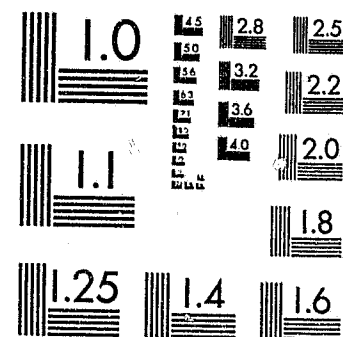


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Federal Probation

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This Issue In Brief

The Evolution of Probation: University Settlement and Its Pioneering Role in Probation Work.—In the final article of a series of four on the evolution of probation, authors Charles Lindner and Margaret Savarese further explore the link between the settlement movement and the beginnings of probation in this country by focusing on one particular settlement, the University Settlement Society of New York City. Close examination of the University Settlement papers revealed that this settlement, during the late 1890's and early 1900's, expanded its programs and activities to meet the growing needs of the people of the Lower East Side and became very much involved in probation work at the same time. This involvement included experimentation with an informal version of probation prior to the passage of the first probation law in New York State, the appointment of a settlement resident as the first civilian probation officer immediately following passage of this law, the creation of a "probation fellowship" sponsored by one of the settlement benefactors, and the description of this probation work in various publications of the day.

Professionals or Judicial Civil Servants? An Examination of the Probation Officer's Role.—A major issue and question in the probation field is whether probation officers are professionals. In this study, Richard Lawrence examines whether probation officers see themselves as professionals and the extent to which they experience role conflict and job dissatisfaction. The study also looks at how probation officers perceive their roles in relation to the judicial process and the services provided to probationers. Three factors were found to make a difference in officers' role preference and whether they experience role conflict: size of their department (and city), age, and years of experience. A number of recommendations are offered to give probation of-

ficers equal professional status with judicial personnel and more autonomy to exercise their professional skills in the court organization.

Six Principles and One Precaution for Efficient Sentencing and Correction.—According to author Daniel Glaser, more crime prevention per dollar in sentencing and correction calls for: (1) an economy principle of maximizing fines and minimizing in-

CONTENTS

The Evolution of Probation: University Settlement and Its Pioneering Role in Probation Work	Charles Lindner Margaret R. Savarese	3	97867
Professionals or Judicial Civil Servants? An Examination of the Probation Officer's Role	Richard Lawrence	14	97868
Six Principles and One Precaution for Efficient Sentencing and Correction	Daniel Glaser	22	97869
The Juvenile Justice System: A Legacy of Failure	Roger B. McNally	29	97870
An Assessment of Treatment Effectiveness by Case Classification	James M. Robertson J. Vernon Blackburn	34	97871
Forecasting Federal Probation Statistics	Steven C. Suddaby	39	97872
The Armed Bank Robber: A Profile	James F. Haran John M. Martin	47	97873
Female Employees in All-Male Correctional Facilities	Rose Etheridge Cynthia Hale Margaret Hambrick	54	97874
Juvenile Delinquency Prevention and Control in Israel	Gad J. Bensinger	66	0
I Didn't Know the Gun Was Loaded	James D. Stanfiel	71	
Departments:			
News of the Future	NCJRS	77	
Looking at the Law		80	
Reviews of Professional Periodicals		83	
Your Bookshelf on Review		89	
Letters to the Editor		92	
It Has Come to Our Attention		92	
Indexes of Articles and Book Reviews		93	

ACQUISITIONS

carceration; (2) noncriminalization of offenders who have strong stakes in conformity; (3) crime-spree interruption; (4) selective incapacitation; (5) reducing inmate pressures from other inmates and increasing staff and outsider influences; (6) appropriate vocational training of offenders. These goals require avoidance of sentences based purely on just deserts.

The Juvenile Justice System: A Legacy of Failure?—In a follow-up to his previous article, "Juvenile Court: An Endangered Species" (*Federal Probation*, March 1983), author Roger B. McNally expands the notion that the juvenile justice system is on the brink of extinction. The author identifies five contemporary themes which are jeopardizing the very existence of juvenile justice and strongly suggests that if the present course of events goes unabated, this system—by the turn of the century—may be recorded in the annals of history as a legacy of failure and a system that self-destructed. The article identifies the need for a separate system of justice by citing examples of failure when the adversarial model is applied to juvenile matters. The author maintains that the juvenile justice system is at a crossroad which requires an affirmation rather than a condemnation of the notion that youth are more than "short adults" necessitating incapacitation until they "grow-up."

An Assessment of Treatment Effectiveness By Case Classifications.—Authors James M. Robertson and J. Vernon Blackburn studied the effects of treatment upon probationers by formulating three questions which asked if court-ordered treatment had any effect on the revocation percentage of probationers in the minimum, medium, and maximum supervision categories as established by four major base expectancy scales. Summarized, the treatment group had lower revocation percentages in 10 out of 12 supervision categories. These results led to positive conclusions regarding the effects of treatment in reducing probation failures.

Forecasting Federal Probation Statistics.—The procedures used in forecasting Federal probation population totals are explained with the intention of making these techniques available to the individual probation office. Author Steven C. Suddaby discusses long- and short-term projections and difficulties which are peculiar to probation forecasting.

The Armed Urban Bank Robber: A Profile.—An analysis of 500 armed bank robbers revealed that they do not fit the stereotype of sophisticated professional criminals, say authors James F. Haran and

John M. Martin. Rather, these robbers are a cohort of young adult, unattached, socially disorganized males, predominately black, poorly educated, and lacking vocational skills; most are unemployed, previously arrested property offenders. Twenty-five percent are drug addicts. They make little profit from their crimes, are swiftly arrested, and receive long jail sentences. A fourfold typology of offenders is developed based on career patterns of prior property crime offenses. The authors propose that selective sentencing, focused more on the career pattern rather than the crime, might render a more effective sentencing formula.

Female Employees in All-Male Correctional Facilities.—Court decisions have opened the doors for women to work in male corrections, but the real struggle to find acceptance and promotion within the system is just beginning. According to authors Rose Etheridge, Cynthia Hale, and Margaret Hambrick, this struggle takes place within the parameters established by inmate, staff, and community attitudes and the attitudes and motivations of the woman herself. Images of women developed long before the working relationships color her interactions with inmates and staff. The authors stress that the woman must understand what is happening and use specific coping strategies if she wants to succeed.

Juvenile Delinquency Prevention and Control in Israel.—The number of youth committing serious crimes in Israel is reaching alarming proportions. After discussing the scope and dimensions of the delinquency problem in Israel, author Gad J. Bensinger describes the Israeli juvenile justice system and explains the prevention and control strategies of the police, the courts, and the juvenile probation department. Although law enforcement and delinquency prevention was never a national priority in Israel, a reallocation of resources may be required to meet the new domestic needs.

I Didn't Know The Gun Was Loaded.—The judgment of criminal intent has become formalized in Western law as a way of appreciating more fully the nature and quality of an unlawful act and, implicitly, assessing the character and social fitness of the accused. However desirable in theory, the evidential determination of intent, a subjective phenomenon, may pose complex problems. Author James D. Stanfiel proposes a revised concept of criminal intent, one less heavily dependent upon rational choice as a precondition of legal accountability.

97867

The Evolution of Probation

University Settlement and its Pioneering Role in Probation Work*

BY CHARLES LINDNER AND MARGARET R. SAVARESE**

ALTHOUGH THE settlement movement originated in England with the founding of Toynbee hall in 1884, the underlying settlement idea was quickly appropriated by a small band of young, energetic Americans and transported to the United States. Here, it took hold and spread so rapidly that by the turn of the century, there were more than 100 settlement houses, of all types and descriptions, most of them located in the largest, most heavily populated urban centers.

There were many similarities between the English social settlement movement and its American cousin. Both had come about as a response to the ever-growing tide of urbanization and industrialization, and both were envisioned as one possible remedy for the social rifts and disorganization which inevitably accompanied these two processes. Thus, the settlement movement on both sides of the Atlantic attempted to repair these rifts and "sought to reconcile class to class, race to race, and religion to religion."¹ The English and American settlement movements were also very much alike in that both tended to attract clergymen, professors, writers, and, more than anyone else, young men and women eager to serve their fellow man in some socially useful way. In America, the pioneering settlement residents were, invariably, not only young but also well-educated, usually with some post-graduate training, from solidly middle or upper-class backgrounds, and of old, Anglo-Saxon, Protestant stock.

In addition to the similarities, there were also differences between the English and American versions of the settlement movement. Unlike their English counterparts which were often church-affiliated, most of the American settlements were deliberately nonsectarian and devoid of any formal adherence to doctrine or ritual, although the individual founders and leaders were often deeply

religious themselves. An even more significant difference was the involvement of many of the American settlements in a wide variety of reform measures designed to improve the lot of the thousands of impoverished immigrants who were pouring into the already congested, tenement neighborhoods. Their continuous day-to-day presence in these neighborhoods brought the early settlement residents face-to-face with a bewildering array of problems that cried out for attention and amelioration and turned many of them into political activists. Jane Addams, of Hull House, touched on just a few of the problems which galvanized settlement residents into fighting for social change when she wrote:

Insanity housing, poisonous sewage, contaminated water, infant mortality, the spread of contagion, adulterated food, impure milk, smoke-laden air, ill-ventilated factories, dangerous occupations, juvenile crime, unwholesome crowding, prostitution, and drunkenness are the enemies which the modern city must face and overcome would it survive.²

Thus, settlement workers became deeply involved in a broad range of reform activities aimed at eliminating these conditions, and one of the many reform measures which attracted their support was an innovation known as probation. The active role played by a number of very influential settlement leaders in helping probation become an accepted practice has been virtually ignored, although the part they played was a truly critical one. This article continues to explore the link between the settlement movement and the beginning probation movement by focusing on one particular settlement, University Settlement of New York City, and by examining its active involvement and support of probation during its infancy around the turn of the century.

The Early Years of University Settlement

University Settlement, which went on to become one of the most influential of all the settlements, began rather inauspiciously, as the Neighborhood Guild, in a dilapidated tenement on the Lower East Side of Manhattan. The founder was Stanton Coit, a moody, idealistic intellectual who had spent some

*This is the final article in a series of four.

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¹ Clarke Chambers, *Seedtime of Reform: American Social Service and Social Action, 1918-1933*. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1963, p. 14.

² *Ibid.*, p. 16.

✓ An Assessment of Treatment Effectiveness by Case Classification

BY JAMES M. ROBERTSON, ED. D. AND J. VERNON BLACKBURN, PH.D.*

PROBATION OFFICERS, like others in the criminal justice system, have tried various ways to rehabilitate offenders. However, since the late 1960's, these efforts have come under strong criticism. This criticism was fueled into extreme pessimism when in 1974, the late Robert Martinson, who studied the effectiveness of correctional treatment from 1945 to 1967, reported that with little exception correctional treatment programs failed to rehabilitate offenders. Martinson expanded upon this criticism in a later work (1975) coauthored by Douglas Lipton and Judith Wilks. They reported:

With few and isolated exceptions, the rehabilitative effects that have been reported so far have had no appreciable effect on recidivism. (p. 25)

...by and large, when one takes the programs that have been administered in institutions and applies them in a noninstitution setting, the results do not grow to encouraging proportions. (p. 38)

...I am bound to say that these data, involving over two hundred studies and hundreds of thousands of individuals as they do, are the best available and give us little reason to hope that we have, in fact, found a sure way of reducing recidivism through rehabilitation. (p. 49)

Samuel Yochelson and Stanton Samenow (1977) drew upon Martinson and stated:

They found that no form of rehabilitation worked to reduce recidivism—not educational and skill improvement, not individual counseling, not group counseling, not milieu therapy, not medical treatment, not intensive supervision in the community, not individual psychotherapy in the community, not shorter sentences. (p. 89)

Yochelson and Samenow concluded that no treatment modality was effective with the offender population.

In contrast a 1976 report to Congress concerning state and county probation systems by the Comptroller General of the United States stated, "There is a highly significant relationship between the extent to which offenders receive needed services and their success on probation" (p. 20). Later the Comptroller General, building upon the 1976 report, issued a 1977 report dealing with the Federal Probation System which reiterated the above conclusion and broke down 10 specific need areas with support

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data relating to the need identified and the number who actually completed treatment of the need. Obviously there was a great gulf of disagreement between the conclusions of some private researchers and the government researchers as to the effectiveness of correctional treatment.

This is not atypical; the literature on treatment in corrections has been generally divided. There were many reasons for this, not the least of which was that specific population groups within corrections were rarely targeted for research and that which was often relied upon the most available population. Researchers apparently reached their diverse conclusions based upon data collected—for the most part—from prison, parole, and mandatory release populations. These populations, along with probationers, fell into the general classification of offender but, unlike probationers, these other offender populations all possessed one characteristic which made them different from probationers. They had, by definition, all served prison sentences, and probationers, for the most part, had not. In spite of this very significant characteristic, offender literature has been generalized to apply to the probation population. This generalization was warned against by the National Advisory Committee on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals (1976) which stated:

In any new study, the population to be studied should be the group that is the subject of the treatment or intervention...any analysis of the effects of treatment on the population should include separate analyses according to each characteristic. (p. 120)

Empey (1978) aptly stated the overall problem when he concluded that the difficulty in determining whether or not treatment is effective with offenders comes from disagreement over the research which has been conducted in the criminal justice system. Earlier Martinson (1974) had lamented, "It is just possible that some of our treatment programs are working to some extent, but that our research is so bad that it is incapable of telling" (p. 14). These conclusions pretty well summarized the state of research which was found in the overall offender treatment area. When narrowed to the probation population, the lack of and quality of research became even more frustrating. This was unfor-

fortunate since powerful forces differed over the question of mandatory treatment, and 45,000 Federal probationers (Hindlelang, Gotfredson, and Dunn, 1977) were dependent upon the outcome.

The situation in the Northern District of Alabama was not much different as in the rest of the nation. Probationers were being required to submit to treatment as a special condition of probation with no real evidence that treatment did or did not have any effect on their success or failure. Some very basic studies were informally conducted to see if those undergoing treatment did any better than those who were not, but the methodology utilized was woefully inadequate. One of the major concerns of the district was how to at least partially control for individual differences. The advent of the use of base expectancy scales nationally served as a partial solution to this dilemma.

The use of base expectancy scales for prediction of recidivism dates back to 1923 when they were known as risk prediction scales (Warner, 1923; Hart, 1923). Originally they were little more than aids in parole decision making, but over the years they evolved into a method of classifying probationers into categories of supervision (Palmer, 1975). As treatment of offenders came in for more and more criticism, these categories of supervision were seen as a way of measuring client needs and concentrating probation resources on those clients with the greatest need (Clear, 1970; Benort, Clear, Morris, and Ranton, 1980; National Institute of Corrections, 1980). Because of their ability, as actuarial devices, to group individuals according to their commonalities, the predictive aspects of the scales came into general use by probation agencies to determine the frequency an offender should be seen by a probation officer for supervision, the idea being that increasing sessions enhances the chance of successfully adjusting (Comptroller General of the United States, 1976).

In the classification process four base expectancy scale models were being used throughout the Federal Probation System. They were: (a) the California BE61A (Modified), developed by the State of California; (b) the Revised Oregon Model, developed by the United States Probation Office for the District of Oregon; (c) the United States Parole Commission's Salient Factor Score; and (d) the U.S.D.C. 75 Scale, developed by the United States Probation Office for the District of Columbia.

Through the process of classifying a probationer by the use of base expectancy scales, the system determined the extent of attention each probationer received. While the specific number of sessions

varied from judicial district to judicial district, most districts chose to generally follow the frequency scale adopted by the District of Columbia, as reflected on the U.S.D.C. 75. This required a minimum of three sessions per month for those classified "maximum," a minimum of one session per month for those classified "medium," and a minimum of one session per quarter for those classified "minimum." In other words, if treatment had any effect it would alter the predictability of the base expectancy scale either for better or for worse. This study was an effort to systematically evaluate the effect of mandatory offender treatment on those scoring at each classification level of the four base expectancy scale methods.

Study Design

To investigate the above, three research questions were formulated:

Question I. Is there a difference in the revocation percentage between probationers who score in the *minimum* classification of supervision on base expectancy scales and received treatment and those probationers who score in the *minimum* classification of supervision on base expectancy scales and did not receive treatment?

Question II. Is there a difference in the revocation percentage between probationers who score in the *medium* classification of supervision on base expectancy scales and received treatment and those probationers who score in the *medium* classification of supervision on base expectancy scales and did not receive mandatory treatment?

Question III. Is there a difference in the revocation percentage between probationers who scored in the *maximum* classification of supervision on base expectancy scales and received treatment and those probationers who scored in the *maximum* classification of supervision on base expectancy scales and did not receive treatment?

To study these questions, a population from the Northern District of Alabama which was placed on probation during 1975 and 1976 was selected. There were statutory, regulatory, and demographic reasons for this selection.

In 1974, probation staff was increased by approximately 40 percent, thereby significantly decreasing officer/client ratio which could affect results. The officer/client ratio remained relatively stable at 50 clients for every officer until 1979 when further drastic reductions took place. Also, in 1974, record-keeping was tightened to require recording of all contacts regarding clients, whereas in previous years only those contacts which the officer felt ap-

appropriate were recorded. Given 1 year to train new officers and implement the records system, 1975 and 1976 were the only years possible for study which would have insured that the cases expired from supervision. Any additional advancement of years would have meant cases active within the 5-year maximum statutory term of probation and concomitant chance of revocation which would have weakened the longitudinal findings.

In the selected population, 89 were located who were subjected to a special condition of probation which required specialized treatment. To match this population, 110 individuals without a special condition were selected randomly from all persons placed on probation during 1975 and 1976. The extra 21 nontreatment subjects were included to insure at least 89 whose files contained all of the information necessary to collect the pertinent data. Of the 110 nontreatment cases, 91 files contained all of the information needed to score the base expectancy scales. All 89 treatment cases' files contained the scoring information.

Scores for each of the four base expectancy scale instruments then used in the Federal Probation System were completed, and the two groups were assigned into the appropriate category of supervision as reflected by the four instruments. Data were then collected to make comparisons of the recidivism percentages between the two groups at each supervision category for each of the four instruments.

The singular difference for selection into one group or the other was the interjection of treatment. In making this the only variable, it became the predominant influence on differences in the base expectancy scales' predictability levels.

Table 1 presents the classification spread for each of the four major base expectancy scales. In some cases, notably Revised Oregon Minimum, Salient Factor Maximum, and U.S.D.C. 75 Maximum, the N's appeared inordinately low. This was expected since the scales do differ enough to change classification patterns in spite of several

Table 1. CATEGORY CLASSIFICATION BY GROUP

	Mandatory Treatment Group		Nontreatment Group	
	N	Col. %	N	Col. %
Revised Oregon				
Maximum	29	32.6	14	15.4
Medium	56	62.9	68	74.7
Minimum	4	4.5	9	9.9
Total	89	100.0	91	100.0
California BE61A				
Maximum	27	30.3	19	20.8
Medium	44	49.5	34	37.4
Minimum	18	20.2	38	41.8
Total	89	100.0	91	100.0
Salient Factor				
Maximum	7	7.9	8	8.8
Medium	65	73.0	62	68.1
Minimum	17	19.1	21	23.1
Total	89	100.0	91	100.0
U.S.D.C. 75				
Maximum	5	5.6	2	2.2
Medium	54	60.7	35	38.5
Minimum	30	33.7	54	59.3
Total	89	100.0	91	100.0

similarities. Since this study researched changes in predictability for the groups at each classification on each base expectancy scale, the inconsistency in classifications between the scales was not considered significant.

Analysis of Data

Question I

Table 2 presents the supervision outcome for the individuals in both groups who scored in the minimum classification. Two of the base expectancy scales, California BE61A and U.S.D.C. 75, presented a greater failure percentage for the nontreatment group. The Salient Factor Scale reflected a greater failure percentage for the treatment group,

Table 2. SUPERVISION OUTCOME FOR MINIMUM CLASSIFICATION

Base Expectancy Scale	Mandatory Treatment Group				Nontreatment Group			
	Favorable		Unfavorable		Favorable		Unfavorable	
	N	Row %	N	Row %	N	Row %	N	Row %
Revised Oregon	4	100.0	0	0	9	100.0	0	0
California BE61A	14	77.8	4	22.2	27	71.1	11	28.9
Salient Factor	15	88.2	2	11.8	21	100.0	0	0
U.S.D.C. 75	24	80.0	6	20.0	41	75.9	13	24.1

Table 3. SUPERVISION OUTCOME FOR MEDIUM CLASSIFICATION

Base Expectancy Scale	Mandatory Treatment Group				Nontreatment Group			
	Favorable		Unfavorable		Favorable		Unfavorable	
	N	Row %	N	Row %	N	Row %	N	Row %
Revised Oregon	47	83.9	9	16.1	49	72.1	19	27.9
California BE61A	35	79.5	9	20.5	27	79.4	7	20.6
Salient Factor	46	70.8	19	29.2	40	64.5	22	35.5
U.S.D.C. 75	37	68.5	17	31.5	21	60.0	14	40.0

and the Revised Oregon Scale reflected zero failures in both groups.

The two scales which presented some success differential for the treatment group at the minimum classification had sizeable N's as opposed to the Revised Oregon, but this did not negate the results reflected in the Revised Oregon percentages, since both groups are shown as basically successful. The opposite was true of the Salient Factor Scale which had a sizeable N and reflected a higher failure percentage for the treatment group.

Question II

Table 3 presents the supervision outcome for the individuals in both groups who scored in the medium classification. At this classification level all of the base expectancy scales were altered by the interjection of treatment to reflect less failure percentages than the treatment group.

The Revised Oregon experienced a failure differential of 11.8 percent between the two groups, while the other base expectancy scales varied the differential downward to only .1 percent on the California BE61A. In between were differentials of 8.5 percent on the U.S.D.C. 75 and 6.3 percent on the Salient Factor. The treatment group failed less on each base expectancy scale, suggesting that treatment did have a positive effect on adjustment of probationers in the medium category.

Question III

Table 4 presents the supervision outcome for individuals in both groups who were in the maximum

classification. As noted with the medium classification, the treatment group consistently experienced less failure at each base expectancy scale than did the nontreatment group, although the N's were not as substantial or balanced as in the medium classification. The greatest differential occurred on the U.S.D.C. 75 where there was a percentage difference of 60 percent. However, the total N was only five for treatment and two for nontreatment and both groups had a total failure figure of two, which led to the very large differential.

The other base expectancy scales also had rather small N's at the maximum classification, but not as small as did the U.S.D.C. 75 and with better balance between the groups. The N balance lends credibility to differentials of 30.4 percent on Salient Factor, 16.2 percent on Revised Oregon, and 13.5 percent on California BE61A. All resulted in the treatment group having failed less than the nontreatment group, which led to the conclusion that treatment did have a positive effect on the adjustment of probationers in the maximum category.

Summary, Conclusions, and Recommendations

To study the effects of treatment upon base expectancy scales predictability, three questions were formulated which asked if court-ordered treatment had any effect on the revocation percentage of probationers in the minimum, medium, and maximum supervision categories as established by the four major base expectancy scales. The answers, sum-

Table 4. SUPERVISION OUTCOME FOR MAXIMUM CLASSIFICATION

Base Expectancy Scale	Mandatory Treatment Group				Nontreatment Group			
	Favorable		Unfavorable		Favorable		Unfavorable	
	N	Row %	N	Row %	N	Row %	N	Row %
Revised Oregon	13	44.8	16	55.2	4	28.6	10	71.4
California BE61A	15	55.6	12	44.4	8	42.1	11	57.9
Salient Factor	3	42.9	4	57.1	1	2.5	7	87.5
U.S.D.C. 75	3	60.0	2	40.0	0	0	2	100.0

marized, were that the treatment group had lower revocation percentages in 10 out of 12 of the supervision categories. One of the two exceptions proved to be on a base expectancy scale which did not predict risk for this particular population. From these results positive conclusions were reached regarding the effects of treatment in reducing probation failures.

The outcome of this study offers support to the continued use of treatment in the U.S. Probation System. However, the methods of determining who is treated is an area which was found in need of further study.

Also this study did not examine the nature or frequency of treatment, and these factors could have a bearing on treatment effectiveness. However, this would be very difficult to examine. The modality and number of brokered treatment contacts are not recorded, only a summary of progress. In spite of the difficulties, efforts should be made to segregate contacts into treatment categories along with a recording process for brokered services. Once record-keeping has been corrected to account for these factors, further study should be conducted to determine if frequency or nature of treatment has any bearing on success or failure.

The limited population this study examined due to time and circumstance is a temporary problem. Further studies will be conducted on the larger populations created by the passage of time. The data base will be increased each year to gain significantly greater numbers than were available for this study.

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Forecasting Federal Probation Statistics

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FORECASTS OF several measures of workload in the Federal Probation System form the basis for the system's budget each year. These workload measures include the numbers of pre- and post-sentence investigations, collateral investigations, and miles traveled, among others, but the most important measure is the number of persons under supervision. To arrive at a final forecast for persons under supervision, it is useful to also forecast the numbers of persons received for and removed from supervision. This article will explain the process I use in forecasting these statistics with the intent that these methods can be used in individual probation offices (Federal, state, or county) to project their own workload 1 or 2 years into the future. General considerations in forecasting and problems specific to probation data and these forecasts will be discussed.

This is written first for the individual in the probation office who has some, but not extensive, statistical training. The nontechnical parts of this article will be useful to the manager who has to understand forecasts prepared by others. He or she would want to read from the beginning through the first four paragraphs of the section "The Forecasting Models," then the last three paragraphs of that same section, and finally the section "General Forecasting Considerations" through the end of the article. It isn't possible to give a complete course in forecasting in one short article, but I hope to cover most of the main issues.

It's assumed that you have available a computer and a statistical software package so that you can compute multiple regression equations, since it just isn't practical to do a multiple regression with more than two predictor variables without a computer. Because a computer with software is assumed, I won't be repeating here a number of equations which only the computer needs to know. If you don't have a computer available, you might want to consider the suggestions in the very last paragraph of this article before deciding the article can't be of help to you.

Because the forecasting models given are developed for predicting national probation caseloads, it won't be possible for you to just copy them verbatim for use in your own district. My intention instead is to suggest variables which are useful for predicting the size of probation caseloads and to give you enough information about forecasting in general to make forecasts on your own.

The Forecasting Models

A "model" in the mathematical sense is an equation or group of equations which duplicates conditions in the real world. We are trying to create models which will tell us how many people will be under supervision in 2 years given a particular set of circumstances now. The most important feature of this forecast of persons under supervision is that there are several forecasts which are used to arrive at a final forecast. The forecasts from the different models are averaged, or one of them is chosen as being better than all of the others. Using multiple regression, I've created two models for forecasting persons under supervision, one for persons received, and two for persons removed. Two more projections for persons under supervision can be created by using the projections for persons received and removed to calculate the number under supervision. This is done by starting with the number of Persons Under Supervision at the end of the year, adding to that the forecast of Persons Received, and subtracting from that sum one of the forecasts for Persons Removed.

Predictor variables, also known as independent variables, are those variables which are useful for predicting. For example, the number of cars registered in a state would be a good predictor variable for the number of fatal accidents in that state. Records might show over the years that the number of cars divided by 100,000 estimates the number of fatal accidents fairly well. This will work even though not all accidents involve cars registered in that state. For example, if the percentage of fatal accidents which involves trucks, buses and out-of-state vehicles is fairly constant over the year, the number of cars registered in the state will be a good predictor variable for fatal accidents. You'll notice

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