negotiators in the program, should be undertaken. Restitution programs should not be viewed as a replacement for victim compensation schemes or victim/witness assistance programs.

478

Scutt, J. A. (1979). Community work orders as an option for sentencing in Australia. Melbourne: Australia Law Reform Commissioner.

In conjunction with the law reform commission's study of alternatives to imprisonment, the community work order now being used in Tasmania and Western Australia is explored as an alternative sentence.

479

Seavers, M. J., & Collins, M. (1977). Community service in the hospital setting. Probation Journal, 24, 130-133.

The Chase Hospital in Cannock is attached to the mid-Staffordshire Health District and consists of three units, one of which is a 55-bed hostel for mentally handicapped adults. The initial feelings of apprehension and the reservations expressed about the usefulness of community service workers in the hospital setting have been allayed by the excellence of the work carried out by three workers. The fact that the workers have continued to give their service voluntarily well beyond the period required by the court indicates the

level at which they are able to function in settings which make gross demands on both their physical and emotional resources.

480

Seidman, E. (1988, June). Correctional reform movement: The progression of punishment through the benevolent facade. Paper presented at the International Symposium of Restitution and Community Service Sentencing, Minneapolis, MN.

Community service has joined the ladder of progressive punishments and continues to widen the net with an illusion of continued individual freedom ultimately masking punishment in the guise of a benevolent facade.

481

Seidman, P. (1985). Bibliography. In A. L. Schneider (Ed.), Guide to Juvenile Restitution (pp. 165-168). Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice, Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention.

A listing of selected documents available from the National Criminal Justice Reference Service (U.S.) relating to juvenile restitution and organized under the headings of community service, evaluation, programs, legal issues, management/implementation, and research.

482

Seljan, B. J. (1983). Juvenile justice system professional survey--A description of results in the national evaluation sites. Eugene, OR: Institute of Policy Analysis.

Part of the national evaluation of the Juvenile Restitution Initiative, this survey assessed criminal justice professionals' attitudes, preferences, and expectations concerning restitution program goals, program operating methods, and consequences.

Professionals were surveyed at five sites: Venture County, California; Washington, D. C.; Clayton County, Georgia; Oklahoma County, Oklahoma; and Duane County, Wisconsin. This survey instrument was based on a review of the literature dealing with adult and juvenile restitution. The stratified sample included all juvenile court judges in the five sites, the superior court judge, all juvenile court administrators, probation officers, county commissioners, and program staff members. Three types of response formats were used to solicit professionals' opinions about restitution program issues: fixed response, Likert-type scales, and magnitude rating scales. The survey and a cover letter were mailed to each person in the sample at each site. The number of persons at each site varied. The overall response rate was 62%. The total number responding was 199 (Venture, 44; Washington, 24; Clayton, 34; Oklahoma, 55; Dane, 42). Findings from each site are presented. Respondents at all sites expressed strong support for the introduction of a restitution program in their respective communities.

Seljan, B. J. (1983). Community survey--An overview and description of results from the evaluation sites. Eugene, OR: Institute of Policy Analysis.

This paper -- one of a series of reports presenting descriptive data from intensive evaluation sites of the national Juvenile Restitution Initiative -- focuses on community attitudes toward the restitution projects and related issues.

In June and July 1979, randomly selected community members in the jurisdictions of the experimental sites were interviewed by telephone. The survey focused on attitudes toward (a) restitution program policies and procedures, (b) restitution benefits, (c) juvenile crime causes, and (d) juvenile justice officials. The communities surveyed were Venture County, California, Washington D.C., Clayton County, Georgia, Oklahoma County Oklahoma, Seattle, Washington, and Dane County, Wisconsin. The total sample for all jurisdictions was 2,432; interviews were completed with 1,432 (52%).

The survey's preliminary results indicate that respondents in all six sites favor restitution. It was the preferred disposition for the serious, adjudicated juvenile offender; was viewed as a viable alternative to incarceration and other traditional sanctions; and was believed to have a beneficial effect on both juvenile offenders and their victims. There were only minor differences in the attitudes and perceptions of persons from the different regions represented; however, there were differences among attitudes within and across jurisdictions according to respondent characteristics of income, sex, race, and education. The strongest difference was among preferences for types of juvenile offender services distinguished by respondent income level. Findings from each site are presented and compared, including tabular data. The appendixes contain the survey instrument and the questionnaire sent to persons in the sample who refused to be interviewed.

Serpas, F., Litton, G., & Hunt, S. (1981, May). Restitution for juveniles: A final evaluation report on the Orleans Parish Juvenile Restitution Project. New Orleans, LA: New Orleans Mayor's Criminal Justice Coordinating Council.

The Orleans Parish Juvenile Court Juvenile Restitution Project was one of several projects funded by the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention in 1978 to provide restitution programming as an alternative to incarceration for juvenile offenders. The project was administered by juvenile court staff but the programming components were implemented by two private youth serving agencies working under contract with the juvenile court. Project funds were used to subsidize employment for youth; youth were told that they were performing community service and the salary they were earning, except for work related expenses and a small personal allowance, was to be used to make restitution to victims. All restitution payments came from project funds. The project encountered two major implementation problems: First, to increase

the number of youth served by the project and meet project goals, admission criteria were broadened, resulting in serious question as to whether youth who were admitted would otherwise have been incarcerated. Second, serious tension and distrust developed between the juvenile court staff and staff of the two youth service agencies who were actually administering the restitution components. Two hundred forty-one youth participated in the project; a typical participant could be described as a fifteen-year old black male from a single parent family (with a family income of between \$5,000 to \$7,500 per year) charged with burglary or theft/shoplifting with 2.5 previous arrests and .4 previous convictions. The mean restitution order was for \$217 and the median \$118; of 140 participants who had exited the program, 75% had exited through program completion and 25% had been removed from the program for disciplinary or other bad cause reasons. Sixty-one percent of the victims were personal victims and 39% were businesses, schools, or other institutions.

485

Serpas, F., Litton, G., & Hunt, S. (1980, June). Restitution for adult inmates: A preliminary impact evaluation report on the Criminal Sheriff's Restitution Shelter/diagnostic Unit program. New Orleans, LA: New Orleans Mayor's Criminal Justice Coordinating Council.

In June, 1977 the New Orleans Parish-criminal sheriff established a diagnostic unit and restitution shelter; the diagnostic unit screened inmates towards the end of their period of incarceration at a local prison to determine those who might be eligible to secure early release to a restitution shelter which operated like a work release center but with an additional requirement that the offenders make restitution to their victims. This report provides descriptive and statistical information regarding operation of the program during calendar year 1979. Two hundred and nineteen men participated in the program, of which 52% were successful completions, 5% were removed during orientation, 34% were removed because of violations, and 11% removed from the program at the end of the year. In addition to monetary restitution, all participants were required to engage in community service--usually group projects occurring during evenings or on the weekends. All offenders are required to pay 10% of their earnings for restitution; if full restitution is made to the victim the continuing payments go to a special fund designated to provide assistance to elderly crime victims.

486

Serpas, F., Litton, G., & Hunt, S. (1980, February). Juvenile restitution: A process evaluation report on the Orleans Parish Juvenile Court Juvenile Restitution project. New Orleans, LA: New Orleans Mayor's Criminal Justice Coordinating Committee.

The Orleans Parish Juvenile Court Juvenile Restitution Project was one of several projects funded by the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention to provide restitution programming as an alternative to incarceration for delinquent youths; the project commenced operation on December 1, 1978 and used subsidized work (youth

were paid from project funds for service provided to community agencies) to permit youth to earn funds from which restitution could be paid. The grant was to the juvenile court, but project activities, except for screening and referral, were conducted by two youth-serving agencies under contract to the court. The report contains a detailed description of intended program operations and a summary of program experiences for the first thirteen months. Fifty-eight referrals were accepted compared to an anticipated 140; sixteen of the participants were first offenders who would typically not be incarcerated. The project description indicated that youth would work at least five hours a week, yet data indicated that over half the youth were working fewer hours. Recommendations include a revision of intake criteria to categorically exclude first offenders and all others not incarcerated, revitalizing the referral process to secure a larger number of referrals, closer monitoring and enforcement of participants compliance with the restitution ordered, a revision of the work stipend policy to allow flexibility to relate this to the seriousness of the offense and the amount of harm done, seeking unsubsidized employment as a means of securing funds for restitution, and efforts to increase juvenile court support for the project.

487

Serrill, M. S. (1975). The Minnesota restitution center. Corrections Magazine, 1(3), 13-20.

The compensation plan as described in this article for the state of Minnesota was designed to aid not only the victim of the crime but also to rehabilitate the offender. In order to qualify for the program, the offender must not have committed a violent crime nor have a history of violence for at least five years. His earning ability also must be within the requirements of the restitution. For example, a dishwasher could not qualify for \$50,000 restitution. The program operated outside of prison at a special restitution center where the offender pays room and board. The offender works at full time employment and signs a contract to repay the victim in installments. The program encourages face to face meetings between offender and victim. Where this has taken place, the offender often has come away feeling guilty for having hurt "such a nice person." The victim has left with empathy for the offender and his problems, which is one of the objectives of the program. Administrative problems and experiences of the program are cited.

488

Sessar, K. (1982, September). Offender restitution as part of a future criminal policy? Paper presented at the Fourth International Symposium on Victimology. Tokyo, Japan.

The biggest problem in determining the place of restitution in the justice system is the relationship between restitution and punishment. Several patterns have emerged--application of restitution as a civil-like sanction in the criminal process, substituting restitution for other types of punishments, imposing restitution as an autonomous sanction, or developing restitution as a part of a pragmatic victim assistance program.

In addition, restitution has been proposed as a new paradigm replacing punishment although this may overlook the punitive character of restitution and the evidence that restitution is accepted as a penalty by both offenders and victims. The existing sentencing system should be replaced and extended by restitutive measures whenever the satisfaction of a specific victim is identified with that of the society. In the case of damage or injury caused by an offense, restitution must in principle be the first sanction to be imposed on an offender. Restitution should be used when it will fully or partially absorb public disapproval so that to this extent further punishment becomes superfluous or even dysfunctional.

489

Severy, L. J., Houlden, P., Wilmoth, G. H., & Silver, S. (1982). Community receptivity to juvenile justice program planning. Evaluation Review, 6, 25-46.

The Florida Division of Youth Services Programs decided that information on relative community support would be the most pertinent data for deciding what federally funded demonstration programs would be continued by the State. Interviews with juvenile justice system personnel and members of local civic groups along with a sample survey yielded 15 usable program attributes relevant to community acceptance. The final questionnaire was completed by 572 persons in the following groups: Federal and State legislators; city and county commissioners; members of Kiwanis, Chamber of Commerce, and League of Women Voters organizations; State juvenile service providers; juvenile judges; State attorneys; public defenders; law enforcement personnel; providers of alternative juvenile programs not affiliated with the State; and parents of youths treated by State juvenile programs. Data analysis indicated that all community groups preferred nonincarceration programs to incarceration. Attitudes toward restitution were significantly more positive than the average of attitudes toward the other four programs. Judges and commissioners while State attorneys held the least positive attitudes. The relatively low support for counselling programs suggests that they would gain greater acceptance when combined with restitution or negotiation projects. The evaluation concluded that no group would fail to support restitution programs and that State attorneys' attitudes could be improved by altering certain program characteristics. Differences in attitudes among the respondent groups are detailed.

490

Seymour, J. A. (1978, May). Restitution and reparation. Paper presented at the seminar of the Queensland Branch, Australian Crime Prevention Council, Brisbane, Australia.

Restitution can play a role in criminal justice beyond the merely private function of redressing victims; it may also contribute to public functions of deterrence, punishment, and rehabilitation. Any restitution scheme focuses primarily on the offender. Problems such as defining the victim and offenders lacking means are arguments for discrimination in making restitution orders rather than against the concept itself. Restitution can be

used alone, in conjunction with probation and other community-based penalties, and in conjunction with community corrections centers. The term reparation is used to refer to transactions between the offender and society with examples being community service orders and other forms of contributed labor to the community such as the periodic detention scheme in New Zealand. Work for the community will fulfill all of the traditional aims of penal sanctions. Restitution and reparation should occupy a more prominent place in criminal justice but neither should be seen as an all purpose measure.

491

Shannon, W. (1979, September). Adams/Brown Counties juvenile restitution program. Paper presented at the Third Symposium on Restitution, Duluth, MN.

Describes the planning, implementation, and current operational status of a juvenile restitution project.

492

Shapiro, C., Omole, O., & Schuman, A. (1986). The role of victim and probation: Building a collaborative relationship. Unpublished manuscript, Rutgers University, School of Criminal Justice.

A survey of probation officers sampled from membership of the American Probation and Parole Association and the National Association of Probation Executives and of victim service providers sampled from the National Organization for Victim Assistance. Random samples of 121 names were drawn from each group (probation officers and victim service providers); completed questionnaires were returned by 50 probation officers and by 44 victim service providers. Data is presented regarding services provided, perceptions of problems of coordination between the two types of agencies, and extent to which participants agreed on several statements. Sixty-six percent of probation officers responded yes to the statement, "there is need for the victim/offender reconciliation programs" (20% said no and 14% did not respond) compared to 43% of the victim advocates responding yes, 48% no, and 9% not responding. Seventy-two percent of the probation officers responded yes to the statement, "communication between victim and probationer should be encouraged if either desires it" (20% said no and 8% did not respond) compared to 55% of the victim service providers responding yes, 36%, no and 9% not responding.

493

Shapland, J. (1985). The criminal justice system and the victim. Victimology: An International Journal, 10, 585-599.

The victim's contribution to the criminal justice system is starting to be recognized, but their role remains problematic. The victim's position in relation to the substantive criminal law and the implications for victims of compensation from the offender within

the auspices of the criminal justice system are discussed. Neglect of victims by lawyers, the police, and the judiciary is endemic and has its roots in victim non-recognition by the substantive law. The results of this cause difficulties for the practical operation of the system and point to the need for a conscious adoption of a model of criminal justice which gives the victim an acknowledged status.

494

Shaw, S. (1983). Community service--A guide for sentencers: The experience to date. London, England: The Prison Reform Trust.

Intended specifically for sentencers, this report summarizes the development of community service schemes since their implementation in England in 1973.

495

Shaw, S. (1982). The people's justice: A major poll of public attitudes on crime and punishment. London, England: The Prison Reform Trust.

A survey of 988 people representative of the English population. Data collected by personal interview in March, 1982. Topics covered included crime as a social problem, view of the courts, prisons and prisoners, sentencing policy, reducing prison population, and the impact of crime. The methods most favored for reducing the prison population were community service orders (supported by 85% of the respondents) and restitution (favored by 66%).

496

Siegel, L. J. (1980). Restitution in juvenile justice. In A. W. Cohn and B. Ward (Eds.), Improving management in criminal justice (pp. 131-142). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Restitution programs serving both juvenile and adult offenders have increasingly come into operation around the country during the last decade. States such as Minnesota, Massachusetts, Arizona, and Oklahoma have developed programs based on philosophies of pretrial diversion, postconviction alternatives to incarceration, and early-release parole programs.

A 1977 national restitution survey reveals that of 114 courts sampled, 86% employ restitution, usually in cases involving property loss and robbery, and sometimes in cases of assault or sexual abuse. Moreover, juvenile court judges view the programs as successful, for an overwhelming number of youths asked to make restitution are able to comply with their orders. Monetary restitution is the most common form used in juvenile courts. Despite the overall success of most programs, several problems should be addressed, before restitution could become a viable alternative to incarceration. For example, many clients ordered to make monetary restitution have to find employment, and many employers are reluctant to hire court-adjudicated youths. Further, offenders



in need of jobs are frequently also suffering from drinking, drug, or emotional problems. Another problem involves the charge 'involuntary servitude'. Some also view restitution as being inherently biased against indigent clients, who have difficulty making their payments. Thus, careful evaluation of ongoing programs.

497

Siegel, L. J. (1979). Court ordered victim-restitution: An overview of theory and action. New England Journal on Prison Law, 5, 135-150.

Explores the concept of restitution as well as the design and operations of restitution programs. Focus is on the purpose and justification for restitution with examples of ongoing programs and strategies which may aid in the development of programs in local court systems.

498

Silberman, S. (1986). Community service as an alternative sentence for juveniles. New England Journal on Criminal and Civil Confinement, 12, 123-150.

Following a historical review of juvenile correctional reform, this article discusses the advantages of community service as an alternative to detention and other community-based dispositions.

499

Sims, P., & Cortin, M. E. (1976). Owensboro Court Referral Program: Evaluation report. Frankfort, KY: Kentucky Department of Justice.

A six-month evaluation of the goal achievements of the Court Referral Program (CRP), which provides an alternative sentence of community service to adult misdemeanants and juveniles referred by juvenile courts. This post-conviction diversion program is designed to provide a beneficial and cost effective correctional alternative for adult misdemeanants and juvenile court referrals. Its objective is to place ten offenders a month as volunteers in community service agencies, with an overall success rate of 80% among the referred offenders during the project period.

The evaluation assessed CRP efforts in terms of:

- Project operations, placements, success of placements, and agencies receiving placements; and
- Project impact on the criminal justice system, i.e., use of the program by the courts, cost effectiveness, effect on recidivism, and reports from community agencies receiving placements. The evaluation showed that the objective of providing a cost-effective alternative was not met, since most sentencing alternatives are less expensive. It was not possible to directly assess the benefits of the CRP. The objective of a placement rate of ten referrals per month was partially met.

500

Skinns, C. D. (1988, June). Community service and modern penalties: An assessment of the meteoric career of community service in England and Wales. Paper presented at the International Symposium of Restitution and Community Service Sentencing, Minneapolis, MN.

Examines the rapid emergence and quick spread of the community service order in England and Wales. The emergence of this measure resulted from a conjunction of forces within and outside the penal realm. Endogenous processes related to the decline of the rehabilitative ideal and the pursuit of guild advantage; exogenous processes derive from the breakdown of hegemony in society. The subsequent career of the sanction derived impetus from a different conjunction of forces. The ambiguity of community service was an important endogenous factor. The increasing identification of the measure with the probation service strategy of connecting with central government thinking on value for money and time control as well as on the career strategy of an increasing category of community service ancillary employees in the probation service are important endogenous factors. At the exogenous level, the sanction is linked to the increasing hegemonic themes around Victorian values and the practical opportunity which community service offers in terms of the appropriation of what would otherwise be squandered labor time.

501

Slater, T. (1911). Restitution. The Catholic Encyclopedia: An international work of reference on the constitution, doctrine, discipline, and history of the Catholic Church. Vol. XII (pp.788-789). New York: Robert Appleton.

Examination of the concept of restitution in moral theology.

502

Sloan, R. L. (1986). Manitoba fine option program: An evaluation design. Ottawa: Department of Justice, Canada; Policy, Programs and Research Branch; Research and Statistics Section.

A design for the evaluation of a fine option (community service) program operating since 1983 in the province of Manitoba, Canada. The original purpose of the program was to reduce the number of offenders incarcerated for fine default. This purpose was modified so that the program operated as an alternative to paying a fine for all offenders, regardless of their ability or willingness to pay. Approximately 5000 offenders are involved in the program each year, throughout a variety of communities in the province. A small central staff component of six persons has been responsible for policy and administration throughout the province. Tasks of registering offenders, arranging community service work and managing administrative details are responsibilities

of Community Resource Centers (CRC's). These CRC's recruit Community Work Centers (CWC's) which represent the direct service component of the program. There are approximately 120 CRC's throughout the province and three to four times that number of CWC's providing community service work opportunities. The evaluation design is aimed at answering a variety of questions concerning community participation and program performance. The aim is to produce a comprehensive assessment of the fine option program and explore issues emanating from the community participation service delivery model.

503

Smandych, R. (1981). Research note on the use and effectiveness of reparative sanctions (final draft). Ottawa: Ministry of the Solicitor General.

The available literature on the use and effectiveness of different forms of reparative sanctions, including community service, victim service, compensation and restitution, suggests that these sanctions may be viewed with qualified optimism. Although community service was found in this study to be no more effective in reducing recidivism rates than other sanctions, the use of the sanction appears to result in positive offender attitudes, positive public attitudes, high completion rate and a reduction in the use of prison sentences. Victim service, although a relatively recent and unexplored sentencing option, was considered to be a feasible reparative sanction in cases where both the offender and the victim regarded it as being appropriate. With regard to the use and effectiveness of compensation, evidence suggests that while it is no more effective in reducing recidivism rates than other sanctions, and while there has been considerable difficulty in securing the payment of orders, public attitudes toward the use of the sentence have been extremely positive and it has been shown to produce a sense of satisfaction among victims of property offenses. Although few studies concerned with the use of restitution by the courts have been undertaken, evidence suggests that its use is being systematically under reported in court records and that it may be a common practice in Canadian criminal courts.

504

Smith, F. V. (1984). Alabama prison option: Supervised intensive restitution program. Federal Probation, 48(1), 32-35.

Carefully screened and selected State inmates at county jails awaiting transfer to a prison or those already located in an institution are diverted to the program. The field SIR officers orient both the selected inmate and the sponsoring family to the expected behavior required of the inmate. Four face-to-face contacts with the SIR officer are required of the offender as well as two job visits. A 10 p.m. curfew is enforced. Payment of weekly supervision fees adds another enforced contact. A 40-hour work week is mandatory, either on a paid job or a voluntary community service work project. The program has three phases or levels of supervision. Upon initial placement to the program (phase 1), the offender is intensively supervised for at least 3 months. When

the offender demonstrates that less supervision is permissible, phase 2 is begun, consisting of two face-to-face contacts and one weekly employment verification. The curfew is extended to 11:00 p.m. In phase 3, the job site is visited weekly; home visits and employment verification are conducted monthly, and the curfew may be relaxed completely for an exceptional client. Typically, 2 officers will have a caseload of 50 inmates in a given urban area. The program has been significantly less costly than residential work release, and of the over 800 offenders assigned to SIR since its inception, 76% are still participating successfully, while just over 5% have been released. Slightly less than 19% have been returned to an institution.

505

Smith, M. E. (1980). The Bronx community service sentencing project. Paper presented at the Fourth Symposium on Restitution and Community Service Sentencing, Minneapolis, MN.

Describes the design and implementation of an adult community service program. See Vera Institute (1980).

506

Staples, W. G. (1986). Restitution as a sanction in juvenile court. Crime and Delinquency, 32, 177-185.

Over the past decade, restitution has assumed increasing significance as a sanction both in the juvenile and in the criminal justice system. This article examines the current trend toward utilizing restitution from a critical and historical perspective. Current restitution policies and practices are placed within the context of three major trends in justice: the individualization of the juvenile court; the growing concern with the victims of crime; the blurring of traditional distinctions between criminal and tort law. Restitution as a sanction is evaluated in the context of these three developments, and the contemporary form of restitution is compared with its historical predecessors.

507

Stenning, P., & Ciano, S. (1975). Restitution and compensation and fines. Ottawa Law Review, 7, 316-329.

A review of the Law Reform Commission of Canada Working Paper on Restitution and Compensation and Fines. The central ingredients of the working papers are reviewed, and it is noted that the central assumption and major conclusion of the paper is that restitution is a natural and obvious primary focus of the criminal law and therefore should be achieved through the adaptation of sentencing policies and practices at the conclusion of criminal trials. The authors take issue with this conclusion and note that if restitution and compensation are such obvious and natural priorities of the criminal law and the criminal justice system, how is it that over the eight or nine hundred years

of development of that criminal law they have received such little attention? Further, the authors note that restitution and compensation under present law are largely ignored. The distinction between the civil and criminal law is described, and it is suggested that such a distinction is an important weakness in the working papers. It is noted that no evidence is provided by the commission on the alleged "problem" requiring change in the contemporary use of restitution and compensation in the Canadian legal system.

508

Stevenson, J. R. L. (1985). Drunk drivers and community service--A study to determine if short term group counselling will enhance compliance. Unpublished master's thesis, Glassboro State College, NJ.

To determine the effects of short-term group counselling on the compliance of second-offense drunk drivers with court-ordered community service, a proportional stratified random sample of 52 offenders was equally divided among 2 experimental (counselling) and 2 control groups.

Experimental subjects participated in a 6 week, Rogerian, nonjudgmental, counselling group meeting at the Camden, NJ, Probation Department. Meetings involved discussions of drunk-driving law and penalties, and the consequences of the loss of driving privileges, problem drinking and coping in a society where drinking is socially acceptable, setting short- and long-term goals, and personal questions and concerns. One and two months following termination of counselling, experimental and control groups were assessed for compliance using probation department day books. Community service compliance was rated as satisfactory or unsatisfactory. At 1 month follow-up, experimentals showed 95.5% satisfactory compliance as compared to 34.5% for no-counselling controls. Two month follow-up indicated a satisfactory compliance rate of 90.5% for experimentals and 46% for controls. Chi-square analysis for the combined sample of 47 cases (5 experimentals who failed to attend counselling meetings were excluded) indicated significance at the .005 level, providing strong evidence that group attendance and adjustment to community service were related. Thus, it is concluded that second-offense drunk drivers ordered to perform community service will be more successful if they receive some type of counselling.

509

Stillwell, J. C. (1977, February). Victim-defendant relationships in an adult diversion program. Paper presented at the National Conference on Criminal Justice Evaluation--Evaluating Alternatives to Adjudication.

The Adult Diversion Project operated by the Pima County Attorney's Office requires that most defendants make financial restitution and, in addition, are required to perform 40 hours of community services work. The program operates at the pretrial, post arraignment level, primarily involving property offenders. Direct victim-defendant meetings are structured for the purpose of negotiating the amounts of restitution to be

made. Upon the successful completion of the project, charges are dismissed. The aim of this research was to assess the operations of victim-defendant meetings and the effect of such meetings on victim attitudes and perceptions. Data was collected by a mailed questionnaire to those victims of defendants admitted to the program from January, 1976 until some undetermined time.

Major findings were:

- Those victims who agreed to participate in meetings with the defendant were more commonly victims of property or economic crimes than of violent crimes and were more frequently business victims.
- Approximately half of the victims responding to the questionnaire felt that they had been given a meaningful say in the acceptance/rejection decision about the defendant's admission to the project.
- Victim responses to a question concerning the purpose of the meetings were:
  - To help prevent crime by the defendants (40%)
  - To let the victims express feelings about the crime to the defendants (30%)
  - To help get an understanding of why the crime was committed (20%)
  - To finalize the arrangements for restitution (20%)
- All victims involved felt that the meetings were valuable and 90% said they believed they had a better understanding of what had motivated the defendant to commit the crime.
- Ninety percent of victims involved stated they believed they had given the defendant a better understanding of the consequences of the offense for them and believed they had a positive impact on the defendant.
- Victim's perceptions of what should happen to the defendant changed in the direction of believing that less punishment and more counseling and social services were desirable for the defendant.

510

Stoneman, D. (1983). Reparation and the probation service. Probation Journal, 30, 14-16.

High unemployment makes many monetary penalties impractical. However, a reparation scheme in which the offender provided work directly to the victim would be very appropriate in respect to offenses of theft, vandalism, and criminal damages in cases where a fine might otherwise be imposed. This would be a good experience for the offender. It would also reduce imprisonment which often follows fine default. The sentence should be imposed only after a social inquiry report; a probation officer should be seconded to manage such a scheme which would make extensive use of volunteers.

511

Stortini, R. (1979). Community service orders. The Criminal Law Quarterly, 21, 503-507.

Community service orders are defined, the type of work involved is described and the Canadian legal basis for such orders is presented. Implementation procedures for a community service scheme are presented and the conclusion reached that such orders are under-used in Canada.

512

Sullivan, S. (1973). Convicted offenders become community helpers. Judicature, 56, 333-335.

The Alameda County (California) Court Referral Program was the first of its type. The conception and growth of this successful program is presented.

513

Sussex, J. (1974). Community service by offenders; year one in Kent. London: Barry Rose.

A description of the operation of the first year of the pilot community service scheme in Kent, England. Describes the practical problems in planning and implementing the scheme and the significant issues associated with it. Official statistics for the first year of operation are provided, along with a series of appendices which provide detailed information on the administrative forms used and statistics gathered.

514

Tak, P. J. P. (1986). Community service orders in western Europe: A comparative study. In H. Albrecht & W. Schädler (Eds.), Criminological Research Reports: Vol. 25. Community Service: A new option in punishing offenders in Europe (pp. 1-14). Freiburg, Germany: Max-Planck Institute.

The use of community service as a penalty is becoming a part of the penal programs of most European countries. Exceptions are Spain, Sweden, Greece, and Belgium. In Spain community service orders were rejected because of the absence of probation and thus a means to enforce the orders. Sweden has considered and rejected community service because offenders who are currently imprisoned are thought inappropriate and the evidence that community service reduces imprisonment is questionable, Swedish society is highly professional and appropriate work may not be available, and use of work as a sanction is questionable in a society in which work is being seen as a privilege. Community service is unknown in Greece and is not being considered. A commission in Belgium rejected use of community service as it did not want to place further responsibilities on an over stretched probation service and because short prison sentences are not presently used in Belgium. Community service is statutorily available as an alternative to incarceration in England, Germany, Portugal, and France; pilot projects using community services as an alternative to incarceration are underway in Denmark, Norway, and Finland. In Italy, Germany, and Switzerland community service can be

used instead of prison as a penalty for fine default. In Germany, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, and Norway community service may be substituted for prison as a condition of pardon. Legal provisions of the various countries are compared on the dimensions of offenses subject to community service, number of hours of community service, whether the consent of the accused is necessary, preparation of a report on the offender, content of the community service sentence, and sanctions for non-fulfillment. While it is too early to ascertain the effect of community service orders on different populations, no serious problems have developed in the day to day administration of the program. The penalty systems of most Western European countries can no longer be considered with out including community service.

515

Tak, P. J. P. (1986). Community service order: A new penalty in the Dutch Penal Code. In H. Albrecht & W. Schädler (Eds.), Criminological Research Reports: Vol. 25. Community Service: A new option in punishing offenders in Europe (pp. 39-46). Freiburg, Germany: Max-Planck Institute.

After four years of experimental projects, the Dutch Ministry of Justice has proposed a draft bill on community service order which is likely to set the legal framework for community service in Holland. The major aim of the bill is the reduction of number of short term (six months or less) prison sentences. Community service would become a principle sentence in Holland along with imprisonment, detention, and fine; it would be between the fine and detention on the tariff. Judge can order up to 240 hours of community service for any offender for whom he or she is considering imprisonment of six months or less; the judge must state in the court order the prison sentence he or she was anticipating. Agreement of the offender is required. The experimental programs provided for community service be imposed by the prosecutor as a condition for waiver for the prosecution but this possibility will now be explicitly excluded. The public prosecutor is responsible for monitoring the completion of the community service; if the offender does not complete community service, the public prosecutor may request the judge to either totally or partially execute the intended prison sentence. The community service penalty can only be imposed on adults. Probation officers may bring to the attention of the judge cases which seem to be appropriate for community service, may formulate the community service plan, and will offer help and support to the person sentenced to community service in carrying out the sentence. A community service coordinating officer, in each probation district, will be in charge of recruiting community service projects.

516

Taylor, E. (1986). Approaching elected officials for funding support of juvenile restitution programs. Washington, DC: National Association of Counties.

This document provides guidelines for individuals seeking funding support for juvenile restitution programs from elected local and State officials.



517

Texas Journal of Corrections. (1980). Community service restitution--A sentencing alternative. Texas Journal of Corrections, 6(6), 16-19.

The history of community service restitution (CSR) as a corrections program, common CSR principles, and the CSR operation in Travis County, Texas, are examined.

518

Thorvaldson, S. A. (1986). Crime and redress: National symposium on reparative sanctions, May 31--June 2, 1982--Proceedings. Ottawa: Solicitor General of Canada, Ministry Secretariat.

This reports the proceedings, and contains all the papers and most of the taped panel discussion from the Symposium held in Vancouver, B.C. Session one is titled general principals and includes the discussions which almost immediately became involved with compensation (restitution) by offenders, which is the title of session two, and community service by offenders which is the title of session three. The theory, policy, and practice of restitution is included in the first session, while studies and examples of restitution programs from other parts of the world are given in parts two and three. A panel discussion with comments from the floor is included in session four. The appendices contain the symposium brochure, program notes, and the list of contributors.

519

Thorvaldson, S. A. (1985). Crime and redress: National symposium on reparative sanctions--Summary and overview. Ottawa: Solicitor General of Canada, Ministry Secretariat.

The Symposium was held for the purpose of discovering the reasons why convicted criminals are not automatically expected to make up in money or in good works the harm they have done, and to try to understand and discuss the many controversial issues this subject raises. It is pointed out that redress differs from punishment and the question is asked, "is it a significant new sentencing concept that requires an important shift in practice or is it a relatively minor one?" Some members of the Symposium considered that compensation and community service are similar forms of redress, others considered them to be very different. Other questions dealt with were: Is the assessment of harm restricted directly to the victim and should the crime dictate the redress? A chapter is included on the role and rights of victims which also gives some of their expectations. In the overview, it is stated that the most controversial and difficult question was whether compensation in principle was acceptable or justifiable as a criminal sanction, or was it best regarded as a civil remedy. The administrative issues connected with implementing such a program are immense and at present there are many major disagreements about how and even whether it should be in effect.

520

Thorvaldson, S. A. (1982). Justifying community service. Provincial Judges Journal, 6(1), 7-10, 14.

Suggests that the predominant aim for community service is reparative in the sense of requiring offenders to repay the victims of their offenses, including the community at large, in order to foster an awareness of the concept of justice in the offenders concerned or in the public. The duration of a community service order should be reasonably related to the seriousness of harm done by the offense and community service should be provided for in legislation in its own right, as well as in tandem with other reparative orders such as monetary restitution. Community service may be administered by probation services, or by another agency; the essential characteristic of the work is that it be of benefit to the community and it should be suited as far as possible to the skills and interests of the offender.

521

Thorvaldson, S. A. (1981). Reparation by offenders: How far can we go? Vancouver, BC: Ministry of the Attorney General, Policy Planning Division, Research and Evaluation Unit.

With the increasing sophistication of the courts and the proliferation of sanctioning principles--deterrence, rehabilitation, denunciation, and now reparation--with their attendant sentence options, we have no alternative but to squarely accept the concept of multiple sanctions for a single offense and set about designing appropriate limits for aggregated sentences. This issue also is not new, it is just more complicated.

522

Thorvaldson, S. A. (1981). Redress by offenders: Current theory and research. Vancouver, BC: Ministry of the Attorney General, Policy Planning Division, Research and Evaluation Unit.

Describes some of the theoretical issues surrounding the notion of redress by offenders and discusses some of the implications for future sentencing research and research on reparative sentences in particular. Suggests that the concept of redress as a criminal sanction will continue to have a major impact on some of the significant issues in sentencing theory and hence on the design and direction of research. Briefly considers empirical work done to date.

523

Thorvaldson, S. A. (1980). The primary justifying aim of community service by offenders. Paper presented at the Fourth Symposium on Restitution and Community Service Sentencing, Minneapolis, MN.

Considers community service sentencing in relation to deterrence, incapacitation, retribution, and rehabilitation aims of the justice system and concludes that none provide a satisfactory justification. Instead, community service is seen as a reparative sentence. As such, a number of legislative and administrative problems are considered in respect to the use of a community service sentence -- eligibility criteria, duration of an order, administrative authority, service recipient, due process, and service type.

524

Thorvaldson, S. A. (1979). On recovering compensation funds from offenders. Vancouver, BC: Ministry of the Attorney General, Policy Planning Division, Research and Evaluation Unit.

Assesses four different methods of recovering state expended compensation funds from offenders; diverting revenue from fines and other monetary penalties to the fund, imposing a levy or surcharge on convictions or monetary penalties, requiring that criminal court compensation orders be payable by the offender to the fund and not directly to the victim, and negotiating with offenders and proceeding by the civil process via subrogation of the victim's civil claim. It is proposed that the concept of community service be expanded to serve state compensation agencies as a method of recovery.

525

Thorvaldson, S. A. (1978). The effects of community service on the attitudes of offenders. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Cambridge, England. Also presented as Does community service affect offenders' attitudes? Some Results of a British Study. Paper presented at the Third National Restitution Symposium, Duluth, MN, September, 1979.

This study has four aims; to determine the predominant aim of community service, to justify this aim, to explore its significance for sentencing theory, and to test its effectiveness as a means of changing offenders' attitudes. The first three objectives are dealt with on the basis of logical arguments, while the fourth is handled through empirical research. The Criminal Justice Act of 1972 in England empowered the courts to order offenders to perform unpaid work as a service to the community. A quasi-experimental design of the cross-sectional or after-only type was used to evaluate the fourth aim listed above. The intention was to compare the effects of community service on offenders' attitudes with the effects of two other sentences which were also intended to change offenders' attitudes but which rested on different psychological principles--fine and probation. The fine was seen as resting on a deterrence rationale, and probation on a rehabilitative rationale. The independent variable is the type of sentence and the hypothesis was that the community service group would show more

positive scores on all of the attitudes measured as compared to the other two groups. The fine group, probation group, and community service group of offenders were matched on sex, age, date of sentence, and type of offense. Interviews were conducted with members of each of the three groups; 42 subjects in the fine group, 42 probationers, 48 community service subjects. Data was collected by means of a questionnaire with both open and structured questions.

Major findings were:

- The majority of the community service subjects interpreted their sentence as simply a method of keeping them out of prison or giving them a break. When forced to choose, this group split their responses evenly between a rehabilitative and reparative aim (46% each) with the remainder seeing their sentence as a punishment (8%). In contrast, most of the fined subjects (74%) saw their sentence as a punishment and almost all of the probationers (92%) interpreted theirs as rehabilitative.
- The fined subjects generally showed resentment or anger in their attitudes to the sentence. The probation group did not show the resentment or sense of injustice that appeared among the fined subjects, but they frequently seemed either indifferent or puzzled about the purpose of probation. Community service subjects tended to show more positive responses about their sentences. In summary, the community service group felt more positive toward their sentence than did the fined group or the probationers. The community service group seemed to be more positive because they appreciated the principle of fair reciprocity which community service is seen as expressing. They tended to accept community service not so much because it was a "soft option" but because they considered it a "good idea." In contrast, as the investigation moved from measuring attitudes to the system procedures and personnel, and then to broad social attitudes, the effects of the sentence rapidly became weaker and disappeared entirely when one applied some general social attitude scales.

526

Thorvaldson, S. A., & Krasnick, M. (1980). On recovering compensation funds from offenders. Victimology: An International Journal, 5, 18-29.

Four methods are considered by which the state may recover some of the cost of victim compensation programs from the offenders:

- Fines and other monetary penalties might be paid into the fund.
- A surcharge or fee might be levied upon all offenders convicted of crimes.
- Criminal court compensation orders (restitution) might be paid by the offender to the fund rather than to the victims.
- The compensation authorities might institute civil proceedings via subrogation of the victim's civil claims.

The first two methods are unacceptable because they violate concepts of equity and equal justice, the third jeopardizes the use of restitution as a criminal sanction, and the fourth, while acceptable on principle, is probably ineffective because of the lack of resources of most offenders. Compensation agencies should make greater use of

community service requirements as a means of the state gaining compensation for monies paid out because of the offenders' criminal behaviors.

527

Trewartha, R. (1978). Community service and the tariff: (2) A further comment. The Criminal Law Review, 544-546.

Pease's (1978) proposal to have community service hours of between 100 and 200 hours to be directly equivalent to custodial sentences of up to one year, is viewed as falling within the growing neo-classical movement and particularly the growing concern for greater uniformity in sentencing. Trewartha argues for the advantages of individualized sentences and therefore against Pease's proposals which are seen as effectively reducing the capability and potential of community service schemes.

528

Trident United Way. (1981). Juvenile restitution program--Final report. Charleston, SC: Trident United Way.

This report describes the activities of the Juvenile Restitution Program (JRP) in Charleston, South Carolina, along with the impact of the program on the community and the court system.

As part of an impact evaluation, a group of 56 JRP clients was matched with 56 non-JRP juvenile delinquents. Each case was matched by age, race, type of offense, and approximate date petitioned. The cases were tracked through family court records for the same amount of time. The JRP group was found to have a slightly greater incidence of criminal involvement prior to the recidivism study. However, court records showed 18% of the JRP group with a subsequent arrest, while the regular probationers had a 30% recidivism rate. In measuring the impact of the JRP on incarceration, it was found that between fiscal year 1979 and fiscal year 1980, incarceration rates for Charleston County decreased 29%, while they decreased 12% for the rest of the State. Additional time and more accurate data are needed to be certain about the extent to which the JRP has reduced incarceration.

529

U.S. Congress House Subcommittee on Human Resources. (1981). Oversight hearing on juvenile restitution programs--Hearings before the House Subcommittee on Human Resources, March 3, 1981. Washington, DC: U.S. Congress House Subcommittee on Human Resources.

House hearings are held to review the progress made by a number of restitution projects funded by the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention in 1979. An evaluation of the 41 restitution projects set up in 26 States, Puerto Rico, and the District

of Columbia is presented along with comments by juvenile justice officials. A project manager in Madison, Wisconsin, describes the program as implemented at the State and local level, and a youth panel (consisting of young people who have participated in the program both in the District of Columbia and in Wisconsin) describes its impact on their lives. Prepared statements, letters, and other supplemental materials are included.

530

Umbreit, M. S. (1988). Mediation of the victim offender conflict. Journal of Dispute Resolution, 31, 1-20.

The process of crime victim offender mediation involves four phases -- intake, preparation for mediation, mediation, and follow-up. Both empowering and controlling styles of mediation can be identified. The empowering style is most useful in crime victim offender mediation because it returns power to both victims and offenders.

Research on a victim offender mediation program in Minneapolis and St. Paul, Minnesota, involving juvenile property offenders and their victims finds high victim satisfaction with the program. Victims report that opportunities to participate in the juvenile justice system is necessary to treating victims fairly. Victims varied on other elements of fairness, including those who saw restitution as essential to fairness, those who saw punishment as essential to fairness, and those who saw offender rehabilitation as essential to fairness.

The process of mediating victim-offender conflict provides an opportunity for reduction of anger, frustration, and fear on the part of the victims as well as providing compensation for their loss. Offenders can be held accountable for their behavior and make amends in a real and personalized way.

531

Umbreit, M. S. (1986). Victim/offender mediation: A national survey. Federal Probation, 50(4), 53-56.

A summary of findings from the first victim offender reconciliation program (VORP) survey conducted by the PACT (Prisoners and Community Together) Institute for Justice. It includes brief descriptions of four programs: Valparisaro, Indiana; Minneapolis, Minnesota; Quincy, Massachusetts; and Batavia, New York.

532

Umbreit, M. S. (1986). Victim offender reconciliation program. H. J. Kerner (Ed.), European and North American juvenile justice systems (pp. 403-416). Munich, Germany: University of Heidelberg, Institute for Criminology. [Deutschen Vereinigung für Jugendgerichten und Jugendgerichtshilfen Schriftenreihe Heft 16.]

This paper describes the basic elements of the initial model of the Victim Offender Reconciliation Program (VORP) implemented in Elkhart, Indiana and presents a brief case study.

533

Umbreit, M. S. (1986). Victim offender mediation and judicial leadership. Judicature, 69, 202-204.

Brief descriptions of two victim offender reconciliation programs (VORP's) illustrate the importance of judicial involvement and commitment for successful program implementation. The program in Porter county, Indiana is administered by a nonprofit organization and serves primarily property offenders. The program in Genesee County, New York is operated by a local sheriff's department and brings victims of serious violent crime and their offenders together in a victim-offender reconciliation process. Both programs were established with strong commitment and endorsement from a local judge. Victim offender reconciliation is a very sensible response to both crime victims and offenders but must have judicial support and commitment if the programs are to be successful.

534

Umbreit, M. S. (1985). Crime and reconciliation: Creative options for victims and offenders. Nashville, TN: Abingdon Press.

Law and order advocates exaggerate the risks of crime and those oriented to offenders' needs tend to dismiss the reality of crime and its impacts on victims. The Judeo-Christian heritage, particularly Christian teachings, argues that the biblical directive of an 'eye for an eye' should be considered a call for proportionality rather than a call for harsh punishment. Alternatives to institutionalization should be developed such as bringing the victim, offender, and society together through a holistic system of justice and reconciliation. As victims and offenders come together with a mediator each will understand and deal with the other as human beings. The process ends when an appropriate form of restitution to both victim and society is agreed upon. Three program models are described. Those who believe in a Christian reconciliation process are to advocate for reform of criminal justice system policies.

535

Umbreit, M. S. (1983). Community service restitution as an alternative to prison/jail. Proceedings of the 113th Annual Congress of Correction (pp. 91-97). College Park, MD: American Correctional Association.

Careful planning is required if community service or community based sanctions are to serve as alternatives to prison or jail. Four steps are essential if this objective is to be accomplished. The target population must be clearly identified, clear rationale articulated for use of the alternative, a plausible link must be established for use of the

alternative as a substitute for incarceration, and a public information campaign must be established to secure public support for community services as an alternative to incarceration.

536

Umbreit, M. S. (1981). Community service sentencing: Jail alternative or added sanction? Federal Probation, 45(3), 3-14.

The development of the PACT (Prisoner and Community Together) Community Service Restitution Program (CSR) is described, and results of various evaluations are presented, followed by a presentation of general guidelines for developing a CSR program.

The CSR program provides that offenders who would otherwise have been jailed perform service to the community for a specified period without pay. the primary intention of the program is to provide a sanction that will be used as an alternative to jail; any rehabilitation effects are secondary. The primary problem foreseen in the implementation of a CSR program is that it will be used by the courts as an additional means of social control rather than as an alternative to existing patterns of jail sentences. The PACT CSR program, initially established in four northern Indiana cities, sought to avoid this misuse of the program by requiring that the offender be given the option of performing community service only after having received a jail sentence, but prior to serving time. Further, the program uses the formula of 6 hours of community service for each day of the jail sentence.

While various independent evaluations showed the PACT CSR program to be operating effectively, a staff reexamination of the program shows that, at best, only 50% of the offenders receiving a community service sentence would have actually served time in jail or prison. Apparently, judges were giving jail sentences, later converted to CSR orders, to persons who would formerly have received lesser sentences. In order to counter this trend, the CSR program began limiting clients to offenders involved in serious cases showing a history of a high probability of incarceration. Class B and C misdemeanors would no longer be accepted as cases for CSR. Over the short term, this strategy appears to be successful in providing further reduction in inmate populations. Seventeen guiding principles for CSR programs are suggested.

537

Umbreit, M. S. (1981). Criminal punishment--Prisons or alternatives (Slide-tape). Val Paraiso, ID: Prisoners and Community Together (PACT) Inc., PACT Institute for Justice.

This slide/tape presentation asserts that community-based alternatives to imprisonment, such as monetary restitution and community service programs, are less costly and more rehabilitative than traditional prisons and should be supported in every community.



538

Umbreit, M. S. (1981, June). Community service sentencing: Jail alternative or added sanction. Manuscript, Michigan City, IN: Prisoners and Community Together (PACT), Inc.

Describes the operations of the Porter County PACT program, a community service restitution program designed as an alternative to incarceration. Initially the program dealt with adult misdemeanor offenders. More recently adult felons have been served as well. Project staff have been concerned that the program actually operates as an alternative to incarceration rather than broadening the criminal justice net. Information is provided regarding the efforts of program staff to deal with this issue.

539

United Nations. (1985). Victims of crime: Survey of redress, assistance, restitution and compensation for victims of crime. New York, NY: United Nations.

This report based on 1985 data from 70 countries, traces the situation of victims of crime and the means of redress and assistance available to them across a broad spectrum of countries in different geographic regions. Questionnaires seeking information on existing practices and reform proposals relating to victim services were mailed to all member and nonmember states of the United Nations. While overall systems and specific mechanisms varied considerably, all responding countries felt that much remained to be done for victims. Respondents were particularly concerned about new and special forms of victimization, such as those arising from nonconventional crimes and abuses of public and economic power.

Training and information-sharing were viewed as very important. Other priorities were additional research on victim needs, program effectiveness, and increased advocacy for victims. Respondents recommended cooperative regional and intercountry activities that provide training and the development of model legislation. The interest and investment manifested by respondents in this survey indicates growing awareness and sensitivity regarding victim issues around the world. The report identifies responding nations and discusses the survey results in detail.

540

University of Ottawa, Department of Criminology. (1978). Alternatives to imprisonment--Removal from court jurisdiction, mediation, restitution, community service--Canada. Ottawa: University of Ottawa, Department of Criminology.

The principle alternatives to imprisonment in Canada (removal from court jurisdiction, mediation, restitution, community service, and community residential centers) are advocated. These alternatives are needed because of class discrimination in legal proceedings; legislative, judicial and penal inflation; and public dissatisfaction with

substitution of the state for other institutions such as the family, church, and community. Examples of restitution projects in Quebec and Ontario show that restitution serves the purpose of reimbursing victims for financial, physical, and psychological damages. Community service sentences have just been introduced in Canada and are only considered for crimes punishable by imprisonment.

541

van Kalmthout, A. M. (1986). Community service in the Netherlands, a viable alternative? In H. Albrecht & W. Schädler (Eds.), Criminological Research Reports: Vol. 25. Community Service: A new option in punishing offenders in Europe (pp. 47-87). Freiburg, Germany: Max-Planck Institute.

In Holland, 82% of the prison sentences are for less than six months. Large numbers of persons are sentenced to short imprisonment, however, resulting in prison overcrowding problems. Community service is one alternative sanction that has been piloted as a response to this problem. Discussions about the possibilities of community service began in 1971 when it was proposed as an alternative for three offenders. Much of the discussion centered around references to whether the sanction should be voluntary or obligatory. In 1981, pilot community service projects for adult offenders began in eight selected court districts and in 1983 the experiment was extended to the other eleven districts. Piloting of community service requirements for juveniles is also underway.

The proposal for community service must be made by the defendant and can come from the defendant personally or through a lawyer or probation officer but is only possible if the defendant admits the offense. This sentence was initially intended as an alternative for imprisonment of six months or less, but in 1983 this was amended to three months or less. Hours are to be a minimum of 30 and a maximum of 150. Community service may not interfere with religious and political liberty, can only be imposed with the consent of the involved person, and must not be paid for or carried out in a commercial way. No categories of offenses or offenders will be excluded from consideration. Coordination of community services are the responsibility of the probation service. The community service work must be insured by the probation service against accidents and legal responsibility.

From February 1981 through August 1985, about 7,000 community service orders have been imposed. The number has been increasing each year. The average number of community service hours is about 100 and more than 90% of the hours are completed in accordance with the agreement. Community service can be imposed by either the prosecutor or judge and has been especially imposed on young adults ages 18-20. Sixty three percent of the community service workers were unemployed.

Community service seems to have been used as a penalty rather than a form of social aid but is a penalty about which offenders were generally positive. Organizations to receive workers on community service have not been difficult to locate. Community

service is developing as a viable criminal sanction in the Netherlands. But whether this penalty will contribute to reduction in the use of short prison terms is questionable.

542

Van Ness, D. W. (1990). Restorative justice. In B. Galaway & J. Hudson (Eds.), Criminal justice, restitution, and reconciliation. Monsey, NY: Criminal Justice Press.

Restorative justice as a response to crime enables victims, offenders, and the community to collaborate with government in repairing the injuries resulting from crime. The elements of restorative justice include a definition of crime as injury, purpose of action is repairing injuries, and a commitment to including all parties in the response to crime. Restorative justice can be implemented by establishing a two track justice process--a formal process administered by government and an informal community based process. The over arching purpose would be to achieve restoration, but each process would play its own role. The purpose of the formal process is to ensure that restraint, accountability, and reparation are secured. The purpose of the second process would be to move beyond restitution to restoration. A workable model of restorative justice will answer three basic questions: Who are the parties and what are their relative relationships? What is the desired outcome? What kind of process is needed?

543

Van Ness, D. W. (1986). Crime and its victims. Downers Grove, IL: Inter-Variety Press.

The current principle of crime as an offense against the state ignores the psychological effects of victimization and the victim's needs to resolve their experiences. The overcrowding and inhumane conditions common to prison today make the experience of imprisonment one that motivates offenders to fight the system rather than accept responsibility for what they have done. In its early history, criminal justice focused mainly on the need of the offender to restore the victim. However, the rise of the modern nation changed the focus to public peace. Confusion now exists regarding the purposes of sanctions against offenders. However, the biblical principals of restitution and reconciliation are still the more appropriate ones. The criminal justice system should focus on the use of restitution, using payments that are clearly defined, measurable, and achievable. Victim-offender reconciliation and victim assistance and compensation should also be central to criminal justice. Community supervision and other alternatives to incarceration should also increase.

544

van Voorhis, P. (1983). Theoretical perspectives on moral development and restitution. In W. S. Laufer & J. M. Day (Eds.), Personality theory, moral development, and criminal behavior, (pp. 411-439). Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.

Outlines areas of inquiry relevant to both moral development and restitution and outlines an agenda for research to study moral development in an applied restitution setting. The restitution literature concerning offender assessments of restitution, their ability to assume responsibility for their victims, and the credibility of the theoretical rationales behind restitution are reviewed in respect to moral development theory. The questions posed by moral development theory are drawn out, demonstrating why and how stage theory provides a useful framework for analyzing the claims made in the restitution literature. This chapter pushes for greater consideration of the differential implications of moral development theory in the applied restitution setting. A number of questions may be relevant to other applied settings as well, such as how participants at different stages of moral development make sense of a given treatment modality, sanction, school program, and so on; how might a program be differentially structured in order to enhance the chances of success among participants at specific stages of moral development.

545

Van Voorhis, P. A. (1983). The effects of moral development on restitution outcome and offender assessments of restitution. Dissertation Abstracts International, 43, 4052A. (University Microfilms No. DA83-10680).

This research classified offenders ordered to pay financial restitution and/or to perform community service by Kohlberg's Stages of Moral Development in order (a) to identify demographic, social, offense-related, and personality correlates of moral development and (b) explore the extent to which the moral development classification system helps to predict offender orientations to restitution and the successful performance of restitution.

The two study samples consisted of 63 convicted offenders and 53 diverted offenders. The research was conducted between November, 1978 and May, 1980, in Albuquerque, Santa Fe, and Carlsbad, New Mexico. In-depth interviews furnished the data needed to classify the subjects by moral judgment stage, interpersonal maturity level (I-level) and to construct ratings and indices of several personality and attitudinal dimensions. Six-month follow-up data pertaining to offenders' compliance with restitution and other conditions of probation/diversion were collected from probation/prosecutorial agency records. Bivariate and multivariate cross-tabular analysis were utilized.

The results revealed significant relationships at the .05 level between moral maturity and; age, ethnicity, gender, marital status, number of dependents, education level, income, occupational status, employment status, prior fines, weapons possession, acquaintance with the victim, loss amount, victim type, I-level, responsibility, and empathy. The findings were frequently similar across samples.

Moral maturity was significantly related to one of the conviction, restitution outcome measures. High maturity offenders were more successful than low maturity offenders. Moral maturity was unrelated to the restitution outcomes of the diverted offenders. Moral maturity was unrelated to diverted or convicted offenders' compliance with other

conditions. Multivariate analysis identified circumstances of restitution that affected the performance of each moral maturity group.

Moral maturity was also found to be related to assessments of the fairness of restitution, concern for the offense and methods of coping with restitution related difficulties. Multivariate analysis identified conditions of restitution that differently impacted upon these assessments.

High maturity offenders generally were oriented to the rehabilitative and reparative intents of restitution, whereas low maturity offenders perceived the punitive and instrumental intents. Multivariate analysis identified for each moral maturity group (a) interpretations which had a beneficial or adverse effect on restitution outcome and (b) the conditions of restitution that impacted upon these interpretations.

546

Vankeulen, C. (1988). What if something happens: A guide risk management and insurance option for community service programs. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice, National Institute of Corrections.

Risk management occurs through program policies and procedures. Limits of liability and insurance coverage are necessary when this fails. Offender accident coverage can be secured through workman's compensation or accident and medical insurance policies. Community service liability coverage is available from commercial insurance companies, self insurance by public entities, risk pooling, state laws permitting claims for compensation against the state, and state laws providing immunity on liability. Waivers on liability can be sought from offenders being placed in community service. Insurance is available for professional liability of program staff and to provide liability protection for offenders. Names and addresses of insurance carriers are provided as well as examples of forms, policy statements, and state legislation.

547

Varah, M. (1987). Probation and community service. In J. Harding (Ed.), Probation and the community (pp. 68-81). London: Tavistock.

Community service sentencing was introduced in Britain on a pilot basis in 1973 and by 1979 was available throughout England and Wales. It was initiated in Scotland in 1978. In 1982 the British scheme was extended to 16 year olds. The community service sentence is administered by the probation service but there is an uncomfortable fit between the punitive and reparative concepts of community service and probation work. In 1983 35,100 offenders commenced community service in Britain. Five percent of these were female, 10% had been sentenced for offenses of violence against the person, 41% for theft and handling stolen goods, 25% for burglary, and the remaining 24% for a variety of other offenses including fraud and motoring offenses. Also in 1983, 5,500

persons were sentenced for breach of community service order; about half received a fine and about a quarter received an immediate custodial sentence.

Probation agencies try to provide a wide range of community service placements. The nature of the work is less important than the offender's perception that the work is relevant and generates feelings of self worth. Some probation districts centralized the administration of community service whereas others decentralize to local offices. The number of community service orders has grown rapidly and now exceeds the number of probation orders. There is some anxiety in the probation service that growth of community service may occur at the expense of other probation work. Four potential scenarios--probationization, penalization, bureaucratization, and standardization--are possible directions for future development of community service. The probation service must develop a consistent philosophy and practice in relation to community service so that its future direction will uphold the finest tradition of the probation service.

548

Varah, M. (1981). What about the workers? Offenders on community service orders express their opinions. Probation Journal, 28, 120-123.

Reports on the results of an anonymous questionnaire administered to 100 persons involved in the Warwickshire (England) community service scheme between 1980 and 1981. Ten percent of the 100 completed returns were provided by persons who had their orders revoked. Among the results were that overwhelmingly, respondents preferred the community service order to a prison sentence, did not see the community service as a "let-off" by the court, felt that they had been given suitable work to do, had adequate supervision, were given a fair chance to use their skills, did not dislike anything about community service, and felt that they had been in a position of trust while working. Eighty six percent of the 100 respondents said that they had positively gained from the experience and 67 offered to do voluntary work after completing their orders.

549

Varcoe, J. B. (1982). The misuse of community service order. Provincial Judges Journal, 6(1), 13-14.

Community service can be a useful alternative to more traditional methods of sentencing but several cautions need to be considered. Community service may be more effective as a rehabilitation method for the wealthy offender who can easily pay a fine. Community service must be reasonable and used as a means of securing the offender's good conduct and the prevention of further similar offenses.

550

Varne, S. (1976). Saturday work: A real alternative? Australian and New Zealand Journal of Criminology, 9, 95-108.

The Saturday work order scheme was introduced in Tasmania in 1972 and stipulated that a work order was to be offered an offender only in place of a prison sentence. The work order cannot exceed 25 Saturdays on any one charge. The aim of this study was to assess the relative extent to which the program has operated as an alternative to a prison sanction.

A quasi-experimental, interrupted time series design was used along with matched pairs. Comparisons were made between prison admissions before and after the introduction of the work order scheme, and a random sample of work order cases was selected and matched with 30 offenders who had presentence reports completed before the legislation was implemented. All data was collected from official files of criminal justice agencies.

Major findings were:

- In the first year of the work order scheme (July, 1972 - June, 1973) 339 work orders were given. In the second year of the scheme, 350 work orders were given.
- The limited data available indicates that work orders are given as an alternative to prison in a limited number of cases. In most cases, a work order is given as an additional sentence.
- The author concludes that the work order legislation is not fulfilling the function for which it was intended. Work orders are being offered to offenders in the courts when a prison sentence would not be appropriate. No real alternative is therefore given to the offender. Most commonly, a work order was offered instead of a fine.
- Offenders in the program have generally participated in hard labor exercises.

See Rook (1978) for another view of Tasmania's work order scheme.

551

Vass, A. A. (1981). Community service For juveniles? A critical comment. Probation Journal, 28, 44-49.

There is convincing evidence that the diversionary efforts of community service orders are in the region of 45 - 50% and that the sentence is used as an alternative to other non-custodial sentences and as a sentence in its own right. In light of this evidence, it is argued that the British government proposal to extend community service orders to 16 year olds may have unanticipated and undesirable consequences. Extending to 16 year olds may divert some from custody but also from supervision, fines, absolute or conditional discharges, and the attendance center order. As a result, many youth may be excessively penalized by serving a community service order. The misconception that the order is an alternative to custody can help to polarize and harden attitudes toward those offenders with few or trivial offenses by upgrading the seriousness of those offenders' criminal careers and by placing them one step up the penological ladder.

In short, community service may succeed in diverting a few juveniles from custody but it may also manage to place many others at the periphery of custodial institutions.

Instead of widening the distance between juveniles and custodial institutions, the introduction of the community service order may actually narrow that distance. It may make juveniles more vulnerable to stiffer sentences in future and it can place them on the brink of imprisonment when they reach the age of 17.

552

Vaughn, J. (1980). PARC: An integrated approach to victimization. Paper presented at the Fourth Symposium on Restitution and Community Service Sentencing, Minneapolis, MN.

Describes a victim-oriented program involving restitution, community service, compensation, crime prevention, and victim assistance.

553

Veevers, J. (1989). Pre-court diversion for juvenile offenders. In M. Wright & B. Galaway (Eds.), Mediation and criminal justice: Victims, offenders, and communities (pp. 69-81). London: Sage.

The Exeter (England) Joint Services Youth Support Team uses mediation, reparation, and community services as a diversion program for juvenile offenders who are referred from the police. The team's plans must be acceptable to the youth and parents and consists of representatives from social services, police, and probation. Ideally mediation should occur as soon as possible after the offense but processing time makes this difficult. Non attendance by victims has also been a problem.

554

Vennard, J. (1978). Compensation by the offender: The victim's perspective. Victimology: An International Journal, 3, 154-160.

A study of victims of offenders who had been convicted in magistrates courts in London during a single week in September, 1974. Interviews were conducted with 75 victims--45 of whom were victims of property offenses and 30 who were victims of assault. The most common problem identified by the victims was confusion and ignorance about the legal process and about ways that they might obtain compensation for losses.

The magistrates had ordered compensation (restitution) for 71% of the property offense victims and for 30% of the assault victims. The victims welcomed these decisions. However, over half the group indicated the amounts ordered did not equal their losses. Compensation awarded for loss of property appears to contribute to a victim's sense of satisfaction with the outcome of the criminal proceedings.



555

Vera Institute of Justice. (1980). Bronx community service sentencing project--A pilot project. New York, NY: Vera Institute of Justice.

The project aimed to induce the regular use of a 70 day community service sentence to give offenders an opportunity to do something positive, to introduce a workable form of restitution in an impoverished community, and to provide needy citizens with services. Project staff reviewed the files of incoming persons arrested for misdemeanors and felonies. If a case met eligibility criteria, staff members sought agreement among the suspect, the defense attorney, the Assistant District Attorney, and the judge for the alternative sentence. From the end of February 1979 through September 1980, 260 offenders participated. All had been convicted as adults at least once before (average, 2.5 convictions); 95% were black or Hispanic.

Among the services they performed under the supervision of the project staff were cleaning up badly neglected senior citizens' centers, youth centers, and neighborhood parks; repairing appliances and installing smoke alarms for the elderly; and helping staff recreational programs for retarded children. Almost 90% completed the community service sentence. For these persons, project staff offered assistance in finding jobs, housing, and educational or other social services. Two-thirds accepted help in formulating and carrying out post-sentenced plans. Each was referred to at least one agency or employer. Also see M. E. Smith (1980).

556

Viano, E. C. (1978). Victims, offenders, and the criminal justice system: Is restitution an answer? In J. Hudson & B. Galaway (Eds.), Offender restitution in theory and action (pp. 91-99). Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.

An overview of victimology is provided and restitution is suggested as having the potential for more fully integrating the victim into the operation of the criminal justice system.

557

Victoria Department of Community Welfare Services. (1982). Community service order scheme for adult offenders--An alternative to imprisonment. Watsonia, Victoria, Australia: Victoria Department of Community Welfare Services.

The Community Service Order Scheme (CSOS) provides an alternative to incarceration by requiring the offender to make reparation to the community by undertaking unpaid work for a fixed number of hours.

558

Virginia Department of Criminal Justice Services, Planning and Evaluation Section. (1988). Department of Criminal Justice Services evaluation of New River Community Sentencing, Inc. Richmond, VA: Virginia Department of Criminal Justice; Services, Planning and Evaluation Section.

The New River Community Sentencing Program, which provides supervised community service as a sentencing alternative in four Virginia counties and the city of Radford, was evaluated in terms of its management and operations, workload, impact on the local criminal justice system, and community relations. The program provides a sentencing alternative of proven benefit to the courts and law enforcement communities in its service areas. Study data were gathered between December 1986 and October 1987 and covered the program's operations from its beginning in 1983.

The program enjoys widespread acceptance and approval by the citizenry and is clearly offering services that benefit offenders and their families. The large caseloads of the community service counsellors suggest the need for funding for additional counsellors, however. More precise job descriptions, a clearer description of the performance evaluation process, and systematic training for staff members are also needed. The program supervised 1,202 community service orders between June 1986 and May 1987. During fiscal year 1987, the program successfully diverted 544 individuals from further contact with criminal justice professionals. The program's economic value was greater than its cost.

559

Virginia Department of Criminal Justice Services. (1983). Liability in community corrections programs. Richmond, VA: Virginia Department of Criminal Justice Services.

This pamphlet identifies the various liabilities that may conceivably arise in different categories of community corrections programs and the insurance alternatives available for each liability are outlined. To determine which kinds of insurance are appropriate for a particular program it should be decided into which the following categories the program falls; (a) where the offender is not on probation and the offender's only responsibility is to perform certain community services for a government unit or a nonprofit organization, (b) where the offender is on probation and is also required to perform community services, (c) where the offender is on conditional or unconditional probation, (d) where the program is developed in accordance with Virginia's Community Diversion Incentive Act, and (e) where the program involves diversion and residential placement.

After deciding into which category a program falls, the possible liabilities noted in this pamphlet should be considered and discussed with the city or county attorney as well as current insurance carrier. If the agency or locality should already have the type of insurance required, the current insurer should have specific knowledge of participation in the community corrections program. Where the locality coordinating the community

service program has assigned the offender to perform service for a nonprofit organization, the contract with that organization should include a clause holding the locality 'harmless from all claims, suits, and liabilities caused by or resulting from the performance of the offenders' as well as a clause requiring the organization itself to obtain adequate insurance protection. Additionally, a certificate of insurance should be provided by the local agency allowing 30 days notice of cancellation or nonrenewal.

560

Voss, M. (1990). Victim expectations, diversion, and informal settlement: Results of a victim survey in Bielefeld. In B. Galaway & J. Hudson (Eds.), Criminal justice, restitution, and reconciliation. Monsey, NY: Criminal Justice Press.

Data was collected from personal interviews with victims of juvenile or young adult (up to age 20) offenders reported to the police in the city of Bielefeld, Germany between October 1986 and August 1987 for offenses of theft, assault, property damage, fraud, and robbery. Reasons for reporting the crime to the police in order of importance were restitution of damages, act of civic duty, seeing the offender punished, help for the offender, and/or information about his motives. Diversion was supported by 67% of the victims, traditional severe sanctions by 25%, and judicial but less severe sanctions by 8%. Three-quarter of the victims show motives for reporting compatible with diversionary strategies. Willingness to participate in informal solutions to the offense increases with a background of anonymous relationships between victims and offenders.

561

Waite, L. (1977). The role of the main grade officer in community service. Probation Journal, 24, 134-137.

The positive and negative aspects of being a main grade officer in Britain working with offenders completing community service orders are considered.

562

Waldron, G. F. (1980). Problems associated with operating restitution programs within the juvenile-justice system. In J. Hudson & B. Galaway (Eds.), Victims, offenders, and alternative sanctions (pp. 31-35). Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.

Describes the current status and major problems in the implementation of the juvenile restitution initiative funded by the Office of Juvenile Justice.

563

Waldron, G. F., Chinn, C. E., Smiley, D. W., Lynch, J. E., & Dove, S. D. (1979). Public relations: Developing support for juvenile restitution projects--Working paper #3. Arlington, VA: National Office for Social Responsibility.

This document is designed to provide project managers and staff with information pertinent to the planning and implementation of effective public relations campaigns. The specific purposes of this document are primarily threefold: to examine the rationales for developing project support within the juvenile justice system and the community; to discuss the methods and techniques project managers and staff can employ in cultivating this support; and to highlight the relevant considerations in utilizing media coverage and information dissemination to augment support building efforts.

564

Waldron, G. F., Chinn, C. E., Smiley, D. W., Lynch, J. E., & Dove, S. D. (1978). A guide to juvenile restitution programming--Working paper # 1. Arlington, VA: National Office for Social Responsibility.

After a brief discussion of the origins of restitution and the recent resurgence and trends in the area, the issues related to restitution planning and programming are covered at the juvenile level. Three program models are presented, evaluation decisions are considered, and specific issues including full or partial restitution, expanded social control, victim related issues, legal issues, and which offenders should be recommended for restitution are discussed.

565

Waldron, G. F., & Lynch, J. (1979). Managing juvenile restitution projects. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice, Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention.

A guide developed to assist managers of juvenile restitution projects in the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Juvenile Restitution initiative. Project goals and objectives are to be specified and analyzed in relation to the objectives of the national initiative. A detailed flow chart indicating the types of activities to be engaged in as the juvenile offender moves through the juvenile justice system to completion of the restitution contract. Sample forms and a job description are included.

566

Walker, G. (1979, February). Community corrections - The alternative to incarceration - Canada. London, ON: Address to the Provincial Judge's Assoc. of Ontario.

Community service orders and temporary absence programs as alternatives to prison offer rehabilitation and reduce recidivism says the Ontario (Canada) Minister of Corrections.

567

Walster, E. C., Bersheid, E., & Walster, G. W. (1976). New directions in equity research. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 25, 151-176.

This article consists of four sections. The first elucidates a general theory of social behavior-equity theory. Equity theory consists of four propositions designed to predict when individuals will perceive that they are justly treated and how they will react when they find themselves enmeshed in unjust relationships. The second section summarizes the extensive research that has been conducted to test equity theory. The third section points out the ways in which equity theory interlocks with other major social psychological theories. The final section hints at some ways in which equity theory can be applied to understanding social problems.

568

Ward, M. S. (1980, September). Implementing community service programs in correctional and probation agencies. Paper presented at the Fourth Symposium on Restitution and Community Service Sentencing, Minneapolis, MN.

Due to understaffing and inadequate structures and finances probation agencies, asked to perform too many functions, often do not implement the community service option clearly and consistently. In addition, the bureaucratic nature of probation departments, in part owing to their official nature, augurs against advocacy for clients. To integrate a community service program within a probation agency, such a program should be legitimized by official recognition of its viability, and run by an autonomous unit within the probation agency. Such a unit should have final responsibility in setting the limits and time parameters of the community service obligation. Autonomy is needed in order to implement and run community service programs within correctional agencies as well.

The Montgomery County Department of Corrections' experience in this regard illustrates this point and offers both the insights solutions of implementation problems. The Alternative Community Services Program provides a voluntary alternative for selected offenders. Giving the program the agency status has ensured its accountability and visibility, and the establishment of an advisory board comprised of lay citizens has ensured the necessary community-wide acceptance. The program autonomy is enhanced by its location in a public library. This also removes any punitive distinction that may accrue from locating the program in either a detention or pre-release facility, and is more conducive to privacy and one-to-one interviewing.

569

Washington County Department of Community Corrections Restitution Center. (1983). Washington county community corrections restitution center 1983-85 plan. Hillsboro, OR: Washington County Department of Community Corrections Restitution Center.

The program is funded by the county, the department, and resident room and board fees. While staffing is provided by the department, residents remain in the custody of the sheriff. Residence in this minimum-security setting is a privilege extended to low-risk offenders by the court as an alternative to jail incarceration. The center provides residents with a secure, well-structured living environment for a 1 to 12 month period of readjustment, guidance, and individual life planning. Regular services include group and individual counselling, life skills training, financial planning, family counselling, education and tutoring, and alcohol and drug abuse counselling. In addition, residents provide an average of 5 hours a week of free community services to nonprofit community and Government agencies.

The center will continue to provide an alternative to incarceration in 1983-85. The program will include four new activities; weekend inmate housing, a countywide inmate work project, an improved program structure and service curriculum, and four-bed dormitory housing for females. With an operating budget of \$696,230, the center will provide five full-time positions to support the program.

570

Washington Department of Social and Health Services. (1982). Evaluation of the Washington state juvenile restitution project--Final report. Olympia, WA: Washington Department of Social and Health Services.

Program and follow-up data on almost 1,500 youths placed in Washington State's juvenile restitution and community services programs over 3.5 years indicated that these efforts were more successful compared to control groups in lowering the use of detention, levels of institutionalization, and 6 month recidivism rates.

The project's restitution component was generally less effective than the community service component. Youths most likely to perform well in restitution/community service programs were white males between 11 and 15 years old who were attending school, had few adjudicated offenses prior to the referral, and had a low level of restitution or community service ordered. Delinquents with several prior offenses, minorities, females, and youths not attending school were not successful in completing the program. A youth's participation in school or daily structured activity appeared critical to program success.

Quality restitution/community service programs cost approximately \$550 per youth, which is substantially lower than alternative incarceration costs. Moreover, considerable public support appears to exist for such programs. The evaluation concludes that a program's quality is the key to its rehabilitative effect and that this should improve with frequent evaluations, training, and technical assistance. The report recommends establishing a maximum ceiling rate for restitution and community service, suggesting \$230-\$245 for restitution and 70-75 hours for service. It also emphasizes that the linkup between the youth's offense and referral to a restitution/community service program be as rapid and efficient as possible.

Wax, M. (1977). The effects of symbolic restitution and presence of victim on delinquent shoplifter. Ann Arbor, MI: University Microfilms International.

The aim of this study was to determine whether twenty hours of community service had an effect on reducing further delinquency in juvenile shoplifters and also to determine what effect having the victim present at the time of sentencing had on the juvenile offender. Three treatment conditions were used in the study; 20 hrs. of community service restitution without the victim present at the time of sentencing, 20 hrs. of community service with the victim present at the time of sentencing, and no community service and no victim present.

An after-only experimental design was used. Thirty subjects were randomly assigned to one of the three treatment conditions. Two diagnostic counselors from the court were randomly assigned to five subjects in each condition so that a total of fifteen subjects were assigned to each diagnostic counselor. Data collection procedures were implemented for the first two treatment conditions following the second interview by the juvenile court counselor and following the completion of the subject's community service restitution. Data collection was initiated for the third treatment group two weeks after the first interview. A six-month follow up was used for each subject in the three groups.

All youth were handled informally by the court. Subjects were referred to the court by the police. They were then seen by a court intake worker who decided where cases were to be referred. All cases involving shoplifting were referred to one diagnostic counselor. This counselor then assigned cases according to a prearranged, randomly stratified listing. Subjects assigned to community service were informed that they had to complete twenty hours of work within a two week period. Upon the completion of the assigned work, the subjects met with their counselor for an interview. After six months following the completion of the work, a follow up interview was completed. Subjects in treatment group two were exposed to the same procedures except that the victim the subject stole from was also present during the first interview with the counselor. Subjects in control group three met with the diagnostic counselor at the juvenile court for an interview which was structured the same as for groups one and two, except that no mention of restitution was made. There was no further contact with the subject by the counselor for six months at which time the follow up interview was completed.

Major findings were:

- The statistical analysis of differences between the groups on the four behavior dependent variables (police contact, court contact, school attendance, school behavior problems) showed no significant differences.
- The Asocial Index Subscale of the Jesness Inventory showed a significant shift between pretest and posttest treatment scores at the .06 level for both independent variables (community service restitution, victim present at sentencing).

Weber, J. R. (1978). Georgia's residential restitution centers. Lexington, KY: Council of State Governments.

Restitution, both monetary and public service, is an age-old procedure widely used in a variety of ways by both juvenile court and criminal court judges. Restitution does not have to be combined with a residential program to be valid. Some offenders, however, can gain more benefits from a residential restitution program than from incarceration in a prison. From a cost point of view, restitution centers are in the state's interest because incarceration costs are usually less than for prisons.

The Georgia Restitution Centers are offender-focused rather than victim-focused. Thus, they differ from state victim compensation programs. Victim compensation refers to money or services provided to a victim by the state, whereas restitution refers to money or services provided to the victim by the offender. In Georgia, ten restitution centers serve designated judicial districts. The district court judge makes the decision to place an offender in a restitution center rather than a prison. The centers serve as an alternative to prison incarceration, not as an alternative to probation supervision. Georgia's restitution centers have relieved prison overcrowding.

The preferred method of intake, after an offender has been sentenced to a term of imprisonment, is for center staff members to interview offenders in the county jail while they await transportation to the state prison. If the offenders and center staff members believe a restitution center program would be appropriate, a recommendation is made to the sentencing judge who may then modify the original sentence to placement in a residential restitution center as a condition of probation. The centers' programs operate 24 hours a day, seven days a week. Offenders are employed and relinquish their paychecks to center staff members for division according to a contract. Restitution includes monetary payment for damages and public service activities. A typical participant in the program is a 19-year-old offender who was convicted of a property offense and who has been on probation for an earlier offense. Average length of stay in the center is about four months.

A major cost benefit of Georgia's Restitution Centers Program is the short-term leasing of center facilities. Uneconomical tourist courts located on state highways now bypassed by interstate highways are favorite lease locations. The key to successful operation of a correctional residential restitution center is community acceptance. The restitution center needs to be viewed by community leaders as their program.

Weigend, E. (1986). Community Service in Poland. In H. Albrecht & W. Schädler (Eds.), Criminological Research Reports: Vol. 25. Community Service: A new option in punishing offenders in Europe (pp. 121-138). Freiburg, Germany: Max-Planck Institute.



Polish penal law does not have a punishment corresponding with community service as practiced in Western European countries but does have the punishment of limited freedom which was introduced into the Polish penal code in 1969 and obligates the offender to serve supervised work in the public interest. In the 1960's the Polish legislature was interested in forms of punishment to reduce the gap between imprisonment and fines. About 50% of Polish prison sentences are suspended and the courts have the power to order certain kinds of work as a condition of suspended sentence. In 1969 a provision was introduced empowering courts to drop charges conditionally. Up to 20 hours of service can be ordered as a condition of dropping charges.

In addition the penalty of limited freedom can be imposed and can range from three months to two years. There are three different models of limited freedom but all have the common characteristic of requiring the offender to provide unpaid work. Offenders sentenced to limited freedom may not move away from their permanent place of residence without permission. The court has discretionary power to order the offender to make restitution or to apologize.

The three models of limited freedom are supervised unpaid work in the public interest between 20 and 50 hours per month, continuing full time paid employment but at a wage reduction of between 10-25% and stopping further advancements in a professional career, or ordering full time work in a state owned company. In 1983 145,623 main sentences were imposed; 28% were imprisonment, 46% suspended sentence probation, 10% were limited freedom, 16% were fines, and less than 1% were other sanctions.

During the 1980's Polish criminal policy has been characterized by an increasing use of immediate imprisonment and stressing the maximum duration of limited freedom. In 1983 13,200 offenders received a sentence of limited freedom; 35% were sentenced to do additional work in the public interest, 58% had wages shortened, and 8% were ordered to full time work in a state owned enterprise. Extensive use of shortened wages suggest that limited freedom is being used more like a fine than the other two versions which would be closer to community service.

574

West, J. (1978). Community service for fine defaulters. Justice of the Peace, 142, 425-428.

Section 49 of the 1972 Criminal Justice Act would, if implemented, enable a magistrates' court to replace committal to prison for fine default with community service. The author looks at the problems of this approach. The author examines the possible effects of implementing S.49 of the 1972 act. He concludes that community service is unsuitable as a general enforcement aid in fine collection. Enforceability is really the crux. Seeking an alternative for the man in prison for fine default is looking at the problem from the wrong end of a telescope. He represents the residue from an extremely effective enforcement machinery. Viewed from the right end of the telescope, the fines collection

system, with its progression of filters, provides what the author would suggest may be an optimum method of implementing the most widely used (55% of all sentences), simple, cheap, and effective penalty available to the courts--and which of course contributes substantially to the cost of administering the courts. Furthermore, the recent reduction in the periods of imprisonment to be served in default may, he suggests, turn out to be counter-productive as a means of reducing the prison population, simply because the deterrent effect has been reduced.

575

West, J. S. M. (1976). Community service orders. In J. F. S. King (Ed.), Control without custody? Cambridge: University of Cambridge, Cambridge Institute of Criminology.

Issues related to the use of community service orders with offenders in Britain are considered. Primary attention is given to issues of the whether the community service order should be penalty or treatment, and how a proper balance of social control over offenders can be achieved.

576

Westlake, R. (1980). Community service sentencing program in Hawaii--June 1, 1979-May 31, 1980. Honolulu, HI: State of Hawaii, Hawaii Judiciary.

The Community Service Sentencing Program (CSSP) in Hawaii had a success rate of approximately 90% regarding compliance with community service sentences. Court records of offenders sentenced to community service between June 1, 1979, and May 31, 1980, were examined to obtain program and demographic profiles and the success and recidivism rates. A statewide total of 1,286 offenders were sentenced to perform community service. These offenders performed 40,635 hours of community service, an equivalent of 5,079 8 hour working days. The CSSP had a recidivism rate of 9%. Community service was ordered for a wider range of offenses in comparison with the same period in 1978-79. There were generally stiffer community service sentences in comparison with the same period in 1978-79. Family court, in particular, showed a marked increase in the number of hours sentenced for specific types of offenses. Study data and forms are included.

577

Wiebush, R. C. (1985). Recidivism in the juvenile diversion project of the young volunteers in action program. Rockville, MD: U.S. Department of Justice, National Institute of Justice.

Young Volunteers in Action, a community service program for youthful offenders in Columbus, Ohio, did not reduce the number of recidivists or the seriousness of subsequent offenses but was effective with females and blacks and delayed the youths'

subsequent involvements with the law. The program provided a sentencing alternative to the juvenile court for minor offenders.

Study data came from a 6 month follow-up of the arrest records of 60 youths referred to the program during its first year, July 1983 to July 1984. Comparison data came from a matched group of juvenile offenders who did not take part in the program.

Almost half the youths in each group were rearrested within 1 year. A small number of youths in each group were responsible for a disproportionate number of arrests. The lowest recidivism rates were for females in the volunteer program. Black males in the program had a recidivism rate of 33%, compared to 50% for black males not in the program. Youths aged 16 and 17 were slightly more successful than those aged 14 and 15.

578

Wiebush, R. G. (1985). Quarter mile of baseboards--Perceptions of community service work among delinquent youth. Rockville, MD: U. S. Department of Justice, National Institute of Justice.

Fifteen participants in a community service program for delinquent youth in Columbus, Ohio, had generally favorable views toward their experience. The youths entered the program conducted by Young Volunteers in Action between July 1983 and June 1984. They were randomly selected for the study and completed semi-structured interviews.

Eleven of the youths believed that the judge's sole intention in assigning community service was to help them. Only two viewed the judge's goal as punishment. Two-thirds believed that they had appropriately repaid their debt to society. Nine regarded the sentence as lenient. Eleven felt that the sentence had helped them. They all viewed community service as a good sentence, but only for less serious offenders. Twelve youths reported gaining new skills or refining existing ones. Four youths developed strong vocational interests as a result of their experience. Ten youths felt that the community service had aided their chances of obtaining paid employment. The seven youths involved in direct service positions were the most likely to report the acquisition of new skills and to have highly positive evaluation of the experience. However, having a positive experience did not relate significantly to obtaining a job.

579

Williams, R. (1979). Probation officer skills in community service. Probation Journal, 26, 9-14.

Argues for probation officers, not ancillary staff, to be involved in making major decisions in community service. The decision making process in administering community service orders is seen as rooted in the context where probation officer skills can be used to great effect. Decisions concerning suitability for community service, placement and

breach are complex in nature and need to take account of the expectations of the court, the needs of the offender and the community. The trained probation officer is better able to walk the tight-rope between the overlapping demands of different parties.

580

Willis, A. (1978). Community service and the tariff: (1) A critical comment. The Criminal Law Review, 540-544.

Argues against Pease's (1978) proposal to declare community service hours of between 100 and 204 to be directly equivalent to custodial sentences of up to one year. Suggests that Pease's solution does nothing to eliminate inconsistencies in sentencing, either at the sentencing or revocation stages; it fails to inhibit probation officer second guessing; it fails to solve the problem of consent; and it fails in being premised on the unproved and illegitimate proposition that probation officers are unwilling to extend its use.

581

Willis, A. (1977). Community service as an alternative to imprisonment: A cautionary view. Probation Journal, 24, 120-126.

The author suggests that the penal philosophy behind community service since its inception and still continuing to the present day is riddled with ambiguities and contradictions--that, at best, it has a chameleonic penal philosophy and, at worst, a totally confused penal aim. Further, these uncertainties are hindering its development as a non-custodial sentence.

582

Wilson, M. J. (1983). Juvenile offender instrument--Administration and a description of findings. Eugene, OR: Institute of Policy Analysis.

This report provides a site-by-site descriptive summary of evaluation data collected by the Juvenile Offender Instrument (JOI) from six sites involved in the Juvenile Restitution Initiative. The JOI was administered to both experimental and control groups for each of the six sites: Venture County, California; Washington, D. C.; Clayton County, Georgia; Boise, Idaho; Oklahoma City, Oklahoma; and Dane County, Wisconsin. The JOI was designed to obtain information on (a) offender background characteristics; (b) factual and attitudinal information about the offense, co-offenders, and victim; (c) opinions on the fairness and severity of the juvenile court sanctions; (d) offenders' perceptions as to labelling by teachers, parents, and peers; and (e) the self-rated likelihood of future criminal behavior.

Each site report follows the same format, beginning with a description of the treatment groups at the site and proceeding to a summary of particulars related to JOI administration (dates of administration, random assignment violations, group sizes, etc.).

Descriptive tables are provided, and issues related to survey administration and experimental design are addressed. This report does not analyze the findings in terms of specific hypotheses, and is therefore purely descriptive.

583

Winfield, S. (1977). What has probation service done to community service? Probation Journal, 24, 126-130.

This article looks at how the probation service has learned to adopt community service, what issues the settling-in process has raised, and how this newcomer will affect future development of probation service. The presence in community service of three elements--punishment, rehabilitation, and reparation--in a complex way helps to explain the flexibility of the sentence.

In addition to fostering relationships between the offender and the community, the growth of community service has brought about an increase in the employment of ancillaries. What is becoming apparent from the contributions which ancillaries are now making is that there are substantial areas of work which the service can appropriately hand over to non-professionals to leave them free to use the skills for which they have been trained. This seems to be an unpleasant fact of life which the service is reluctant to accept but the way in which individual services have developed their schemes has undoubtedly shown that there is a growing body of expertise among ancillaries which must be harnessed.

The flow of community service order is steadily increasing and with it the confidence of judges and magistrates in the scheme. In its establishment of community service the probation service has actively encouraged the greater participation of the offender, the non-professional, and the community. At the same time it has been required to accept, albeit reluctantly, a role for itself which is more distant from the offender and which required it to act in many more situations than previously as a catalyst for the change of attitudes between the offender and the community. These developments seem to herald the shape of things to come, and in the future the service will offer a greater diversification of skills with which to help the offender. This will demand the more varied use of the non-professional, the voluntary, and community resources and will also require a more accurate definition of the real skills which the professional can offer the client.

584

Wisconsin Legislative Council. (1987). Legislation on community corrections issues: 1987 Assembly Bill 260 relating to restitution. Madison, WI: Wisconsin Legislative Council.

Presents the legislative background and provisions for Wisconsin 1987 Assembly Bill pertaining to restitution conditions.

585

Woodard, P. I., & Anderson, J. R. (1984). Victim-witness legislation--An overview. Sacramento, CA: Search Group.

Describes and analyzes U.S. federal and state legislation relating to rights of criminal victims and witnesses. Legislative programs involving victim compensation, restitution, witness protection, and other related issues are described. Legislation by state is presented in 15 categories.

586

Wootton, Baroness (of Abinger). (1977). Some reflections on the first five years of community service. Probation Journal, 24, 110-112.

The author comments on a few of the successes, problems, and criticisms of the community service order scheme in Britain after five years of use.

587

Worel, J., Wynne, D., & Kigin, R. (1982). Community work service with felons: A guide to developing new local programs. Minneapolis, MN: Alternative Behavior Associates.

A guide developed from the experiences of the Dakota County (Minnesota) experience of placing adult felony offenders in community service. Program planning must take into consideration the philosophy and objectives of the program, integration of community service with other forms of restitution although financial restitution programs procedures should be kept separate from community work service, selection of eligible clients, organizing resources to support community work service, developing administrative structures, determining the length of community work service sentences, developing work sites, developing program procedures, and developing community support.

588

Wright, M. (1987). What the public wants: Surveys of the general public, including victims. Justice of the Peace, 151, 105-107. Also in M. Wright & B. Galaway (Eds.), Mediation and criminal justice: Victims, offenders and community (pp. 264-269). London: Sage, 1989.

A review of several public opinion surveys regarding public acceptance of restitution, community service sentencing, and mediation. Many members of the public, including victims, are ready to shift the basis of the debate away from whether to use harsh or lenient punishment to the use of reparative sanctions instead of punishment.

589

Wright, M. (1983). Victim/offender reparation agreements: A feasibility study in Coventry. Birmingham, England: West Midlands Probation Service.

A feasibility study prepared in response to the search for better ways to work with offenders. Stresses involving the victim in making offenders more accountable. Suggests a project for Coventry as a model for other projects. Requirements for the project are described and a list of references provided. Topics covered include the historical background of compensation to victims, experiences gained through American programs, how reparation can be put into practice in respect to referral procedures, mediation and court procedures, guidelines for accepting suitable cases and how offenders can pay back when they have limited sources of income. A sample victim/offender reparation agreement is included.

590

Wright, M. (1981, December). Crime and reparation: Breaking the penal logjam. New Society, 58, 444-446.

Reparation should become the primary principle in the administration of justice with deterrence and rehabilitation as desirable side-effects. The use of prisons deflects attention from victims and the victim's chances of securing reparation. Current processes for handling offenders should be replaced with procedures based on mediation principles directed towards ensuring that the process is not a dramatic ordeal for either victim or offender who should both feel that their case has been fairly heard and an acceptable solution reached. The solution should not be focused upon what has occurred in the past but, rather, what steps are needed to bring about harmonious relationships in the future.

591

Wright, M. (1980). Cutting prison overcrowding in Great Britain: Sources of help and hindrance. Crime and Delinquency, 26(1), 10-21.

A discussion of prison reform in Great Britain focuses on the proponents and opponents of reform, bettering of prison conditions, and on community service programs and other substitutes for incarceration.

592

Wright, M. (1977). Nobody came: Criminal justice and the needs of the victims. Howard Journal, 16, 22-31.

The response to calls to do something about crime might well be to care for crime victims through removing barriers for victims to receive compensation, providing

immediate care and support as is done by victim support schemes, and rethinking the types of requirements imposed upon convicted offenders so that greater attention is given to requirements whereby these offenders take some active steps to restore their victims and the community. "The proposal that the victim should be helped by the offender or by the community, and the offender should be required to make amends to the victim or the community, is an attempt to find a way of showing respect to the victim's feelings while offering him practical help and yet treating the offender so as to heal the breach he has made in society by drawing him back in, rather than widening it by degrading and expelling him."

593

Wrightson, J. W. (1979, September). Local government as a point of entry for restitution programming. Paper presented at the Third Symposium on Restitution, Duluth, MN.

Describes the history, implementation, and current operations of the Prince George's County, Maryland, Juvenile Restitution Project.

594

Yantzi, M. (1978). Victim offender reconciliation: In theory and practice. Unpublished Master of Applied Science research essay, University of Waterloo, Waterloo, ON.

The author draws upon theory and his own experiences as a staff member of the Victim Offender Reconciliation Project (VORP) to describe and explore the various components of victim offender conflict and avenues for its successful resolution. A description of the operations of VORP, an innovative project located in Kitchener, Ontario, which brings offenders and victims together in face-to-face confrontations, is included along with several case examples. Victim offender conflict is addressed in relation to equity theory, conflict theory, and third party consultation theory. The role of restitution in the reconciliation process is also considered.

595

Yantzi, M. D. (1981). Community options: Handling spilt milk. Correctional Options, 1, 67-71.

Victim Offender Reconciliation Projects (VORP) provide an alternative to both vindictive punishment and therapy by holding offenders accountable for actions to restore the damages they may have done. Victim offender mediation and the use of trained community volunteers as mediators are central concepts to VORP programming. The process of bringing victim and offender together to develop a plan for the offender to restore damages is described. The importance of monitoring completion of the agreement through follow-up is stressed.



596

Young, W. (1979). Community service orders: The development and use of a new penal measure. London: Heinemann.

The expectation that community service orders will divert offenders from custodial sentences is dependent on the way courts use the sentence. This study conducted in 1976 and 1977 examined the sentencing patterns used in six different magistrates courts. The sample was 2,021 offenders who had received sentences of community service, imprisonment, suspended sentences, a probation order, or a detention center order; 308 of the offenders received a community service offer. Dependent variables of sentencing disparity and the place of community service orders in the tariff (its relationship to other sentences) were studied in relation to three sets of independent variables--the nature and number of offenses leading to the current conviction, offenders' prior criminal record, and personal characteristics of the offender, including age, sex, work record, employment situation, and degree of family responsibilities.

Considerable variation was found among courts in the frequency with which community service was ordered. Its low use was associated with low use of other disparities among courts in sentencing practices and could not be explained by local differences in offense or offender characteristics. Each court sentenced offenders to community service who had committed crimes of widely different degrees of seriousness. The community service order is perceived as serving many penal objectives which may lead to inconsistent application. The place of the community service orders in the tariff must be clearly specified to reduce inconsistent application.

597

Zehr, H. (1983). VORP: An overview of the process. Elkhart, IN: PACT Institute of Justice and Mennonite Central Committee Office of Criminal Justice.

Step by step description of the Victim Offender Reconciliation Program processes.

598

Zehr, H. (undated). Mediating the victim offender conflict. Akron, PA: Mennonite Central Committee.

The conceptual basis for victim offender reconciliation program (VORP) projects which originated in Kitchener, Ontario, and which are now functioning as several locations in the United States, including a description of the VORP program in Elkhart, Indiana. VORP makes use of volunteer mediators to bring offenders and victims together to work out a reconciliation in which the offender agrees to steps to make amends for the wrong done to the victim. Most VORP projects are sponsored by private agencies outside the criminal justice system working in close cooperation with criminal justice officials from whom referrals are received.

599

Zehr, H., & MaKinen, K. (1980). Victim-offender reconciliation program volunteer handbook. Elkhart, IN: Elkhart County Prisoners and Community Together (PACT), Inc.

A manual providing detailed descriptions of program procedures and the process to be used to bring victims and offenders together to negotiate the manner by which the offender may restore victim losses.

600

Zehr, H., & Umbreit, M. S. (1982). Victim offender reconciliation: An incarceration substitute? Federal Probation, 46(4) 63-68.

The Victim Offender Reconciliation Program (VORP) operated by Prisoner and Community Together (PACT) in Indiana is described. The program allows for a face-to-face meeting between victim and offender in which facts and feelings are discussed and a restitution contract agreed upon. Trained community volunteers serve as mediators. VORP can serve as a partial or total substitute for jail or prison incarceration. Eighty six percent of all cases represent felony offenses with burglary and theft being the most common.

601

Zimmerman, D. (1982). Canceling outstanding fines through voluntary service--The Hessian project "community service." Bewaehrungshilfe, 29(2), 113-126.

West German programs in Hamburg, Berlin, and the State of Hessen have instituted a community service alternative for offenders unable to pay the fines given them. Formerly, such persons could only choose incarceration in lieu of payment. About 4.1% of all persons sentenced with fines in Germany wind up serving prison sentences because of inability to pay. Instead of contributing to prison overcrowding by a group the courts did not intend to incarcerate, the community service alternative enables these offenders to serve their sentences in a socially useful form. In addition, the offenders are spared all the negative personal consequences of imprisonment.

Initial efforts in Berlin and Hamburg have not diverted the hoped-for number from serving prison terms. The Hessen project began in September 1981. It is to be piloted for 1 year in two jurisdictions and later extended throughout the State. Unlike Berlin and Hamburg, the Hessen project is not limited to work with governmental agencies and has a more flexible formula for calculating the value of man hours expended in community service. A total of 15 footnotes is provided.

## AUTHOR INDEX

- Acres, D. J. 1  
Ada County District Court. 2  
Adair, H. 3  
Agopian, M. 4  
Albrecht, H. 5, 6  
Allen, G. F. 7  
Allen, J. 26  
Allen-Hagen, B. 8  
Alper, B. S. 9  
Alternative Behavior Associates. 10, 587  
Anderson, J. R. 585  
Arbing, P. 11  
Armstrong, T. 12, 13  
Armstrong, T. L. 13  
Asplund, A. 332  
Aull, J. 14  
Austin, J. 15  
Australian Institute of Criminology. 16,  
90, 477  
Azrin, N. H. 17, 130  
Baer, B. F. 18  
Balder, J. 19  
Barton, B. 20  
Bazemore, G. 21, 282, 463, 467  
Beck-Zierdt, N. 22, 23  
Beger, R. R. 24  
Beha, J. 25  
Benek, A. J. 26  
Bergman, H. S. 27  
Berman, L. N. 28  
Bersheid, E. 567  
Besse, A. 29  
Bettmer, F. 30  
Bianchi, H. 31  
Billingham, S. 395  
Blackstone Institute. 32  
Blagg, H. 33  
Blew, C. H. 34  
Bluestein, R. S. 35  
Blum, J. E. 79  
Bol, M. W. 36  
Boraas, T. 37  
Bottoms, A. E. 38  
Bourke, C. 39  
Brennan, T. P. 40  
Brewer, D. L. 41  
Bridges, J. H. 42  
Brillon, Y. 43  
British Columbia Corrections Branch. 44  
British Columbia Ministry of Attorney  
General. 45, 297  
Broomfield, T. 46  
Brown, B. 47  
Brown, E. J. 196-198  
Brownstein, H. H. 48  
Bryson, J. 49  
Buckman, M. R. 198  
Buerge, J. H. 50, 51  
Bullock, R. 339  
Bumsted, K. L. 52, 53  
California League of Alternative Service  
Programs. 54, 55  
Cannady, L. P. 56  
Cannon, A. 57  
Carleton, G. A. 58  
Carlson, K. 25  
Carter, R. M. 59  
Cartledge, G. C. 60  
Challeen, D. 61  
Challeen, D. A. 62, 63  
Chesney, S. 232, 241, 242  
Chesney, S. L. 64  
Chinn, C. E. 563, 564  
Ciallella, J. A. 65  
Ciano, S. 507  
Clark, A. W. 66  
Clark, D. E. 67  
Clearly, C. M. 475  
Coates, R. B. 68  
Cocks, J. 59, 69  
Cohen, H. 70  
Cohn, A. 71  
Coker, J. B. 72  
Coleman, B. 124  
Collins, M. 479  
Combs-Schilling, E. 352

- Community Service Restitution Program. 51, 73
- Community service: A sentencing alternative. 74
- Community work sentences: Pilot projects in Quebec. 75
- Compass Management Group, Inc. 76
- Connecticut Judicial Department, Office of Adult Probation. 77
- Conrad, J. 78
- Cooper, G. 79, 80
- Cortin, M. E. 499
- Creative Alternatives to Prison. 81
- Crites, L. 82
- Cromer, G. 83, 84
- Czajkoski, E. H. 85, 86
- Dagger, R. 87
- Davis, B. 88
- del Carmen, R. V. 89
- Delgoda, J. P. 90
- Demooy, L. 91
- Denver Research Institute. 79, 92
- Dexel, D. R. 249
- Dittenhoffer, T. 93
- Divorski, S. 94
- Doble, J. 95
- Dobmeyer, T. 324
- Dockar-Drysdale, P. 96
- Dodge, D. 97, 98
- Dominelli, L. 99
- Donnelly, S. M. 100
- Doob, A. N. 101, 102
- Dove, S. D. 563, 564
- Doyle, P. 103
- Duckworth, A. M. E. 104
- Duffy, B. P. 105
- Dufour, H. E. 309
- Dukes, T. 106
- Dunkel, F. 107
- Durkin, P. 396
- Earnshaw, I. 393, 395, 396
- Eglash, A. 108-112, 272
- Ellis, J. 124
- Ervin, L. 113
- Evans, R. C. 114
- Evarts, W. R. 115
- Fautsko, T. F. 116
- Feinman, H. 117, 118
- Female Offenders Program of Western Pennsylvania, Inc. 119
- Finckenauer, J. O. 120
- Finger, B. 121
- Fischer, D. G. 122
- Fisse, B. 123
- Flegg, D. 124
- Florida Department of Health and Rehabilitative Services. 57, 125
- Flowers, G. T. 126
- Fogel, D. 127
- Foley, J. P. 128
- Fortier, J. 129
- Foxx, R. M. 130
- Freibert, M. T. 131
- Fujimoto, R. 353
- Fuller, G. 132
- Galaway, B. 127, 133-152, 156, 157, 206, 233-240, 242, 243, 296, 372
- Gallant, G. 129, 153
- Gandy, J. T. 42, 154-157
- Gardella, J. E. 158
- Garfin, D. I. 159
- Garman, J. S. 440
- Gaudet, M. 103
- Gaynes, E. 160
- Gehm, J. 68, 161
- Geis, G. 162
- Geist, A. M. 316
- Gerrard, J. M. 163
- Gettinger, S. 164
- Gilbeau, D. 165, 311
- Gitchoff, G. T. 166, 207
- Glaser, D. 59
- Godson, D. 167
- Gold, A. D. 168
- Goldstein, N. 169
- Goldstone, J. 170
- Gottesman, R. 171
- Grau, C. W. 172
- Griffin, T. G. 173
- Griffith, W. 468, 472-474
- Griffith, W. R. 174, 175, 473
- Griffiths, C. 176

- Griffiths, C. T. 177  
 Griffiths, R. 178, 179  
 Groves, P. H. 180  
 Haak, M. 339  
 Hackett, C. 181  
 Halacy, W. 182  
 Harding, J. 183-189, 191, 192, 264  
 Harding, J. (Ed.). 190  
 Harding, J. K. 192  
 Harland, A. T. 193-198  
 Harman, J. 3  
 Harman, J. C. 199  
 Harris, M. K. 200, 201  
 Hawaii, the Judiciary. 202, 353  
 Heath, M. 203  
 Heide, K. M. 204  
 Heinlen, J. F. 205  
 Heinlen, J. H. 63  
 Heinz, J. 206  
 Henderson, J. H. 166, 207  
 Henry, D. A. 412  
 Henzel, M. 148  
 Hermann, S. 208  
 Hibbs, B. E. 209  
 Higginson, R. J. 124  
 Highway Traffic Safety Administration,  
 National. 210-213  
 Hine, J. C. 3  
 Hoelter, H. J. 28, 214  
 Hoffarth, R. 215  
 Hofford, M. 12, 216, 311  
 Hofrichter, R. 217  
 Holland, J. 94  
 Hollinger, V. 35  
 Home Office. 218, 411  
 Home Office, Advisory Council on the  
 Penal System. 219  
 Hood, R. 220  
 Hosie, K. 339  
 Hough, M. 221  
 Houlden, P. 489  
 Houser, R. 222  
 Howard League for Penal Reform. 223,  
 387  
 Hudson, J. 64, 127, 149-152, 206, 224--  
 243, 372, 383  
 Huls, M. E. 244  
 Hunt, S. 484-486  
 Hunt, S. M. 245-247  
 Hurd, J. L. 248  
 Hutzler, J. L. 249  
 Immarigeon, H. 250  
 Inner London Probation and After-Care  
 Service. 251  
 Jacobs, S. F. 48  
 Jameson Group. 252  
 Jardine, E. 253  
 Jeffrey, C. R. 254  
 Jeune, R. 122  
 John, E. D. 255  
 Jones, J. P. 256  
 Jones, R. 257  
 Jorgensen, J. D. 42  
 Junger-Tas, J. 258, 259  
 Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Preven-  
 tion, National Institute of, (NIJJDP).  
 262  
 Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Preven-  
 tion, Office of, (OJJDP). 260, 261  
 Kahn, J. 172  
 Katende, J. W. 263  
 Katz, M. 264, 265  
 Kaufman, C. L. 266  
 Keldgord, R. 267  
 Kelly, R. J. 268  
 Kennedy, M. 176  
 Kent, L. B. 269  
 Kentucky Department For Human  
 Services, Office of Research and  
 Planning. 270, 271  
 Keve, P. 272  
 Keve, P. W. 273, 274  
 Kigin, R. 587  
 Kirkaldy, A. D. 275  
 Kittel, N. 276  
 Klein, A. R. 277-282  
 Knight, R. W. 163  
 Koch, J. R. 283  
 Koederitz, G. D. 114  
 Koegel, J. 284  
 Kole, J. 285  
 Korn, R. 286, 287

- Krajick, K. 288  
 Kramer, A. 71, 281  
 Kramer, A. L. 281  
 Krasnick, M. 526  
 Krisberg, B. 15  
 Kurlychek, R. T. 289  
 Lacey, M. 290  
 Launay, G. 291  
 Law Reform Commission of Canada.  
     292  
 Leiber, H. 293  
 Leibrich, J. 294-296  
 Leighton, B. 297  
 Leivesley, S. 298  
 Levi, K. 299  
 Link Consultants. 300  
 Littell, R. 301, 302  
 Litton, G. 484-486  
 Livingston, C. F. 303  
 Longenbaugh, L. 20  
 Lowe, V. L. 304  
 Lowenberg, D. 305  
 Lynch, J. 563-565  
 Lynch, J. E. 563, 564  
 Macfarlane, P. D. 101  
 Macri, A. 306  
 Maestracci, N. 307  
 Maguire, M. 308  
 Maher, R. J. 309  
 MaKinen, K. 599  
 Maloney, D. 12, 98, 310, 311  
 Manti, V. D. 48  
 Marcus, M. 312  
 Markham, G. R. 313  
 Martin, S. E. 314  
 Martin, T. K. 315  
 Mason, L. 40  
 Mathews, K. E. 316  
 Mathieson, D. 317  
 Maull, G. 432  
 McAnany, P. D. 318  
 McCaldon, R. J. 319  
 McCarty, F. 320  
 McConnell, M. 71  
 McDonald, D. C. 321, 322  
 McDonald, W. F. 323  
 McGowan, L. 35  
 McKinney, M. 324  
 McKnight, D. J. 325  
 McLagan, J. 326  
 McLagen, J. 64  
 McLaughlin, A. 327  
 McWilliams, B. 328, 394  
 McWilliams, W. 329-331  
 Medendorf, E. 332  
 Medler, J. F. 333  
 Mehanna, S. 176  
 Menzies, K. 334  
 Merritt, F. S. 335  
 Messmer, H. 30  
 Michigan Sheriff's Association Jail  
     Resource Center. 336  
 Midwest Research Institute. 337  
 Miller, C. A. 338  
 Miller, K. D. 248  
 Millham, S. 339  
 Minnesota Department of Corrections.  
     10, 240, 241, 340, 341, 347, 422  
 Minnesota Legislature. 342  
 Minnesota State Planning Agency Crimi-  
     nal Justice Program. 343  
 Mitchell, L. 339  
 Moore, G. 253  
 Moore, S. 35  
 Morash, M. 344  
 Morgan, C. 345  
 Morrish, P. 346  
 Mountz, L. 171  
 Mowatt, R. M. 347  
 Mowrer, O. H. 348, 349  
 Moxon, D. 221  
 Multnomah County District Court. 350  
 Murphy, N. 328  
 Murzynowski, A. 351  
 Nader, L. 352  
 Nakamura, A. 353  
 National Association of Probation  
     Officers. 354  
 National Associations Active in Criminal  
     Justice. 355  
 National Center for State Courts Insti-  
     tute for Court Management. 356

- National Institute of Justice. 172, 357, 577, 578
- National Institute on Drug Abuse. 358
- Native Counselling Services of Alberta. 359
- New York Department of Correctional Services. 360
- New York State Senate Minority Task Force on Criminal Justice. 361
- New Zealand Department of Justice. 295, 296, 300, 362, 363
- Newton, A. 364-366
- Nichols, L. T. 9
- Nicholson, D. 367
- Niemiera, E. J. 368
- North Carolina Citizens Committee on Alternatives to Incarceration. 369
- North Carolina Governor's Advisory Council on Children and Youth. 370
- Novack, S. 157, 243, 371, 372
- O'Connor, W. F. 431
- O'Hearn, P. J. T. 373
- O'Neal, F. 374
- Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention (OJJDP). 375
- Omole, O. 492
- Osbourne Association, Inc. 376
- Otto, H. 30
- Oxley, P. 377
- Pacific Institute for Research and Evaluation. 378
- Paliero, C. E. 379
- Palmer, J. W. 380
- Papanek, E. 112
- Parliamentary All-Party Penal Affairs Group. 381
- Pate, K. 382
- Pate, K. J. 383
- Patenoode, A. 177
- Payne, B. 396
- Pearce, W. N. 384
- Pease, K. 253, 330, 331, 385-396
- Peat, Marwick and Partners. 397-399
- Pendleton, J. 290
- Pereira, L. M. O. M. 400
- Perrier, D. C. 401
- Pink, F. S. 401
- Pleacas, D. 402
- Polonoski, M. 403-405
- Polonski, M. L. 406
- Priestly, P. 407, 408
- Prins, H. 409
- Prisoner and Community Together, Inc. 410
- Probation and After-Care Department of the Home Office. 411
- Pryor, D. 412
- Puerto Rico Department of Addiction Services. 413
- Purdue University Automotive Transportation Center. 128, 414, 415
- Ralphs, P. 416, 417
- Ramsay, G. 148
- RCMP Gazette. 418
- Read, B. 419-422
- Read, G. 290, 423
- Read, G. A. 424
- Reed, D. E. 425
- Reiter, P. D. 475
- Remer, L. 426
- Remington, C. 12, 311, 427, 428
- Renfrew, C. B. 429
- Restitution Alternative. 182, 430
- Rhodes, C. 324
- Rhyme, R. F. 431
- Richards, N. 432
- Roberts, C. 434
- Roberts, J. 102, 433, 434
- Roberts, J. V. 102
- Robinson, P. 435
- Roe, J. 436
- Rook, M. K. 437, 438
- Rosberg, G. R. 439
- Rosenblum, R. 25, 34
- Rosenblum, R. H. 25
- Rowe-Cornelius, P. 440
- Rowley, M. S. 441, 442
- Rubin, H. T. 82, 443-446
- Ruffles, M. 345
- Ryan, M. 447
- Sackett, K. L. 79

- Saskatchewan's fine option experiment. 448
- Schädler, W. 5, 6
- Schafer, S. 449-454
- Schmitt, G. R. 455
- Schneider, A. 113
- Schneider, A. L. 282, 333, 456-458, 460-463, 469-475
- Schneider, A. L. (Ed.). 459
- Schneider, P. R. 265, 282, 333, 460-475
- Schnier, J. 476
- Schuman, A. 492
- Scutt, J. A. 477, 478
- Seavers, M. J. 479
- Seidman, E. 480
- Seidman, P. 481
- Seljan, B. J. 482, 483
- Serpas, F. 484-486
- Serrill, M. S. 487
- Sessar, K. 488
- Severy, L. J. 489
- Seymour, J. A. 490
- Shannon, W. 491
- Shapiro, C. 492
- Shapland, J. 493
- Shattuck, S. 23
- Shaw, S. 494, 495
- Siegel, L. J. 496, 497
- Silberman, S. 498
- Silver, S. 489
- Simpson, A. 191
- Sims, P. 499
- Skinns, C. D. 500
- Slater, T. 501
- Sloan, R. L. 502
- Smandych, R. 503
- Smiley, D. W. 563, 564
- Smith, F. V. 504
- Smith, M. E. 505
- Stanford, R. M. 57
- Staples, W. G. 506
- Stenson, D. 12, 311
- Stenning, P. 507
- Stevens, A. O. 425
- Stevenson, J. R. L. 508
- Stillwell, J. C. 509
- Stoneman, D. 510
- Stortini, R. 511
- Sullivan, S. 512
- Sussex, J. 513
- Tak, P. J. P. 514, 515
- Taylor, E. 516
- Texas Journal of Corrections. 517
- Thorpe, J. 396
- Thorvaldson, S. A. 518-526
- Treger, H. 7
- Trewartha, R. 527
- Trident United Way. 528
- Trook-White, E. 89
- Trope, G. B. 26
- Trudel, R. J. 312
- U.S. Congress House Subcommittee on Human Resources. 529
- Umbreit, M. S. 37, 530-538, 600
- Underhill, Y. 296
- United Nations. 539
- University of Ottawa, Department of Criminology. 540
- van Kalmthout, A. M. 541
- Van Ness, D. W. 542, 543
- van Voorhis, P. 544
- Van Voorhis, P. A. 545
- Vankeulen, C. 546
- Varah, M. 547, 548
- Varcoe, J. B. 549
- Varne, S. 550
- Vass, A. A. 551
- Vaughn, J. 552
- Veevers, J. 553
- Vennard, J. 554
- Vera Institute of Justice. 322, 555
- Vereb, T. S. 249
- Viano, E. C. 556
- Victoria Department of Community Welfare Services. 557
- Virginia Department of Criminal Justice Services. 559
- Virginia Department of Criminal Justice Services, Planning and Evaluation Section. 558
- Voss, M. 560
- Waite, L. 561



Waldron, G. F. 562-565  
Walker, G. 566  
Walster, E. C. 567  
Walster, G. W. 567  
Wanyama, B. 148  
Ward, M. S. 568  
Warren, M. Q. 196-198  
Washington County Department of  
Community Corrections Restitution  
Center. 569  
Washington Department of Social and  
Health Services. 570  
Wax, M. 571  
Weber, J. R. 572  
Wedden, R. 116  
Weigend, E. 573  
Weslowski, M. D. 17  
West, A. S. 79, 80  
West, J. 574, 575  
West, J. S. M. 575  
Westlake, R. 576  
Wheaton, R. J. 312  
White, P. R. 24  
Wiebush, R. C. 577  
Wiebush, R. G. 578  
Williams, R. 579  
Willis, A. 580, 581  
Wilmoth, G. H. 489  
Wilson, M. 474  
Wilson, M. J. 473, 582  
Winfield, S. 583  
Winterdyk, J. 402  
Wisconsin Legislative Council. 584  
Wollan, L. A. 86  
Woodard, P. I. 585  
Wootton, Baroness (of Abinger). 586  
Worel, J. 587  
Wright, M. 588-592  
Wrightson, J. 332  
Wrightson, J. W. 593  
Wynne, D. 587  
Yantzi, M. 594  
Yantzi, M. D. 595  
Young, W. 596  
Zehr, H. 597-600  
Zimmerman, D. 601

National Institute of Corrections  
Advisory Board

Benjamin F. Baer  
Chairman  
U.S. Parole Commission  
Bethesda, Maryland

Norman A. Carlson  
Senior Fellow  
University of Minnesota  
Stillwater, Minnesota

John E. Clark  
Attorney at Law  
San Antonio, Texas

Newman Flanagan  
Suffolk County District Attorney  
Boston, Massachusetts

Sheila Gall  
Assistant Secretary  
for Development  
Department of Health  
& Human Services  
Washington, DC

Reuben M. Greenberg  
Chief of Police  
Charleston Police Department  
Charleston, South Carolina

Jimmie Gurule  
Assistant Attorney General  
Office of Justice Programs  
Washington, DC

Susan Humphrey-Barnett  
Anchorage, Alaska

Norval Morris  
Professor  
University of Chicago Law School  
Chicago, Illinois

Barry J. Nidorf  
Chief Probation Officer  
Los Angeles Probation Department  
Downey, California

John A. Prescott  
Chief  
Kennebunkport Police Department  
Kennebunkport, Maine

J. Michael Quinlan  
Director  
Federal Bureau of Prisons  
Washington, DC

Ralph Rossum  
Dean of Faculty  
Claremont McKenna College  
Claremont, California

William W. Schwarzer  
Director  
Federal Judicial Center  
Washington, DC

Robert W. Sweet, Jr.  
Administrator  
Office of Juvenile Justice  
& Delinquency Prevention  
Washington, DC

Paul V. Voinovich  
Architect  
Cleveland, Ohio