



IMPACT EVALUATION OF THE ADULT REDEPLOY ILLINOIS INTENSIVE SUPERVISION PROBATION WITH SERVICES PROGRAM



Impact Evaluation of the Adult Redeploy Illinois - Intensive Supervision Probation with Services Program

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Table of Contents

Abstract.....	4
Adult Redeploy Illinois Overview	6
Literature Review	6
ISP Overview	6
ISP vs. ISP-S	8
ISP Outcomes.....	9
Recidivism	9
Alternative Outcomes	10
Relationship with Probation Officer	12
Data and Methodology	15
Administrative Data	15
Administrative Data Procedures	15
Administrative Data Description	16
Administrative Data Outcome Measures	17
CHRI Data	17
Participant Surveys	18
Participant Interviews	22
Analytic Plan	25
Administrative Data Analysis	25
CHRI Analysis	25
Survey Analysis	26
Interview Analysis	26
Outcome Evaluation Findings	28
Administrative Data Outcome Results	28
CHRI Data Outcome Results	30
Participant Survey Outcome Results	30
Participant Interview Results	36
Key Recommendations	46
References	47
Appendixes	52

List of Tables

Table 1. Description of Data Sources and Outcomes	15
Table 2. Age, Sex, Race, and Risk Levels for Administrative Data (N = 332) .	16
Table 3. Outcome Variables for the Logistic Regression Models (N = 332) ..	17
Table 4. Survey Completion by Site – Total	18
Table 5. Survey Completion by Site (Controlled for Risk)	18
Table 6. Age Across Sites (Survey, Controlled for Risk)	19
Table 7. Sex Across Sites (Survey, Controlled for Risk)	19
Table 8. ISP-S Race Across Sites (Survey, Controlled for Risk)	20
Table 9. Standard Probation Race Across Sites (Survey, Controlled for Risk)	20
Table 10. ISP-S Marital Status Across Sites (Survey, Controlled for Risk) ...	21
Table 11. Standard Probation Marital Status Across Sites (Survey, Controlled for Risk)	21
Table 12. Description of Interview Participants	23
Table 13. Logistic Regression Using Risk Levels to Predict Program Completion	28
Table 14: Logistic Regression Using Risk Level to Predict Education Completion Level	28
Table 15: Logistic Regression Using Risk level to Predict Employment Status	29
Table 16: Logistic Regression Using Risk Level to Predict Housing Outcome	29
Table 17: Descriptive of Scale Scores Using t-test for Equality of Means	32
Table 18: Descriptive of ISP-S and SP Mean Differences in Percentages (POMP scores)	32

List of Figures

Figure 1: Substance Misuse Scale Difference between ISP-S and Standard Probation	31
Figure 2: Responsibility Scale Difference between ISP-S and Standard Probation	33
Figure 3: Leisure Scale Difference between ISP-S and Standard Probation	34
Figure 4: Desistance Scale Difference between ISP-S and Standard Probation.....	35
Figure 5. Employment Experience Comparisons	37
Figure 6. Community and Civic Engagement	41
Figure 7. Housing Perceptions	42
Figure 8. Self-Reported Violations	45

List of Appendixes

Appendix A: Participant Interviews	52
Appendix B: Perceived Risk Inventory	58
Appendix C: Scales	60

Abstract

The community-based Intensive Supervision Probation with Services (ISP-S) program is one of the prison diversion models funded by Adult Redeploy Illinois (ARI), a state grant program to reduce reliance on incarceration created by the 2009 Crime Reduction Act (730 ILCS 190/) and housed at the Illinois Criminal Justice Information Authority (ICJIA). In 2019, an impact evaluation study was conducted as a follow-up to the 2018 process evaluation and is the subject of this report. All data collection was conducted by researchers from Southern Illinois University at Carbondale across the four Adult Redeploy Illinois (ARI) sites in DuPage, Macon, Peoria and St. Clair. The duration of the accumulation of data was from March 2019 through June 2019. Key summary points are as follows:

- Housing emerged as a critical point of stability. While most participants had housing, this was rarely a permanent state. Even among high-dosage program participants, housing was relatively unstable. Most interview participants noted an anticipated change or desire to obtain more secure housing.
- Risk level emerged as the dominant predictor of program success, educational level, housing stability, and employment status. Higher risk participants fared worse in these areas, bringing attention to the need to address high-risk participants with these needs.
- Compared to standard probationers, those in ISP-S showed greater desistance, or cessation of criminal offending or anti-social behavior, and had greater criminal accountability, as well as reduced prevalence of substance misuse. This suggests ISP-S may improve attitudes and behaviors related to desistance processes.
- Standard probationers demonstrated better scores on appropriate leisure activities, such as volunteerism or sport participation. Interviews similarly demonstrated typical ISP-S participants' isolation from structured and broadly engaging activities.
- Relationships with social support systems and in particular, supervising officers, were robust and seemed to strengthen over time. Consistent with early assessments of probation officers, reflections from long-term participants highlighted resource provision and valued communication with the agencies.
- Participants in ISP-S demonstrated little engagement in terms of civic participation and community involvement. Participants indicated relatively small social networks and an internal focus.
- A comparison between early (Time 1, program implementation) ISP-S participants (2012-2014) and later (Time 2, program fully implemented) ISP-S

participants (2015-2017) results in a reduction of 5.4% New Sentence (Court) Incarcerations for the Time 2 participants.

Adult Redeploy Illinois Overview

Adult Redeploy Illinois (ARI) was established by the 2009 Crime Reduction Act (730 ILCS 190/). The purpose of ARI is to provide financial incentives through grant funding to local jurisdictions for programs that allow diversion of individuals with probation eligible offenses from state incarceration to more effective and less expensive community-based supervision. The parameters of the ARI program allow each jurisdiction to individualize their regional approach using their participants' risk and needs to provide evidence informed/based community supervision and services, and encourage reintegration into their community (730 ILCS 190 § 20(a)). The ARI Oversight Board is tasked with reviewing proposals from potential jurisdictions addressing these stipulations, setting the site's funding level, setting the site's program goals, monitoring accepted treatments, and evaluating the program as a whole (730 ILCS 190 § 20(e)). Providing these services at a local level, as opposed to state facilities, is intended to reduce crime and recidivism at a lower cost to taxpayers. To accomplish the perceived cost/benefit, ARI sites are expected to decrease the number of non-violent participants in their target population by an average of 25 percent of their commitments for the past three years (730 ILCS 190 § 20(d)).

ARI funds different diversion models, as proposed by local jurisdictions to fill gaps in services and expand community capacity, including problem-solving courts and intensive supervision probation programs. The original Intensive Supervision Probation model (ISP) was created as an incarceration alternative, intended to alleviate some of the burden of a large incarcerated population on resources, staff, and participants. ISP programs generally include increased surveillance, increased surveillance with treatment, and/or increased surveillance with evidence-based practices. ARI-funded programs discussed in this report are a variation of ISP – an Intensive Supervision Probation with Services model (ISP-S). The ISP-S model uses an integrated approach that includes increased surveillance, treatment, and other evidence-based practices for its participants.

ARI has grown from the initial five pilot sites (DuPage, Jersey, Knox, Macon, and St. Clair counties) to 25 sites covering 44 counties in the state. Approximately one-third of the sites utilize ARI funding for ISP-S programs.

Literature Review

ISP Overview

Intensive Supervision Probation (ISP) programs are control-based approaches to enhanced community corrections programs which require probationers to report more frequently to their supervising officers. ISP officers typically handle smaller caseloads than standard probation officers, to be more focused on those under supervision. Additionally, under most basic ISP models, there are faster and more severe punishments, and higher levels of surveillance to deter offenders. ISP has traditionally tailored supervision intensity to the assessed level of risk for each offender, or the level of progress or programming that the offender has attained. Although early iterations of

ISP have aimed at increasing control and surveillance in the community, they have not been shown to reduce recidivism, which was a primary goal of the program (Gendreau, Goggin, Cullen & Andrews, 2000).

Over time practitioners and policymakers adapted the deterrent principles of the basic enhanced scrutiny philosophy of the ISP into three stand-alone program models: the Intensive Supervision Probation (ISP), the Intensive Supervision Probation – Limited Services (ISP-LS), and the Intensive Supervision Probation - Services (ISP-S) (Parent et al., 1997). The traditional model of ISP as a correctional strategy dates back more than five decades. Initial program iterations focused on the core concept of intensive supervision as an instrument of rehabilitation (Fulton et al., 1997). Eventually, the basic ISP model evolved and became a response to rapidly inflating correctional budgets and increasing prison populations. As technologies matured and the model progressed further, the incorporation of electronic monitoring and home confinement provisions became a means of achieving deterrence, incapacitation, and retribution through the use of punishment, surveillance, and control of offenders, without the high cost of long periods of incarceration (Fulton et al., 1997). However, even with enhanced supervision and monitoring mechanisms, empirical research has repeatedly suggested that the basic parameters of the traditional ISP model are ineffective means of improving desistance, rehabilitating offenders, or preventing recidivism (Drake et al., 2009; Fulton et al., 1997; Petersilia, 1998; Sherman et al., 1997).

As more evidence-based program assessments emerged, researchers and practitioners sought to enhance the ISP model through a trial and error field process. During these processes, ISP participants were integrated into a limited services model that promoted substance abuse treatment and desistance group counseling programs (Parent et al., 1997). The ISP-LS model added the additional program parameter of substance abuse counseling. ISP programs incorporated existing models such as Alcoholics Anonymous (AA) and Narcotics Anonymous (NA) as mandatory requirements for participants. Additionally, adherence was enforced through zero tolerance measures and routine urinalysis drug screening. While the ISP-LS model has shown some promise and success with drunk driving offenders and substance abusers, overall, recidivism rates have remained extremely high (Gendreau et al., 2000; Tonry, 1990; Turner & Petersilia, 1992). Additionally, the ISP-LS programs have failed to demonstrate the ability to reduce serious re-offending, especially violent offending among program participants (Drake et al., 2009, Gendreau et al., 2000, and Latessa et al., 2002).

The third model of the ISP (ISP-S) is not only the newest iteration, but it is also potentially the most promising and successful. The ISP-S model adapted in most iterations is the Canadians ‘theory of rehabilitation’ (see-Cullen, 2007; Lowenkamp et al., 2006; Petersilia, 2004), which establishes an agile approach to intermediate sanctions by identifying and applying appropriate correctional interventions that are based on four discernable components. The Canadian approach highlights: (1) human services rather than sanctions; (2) application of the risk principle by treating only moderate and high-risk offenders in the ISP-S; (3) focus treatment efforts on dynamic risk factors related to criminality; and (4) adherence to general responsivity by utilizing

social learning and cognitive behavioral based interventions to promote desistance in offenders over time (Lowenkamp et al., 2006; Petersilia, 2004). Empirical evaluations of the ISP-S model have generally supported the efficacy of rehabilitative treatment delivered in the context of intensive supervision, as well as supporting the risk principle of effective interventions (Drake et al., 2009; Lowenkamp et al., 2006). These efforts have suggested that ISP-S programs achieve higher levels of prolonged desistance and lower aggregate rates of recidivism by changing not only participant habits but their life trajectories toward social sustainability. ARI funds programs that utilize an ISP-S model, with enhanced supervision that employs specially trained officers, Cognitive Behavioral Therapy approaches, resources for treatment and wrap-around services.

ISP vs. ISP-S

Empirical research has repeatedly demonstrated that traditional ISP models are not effective at reducing recidivism, which accounts for a substantial fiscal cost in probation services. Ironically, the very same body of research that found traditional ISP models are not effective has also identified some specific types of ISP-LS and ISP-S programs that do work. For example, in a study conducted by Gendreau et al. (2000), ISP and ISP-S programs were compared and showed that ISP-S programs led to a 10% greater reduction in recidivism than ISP programs which were based exclusively on enhanced surveillance. Consistent with this observation, a previous evaluation of ISP models conducted by Petersilia and Turner (1993), also found a 10 to 20% reduction in recidivism for offenders in programs that provided a higher level of treatment services. More recently, Drake and colleagues (2009), analyzed the effectiveness of correctional programs and found that although 23 of the traditional surveillance oriented ISP programs were not effective in reducing recidivism, ISP-S that were not surveillance oriented were up to 20% more effective in diminishing recidivism. Specifically, Drake and colleagues reported that 11 of the ISP-S programs that were categorized as the most treatment oriented produced an average reduction in recidivism of 17%, while ISP model programs in the study averaged an increase in recidivism of almost 4% compared to standard probation and parole programs.

Fiscally, a comparative cost analysis between standard probation, ISP, and incarceration suggests even greater potential benefits exist for the ISP-S models. The United States General Accountability Office-GAO (FY-2014-PEMD-14-27), reported that their survey conducted across nine independent municipal jurisdictions (n = 9,932) involving both juvenile and adult probation offices, found that the average per day expenditure for the standard probationers was \$3.08 (FY-2014 dollars) per participant. For ISP programs, the cost was \$12.94 (FY-2014 dollars) per day for each participant in the program. Incarceration (local jail) cost each jurisdiction an average of \$42.80 per day, per inmate.

Notably, the GAO data also reported the cost of revocations. For standard probation models, the report found that a probationer that committed a felony offense while on probation cost the jurisdiction an average of \$11,906 to process and incarcerate the

offender before adjudication. For participants that committed misdemeanor or status offense, standard probation models revocation cost exceeded \$6,240 to process and incarcerate the offender before their day in court. In contrast, ISP and ISP-S program participants that reoffended while in their programs spent less time awaiting adjudication and transfer than did the standard probation participants resulting in an average savings of over 40%, or almost \$4,000, per revocation across all nine surveyed sites. When coupled with the ISP-S program's lower rates of recidivism and fewer revocations, ISP-S participants lowered system expenditures when compared to incarceration by almost \$20,000 per offender. While the GAO data does reflect what previous researchers have stipulated (Drake et al., 2009; Lowenkamp et al., 2006), the cost of ISP and ISP-S is up to 300% higher than standard probation services. However, when revocation costs are factored in, ISP-S models prove to be cost competitive with standard models of probation where recidivism is very high.

ISP Outcomes

There are numerous ways to evaluate the effectiveness of criminal justice programs. These include reoffending rates, but also stability indicators that have theoretically and practically linked to long term success in the community.

Recidivism

Arguably, the most basic method of judging the impact of a specific program is to measure recidivism rates of those individuals who participate. It is essential to consider recidivism when evaluating criminal justice programs because the central goal of most programs is to deter future offending.

There are three unique ways by which to measure recidivism, each of which can affect the reported recidivism rate. The standard methods of measuring recidivism are to examine rates of rearrests, reconviction, or reincarceration (Langan & Levin, 2002). However, as the scope of how recidivism is measured narrows from rearrests to reincarceration, the estimated recidivism rate also is reduced (Langan & Levin, 2002). One common theme among most studies examining ISP shows that offenders on ISP are significantly more likely to be sent to jail or prison on a technical violation, such as a failed drug test, compared to offenders who are on standard probation (Hyatt & Barnes, 2017; Langan, & Levin, 2002; Petersilia & Turner, 1993; Turner et al., 1992). In one comprehensive study, 65% of offenders who were involved in ISP had a technical violation, whereas 38% of standard probationers received a technical violation (Petersilia & Turner, 1993). Part of the reason why this is the case is because offenders on ISP are under much stricter surveillance and have much more stringent guidelines compared to offenders who are on regular probation or parole. In another study, ISP probationers were subjected to three times as many drug tests as standard probationers, offering one explanation for the differences in technical violations between the two groups (Petersilia, & Turner, 1993).

There is still much debate on what elements of ISP are the most effective in reducing recidivism. A component of ISP that has been claimed by many to play a critical role in

reducing recidivism is the smaller caseload for probation officers who work with ISP probationers. Caseloads are generally lower for probation officers who work ISP compared to standard probation due to more reporting and supervision requirements for ISP probationers. The evaluations that look at probation officer caseload thus far have had mixed results, with some studies reporting a negative correlation between officer caseloads and recidivism and others that report a positive correlation (Adams, 1967; Jalbert et al., 2010; Latessa et al., 1998).

When it comes to the effectiveness of ISP to reduce recidivism rates, the results are mixed. Earlier studies, focusing on more surveillance based ISP elements, tended to show more negative results, as compared to more recent studies that include more variable application of the program components. For every study that has shown that ISP may be effective at reducing recidivism, there is another that shows the opposite (Gendreau, Goggin, Cullin, & Andrews, 2000; Gendreau & Paparozzi, 2005; Pearson, 1988; Petersilia, & Turner, 1990; Petersilia & Turner, 1993). Earlier studies seem to report more negative results when it comes to recidivism compared to more recent studies. In a study by Erwin (1986), results indicated that overall, ISP probationers recidivated at a higher rate than standard probationers. However, when these findings are broken down by offender risk level, suggest that the higher the risk level of probationers, the better they will do on ISP (Erwin, 1986).

ISP is meant to target high risk probationers because these are the offenders who have the greatest chance to recidivate, therefore they have the most to gain from involvement in the program (Bonta & Andrews, 2007). By targeting these high-risk offenders, ISP programs are able to maximize the effectiveness of the treatment. When lower risk offenders are targeted, programs tend to have minimal effect or could end up increasing future recidivism. Erwin (1986) concluded that low risk offenders on ISP and involved in more intense programs, were more likely to recidivate compared to low-risk offenders who were not on an ISP program (Erwin, 1986). When low risk offenders receive treatment, resources that are allocated to run these programs end up being utilized on individuals who do not require such intense services; whereas high risk offenders are more likely to benefit from participating in more intense treatment programs (Andrews & Dowden, 2006).

More recent studies on ISP programs have shown more promising results compared to earlier studies. An evaluation by Jalbert and Rhodes (2012) found that ISP reduced recidivism by 30% compared to the control group who were supervised by an officer with a more substantial caseload, and incidents of technical violations were only 4% higher for the ISP group. The reason that more recent studies on ISP have proven more effective than older ones is due, in part, to changes in programming within the programs that put more of an emphasis on treatment services, whereas older ISP programs were more surveillance based (Gendreau & Paparozzi, 2005).

Alternative Outcomes

In addition to reducing recidivism, Intensive Supervision Probation (ISP) programs may produce added positive effects on probationers, including enhanced personal efficacy,

increased individual economic stability, and improved community commitment (McNeeley, 2018; Steiner et al., 2015). Other studies have also suggested that the attributable pro-social effects of ISP may include more consistent employment, deeper community involvement, substance desistance, and greater attachment to family structures for participants (Clark, 2015; Steiner et al., 2015; Mackenzie & Brame, 2001; Petersilia & Turner, 1990). Although the depth of the previous literature regarding the broad effects of ISP is moderately limited, the potential to link specific program features with positive life altering outcomes for participants remains promising and has important policy implications (Stahler et al., 2013).

Contextually, ISP program components frequently vary from jurisdiction to jurisdiction. However, the integral parts of most of the program are consistent across jurisdictions and involve an enhanced personal responsibility for the participant that may transition into more pro-social behaviors in the offenders (Steiner et al., 2015). One of the integral components of ISPs that may account for many pro-social factors is the near universal requirement of employment or involvement in employment training for all participants (Petersilia & Turner, 1990). Petersilia and Turner (1990) suggested that steady employment and vocational training for offenders strengthens ties to both family and community, which in turn makes an offender less likely to recidivate. These findings have been further supported by subsequent evaluations of ISP programs that found a correlation between gainful employment and reduced rates of recidivism (Mackenzie & Brame, 2001; Steiner et al., 2015). Within the same theoretical sphere, Petersilia and Turner (1993) in a subsequent effort reported that ISP participants were statistically more likely to be employed when compared to individuals who were in standard probation programs. Supporting the veracity of this finding, a previous effort reported by Pearson (1988) found that 96.5% of ISP participants were employed full-time while the remaining 3.5% of the participants were actively seeking employment. Further, Pearson (1988) found that ISP participants made more money annually (\$5,000 per year) than standard probationers. Similarly, Erwin (1986) theorized that enhanced employment opportunities translated into improved income among ISP participants which could diminish the stress of court ordered restitution and fines, thereby benefiting their long-term housing and social stability.

However, this is not the case with every ISP program. Some jurisdictions with substantially higher rates of unemployment face significant challenges in finding receptive employers for program participants. Petersilia and Turner (1993) observed this phenomenon in their 1993 study that included several urban jurisdictions with very high unemployment rates. The researchers reported that in urban centers, ISP employment participation waned at just slightly more than 50% of all participants were employed. The researchers also found that ISP participants had comparable employment statistics to the employment rate (43%) of standard probation participants within the same demographic (Petersilia & Turner, 1993). This suggests context matters in the implementation and benefits of ISP programs.

Another observed benefit of ISP programing is the enhancement of community bonds. ISP participants are frequently required to meet stringent requirements for community

services performed by the offender (Pearson, 1988). Bearing in mind that community service assignments in many ISP programs typically involved cleaning and maintenance duties at recreational and community centers, the researchers Stahler and colleagues (2013), argue that participants were by proxy re-immersed in the context of their neighborhoods which allowed them to re-build bridges with former acquaintances outside of their routine peer group (Stahler et al., 2013). Additionally, Mackenzie and Brame (2001) found that the intensity of supervision in a treatment program was positively correlated to involvement in prosocial activities, including community engagement. Pearson (1988) reported that in one notable program in his study, ISP participants were assigned to a community sponsor who provided support and advice for the offender as a form of mentoring. The researcher argued that ISP participants who received mentoring were more likely to renew or reinforce family and neighborhood bonds that diminished the influence of criminal or delinquent peers.

Arguably, the strongest and most logical observation drawn from previous research concerning the additional effectiveness of ISP is the monumental effect that treatment programing has on participants. Gendreau and Cullen (1994), identified rehabilitative elements of ISP's to be the most effective part of their programs observed models. Supporting this general observation, subsequent efforts by Bonta et al. (2000); Drake (2011); Lowenkamp et al. (2010); Lowenkamp et al. (2006); Paparozzi, and Gendreau, (2005) have all argued that treatment modalities related to cognitive behavioral therapies, anger management, impulse control, and substance desistance have a major impact on how successful ISP program participants can be when compared to standard probationers. More notably for policy considerations, Drake et al. (2009) in an empirical effort reported that ISP programs that employ treatment modalities reduce the number of status offenses and new offenses, reducing overall recidivism by almost 20% when compared to standard probation models. The researchers also reported that ISP treatment programs that resulted in fewer status offenses among participants translated into a cost saving for their jurisdiction of almost \$18,000 per recidivism incident.

Relationship with Probation Officer

Another important factor in the untoward effects of ISP programing is the strength of the relationship between probationers and their probation officers compared to standard probationers. Participants of ISP programs are required to meet with their assigned officers more frequently than people who are on more standard probation. Turner and Petersilia (1992) reported that in one of their observed programs participants were required to meet five times per month face to face with their assigned officer with a total of at least 10 interactions total per month including phone calls, drug tests and employment checks. The researchers found in comparison that an individual on standard probation is only required to meet with their probation officer about twice per month and maintain on average fewer than five interactions with the officer (Turner & Petersilia, 1992). While Turner and Petersilia acknowledged that the quality of the participant /officer interactions is important in establishing the strength of the relationship, the researchers suggest that the intensity of the supervision steers the ISP participants away from deviance or activities that may result in future offending. In regard to the postulation that probation officers and their job approach can make a

substantial difference, Paparozzi and Gendreau (2005) reported that officers who have a balanced approach to their job, in terms of their role as a law enforcement officer and social worker, are more effective at providing favorable outcomes for their probationers by building strong inter-personal connections with their probationers (Paparozzi & Gendreau, 2005).

The officer-probationer relationship is one of the many influential factors that could affect the outcome of the ISP programs, potentially leading to the reduction of recidivism and attitudinal change for the probationers. Research has shown that the relationship a probationer has with their PO can help them achieve pro-social changes. In a qualitative research study with 60 probationers, Rex (1999) found that offenders felt more committed to stopping their criminal behavior if they positively engaged with their PO. The relationship qualities the probationers used to describe these positive relationships included displaying empathy, the ability to listen well, treating probationers with respect, and allowing them to talk freely. These qualities were also used to describe what helped them complete probation successfully.

In another study, 202 adult probationers in Connecticut completed surveys that gave the probationers a chance to voice their perceptions of the relationship with their PO. The surveys reported a high level of satisfaction expressed with the relationship with their PO and a very high level of agreement with the statement (87% agreed with this statement) that probation was helping them stay out of trouble (DeLude et al., 2012). These findings are a reminder of just how vital the PO's job is to the probation program and that the probationers are aware of the quality of relationship they have with their PO's. In addition, establishing and maintaining a good relationship with a probationer is a significant factor for effective supervision by POs. In one study, 75 POs were surveyed to understand their perception of essential skills for effective supervision. Findings indicated that the perceived core skills were related to improving relational abilities such as interviewing and communication skills (Bracken, 2003).

Multiple findings do show that a probationer having a positive relationship with their PO can reduce recidivism and influence behavioral change for the probationer. Klockars (1972) concluded that probation officers that placed an equal emphasis on changing the offender's behavior and protecting public safety were more effective than the officers who relied heavier on one goal or the other. These probation officers earned enough trust with the probationers to encourage them to be more open and disclose real problems they are facing, even if that information could have led them to more consequences, which then gives the officers more of an opportunity to offer more support to the probationer. By establishing this relationship, these officers achieved a broader base of power to elicit pro-social changes from the probationer. Another finding by Keenealy and colleagues (2012) also established that a good dual-role relationship, between PO and probationer, protects against rearrests for "easy" or low-risk offenders and "difficult" offenders who have a higher risk of reoffending. Although the "difficult" offenders are harder to relate to, the findings suggest that positive relationships can be established with them and are vital to their success in the process (Keenealy et al., 2012).

Additionally, the type of relationship between the PO and probationers with mental illness can affect the occurrence of probation violations. Skeem et al. (2007) tested the Dual Relationships Inventory-Revised (DRI-R), which is used for capturing the nature and quality of the relationship under mandated treatment conditions. Among the three dimensions measured in the DRI-R are: (a) caring-fairness, (2) trust, and (3) toughness. Toughness refers to the expectation of independence and punishment attitude of the PO, which significantly increased probation violations (Skeem et al., 2007). Hospitality and a warm approach by the PO continue to have a positive effect on successful probation completion. According to the results of focus group interviews from randomly selected POs ($n=32$) and probationers ($n=20$) from multiple areas, "caring" expressions (i.e., understanding of probationers' limitations and effort not to make probationers wait an extended period of time) make probationers more willing to obey regulations and comply with their POs' requests (Skeem et al., 2003). The authors concluded that caring expressions could minimize the chance of probation violations by encouraging probationers to have confidence in their ability to succeed and sharing the mindset of a team which works toward a shared goal of successful reintegration.

Supported with the prior research findings, the relationship a probationer has with their PO can be one of the many factors that affect ISP success, as well as probation success in general. A probationer having a positive relationship with their PO can reduce recidivism, create attitudinal change for the probationer, and produce pro-social changes for the probationer. All of these outcomes are possible for probationers when they maintain a positive PO-probationer relationship.

Data and Methodology

In 2018, the Illinois Criminal Justice Information Authority (ICJIA) contracted with Southern Illinois University at Carbondale (SIUC) researchers to examine four sites funded by Adult Redeploy Illinois (ARI) in DuPage County, Macon County, Peoria County, and St. Clair County providing ISP-S programming to justice-involved individuals. The [process evaluation](#) examined program design and implementation, fidelity to ISP-S criteria, use of evidence-based practices, challenges and limitations of operations, and short-term outcomes associated with program participation. In 2019, this follow-up impact evaluation study was conducted and sought to address:

- What factors assisted in successful completion of the ISP-S program?
- What crime-related deficits were present for ISP-S participants?
- Compared to standard probation, what crime-related areas were reduced for ISP-S participants?
- Did the ISP-S program reduce incarcerations?

All data collection was conducted by researchers from SIUC across the four ARI sites. The duration of the accumulation of data was from March 2019 through June 2019. Data were accumulated through the employment of analyses of archival statistical data from each site, criminal history record information (CHRI) data collected from the Illinois State Police, participant surveys, and participant interviews. All collected data were utilized as the basis of SIUC's evaluation of the various outcomes of participation in ISP-S for the program sites. Table 1 provides the frequencies and types of outcomes for each method of data collection.

Table 1. Description of Data Sources and Outcomes

	n	Outcomes
Administrative Data	332	Program Completion Education Level Employment Status Housing Level
CHRI Data	520	New Sentence (Court) Admission
Participant Surveys	231	Criminogenic Attitudes
Participant Interviews	25	Community Stability Employment Social Support

Administrative Data

Data for ISP-S participants were collected from ICJIA's data records. Researchers received administrative data from each site from January 2014 through April 2019. The administrative records included ISP-S participants who were over the age of 18 and had completed or were currently serving a court-mandated probation sentence.

Administrative Data Procedures

The totality of the administrative data from the four sites consisted of 69 different excel sheets. In order to conduct analyses, these sheets were merged together to form one exhaustive dataset. Participants were matched by their case ID across the sheets and a variable was created in order to identify which site each participant belonged to. Data in long form were converted to wide form so that instances of each variable per participant were accounted for in rows instead of columns. All instances after the fourth point of contact for a given case were excluded for the construction of the final dataset, as multiple contacts were not the focus of the current analyses.

The initial administrative data set consisted of ~1300 participants. Application of three criteria reduced the data set. First, all participants prior to 2014 were removed from the dataset because the current study is focused on ISP-S participants from 2014 (formal implementation of the program) to present. Second, cases with missing data for key variables were not utilized. The key variables include sex, race, Level of Service Inventory-Revised (LSI-R) risk assessment scores, treatment outcomes, education level, employment status, and housing level. Missing data analyses suggested that these cases were not different along key demographic variables. Third, variables such as treatment outcomes were converted into binary variables for logistic regression to predict successful versus unsuccessful completion of the program. Participants in categories that would not fit, such as “currently enrolled” were removed. These procedures resulted in a sample size of 332.

Administrative Data Description

Administrative data were collapsed across the sites. The average age of the sample across the sites was 38.1 years old (SD = 11.8). The sample included 254 male (76.5%) and 78 (23.5%) female participants. The racial breakdown is presented in Table 2, with the majority of participants being white (55.7%) or African American (31.9%). The risk level data was based on LSI-R total scores. There were 27 (8.1%) participants in the low risk category, 138 (41.6%) in the medium, and 167 (50.3%) in the high category. This risk categorization was used in the logistic regression results (Tables 13 to 16).

Table 2: Age, Sex, Race, and Risk Levels for Administrative Data (N = 332)

	Total		N	%
	M	SD		
Age	38.1	11.8		
Sex				
Male			254	76.5
Female			78	23.5
Sex Total			332	100
Race				
African American			106	31.9
Asian / Pacific Islander			3	0.9
Latinx			33	10.0

Multi-Racial			3	0.9
White			185	55.7
Other			2	0.6
Race Total			332	100
Risk Level				
Low			27	8.1
Medium			138	41.6
High			167	50.3
Risk Total			332	100

Administrative Data Outcome Measures

The administrative data were coded for four outcome measures. The primary outcome was program completion (1 = completion; 0 = non completion). The three other outcome measures (assessed at program completion) were education level (1= high school / GED or higher; 0= non completion of high school), employment status (1 = some form of employment; 0 = no employment), and housing level (1 = stable; 0= no or unstable housing).

Table 3: Outcome Variables for the Logistic Regression Models (N = 332)

	N	%	TOTAL
Program Completion			332
Completed	155	46.7	
Non-Completed	177	53.3	
Education Level			332
High school / GED	230	69.3	
Not completed	102	30.7	
Employment			332
Employed	137	41.3	
Not employed	195	58.7	
Housing			332
Stable	80	24.1	
Unstable	252	75.9	

CHRI Data

Criminal History Record Information (CHRI) data were collected for ISP-S participants and standard probation clients, based on full legal name and date of birth. To ensure anonymity, these data were sent directly to ICJIA, who was tasked with obtaining data from the Illinois State Police. Based on administrative records, all ISP-S participants in the program were included in the sample. For a comparison sample, the two sites

provided a sample of standard probationers from 2012 - 2017 to ICJIA.¹ Because the total numbers of standard probationers were high relative to the ISP-S participants, a randomized procedure was used for the selection of the standard probation group. Upon the acquisition of the CHRI data from the Illinois State Police, ICJIA sent the research team a completed report with the only identifying information being a 4-digit research number (names and dates of birth were removed). A final sample for ISP-S participants culled was 260. The matched sample of standard probationers was 260, for a total sample of 520. CHRI data records provided New Sentence (Court) Incarcerations, which was the outcome measure of interest.

Participant Surveys

SIUC researchers approached potential participants at their reporting times across their respective probation sites. Surveys were offered to both standard and ISP-S reportees. Survey administration targeted treatment group and monthly reporting days to facilitate better participation rates. Researchers or probation personnel asked participants to participate in a 30-minute survey reflecting their thoughts and perceptions of their probation experience and attitudes about crime. Participants consenting to participate were then administered the survey in a conference room by SIUC researchers. Surveys consisted of a survey packet and a corresponding response packet listing responses for the survey packet with additional demographic survey items. Participants were compensated with gift cards for their participation by the SIUC research team.

Researchers collected a total of 231 surveys, with 81 from DuPage, 23 from Macon (relatively lower *n* due to restricted data collection opportunities), 78 from Peoria, and 49 from St. Clair. The mean age was 34.68 (SD = 12.26). A greater proportion of the surveys were completed by standard probation (SP) group (64.5%).

Table 4. Survey Completion by Site - Total

Site	SP		ISP-S		Total	
	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%
DuPage	44	29.5%	37	46.1%	81	36.7%
Macon	10	6.7%	13	15.4%	23	6.9%
Peoria	53	35.6%	25	30.8%	78	35.3%
St. Clair	42	28.2%	7	7.7%	49	21.1%
Total	149	100%	82	100%	231	100%

The survey results described below involve the removal of low risk cases (described in analytic strategy).

¹Due to structural and data management limitations, Macon and Peoria were unable to provide information for standard probation clients to obtain CHRI data. The researchers were able to construct a matched group from other sites.

Table 5. Survey Completion by Site (Controlled for Risk)

	SP		ISP-S		Total	
Site	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%
DuPage	33	32.4%	27	51.9%	60	39.0%
Macon	8	7.8%	5	9.6%	13	8.4%
Peoria	31	30.4%	15	28.9%	46	29.9%
St. Clair	30	29.4%	5	9.6%	35	22.7%
Total	102	100.0%	52	100%	154	100%

The average age of the total sample was 34.68 years (SD=12.26). Across the sites, the oldest average population was in Macon (41, SD = 11.40) and the youngest was in DuPage (27.8, SD = 6.46). The average age of the non-ARI sample was slightly older at 34.95 (SD = 11.54). Macon had the oldest sample of participants at an average age of 45 (SD = 13.23) while DuPage had the youngest at 33.25 (SD = 12.10). For a full breakdown of the average age across sites, see Table 6.

Table 6: Age Across Sites (Survey, Controlled for Risk)

	DuPage			Macon			Peoria			St. Clair			Total		
	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
SP	33	33.21	13.61	8	42.75	11.26	31	33.06	11.10	30	38.83	13.86	102	35.57	13.05
ISPS	27	29.11	7.99	5	40.60	14.86	15	36.53	12.78	5	36.40	9.61	52	33.06	10.97
Total	60	31.37	11.53	13	41.9	12.20	46	34.20	11.65	35	38.49	13.25	154	34.72	12.41

Table 7 demonstrates participants across all four sites were predominantly male, ranging from 65% (Peoria) to 87% (St. Clair). These trends were consistent across the sites within the ISP-S as well as the standard probation groups, suggesting little variation of sex between sites or ISP-S vs. standard probation groups.

Table 7: Sex Across Sites (Survey, Controlled for Risk)

			SP		ISP-S		Total	
			<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%
DuPage		Female	10	30%	5	19%	15	25%
		Male	23	70%	22	81%	45	75%
	Total		33	100%	27	100%	60	100%
Macon		Female	4	50%	1	20%	5	39%
		Male	4	50%	4	80%	8	61%
	Total		8	100%	5	100%	13	100%
Peoria		Female	13	42%	8	53%	21	46%
		Male	18	58%	7	47%	25	54%
	Total		31	100%	15	100%	46	100%
St. Clair		Female	5	17%	0	0%	5	14%
		Male	25	83%	5	100%	30	86%
	Total		30	100%	5	100%	35	100%

Total		Female	32	31%	14	27%	46	30%
		Male	70	69%	38	73%	108	70%
	Total		102	100%	52	100%	154	100%

A majority of ISP-S survey participants were African American across three of the four sites ranging from 50% (St. Clair) to 61% (Peoria). A majority of participants in DuPage on the other hand were Whites (58%). Overall, African Americans and Whites made up 84% of the ISP-S sample with Latinx (7%), Other (7%), Asian/Asian-American (1%), and Native American (1%) following. In the standard probation sample, African Americans made up the largest racial group in Macon and St. Clair (67%, 47% respectively) while in DuPage and Peoria this was Whites (46%, 51% respectively). Overall, Whites made up a plurality of the standard probation sample across the sites (46%), followed by African Americans (37%), Latinx (11%), Asian/Asian Americans (3%), Native Americans (1%), and other (2%). For a full breakdown of the racial composition of the sample, see Tables 8 and 9.

Table 8: ISP-S Race Across Sites (Survey, Controlled for Risk)

	DuPage		Macon		Peoria		St. Clair		Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
White	17	63%	4	80%	3	20%	1	20%	25	48%
African-American/Black	4	15%	1	20%	11	73%	3	60%	19	37%
Latinx	3	11%	0	0%	1	7%	0	0%	4	8%
Asian / Asian-American	1	4%	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%	1	2%
Native American	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%
Other	2	7%	0	0%	0	0%	1	20%	3	5%
Total	27	100%	5	100%	15	100%	5	100%	52	100%

Table 9: Standard Probation Race Across Sites (Survey, Controlled for Risk)

	DuPage		Macon		Peoria		St. Clair		Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
White	16	49%	4	50%	19	61%	16	53%	55	54%
African-American/Black	7	21%	4	50%	10	32%	11	37%	32	31%
Latinx	8	24%	0	0%	1	3%	1	3%	10	10%
Asian / Asian-American	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%	2	7%	2	2%
Native American	1	3%	0	0%	1	3%	0	0%	2	2%
Other	1	3%	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%	1	1%
Total	33	100%	8	100%	31	100%	30	100%	102	100%

Tables 10 and 11 describe the marital status of the ISP-S and standard probation groups. With the exception of the ISP-S group in St. Clair and the standard probation group in Macon, most of the participants in the study reported having never been

married. Responses ranged from 94% never married in DuPage to 40% never married in St. Clair for the ISP-S group and 71% never married in DuPage to 33% never married in Macon for the non-ARI group. Of the total sample, 78% of ISP-S participants reported that they had never been married while 8% reported being married, 6% divorced, 6% separated, and 2% widowed. Out of the total sample of standard probation participants, 65% reported to have never been married, 13% reported being divorced, 12% reported being married, 9% separated and 1% widowed.

Table 10: ISP-S Marital Status Across Sites (Survey, Controlled for Risk)

	DuPage		Macon		Peoria		St. Clair		Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Married	0	0%	0	0%	2	13%	0	0%	2	4%
Separated	0	0%	2	40%	0	0%	2	40%	4	8%
Widowed	0	0%	0	0%	1	7%	0	0%	1	1%
Divorced	1	4%	1	20%	0	0%	0	0%	2	4%
Never Married	26	96%	2	40%	12	80%	3	60%	43	83%
Total	27	100%	5	100%	15	100%	5	100%	52	100%

Table 11: Standard Probation Marital Status Across Sites (Survey, Controlled for Risk)

	DuPage		Macon		Peoria		St. Clair		Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Married	4	12%	1	13%	6	19%	7	23%	18	18%
Separated	2	6%	2	25%	1	3%	0	0%	5	5%
Widowed	1	3%	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%	1	1%
Divorced	1	3%	2	25%	4	13%	5	17%	12	12%
Never Married	25	76%	3	37%	20	65%	18	60%	66	64%
Total	33	100%	8	100%	31	100%	30	100%	102	100%

Risk Measure

To account for risk differences between standard probation and ISP-S participants, self-reported risk factors were calculated from a validated survey inventory.

-Perceived Risk Inventory

The Perceived Risk Inventory (PRI; Kroner, 2013) was used to measure participants' self-perceived risk levels to others in the community. The PRI is a 35-item self-report survey instrument used to measure participants' criminogenic risk levels. See Appendix B for a complete list of PRI survey items.

-Treatment Outcome Measures

Three standardized self-report measures were administered, which resulted in four composite scales. The three measures contributing to the four composite scales were

the Criminal Attribution Inventory, or CRAI, which measures criminal blame and participants' perception of crime (Kroner & Mills, 2003), Measure of Criminal and Antisocial Desistance, or MCAD, which measures a participant on whether or not particular behaviors have been a contribution to their desistance from crime (Kroner & Mills, 2014), and Transition Inventory, or TI, which measures the participant's self-prediction of crime-related behaviors in the upcoming month (Kroner & Mills, 2015).

The four composite scales of Substance Misuse, Leisure, Personal Responsibility, and Desistance were derived from the CRAI and MCAD measures. These scales demonstrated an ability to differentiate between ISP-S and the standard probation groups after controlling for risk level.

-Substance Misuse

The Substance Misuse scale was comprised of five items (i.e., "I will have urges to misuse substances"; See Appendix C). The scale measures both behavioral and perceptual aspects of substance misuse. Increased score indicates greater substance misuse.

-Leisure

The Leisure scale was comprised of four items (i.e., "I belonged to a prosocial club"; See Appendix C). The scale measures behavioral aspects of leisure. Increased score indicates a better use of leisure time.

-Crime-Related Personal Responsibility

The Crime-Related Personal Responsibility scale was comprised of five items (i.e., "People who do crime do so because of their personality traits"; See Appendix C). The scale measures the cognitive and perceptual aspects of taking responsibility for crime, which is at the core of most cognitive behavioral interventions. Increased score indicates greater crime-related responsibility.

-Desistance

The Desistance scale was comprised of four items (i.e., "I had long term plans"; See Appendix C). The scale measures the processes associated with living crime-free. Increased score indicates greater use of desistance processes.

Participant Interviews

Interviews were conducted with ISP-S participants to acquire insight, knowledge, and information regarding their background, community experiences while under probation supervision, and perceptions of success. Probation officers informed potential interview participants of the study, explaining the general purpose of the project. Participation was voluntary and anonymous. Participants included individuals currently sentenced to ARI probation ranging from early in the program (within six months of their start date) to near completion of their term. All interviews with participants were recorded by SIUC researchers and conducted privately without external involvement. Interview duration

ranged from 30 minutes to slightly over an hour with the typical interview concluding in around 45 minutes.

Participant interviews were semi-structured in nature and mostly comprised of open ended questions. Areas of interest included were general background information, employment experiences, dynamics of social support, community engagement, criminal history, substance misuse history, perceptions of the program, and self-assessment of participants' future. Participants were compensated with gift cards for their participation. See Appendix A for a complete list of interview items.

From March to June of 2019, 25 semi-structured qualitative interviews were completed with current ISP-S participants. We secured interviews from each location, with 7 from DuPage, 4 from Macon, 8 from Peoria, and 6 from St. Clair.

Our target was to obtain comparison groups of early and late program participants. To an equal comparison, both groups were currently under supervision. Using a cutoff date of six months (less than were considered early), we interviewed 10 under "early" supervision (36.0%; average within 3 months of beginning the program) and 15 under later supervision status (64.0%; average approximately 20 months into the program). Participants were primarily male (68%), white (48%), and averaged 39.8 years of age (see Table 12).

The participants generally had extensive histories of supervision and involvement in the criminal justice system, with 91% having served a prior period of incarceration and only 8% having their current probation sentence as their first. Participants averaged a history of approximately 5 felonies and 9 misdemeanors.

Table 12: Description of Interview Participants

	Total (n = 25)	Early ISP-S (n = 10)	Late ISP-S (n = 15)
Current Probation			
Location:			
DuPage	7 (28.0%)	n = 1	n = 6
Macon	4 (16.0%)	--	n = 4
Peoria	8 (32.0%)	n = 4	n = 4
St. Clair	6 (24.0%)	n = 5	n = 1
Probation Served*	18.5	2.6 (1.7)	20.4 (13.7)
Early ISP-S Participant	40.0%	--	--
First Time Probation	8.0%	10.0%	6.6%
Background			
Age	39.8 (13.1)	40.2 (13.2)	39.5 (13.5)
Race (<i>white</i>)	48.0%	30.0%	60.0%
Gender (<i>male</i>)	68.0%	90.0%	53.3%
Education (<i>H.S./GED</i>)	52.0%	60.0%	46.7%
Criminal History			
Prior Felonies	4.5 (3.8)	5.2 (3.6)	4.1 (4.0)
Prior Misdemeanors	8.6 (11.1)	14.9 (12.5)	4.9 (8.7)

Prior Incarceration	90.9%	30.0%	86.7%
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*This is an approximation of self report. For DuPage in particular, given their access point of standard probation violations, this was a rough estimation from the probationers. Most of the participants from DuPage had multiple years of various probation sentences and were currently under ISP-S nearing the end of their total sentence.

Analytic Plan

The researchers utilized multiple forms of data and subsequently employed a variety of analytic techniques to evaluate ISP-S outcomes.

Administrative Data Analyses

The administrative data included 332 ISP-S participants. The outcome variables were of a binary nature (1 = presence; 0 = absence). Given the binary outcomes and using two control variables of race and sex, logistic regression models were used. Risk level was the main predictor. The lowest risk level was the reference group and was not presented. The B statistic estimate is used to determine statistical direction and significance. Odds ratios were used to calculate the percentage of the outcome occurring (i.e., program completion, educational level, employment status, housing level) given the risk level. Once a predictor was statistically significant ($p < .05$), the odds ratio percentage was interpreted.

CHRI Analyses

The intended analysis of comparing the matched sample of ISP-S participants and standard probationers on the outcome measure was not realized due to difficulties with the data. Data were available from DuPage and St. Clair to construct a control group. From the CHRI data risk index, which was based on criminal history, was developed to match the selection (~6,000 cases) of a control group along a risk dimension. The first comparison between the control group and ISP-S program participants indicated that the control group was not appropriate, as there were very few cases of failure. A second attempt was made to create a control group. This involved a stratified random selection technique, allowing for a more targeted approach with the randomly selecting cases. This was also unsuccessful. There are several possible explanations for the difficulty in constructing a control group. One potential contributor is that those cases that met the criteria for a control group participated in the ISP-S program. Cases that were about to have difficulties were referred to the ISP-S program to avert technical violations/jail/prison. A second contributor may have been not using a standardized risk tool to match the two groups. Standardized risk assessment tools have the advantage of a validation process that results in a more robust measure of risk.

Consequently, two within ISP-S groups were compared (Time 1 vs. Time 2). The ISP-S participants from 2012 to 2014 (Time 1) were compared with the ISP-S participants from 2015 to 2017 (Time 2). Ending the Time 2 group at 2017 allowed for an approximate 2 year follow-up period. The rationale for this comparison is that the Time 1 and Time 2 groups did not have the same level of services, as prior to 2014 were the setting up and the beginning stages of the ISP-S. During Time 1 the sample size was 138. During Time 2, the sample size was 385. There were a total of 523 participants that had CHRI follow-up data. The outcome measure was New Sentence (Court) Incarcerations.

Survey Analyses

Survey data provided basic background information as well as within and between group differences. Using the PRI as a screening comparison, participants were compared on the attitudes about criminal behavior, desistance processes, and transitional experiences.

Controlling for Risk

The selection procedures for ISP-S participants may have resulted in a higher risk group for ISP-S than for the SP group. To control for risk, the PRI was used to equalize the risk levels between the two groups. This was accomplished by dividing the sample into three equal risk groups of High, Medium, and Low. In addition, given that risk typically did not play a large role in ISP-S treatment dosage based on a previous report, the low risk participants were eliminated from the current survey analyses (Kroner et al., 2020). The removal of the low risk group will result in a more conservative analysis. Thus, for the survey analyses, the controlled risk sample size was 154 ($n = 102$ SP; $n = 52$ ISP-S). The four composite scales of substance misuse, leisure, responsibility, and desistance were compared between the ISP-S and standard probation groups.

Comparison Statistics

Comparison statistics for assessing the relationship between ISP-S and SP utilized t -tests, Cohen's d , and POMP statistics. The t -test was an independent samples t -test for equality of means. Associated statistical significant levels will be reported with each t -test. As a population estimate, Cohens' d indicates a standardized effect size for a given population. An effect size is a quantitative measure of the magnitude for the difference between two means. As a measure of the mean difference between two groups, a value of 1.52 indicated that the groups differed by 1.52 standard deviations. Guidelines for interpreting effect sizes are; 0.2 (small), 0.5 (medium), and 0.8 (large). A main benefit of effect sizes is that they are not unduly influenced by sample size. An additional method to determine how much difference there is between two groups is the Percent of Maximum Possible (POMP) scores. In doing so, a given total score is represented as a percent of the total possible score rather than a raw number (Cohen et al., 1999). Differences are reported according to percentages, which allows for a more meaningful interpretation of the differences.

Interview Analyses

Data from the semi-structured interviews yielded close-ended responses analyzed via SPSS as well as narratives analyzed in NVivo, a qualitative software program. Close-ended questions were coded into SPSS for frequency and average response data (e.g. employment status, age, criminal history). A grouping variable of "early" participants (time in program less than six months) and "late" participants (time in program greater than six months) was created based on self-reported program duration.

After transcription of each interview, the documents were imported into NVivo. Based on the general structure of the interview guide, broad thematic codes were created (e.g. social support, employment experiences) and each interview was coded into the

general themes. NVivo allows matrix coding, where themes can be compared across group. Themes were extracted by “early” and “late” participants, then open coded and analyzed to generalize patterns from each group.

-Outcome Evaluation Findings

Administrative Data Outcome Results

The outcomes evaluated from the administrative data were program completion, education level, employment status, and housing level. As noted in the literature review, these outcomes are directly and indirectly related to program success. The main predictor of these four outcomes was risk level.

From Table 13, after controlling for sex and race, the high risk group was statistically predictive of program completion ($B = -0.961$, $p < .05$). Those in the high risk group were less likely to complete the ISP-P program than the low risk group. Given the odds ratio of 0.382, the high risk participants had a 61.8% greater chance of not completing the ISP-S program than the low risk group.

Table 13: Logistic Regression Using Risk Levels to Predict Program Completion

	B	Std. Error	OR
Intercept	0.598	0.509	1.819
Risk Medium	0.072	0.545	1.072
Risk High	-0.961*	0.446	0.382
Sex (male)	-0.268	0.276	0.765
Race (nonwhite)	0.311	0.236	1.365
Note: * $p < .05$. Sex and Race were control variables. Program success outcome variable, 1 = completed, 0 = non-completion.			

From Table 14, after controlling for sex and race, the high risk group was statistically more likely to have a lower education completion level ($B = -1.302$, $p < .05$). Those in the high risk group were less likely to complete high school/GED. Given the odds ratio of 0.272, the high risk participants had a 72.8% greater chance of not completing high school than the low risk group.

Table 14: Logistic Regression Using Risk Level to Predict Education Completion Level

	B	Std. Error	OR
Intercept	1.046	0.636	2.845
Risk Medium	0.121	0.601	1.128
Risk High	-1.302*	0.574	0.272
Sex	0.010	0.314	1.010
Race	0.917***	0.264	2.502
Note: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$. Sex and Race were control variables. Education completion level variable, 1 = high school/ GED completed, 0 = non-completion.			

From Table 15, after controlling for sex and race, the high risk group was statistically predictive of employment status ($B = -1.650$, $p < .001$). Those in the high risk group were less likely to be employed. Given the odds ratio of 0.192, the high risk participants had a 80.8% greater chance of not being employed.

Table 15: Logistic Regression Using Risk level to Predict Employment Status

	B	Std. Error	OR
Intercept	0.114	0.520	1.121
Risk Medium	-0.641	0.464	0.527
Risk High	-1.650***	0.464	0.192
Sex	0.325	0.284	1.384
Race	0.616*	0.244	1.851
Note: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$. Sex and Race were control variables. Employment status outcome variable, 1 = employed, 0 = not employed.			

From Table 16, after controlling for sex and race, the high risk group was statistically predictive of housing outcome ($B = -1.961$, $p < .001$). The medium risk group was also predictive of housing outcome ($B = -1.006$, $p < .05$). Those in the high and medium risk group were less likely to have no or unstable housing. Given the odds ratio of 0.143, the high risk participants had a 85.6% greater chance of no housing or unstable than the low risk group.

Table 16: Logistic Regression Using Risk Level to Predict Housing Outcome

	B	Std. Error	OR
Intercept	0.645	0.528	1.906
Risk Medium	-1.006*	0.446	0.366
Risk High	-1.946***	0.464	0.143
Sex	-0.126	0.276	0.881
Race	0.715*	0.322	0.489
Note: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$. Sex and Race were control variables. Housing outcome variable, 1 = housing, 0 = no/unstable housing.			

Summary of Administrative Data Outcomes

The high risk group was predictive of decreased program completion, less education completion, non-employment status, and unstable housing level. These results occurred once sex and race were controlled for in the models.

CHRI Data Outcome Results

The comparison of the Time 1 group (2012-2014, program implementation) and Time 2 group (2015-2017, program fully implemented) results in a decrease in New Sentence (Court) Incarcerations. Both time periods were 2 years. Time 1 has a total of 138 cases, of which 31 had a New Sentence (Court) Incarcerations. This represents a failure rate of 22.5%. Time 2 has a total of 385 cases, of which 66 had a New Sentence (Court) Incarcerations. This represents a failure rate of 17.1%. The reduction in New Sentence (Court) Incarcerations is 5.4% between the Time 1 group and the Time 2 group.

This 5.4% reduction is notable for three reasons. First, it is a reduction in New Sentence (Court) Incarcerations. Second, this reduction is associated with the maturation of the ISP-S. During Time 1 many components of the program were not in place. Time 1 (2012-2014) represents services delivered during start-up. As noted in the previous report, which covered the time period of 2014 to 2017 (Kroner et al., 2020),

The ISP-S has particularly strong evidence of good practices of case management skills, as well as strong relationships among staff and providers. ... The provision of specific CBT programs is also effective, particularly the strong adherence to curriculum-based and evaluated structures provided by qualified personnel. With awareness of and goals of individualized case management strategies and more consistent use of validated assessments, sites should be able to better match treatment services with specific participant needs (p.77).

Thus, program components implemented with fidelity were associated with Time 2 reductions in New Sentence (Court) Incarcerations. Third, the percentage of fewer incarcerations through ISP-S Time 2 (17.1%) reflects an observed greater number of successful cases ($n = 319$) than for the earlier 2 year period (Time 1, $n = 107$). For this difference to be statistically significant, 70 more cases would have to be added to Time 2 (statistical significance is a function of sample size). Practically, though, there were more participants who benefited (319 vs. 107) during Time 2.

Participant Survey Outcome Results

Four salient areas of substance misuse, crime-related personal responsibility, participation in leisure activities, and participation in desistance processes were assessed for the 231 survey respondents. Briefly, substance misuse is a basic criminogenic need area that can increase risk of re-offending and improvements in this area lead to positive criminal justice outcomes (Inciardi et al., 2004). Crime-related personal responsibility assesses the cognitive change that is essential to most of the ISP-S CBT-based programs. Cognitive change, through addressing problematic beliefs, has demonstrated effectiveness in recidivism reduction (Gannon, 2016; Landenberger & Lipsey, 2005). Success in this area suggests that the CBT-based programs are

effectively promoting the cognitive aspects of change. Leisure is a basic criminogenic need area and indicates appropriate or inappropriate use of leisure time toward pro-social activities. Improvements in leisure leads to reductions in offending (Zamble & Quinsey, 1997). Desistance processes involve those positive aspects that are related to staying crime-free (Polaschek & Yesberg, 2015).

Summary of Participant Survey Differences

-Substance Misuse

Once controlling for risk, ISP-S participants demonstrated lower substance misuse than those on standard probation ($t = -2.11$, $p = .037$; Table 17). As noted by the horizontal arrows in Figure 1, the 95% confidence mean intervals do not overlap, indicating statistical significance ($p < 0.05$). The effect size was in the large range (Cohen's $d = 2.34$). As noted in Table 18, the percentage difference for the ISP-S group was 9.5% lower than for standard probation.

Figure 1: Substance Misuse Scale Difference between ISP-S and Standard Probation

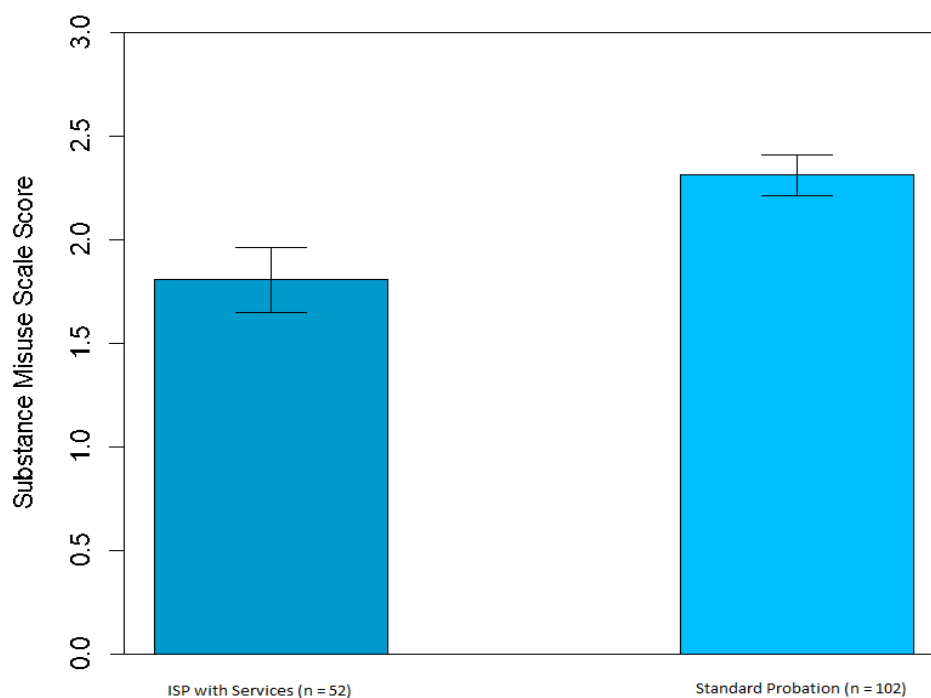


Table 17: Descriptive of Scale Scores Using t-test for Equality of Means

	ISP-S			SP					
	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	<i>t-test</i>	<i>p</i> value	Cohen's <i>d</i>
Substance Misuse	52	2.27	1.39	102	2.74	1.18	-2.11	.037	2.34
Personal Responsibility	52	1.98	0.80	102	1.61	0.85	-2.59	.011	2.03
Leisure	52	1.82	1.31	102	2.38	1.36	2.46	.015	1.82
Desistance	52	3.23	1.06	102	2.87	1.17	-1.91	.058	3.02

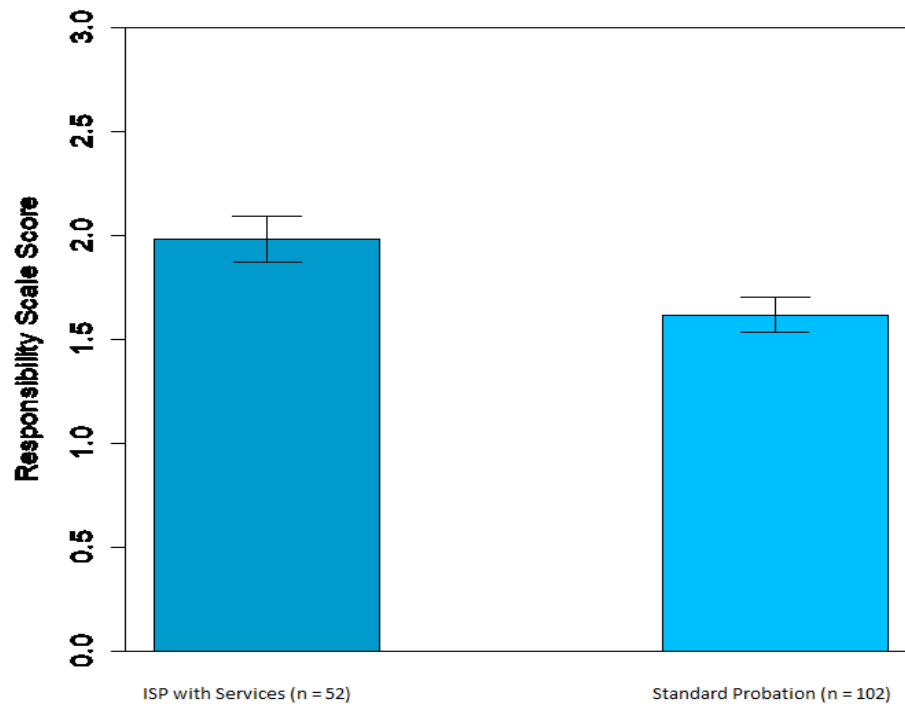
Table 18: Descriptive of ISP-S and SP Mean Differences in Percentages (POMP scores)

	ISP-S		SP			
	n	M	n	M	<i>Difference direction</i>	<i>% Difference</i>
Substance Misuse	52	45.38	102	54.90	↓	9.51
Personal Responsibility	52	66.02	102	53.92	↑	12.10
Leisure	52	36.53	102	47.64	↓	11.11
Desistance	52	80.76	102	71.81	↑	8.95

-Crime-Related Personal Responsibility

Once controlling for risk, ISP-S participants demonstrated greater crime-related personal responsibility ($t = -2.59, p = .011$). As noted by the horizontal confidence interval lines in Figure 2, the 95% confidence mean intervals do not overlap, indicating statistical significance ($p < 0.05$). The effect size was in the large range (Cohen's $d = 2.03$). As noted in Table 18, the percentage difference for the ISP-S group was 12.2% higher than for standard probation.

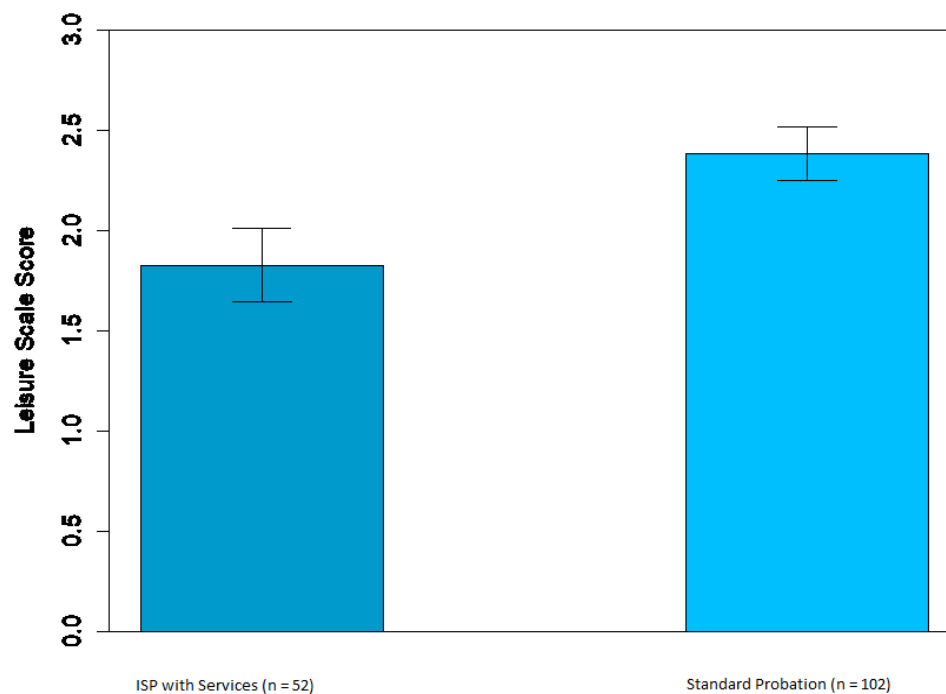
Figure 2: Responsibility Scale Difference between ISP-S and Standard Probation



-Leisure

Once controlling for risk, ISP-S participants demonstrated fewer difficulties with positive leisure activities ($t = 2.46$, $p = .015$). As noted by the horizontal confidence interval lines in Figure 3, the 95% confidence mean intervals do not overlap, indicating statistical significance ($p < 0.05$). The effect size was in the large range (Cohen's $d = 1.82$). As noted in Table 18, the percentage difference for the ISP-S group was 11.11% lower than for standard probation, indicating fewer difficulties with leisure time. Fewer difficulties with leisure are associated with a crime free lifestyle.

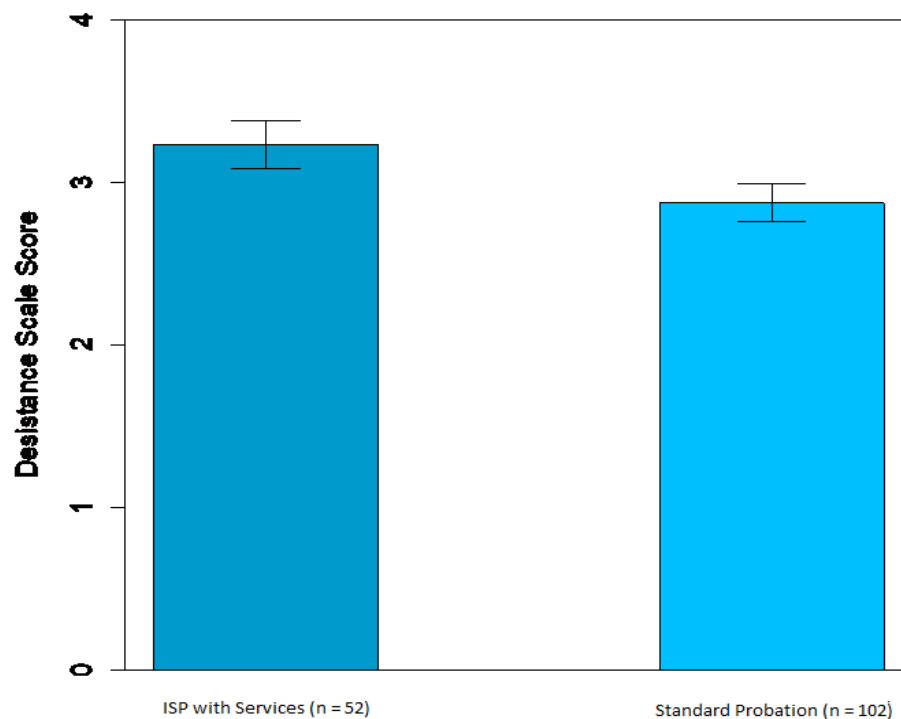
Figure 3: Leisure Scale Difference between ISP-S and Standard Probation



-Desistance

Once controlling for risk, ISP-S participants demonstrated greater participation in desistance processes ($t = -1.91, p = .058$). As noted by the horizontal confidence interval lines in Figure 4, the 95% confidence mean intervals do not overlap. The effect size was in the large range (Cohen's $d = 3.02$). As noted in Table 18, the percentage difference for the ISP-S group was 8.95% lower than for standard probation, indicating a desire to abstain from future criminal offending.

Figure 4: Desistance Scale Difference between ISP-S and Standard Probation



-Summary of Participant Survey Results

After controlling for risk level, positive results were observed for substance misuse, personal responsibility, and desistance for the ISP-S group. Participation in the ISP-S group demonstrated reductions in substance misuse and leisure difficulties, along with taking greater responsibility for their criminal lifestyle and greater presence of desistance factors. Differences in these four areas between the two groups suggest a positive benefit of ISP-S participation, which is consistent with the evidence-based literature. Even though these areas suggest a positive benefit of ISP-S participation, they cannot suggest a causal mechanism role. A stronger research design, such as a randomized control trial, would be necessary for causal conclusions. But given the

current risk control and the differences beyond 95% confidence intervals, it can be suggested that program differences impacted these four areas.

Participant Interview Results

Due to the semi-structured nature of the 25 interviews, topical results were broadly sorted into general outcomes. Open coding produced additional themes and outcomes within each category, as well as comparative experiences between participants categorized as early (less than six months) and late (post six months) in the program. Comparative experiences provide some insight into the potential progression through ISP-S, with goals of gaining stability in employment, housing, sobriety, and other targeted components. The results discuss the overall experience of participants, and then detail differences between the early and late participants as applicable.

Employment

While many participants reported unstable work histories, in looking at the total sample, most had been employed prior to their sentencing (52.0%) and had been employed at some point post adjudication (60.0%). Narrative analyses revealed that those who were not able to find steady work, not encumbered by health issues, were able to find some form of temporary or alternative income. Across the board, participants indicated a strong self-sufficiency in obtaining employment. Most noted that they *could* have utilized ISP-S resources in seeking out employment, but few reported doing so.

Approximately three quarters of all of those employed worked in more labor-oriented industries (e.g. factory work, construction, food service) versus more professional-based jobs (e.g. office, managerial). Many reported having specific skills and qualifications related to labor professions such as commercial drivers licensing, forklift operation and construction skills, or experiences in food service.

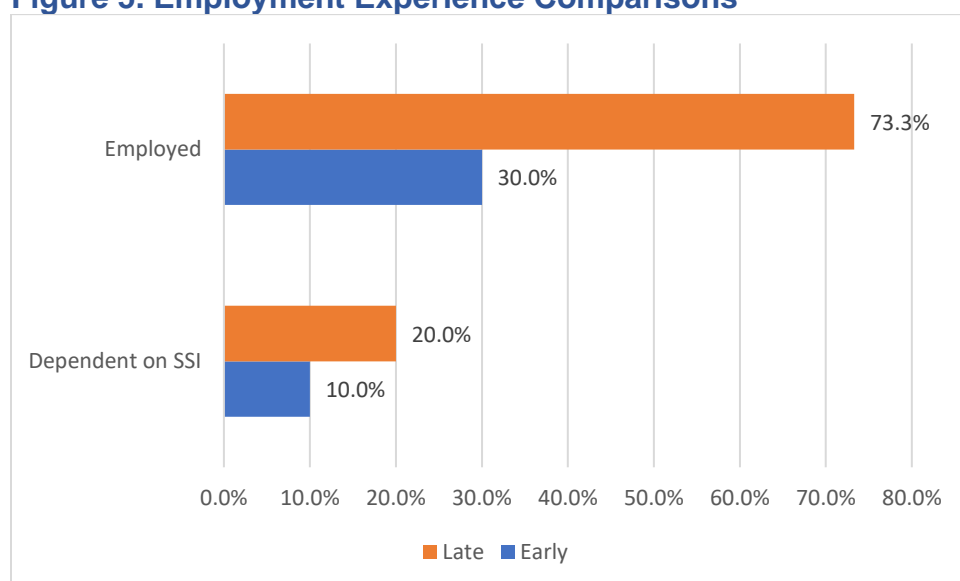
Though most who were able to be employed were employed, it was noted that their employment was not likely to cover all personal expenses, such as residence, food, or transportation. Most remained dependent on others for assistance in covering general costs, despite obtaining employment. Despite these limitations, most recognized employment as a critical component in terms of their success.

-Employment Comparisons

In comparing early participants to those later in their sentence, a higher proportion of late-ISP-S participants reported being currently employed (73.3% vs 30%) or on disability facilitated stable income (20% vs. 10%), while 60% of early participants were unemployed or without disability support. Late ISP-S participants who were employed worked an average of 37.4 hours per week, while earlier participants worked slightly fewer hours at 30.7 hours per week. Reported wages were comparable with late participants reporting an average \$13.40 as an hourly wage compared to \$12.00 for early participants. While many employment experiences were universal, some differences in navigation and employment goals varied in comparing early and late participants.

Navigating the Labor Market: Both groups noted a dependence on Supplemental Security Income or other disability support services for income², though the majority were actively seeking work. Most who were actively seeking employment encountered stigma in their job searches, and late participants more thoroughly described their experiences and navigation of such events. Most indicated full disclosure of a criminal past as a preferred policy with potential employers. Late participants tended to understand and accept the responsibility of their record, recognizing the problems that led to their felony (e.g., substance use or poor decisions), and expressed an understanding as to why employers would conduct background checks. Late participants were also able to clearly identify and seek out industries where background checks or disclosure of a felony was less likely to be an obstacle, such as food service, showing an ability to avoid the potential rejection altogether.

Figure 5. Employment Experience Comparisons



Job Expectations: Late participants tended to be more specific in articulation of employment aspirations and commitment, though both early and late participants expressed career goals. For example, one late participant articulated his earlier desire for basic income in his first months in the program; upon gaining daily structure and stability in his sobriety, he was now focused on obtaining not only sustained but more opportune employment. Career and progression took on greater importance as opposed to just a job. Late participants also expressed awareness of the limitations to the quality or type of employment potentially available to those with a felony conviction. There was greater recognition of skill deficits and other educational/skill qualifications that would preclude some types of employment and lead to greater dependence on temporary, part

² Due to the target population of mental health and substance abuse co-occurring disorders, St. Clair participants disproportionately noted an exclusive dependence on SSI or disability for income.

time, or seasonal employment. This cognizance is likely an artifact of greater turnover and exposure to the labor market.

Social Support

About a third of the participants were in a committed relationship and considered their partner to be a useful source of social support. The remainder were single (36.0%), divorced (16.0%) or separated (8.0%). Those who were in a relationship had been committed for at least one year and considered their partner to be helpful in their support during their time under supervision. Nearly three-quarters of the participants had children, though few reported residing with their children (33.3%).

Akin to prior research, most participants had a range of social support systems whom they found to be moderately helpful. Only a few participants noted their family as “not very” or “not at all” helpful in their time under supervision (16.7%). Rather, participants were positive in their familial experiences and support, with many noting it was an important part of their success in the community. This was despite admittance of strained relationships (29.4%) in some way; most were able to still grasp some aspect of positive social support from their family. Many lived with family, received fiscal support and transportation aid, and generally had a supportive environment. Commonly, participants were currently or had lived with a family member or intimate partner, with limited expectation of financial contribution to rent or a mortgage. Though there were some instances of long-standing familial conflict, almost all had at least one form of social support providing material and/or emotional support. Importantly, not all participants utilized the available emotional support but did maintain that it was accessible if needed. Many opted out of broadly soliciting support, although almost all were able to identify at least one close form of emotional support.

Exceptions to stable and consistent social support existed among participants with extensive criminal histories or other instabilities. Among participants with long histories of mental health and substance misuse issues, slightly more familial conflict or reluctance in engaging emotional support was reported. However, having the opportunity to remain in the community afforded participants a chance to rebuild or improve their relationships.

This generally high degree of social support is critical in terms of stability. At the outset, without of housing availability, most participants face violating the conditions of their supervision. Further, having at least one form of social support diverted opportunity and commitment away from antisocial peers and activities. Instead, much of the participants’ social engagement centered around prosocial activities such as family outings and meals or faith-based activities. Further, most noted that an important function of their support system was the structure it provided – both in terms of time as well as the check-ins that often accompanied the social support relationship. Social supports provided another avenue of accountability and motivation to stay crime-free.

-Social Support Comparisons

In general, participants experienced relatively high degrees of social support, across familial, intimate partner, and parental relationships. This was consistent across time in program, though greater opportunity afforded late participants some additional consideration of the changes in their relationships with social supports.

Reflection Upon Relationships: Though the level of and access to social support was fairly consistent between early and late participants, the later participants did have more opportunity to reflect upon the changes over time in their relationships. The longer duration of program participation afforded an opportunity to describe the growth and stability of family connections. Late participants were able to demonstrate a longer state of sobriety and commitment to a crime free life. Already grounded in positive and supportive foundation, these positive changes illustrated success and benefitted relationships with social support systems, ultimately gaining strength over time.

Community Engagement: Neighborhood Involvement, Faith-Based Institutions, and Voting

Remaining in the community affords the opportunity to engage with the community, building a wider network of prosocial activity. Generally, about a third of the participants reported being involved with their broader community and about two-thirds indicated generally positive interactions with their neighbors. However, most were inwardly focused on their commitment to change, personal stability, and their own sobriety. More intimate social groups (such as family) substituted for larger communities, as many ISP-S participants identified antisocial environments and people as a contributor to criminal behavior.

Approximately half of the ISP-S participants reported community service activities, which tied primarily to program requirements. As part of their inclusion in ISP-S, community service is a common requirement, though some had yet to start this requirement (anticipating having to do so in the near future) or had been exempted from this requirement altogether.

Faith-based community involvement was evident for about half of the participants, noting either this being a steady part of their life or - more commonly - an avenue that they had returned to for social support. One participant in particular expressed the importance of her church fulfilling a community role. Importantly, faith-based institutions were a safe environment absent from judgment or stigmatization that could occur in other spaces. Those who did report church involvement tended to consider the institution important to their success and reported regular involvement.

Finally, ISP-S participants generally did not indicate voting in either local or national elections as a priority. Few participants noted active engagement with voting behaviors. Although 59% overall were registered to vote, only about a third recounted voting in recent elections. A larger portion of early-ISP-S participants reported voting recently. While about 40% of both groups described it as being an important part of their lives, many noted it was not a current priority in light of other responsibilities.

Those expressing little interest also tended to indicate distrust in the voting system, and that their priority was a focus on sobriety or their personal development. Those that did consistently vote described it as an important right and wanted to effect change.

-Community Engagement Comparisons

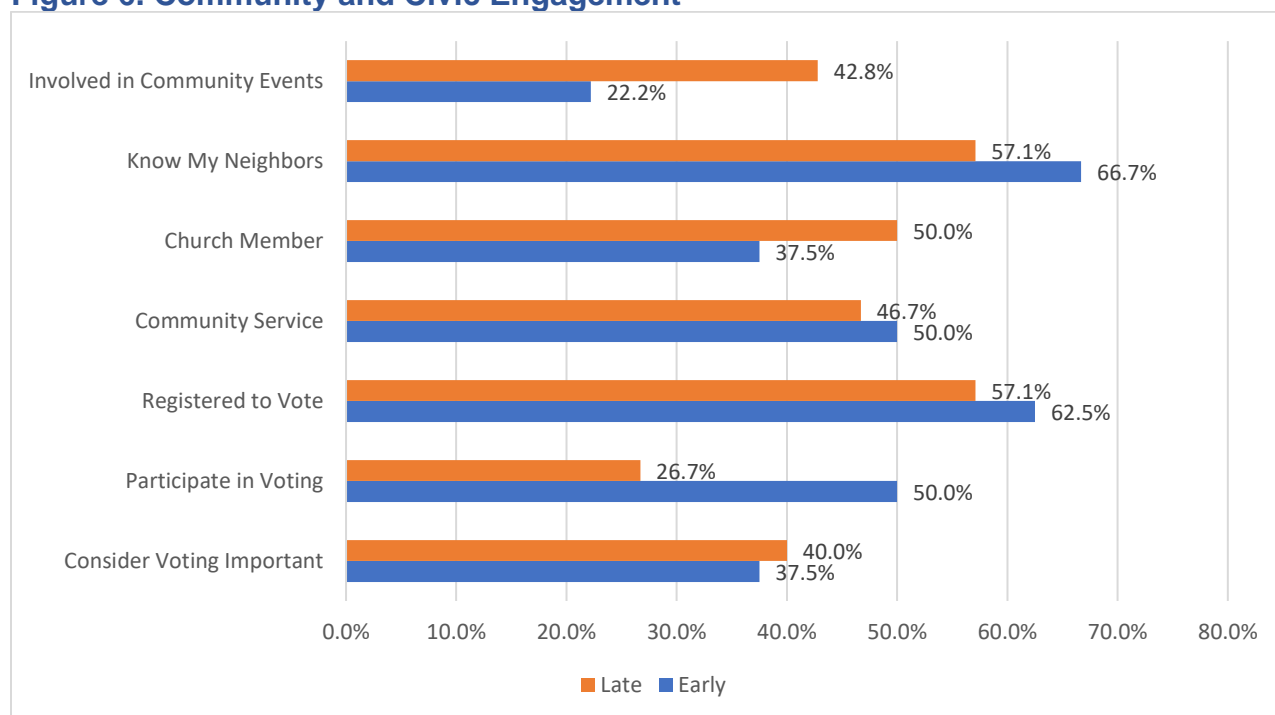
Residential Community: Across all participants, the community was noted to be important but not a primary concern in terms of active engagement. Later participants were slightly more likely to report current involvement in broader community events, with about 42.8% indicating they engaged in some type of event.

Many noted the influence of their surroundings and peers in terms of poor decision making and criminal opportunities, so it was not uncommon for both early and later participants to self-select out of strong participation in community and social events. Later participants did note they had opportunity to get to know their neighbors and exchange informal favors (e.g., watch over houses; walk dogs) but generally avoided more intensive engagement. Importantly, neither early nor late participants reported feeling specific stigmatization from fellow community members but instead used their own agency to remain less involved with their neighborhood.

Community Service: Few differences emerged between early and late participants in regard to their participation in community service. In some locations ISP-S requires community service as part of Phase I completion, making early participants somewhat more involved in community service. Late participants very rarely participated in service related activities, indicating most are not individually motivated to continue such activities. Given the emphasis on community service in earlier phases and time in program, this may be an area where ISP-S programming could target to enhance greater participation overall, or for a longer period of time.

Faith-Based Institutions: Church was a positive substitute for other types of community for both early and late participants, acting as a safe environment providing access to resources and positive social support. Generally speaking, a slightly larger proportion of late-ISP-S participants noted consistent engagement with a church though overall few patterns emerged by time in program.

Figure 6. Community and Civic Engagement



Voting: Though differences in frequencies were apparent in comparing early and late participants, program participation did not seem particularly linked. Those who indicated voting as an important part of their life reported consistent and active voting behavior throughout their adulthood. However, it was more common for early participants to express disinterest or confusion regarding the voting process. Participation in the program could be an informational opportunity to clarify voting rights and eligibility with a felony conviction.

Housing and Other Stability Indicators

Overwhelmingly, both late (77.8%) and early (86.7%) ISP-S participants perceived their current housing arrangement as nonpermanent. Many had ambition of securing their own housing, as most were living with a parent or other family member and felt little investment in their own residence.

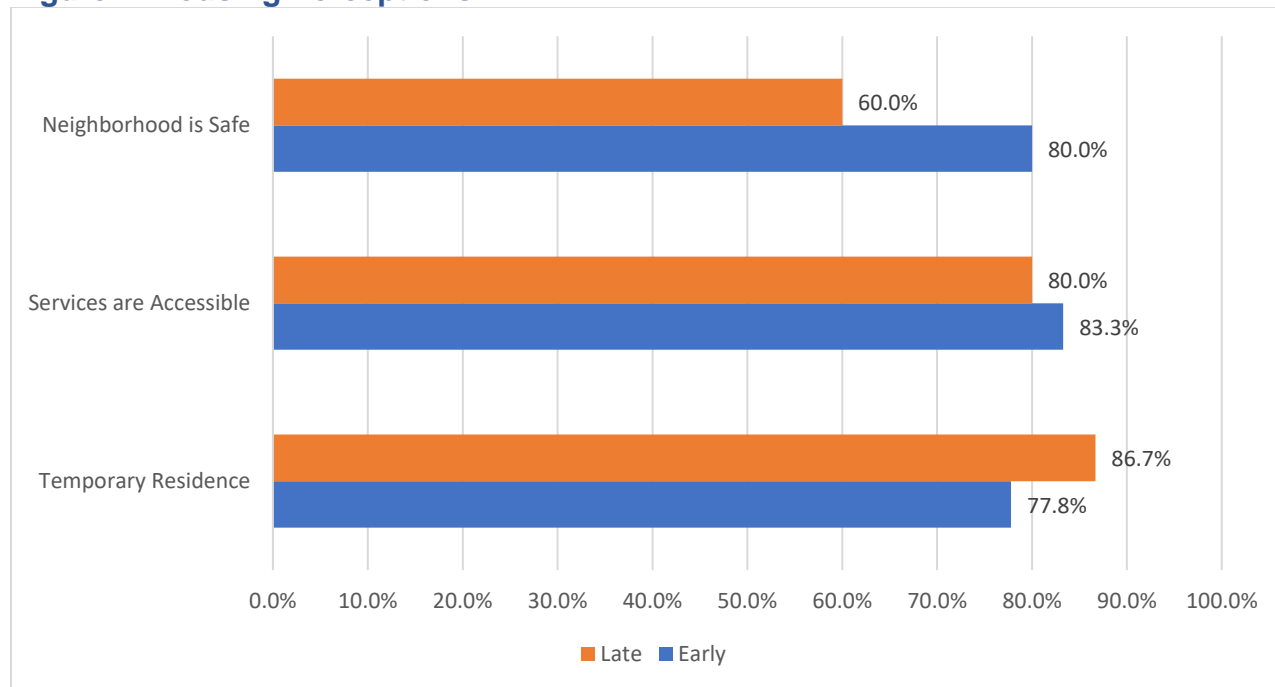
Despite the anticipation of residential movement, most participants were satisfied with their residence, noting it was accessible to treatment and generally safe. Many participants noted the importance of residential context, and were able to contrast their current home to prior environments with greater prevalence of drugs, violence, and other instabilities. Most noted their appreciation of living in a quiet, secure community.

-Housing Comparisons

Few differences between early and late participants emerged in terms of housing stability and experiences. There was some indication of realistic expectations from late participants, as they expressed a preference to move into independent housing but also conveyed an understanding of practical constraints such as financial or legal limitations.

Ultimately, although participants generally were able to access secure housing, several did note limited resources from ISP-S in regard to housing services (e.g. applying for public housing or financial assistance).

Figure 7. Housing Perceptions



Substance Misuse and Health Outcomes

Nearly all of the participants reported a history of substance dependency. Although only 27.3% of late-ISP-S participants and 20.0% of early-ISP-S participants were currently in substance misuse-specific treatment, most were optimistic of their chances of remaining drug free despite prior relapses. Within the foundation of the structure and supportive nature of ISP-S, participants expressed a renewed commitment to change and maintain sobriety. Participating in ISP-S facilitated accountability, as regular drug testing is commonplace and consequences for continued and repeated use were well understood. As a result, though some noted occasional marijuana or alcohol use, it was rare and often minimal. Participants recognized the regularity of drug testing in the program, and understood the high-stakes consequences of continued substance use.

Higher risk lifestyles, greater risk of victimization, and long-term addiction further affected health. Participants reported requiring care from previous assaults, chronic physical pain, dentistry needs, and diagnosed mental health conditions. As previously noted, this resulted in a high dependence on disability or SSI for income as conditions were severe enough to limit employment opportunities. Positively, however, nearly all of the participants reported having health insurance and appropriate coverage, with only two late-ISP-S participants indicating no health insurance coverage.

-Substance Misuse Comparisons

Regardless of time in the program, participants denoted high involvement with substances and prior relapse behavior. While *both* early and late participants recognized the consequences of continued substance use, late participants recognized their near completion of supervision and were able to recognize the positive consequences of sobriety. Further, late participants had a longer duration in the program, in terms of supervision, exposure to cognitive behavioral therapies, and substance misuse specific programming. From these experiences, late participants more clearly reflected upon the learned coping skills through treatment and how to better respond to stress, loss, and pressure.

Health needs and access were comparable across time in the program. Some late participants did note some uncertainty about renewal or continuing access to health insurance.

Relationships with Probation Officer

Participants consistently reported their probation officer as very helpful during their time under supervision. Ranked on a scale of 1 (“not at all helpful”) to 5 (“very helpful”), 92.3% of early-ISP-S participants and 88.9% of late-ISP-S participants ranked their officer a four or five, and their additional narratives overwhelmingly supported these assessments.

Participants noted immediate meetings with their probation officers clearly outlined program expectations and guidelines. Many contrasted their current probation officer relationship with prior supervision experiences, characterizing ISP-S officers as straightforward to communicate with, invested in their success, and able to provide valuable access to information and material resources. Importantly, the communication style exhibited by the ISP-S officers was highlighted as critical to building this relationship. The participants noted they were communicated *with* not just *to*. Even in situations of probation violation (such as relapse) or other stability challenges, participants felt comfortable in being honest in disclosure. While supervisors were depicted as strict, the structure combined with active involvement produced strong perceptions of a positive and productive relationship.

-Relationships with Probation Officer Comparisons

A conclusive outcome of ISP-S participation is the affirmative and respectful relationships developed between officer and probationer, consistent across both early and late participants. However, late participants reflected more upon the changes in the relationship dynamic. Most noted that a relationship that initiated as positive had only strengthened over time. Late participants recounted experiences of their probation officer in terms of flexibility (e.g. adjusting appointment times in line with employment), adhering to their word (e.g. early discharge from electronic monitoring upon consistent good behavior), and consistent provision of resources (e.g. bus passes). Essentially, late participants with greater time in the program were able to relate the *consistency* of the relationship and ability to build upon a strong foundation set early in the supervision period.

Violation History and Successful Futures

Overall, participants felt optimistic about their chances of remaining crime free. Few reported frequent behaviors of violating probation conditions and no interviewee had undergone revocation proceedings. There were a few instances of a failed drug test, typically within the first few months of program participation. However, the accountability and structure provided by the program in terms of constant contact and clear consequences seemed to facilitate the implementation of positive habits for the participants.

The area that most participants noted they would be in violation of related to payment of fines and fees to the state. Participants anticipated payment requirements in the future but few were current or actively paying down their financial obligations to the state.

While singular violations of probation conditions were not uncommon, participants generally perceived ISP-S to be supportive in terms of overall facilitation of success. The longer term patterns and overall change tended to be the priority rather than individual setbacks.

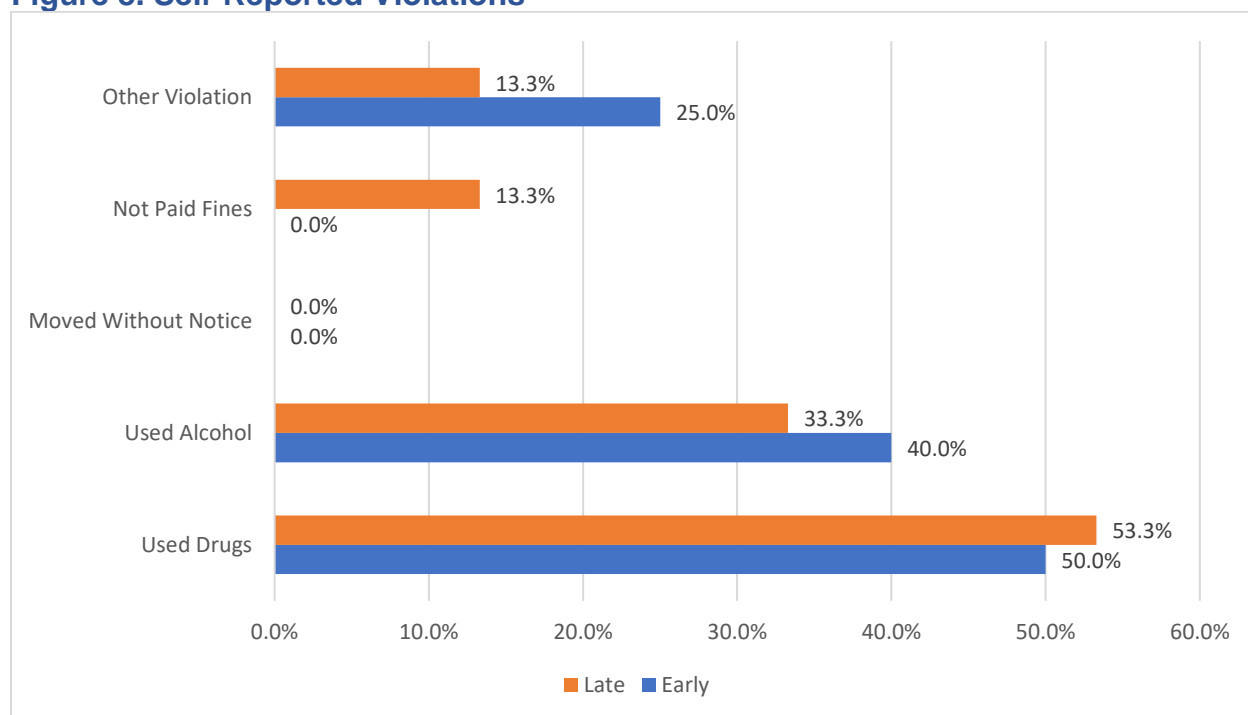
Overall, most program participants felt they would be successful in completing their probation and remaining committed to a crime free lifestyle. There was widespread optimism about goal achievement and long-term success, for a variety of reasons. Important mechanisms included strong familial support, maintaining sobriety, and financial stability. Nearly all were very positive about their experiences in ISP-S, and expressed similar goals and values relating to social supports, stability, employment, housing, and education. These results point to the important contributions that social supports, stability, employment, housing, and education make to participants' success.

Violation History and Successful Futures Comparisons

Few differences emerged in recounting or describing violations. Reporting violations was rare for both early and late participants, and for both were related to alcohol or substance use. Importantly, these violations did not derail continuation in the program but instead were handled individually with their supervising officer.

Steps to Success: While almost all felt positive about their future, late participants exhibited a stronger ability to articulate specific steps to success, and reflected on the structure provided by ISP-S that would be applied to future behaviors. Responsibility to others, such as family, remained an important part of their lives, but late participants had transferred that accountability to the self, and noted their own motivation and determination as key components to remaining crime free. Further, although all participants were able to describe future goals, late ISP-S participants were able to specifically articulate the steps to goal achievement (e.g. describing the type of schooling needed, a specific residential location). Importantly, many noted that keeping it "simple" was important, and that their sobriety and crime free lifestyle remained something that required continued work and commitment to structure.

Figure 8. Self-Reported Violations



Summary of Participant Interview Outcomes

In sum, the narrative accounts demonstrated many aspects that set the stage for desistance processes. For most participants, employment and housing were accessible. Few noted broader community engagement as a current priority. Most interviewees were doing well in the program in terms of sobriety and adherence to program components. Many indicated the structure of the program and communications with their supervising officers contributed to this success.

Although the interviewees did not have a baseline to account for change, late participants did reflect on their longer time in the program and could account for some evolution. Primarily, familial and supervising agent relationships strengthened over the course of the program participation, with continued sobriety and a commitment to changed behaviors. Late participants also were able to negotiate employment searches and future goals with greater specificity.

Most participants expressed high satisfaction with the ISP-S program and noted the many benefits and resources available. A few areas that were noted for potential provision included greater support for independent housing and resources, potentially providing clarity and information regarding voting procedures, and information regarding continuing accessibility to health insurance and care.

Key Recommendations

Continuations

- A particular strength of ISP-S involves the relationships and support of the probation officer. Continued focus on open communication (i.e., motivational interviewing techniques), addressing relapse prevention, and general systems of support will continue to serve ISP-S participants.
- The structured nature of ISP-S appears to benefit participants. The structured nature of consistent substance testing, scheduled and random meetings, and other accountability features help instill discipline and attitudinal change.
- The focus on evidence-based cognitive/behavioral interventions, including probation strategies promotes personal responsibility and greater consideration of consequences. Continued service provision is essential to program success.

Potential Improvements

- Greater emphasis in seeking linkages with housing authorities emerged as an opening for many participants. The potential for permanent and secure housing facilitates greater success.
- Additional and continued focus on high-risk participants and their individualized criminogenic needs. In most outcome measures of housing, education, employment, and program completion, high-risk participants fared worse. High risk ISP-S participants had 60% to 85% higher likelihood of poorer outcomes in these four areas. Sufficient resources for these vulnerable ISP-S participants will be beneficial.
- Renewed focus on leisure and community involvement. The structure of the program may divert some time away from flexibility of unstructured time, but addressing this skill will benefit participants post-program. Further, while there was limited enthusiasm for civic and community involvement, there were also some limitations in awareness of opportunity. Consistent and reliable information regarding these types of activities may benefit participation.
- Broadly, outcome evaluations are highly dependent on data accessibility and usability. Agency cooperation was high which aided in successful research, but administrative and other data challenges did arise. Future research may benefit from incorporating early evaluation inquiries as to data strategies and access avenues for further promotion of progressive research designs.

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Appendix A Participant Interviews

Date _____ Interview# _____ Card# _____

Location _____

INTERVIEW TEMPLATE

GENERAL BACKGROUND –

1. How long have you been on probation? _____
 - a. What is your probation sentence (time)? _____
2. Why are you on probation? _____
3. Was this your first time under correctional supervision? **If no**, how many times have you been on probation?
 - a) What was the age of your first time on probation? _____
4. **OTHER** - Current relevant probation conditions?

DIMENSION: EMPLOYMENT

1. **Before your conviction**, did you have a job? _____
 - a. What type of work did you do? _____
 - b. Was this a full time job or part time? (FT/PT) _____
 - c. How long did you work at this job? (Months) _____
 - d. Were you paid on payroll or were you paid cash? _____
2. **Since your conviction**, have you been employed? Yes / No
 - a. How many jobs? _____
 - b. After conviction, how long did it take to find a job? _____
 - i. Did you have any help in finding this job (Probe: Program or family member)?
3. Have you experienced discrimination or stigma as part of the employment process?
 - a. **If YES**, Have potential employers expressed negative view toward ex-offenders? Have employers mentioned your specific crime?
4. **(If they are not employed)** What are you currently doing to locate a job?
 - a. Why do you think finding a job has been hard? (Probe: Lack of job training? Transportation?)
 - b. How has ARI helped you in your employment endeavors?
 - i. Can you please describe? Was this helpful?
 - ii. How could the programming be changed to better assist you ? (**If no**, do you feel this would have been helpful?
 - iii. What do you do for income? (e.g. public assistance; SSI; disability?)

5. Describe your current primary job?

- a. In total, how many hours per week do you work? __ __
- b. What is your hourly wage? _____
 - i. Is your current employment enough to cover your monthly expenses? If not, how do you plan to pay for your additional expenses?
- c. For your primary job, would you describe this as just a job or work that you are committed to?.....

Just a job	1	2	3	4	5	Very committed
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Explain? (e.g. what type of work would you prefer; does it matter what type of work you do?) _____

DIMENSION: FAMILY

1. What is your current marital/relationship status?
 ____ Married ____ Single ____ Partnered ____ Divorced ____ Widowed ____ Separated
2. Are you currently involved in a relationship?
 - a. Who is the relationship with?
 - b. How long have you been in the relationship?
3. **If involved in an intimate partner relationship**, please provide more information on the nature of support you feel from your current relationship. Has the support been positive or negative?
4. Has your partner been helpful in your time under probation supervision?

Not at all helpful	1	2	3	4	5	Very helpful
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 - a. How do they help? (Probe: emotional, financial, housing)
 - b. Do you think this support is important to you staying out of prison? Explain?
5. Has your family been helpful in the transition back to the community?

Not at all helpful	1	2	3	4	5	Very helpful
--------------------	---	---	---	---	---	--------------
6. How do they help? (Probe: emotional, financial, housing - please provide examples. What do you wish they provided more of?
7. Do you think this support is important to you staying out of prison? Explain?
8. Do you have any strain or problems with your family relationships? Has this improved or worsened under your probation time?

9. What type of things do you do with your family? (e.g. meals; special events; scheduled time?)
10. Have you participated in any family-oriented programming through ARI? Has your probation officer helped with your relationships? How so?
11. Do you have kids? ____Yes ____No
12. If yes, how many kids do you have? _____
13. Do you currently live with your kids? ____Yes ____No
14. Are you court ordered to pay child support for your kids? ____Yes ____No
 - a. How much do you pay per month _____
 - b. Are you behind in your child support _____
 - c. Do you think that these costs have affected your experiences on probation? How so?
15. Can you describe your relationship with your children? Has this changed over time? What do you wish could be better?
 - a. Has ARI provided any help in spending time or improving the relationship you have with your children?

DIMENSION: COMMUNITY ENGAGEMENT

1. Can you describe the community you live in? (e.g. urban/rural; the type of housing and neighborhood involvement with each other; friendly; isolated?). Is this the same area you lived in prior to your conviction?
 - a. How involved do you feel? Has this changed over time?

Not at all involved	1	2	3	4	5	Very involved
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 - b. What types of things do you do to participate in community events? (e.g. public meetings; social events)
 - c. Do you know your neighbors? What type of relationship do you have with them?
2. Do you belong to a church? Is this the same as prior to your conviction? Have you become more or less involved over the last few months (*dependent on where at in program*)
 - a. If yes, what types of things do you do there?
 - b. What type of support do they provide?
3. Do you participate in community service? Is this part of your probation, or do you volunteer in other ways?
4. Do you know if you can vote in Illinois? Are you registered to vote? Do you participate in elections (voting; canvassing; supporting a candidate?)
 - a. Is this important to you? Why or why not?
 - b. Do you follow political events (local, national?).
 - c. Did you prior to your conviction? Has this changed? How so?

DIMENSION: GENERAL STABILITY

1. Where did you live following your from conviction (first week/NOW) –
 - a. Is this the same place you were living prior? _____

____ Single Family Home
____ Supervised Facility

____ Shelter
____ Multi-Unit Home (apartment, townhouse)
2. Are you currently living with someone? **If yes**, what is the nature of this relationship? In your opinion, is your current neighborhood safe? Explain?
 - b. Have you had help locating your current housing situation? If so, from whom?
 - c. How many times have you moved since your conviction to your current address?

 - d. Would you consider your current housing arrangement temporary or permanent?
 - a. **If temporary**, where do you plan to reside once this arrangement ends?
3. Are treatment and/or services easily accessible in your community? How so? How do you get there?

Since your conviction have you:

	When	How Often
a. Used drugs?		
b. Used alcohol?		
c. Moved without giving notice?		
d. Not paid fines or fees?		
e. Other probation condition violations?		

4. When was your initial meeting with your probation agent? _____
(Exact date or number of days following release)
 - a. How did you get to your initial meeting? What did you learn or take away from your initial orientation?
 - b. Overall, how helpful has your parole officer been in making the transition back to the community?

Not at all helpful	1	2	3	4	5	Very helpful
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- c. How has your relationship with your agent changed over time? For the better or worse?

- d. Describe an experience that has been helpful/detrimental.
5. Do you have a history of using drugs?
a. Age of first use? _____
b. Primary drug of use? _____
6. Do you live in a neighborhood where individuals are abusing drugs or alcohol? Do you think this will affect you and your ability to not use drugs? Why or why not?
7. Have you received substance abuse treatment during your probation supervision?? What was the program like? How long did it last? How would you describe your experience? What was the most/least helpful part of the treatment you received?
8. Are you currently enrolled in drug treatment? How long? In-patient/outpatient? How would you describe your relationship with the program staff? What is the most/least helpful part of this programming? Where is the treatment offered? How do you get to your drug treatment sessions? How often do you attend?
9. Have you been enrolled in treatment previously? How many times? If yes, do you think you will remain drug free this go around? Why or why not? How could drug treatment programming be improved?
10. Do you have health insurance? What is the source? Do they cover what is needed for your treatment?

FORWARD THINKING

11. Do you think you will be successful in staying out of prison/trouble? Why or why not?
12. What do feel is the most important thing in helping you stay out of prison? (i.e. employment, family support; treatment)
13. What would be the most useful service to you now (or would have been useful to you) as you attempt to get your life together
14. Did you have this in the past? If so, why is it different this time?
15. Where do you see yourself in one year?

BACKGROUND QUESTIONS

1. How many felony convictions do you have? _____
a. How many misdemeanor convictions do you have? _____
2. When was your last felony conviction? _____
a) What type of offense? (property; violent; drug; sex; other)
b) Have you ever been incarcerated as a result of these convictions?
c) How many times have you been on probation?

3. How long is your current sentence?
4. What is your approximate monthly income?
 - a) About how much do you pay in rent/mortgage?
5. What is your age/race/gender/educational level?

Appendix B

Perceived Risk Inventory (Kroner, 2013)

Section B. Questions 1 – 35 [Perceived Risk Inventory]

Below are some statements on the possibility of doing crime. Please read the following statements carefully and decide if you agree or disagree with them. If you agree with the statement, mark the "Agree" box on your answer sheet. If you disagree with the statement, mark the "Disagree" box on your answer sheet.

For this section, "risk level" and "chances of doing crime" should be considered to mean the same thing.

1. My chances of doing crime are lower compared to other people my age.
2. My risk to offend is similar to those with minor legal violations.
3. Compared to people like me, my risk to offend is higher.
4. Given my past, my risk to offend is similar to the average person in the community.
5. My risk level to offend is higher than those with limited awareness.
6. My likelihood to offend is below non-offenders living in the community.
7. Compared to people I know, my chance of committing a crime is greater.
8. Compared to people where I live, my chance of committing crime is greater.
9. I am similar to the typical person who has contact with the criminal justice system.
10. My risk level for offending is higher compared to those who are disadvantaged.
11. My vulnerability to offend is similar to one who has done a substantial amount of crime.
12. My chance of criminal activity is close to someone who has one minor conviction.
13. I have a similar risk for crime as someone who has done a serious offense.
14. My risk to offend is close to the average offender.
15. It is more possible that I do a crime compared to someone from a difficult neighborhood.
16. My chance of doing crime is higher than the average person.
17. I have a higher risk to offend compared to close family members.
18. My chances of doing crime are lower compared to other people with a similar personality.

19. My chances of doing crime are lower compared to other people with similar childhoods.
20. My chances of doing crime are lower compared to other people with similar drinking problems.
21. My chances of doing crime are increased compared to others with a similar family history.
22. My risk to offend is higher than people with similar personal characteristics.
23. Compared to the average person who has done crime, my risk level for offending is similar.
24. Compared to those who are very depressed, my risk to offend is higher.
25. My risk level for crime is similar to those who do a lot of crime.
26. My risk level for crime is less than those who are physically small.
27. My risk level to offend is similar to offenders with many types of crime.
28. My risk level is higher than those with moderate mental illness.
29. I know my risk level is higher than those with similar personal characteristics.
30. My chance to offend is higher than it should be.
31. My risk to offend is close to those in average risk situations.
32. My higher risk to offend only applies to minor crimes.
33. Compared to those with disgusting personalities, my risk level is lower.
34. Compared to offenders who have done violence, my risk is lower.
35. Compared to one-time offenders, my risk to offend is the same.

Appendix C - Scales

Substance Misuse Scale

I will have urges to misuse substances.

Based on my past, I expect to have a drink once per month.

It will be OK to have a few drinks.

Alcohol can be blamed for most crimes.*

Alcohol makes people commit crime.*

* reversed keyed.

Leisure Scale

I belonged to a prosocial club

I did sports more than once a week

My days were structured

It was easier for me to care for others

I regularly volunteered

Crime-Related Personal Responsibility Scale

People who do crime do so because of their personality traits.

Thinking that a victim can contribute to crime is wrong.

I had more self-control over my behaviors

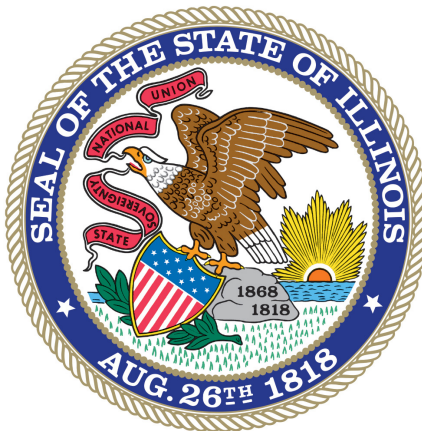
Desistance Scale

I had long-term goals

My life was moving forward

I was able to change my friends

I accepted my social position



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