

**The Significance of Ohio's Victim Awareness Program  
on Restorative Justice**

**by  
Sherry N. Carroll**

**Submitted in Partial Fulfillment for the Requirements**

**For the Degree of**

**Master of Science**

**In the**

**Criminal Justice Program**

**Youngstown State University  
April, 2003**

# The Significance of Ohio's Victim Awareness Program on Restorative Justice

## Sherry Carroll

I hereby release this thesis to the public. I understand that this thesis will be made available from the OhioLINK ETD Center and the Maag Library Circulation Desk for public access. I also authorize the University or other individuals to make copies of this thesis as needed for scholarly research.

Signature: Sherry N. Carroll 4-11-03  
Sherry N. Carroll Date

Approvals:

Joseph A. Waldron, Ph.D. 4/29/03  
Joseph A. Waldron, Ph.D. Thesis Advisor Date

Christian C. Onwudiwe 4/29/03  
Christian C. Onwudiwe, Ph.D. Committee Member Date

Gordon G. Frissora 29 April 03  
Gordon G. Frissora, Ph.D. Committee Member Date

Peter J. Kasivinsky 5/6/03  
Peter J. Kasivinsky, Dean of Graduate Studies Date

## **Abstract**

The Ohio Department of Rehabilitation and Correction began offering offenders the Victim Awareness Program as an available treatment program in 1999. Programs such as these are nationally referred to as impact classes or panels for offenders. The purpose of the study was to determine if subjects exposed to the program exhibit a more accurate definition of restorative justice elements. An evaluation of the program was conducted through an empirical study to determine if there is a significant increase in Acquired Knowledge of restorative justice concepts after participants have completed the Community Justice Chapter of the program. The evaluation of the Victim Awareness Program has not demonstrated having a significant increase of restorative justice concepts on participant's Acquired knowledge. Since the evaluation did not indicate an increase in participant knowledge, it further supports past theorist findings of the inconsistency on restorative justice concepts as well as correctional programs being developed without the foundation of principles already proven to work and the inability to properly assess correctional program effectiveness.

## Acknowledgements

I would like to thank those that have assisted in completing this project. The research and points of view are those of the author and do not necessarily represent the position of the Ohio Department of Rehabilitation and Correction.

I would like to thank Graduate School Dean Pete Kasvinsky; Professor Joseph A. Waldron, Chair; Professor Christian C. Onwudiwe, reader; Professor G. Frissora, reader; and Professor Tammi King, advisor from Youngstown State University. From the Ohio Department of Rehabilitation and Correction, I would like to thank Karin Ho, Director of Office of Victim Services, Ronette Burkes, Program Coordinator and Victim Dialogue, Norm Rose, Warden Richland Correctional Institution, Roxanne Swogger, Richland Correctional Institution, case manager and institutional program facilitator, Jackie Sauer, correctional officer and program facilitator; and Ms Anna Mackie, Noble Correctional Institution, case manager. I would like to thank Regina Sobiesky, Jill Weston, from the California Youth Authority Parole Agent 2/Victim Services Specialist, Office of Prevention and Victim Services, Stephanie Frogge, MADD National Trainer and Karen Taylor George Director of North Carolina Office of Victim Services. Finally, I would like to also thank my friends, family and God.

## Table of Contents

I. Introduction and Literature Review	01
A. Restorative Justice	05
B. Victims	10
C. Offenders in a correctional settings	14
D. Community	16
E. Correctional Justice Professionals	17
F. Cognitive Programs	21
G. Victim Impact Classes	27
H. California Youth Authority and MADD	27
I. History of the Ohio DRC Victim Awareness Program	28
J. Description of the program	30
II. The Methodology	32
A. Design and Procedure	33
B. Data Collection	33
C. Analysis	34
III. Results	35
IV. Summary	39
A. Discussion	39
B. Conclusion	42
C. Recommendations	45
V. Bibliography	47

VI. Appendix	
A. Pre test	60
B. Post test	62
C. Answer sheet for pre/post test	64
D. Agency Approval	66
E. Human Subjects	68

## Chapter I

### Introduction

Many programs have been established to control recidivism rates. However, prior programs did not include some elements that may affect criminal behavior. Several resources have been introduced to reduce recidivism rates. These include parole, probation, indeterminate sanctioning, and community service (Glaser, 1969; Sechrest, White, and Brown, 1979). Throughout the evolution of corrections, attitudinal changes in politics have shifted with an emphasis on “three strikes and you’re out” (Kurki, 1999). Changes in sentencing laws from indeterminate to determinate sentencing have increased offender populations. These changes have increased population sizes in prisons that were already over the capacity they were designed to hold. In 1998, over 500,000 prisoners were returned to society. There was a need to find new elements of social control that will effectively address the needs of the victim, offender, justice professionals and the community.

Restorative Justice is a relatively new set of methods for addressing these needs. Restorative justice elements are a way of viewing, understanding and responding to crime that take into consideration the components of the crime including the victim, the offender, criminal justice professionals and the community (Van Ness and Strong, 1999). This area of study is new and little research on the efficacy of this approach has been completed. There is no consensus on how to measure or evaluate these types of programs (Kurki, 1999).

California, North Carolina, Pennsylvania, and Ohio are a few of the states that have implemented these types of programs. There are no known previous statistical analyses that

can be used to draw conclusions about victim impact programs. Leena Kurki (1999) has determined that there is a degree of uncertainty with regard to the type, number and participation of restorative justice programs. Professionals working with both victims and offenders indicate a strong belief in the effectiveness of victim impact classes and panels on the offender. Jill Weston, a professional working in the victimization field with the California Youth Authority, disclosed in an interview a belief that offenders are positively affected by participation in victim awareness classes.

The California Youth Authority and Mothers Against Drunk Drivers (MADD) have obtained federal grant money to develop programs related to the victim awareness impact panels/classes and their effect on offenders (Lord, Sobieski, and Neale, 1995). It was believed that the program had a significant positive impact on the offender. The Ohio Department of Youth Services in collaboration with the Ohio Department of Rehabilitation and Correction, and other victimization professionals developed standardized awareness training program based upon principles from the California Youth Authority and MADD (Lord, Sobieski, and Neale, 1995; Ohio DR&C, 1999).

Along with the history of restorative justice, this paper provides an overview of the history of victim's rights, offenders in correctional settings, community concerns and correctional justice professionals concerns. This review is intended to provide the reader with sufficient information to understand the restorative justice components related to the program evaluated. There is an overview of cognitive programs in general and the history of the Ohio Victim Awareness Program.

An evaluation of the Ohio's Department of Rehabilitation and Correction's Victim Awareness Program is presented. It is thought that the program will increase the



offender's knowledge and eventually influence the offender's future behavior and criminal activity. The study of this program may be of use to professionals working with victim awareness programs because it provides empirical data.

Professionals working in victimization related fields think that juvenile and adult offender's are positively affected and have increased knowledge about the impact of crime after participation in the program. Critics of restorative (community) justice programs argue about the ambiguity in defining "community", fostering or perpetuation of inequality, questioning if stakeholder needs are satisfactorily addressed and the relevance of addressing structural problems and social control (Bazemore and Schiff, 2002).

It is hypothesized that subjects exposed to the program will exhibit a more accurate definition of the elements of restorative justice. Once the offenders are able to identify the elements of restorative justice, it is important for offenders to understand how their involvement with crime has affected key stakeholders. By increasing offender's knowledge, the offender may be able to change negative behavior and poor decision-making skills. The present project will provide a more in-depth analysis of the Community Justice Chapter of the Victim Awareness program to determine if the participants acquired the knowledge as hypothesized after being exposed to the material.

### **Literature Review**

During 1995, America incarcerated 1.6 million men and women. Nearly two thirds of those incapacitated are incarcerated in prisons (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2000). During 1998, over 500,000 offenders were returned to society without any type of supervision or continuum of care (US Department of Justice Reentry Court Fact Sheet,

2001). Researchers think offenders return to society worse than when they entered the system (Clear, 1996). Research has recorded that 70% of offenders charged with felonies are incarcerated either in jails or prisons (Irwin and Austin, 1994).

Changes in sentencing laws from indeterminate to determinate sentencing have influenced offender populations. These changes have increased prison populations that were already over capacity. If the rates continue to grow at the same rate as in the past, it is estimated that one out of every 20 people will serve a prison term in their lifetime (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2000).

The large number of incarcerated individuals implies a large number of victims affected by crimes. The high levels of crime rates indicate there are a large number of victims and offenders left in the after math of a crime. Barnett and Hagel (1977) state that there are “no victimless crimes”. At the national level, it was estimated that \$463 million were attributed to robberies, this was a 15% increase since 1998 (Federal Bureau of Investigation, 2000). During 1999, law enforcement agencies reported 66,321 arson-related offenses (Andrews, 1996). Also reported were \$7 billion in stolen motor vehicles, and 4.7 billion in property-stolen larceny-theft. Researchers for the National Institute of Justice found victimization generates \$105 billion annually in medical expenses averaging \$1,800 per person (National Institute of Justice, 1996).

The Office for Victims of Crime indicates in a national crime clock the following statistics: one rape of an adult women every two minutes, one violent crime every five seconds, one theft every two seconds, one rape/sexual assault every two minutes, and one motor vehicle theft every 34 seconds (Rennison, 2001). Other statistics illustrate one murder every 34 seconds (Federal Bureau of Investigation, 2001). One person is injured

in an alcohol related traffic crash 43 seconds (National Highway Traffic Safety Administration, 2001). A child reported abused and/or neglected in America every 38 seconds (Children's Bureau, 2001) and a person murdered in the workplace every two days (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2001). These statistics lead to the conclusion that crime exists all around us. Unfortunately, crime is closer to home than we would like to believe. The phrase "not me...not my neighborhood" no longer exists in most neighborhoods. A method is needed to address this problem, stop crimes from occurring and from repeating.

### **Restorative Justice**

Restorative justice became prevalent in the 1970's. It originated in Kitchener, Ontario. During 1974, a partnership of a Mennonite probation officer and a volunteer service director in Canada developed elements to incorporate into the criminal justice system to make it more humane. The earliest practitioners were Howard Zehner and Ron Claasen. Albert Eglash has been recorded as coining the restorative justice phrase around 1977 (Van Ness and Strong, 1997). He used the phrase in an article describing three types of criminal justice (Van Ness and Strong, 1997): retributive, which is based on punishment; distributive, based on therapeutic treatment; and restorative justice, based on restitution.

Restorative Justice is a new way of thinking and addressing issues in the criminal justice system (Pranis, 1998). It is best defined as a "philosophical framework for responding to crime and the actions needed to mend this harm." It is a more balanced approach (Van Ness and Strong, 1997). Restorative justice focuses on repairing harm that is caused by crime and the reduction of future harm. Restorative justice responds "to

specific crimes through redress, vindication, healing and recompense by the offender through reparation, fair treatment and habitation” (Van Ness and Strong, 1997). Six principles are noted for shaping the framework of restorative justice (Umbreit and Coates, 1999). They are the nature of crime, the goal of justice, the role of victims, the role of the offender, the role of the local communities, and the role of the formal criminal/juvenile justice system.

Throughout the transition period, restorative justice advocates agree on three fundamental views (Van Ness and Strong, 1997). The first, crime is a multiple offense to the victim, the community and the offender. Second, advocates believe criminal justice systems should help repair harm. Thirdly, they disagree with the government’s control over the response to crime. Restorative justice concepts incorporate the victim, offender, justice officials and the community. It is a future-focused model that emphasizes problematic problem-solving instead of ‘just deserts’” (Carey, 1996). Crime is no longer viewed separately as an offense against the state or the individual, but as a holistic approach to collectively address and resolve issues (Van Ness and Strong, 1997). Restorative justice without the inclusion of victims would appear unjust if not mentioned. The framework of restorative justice implies the idea that both personal and social relationships have been violated.

Carey (1996) states four purposes for restorative justice. The first, restorative justice holds the offender directly accountable to the individual victim and the specific community affected by the criminal act. Second, it requires the offender to take direct responsibility to ‘make things whole again’ to the degree possible. Third, it provides victims with purposeful access to the court and corrections processes to shape offender

obligations; and fourthly, it encourages the community to become directly involved in supporting victims, holding offenders accountable and providing opportunities for the offender to reintegrate into the community.

Bazemore and Umbreit (1994) make a clear distinction between restorative justice and retributive justice. They define elements of restorative justice as relationships between offender, victim and community; making the victim whole and reconciling conflict using a non-adversarial process. Elements of the retributive justice model are indicative of punishment, just deserts, and incapacitation following the conclusion of an adversarial process. Other reform movements include works of Virginia McKay, Honey Knopp and Martin Wright (Bazemore and Umbreit, 1994). With restorative justice having origins a little over 25 years ago, many states are implementing related initiatives across the country. Some states are in the initial stages of exploring concepts and procedures of the initiative.

The Ohio Department of Rehabilitation and Correction has the Victim Awareness Program and Full and Open Parole Board Hearings (Wilkerson, 1997). The State of Vermont has restructured its Department of Corrections to include Reparative Probation Boards of community volunteers to meet with offenders to determine appropriate sanctions (Kratcoski, 2000). The City of Boston places teams of police officers with juvenile probation officers to monitor violations of probation in the community and work closely with community members and help to resolve conflict in the neighborhood (Kratcoski, 2000). The Crime Repair Crew in Minnesota is comprised of offenders who respond to graffiti and other types of destruction (Kratcoski, 2000). Community prosecution in Austin, Texas is conducted in decentralized locations in the city, to resolve

conflict and disagreement without utilizing the court system (Kratcoski, 2000).

Organizations such as the Mothers Against Drunk Driving (MADD) and Parents of Murdered Children (POMC) provide victim impact panels for offenders and other groups to raise awareness about victim's issues (Lord, Sobieski, and Neale, 1995).

With change or the implementation of new processes, entities have adversarial as well as non-adversarial components. Van Ness and Strong (1997) list four objections to restorative justice. They are the end of criminal law as it has been known in the past, multiple parties cannot pursue multiple goals and achieve a single overarching purpose, all harms can not be identified, and lastly not all components are of equal importance. The government and community will not be able to share responsibility for public safety in the way anticipated by Restorative Justice Theory.

To advance restorative justice programs, Van Ness and Strong (1997) recommend the use of encounter programs. Encounter programs allow the victim and offender the opportunity to meet and give narratives of the other's side of the story. The implementation of encounter programs is designed to empower the participants, offer the offender an opportunity, allow both the victim and offender to voluntarily participate, legitimize concern and meet the need of both the victim and offender.

There are three types of encounter programs. According to Van Ness and Strong (1997), the three types of programs are victim dialogue/reconciliation (mediation), victim-offender impact, and family group conferencing. Encounter programs are also referenced by others components working in the field as victim/offender classes (Lord, Sobieski, and Neale, 1995). Other forms of victim/offender programs include community reparation boards community neighborhood, restorative and community work service,

victim awareness programs, education programs and victim notification ((Kratoski, 2000; (Wilkerson, 2000; Lord, Sobieski, and Neale, 1995; National Institute of Corrections, 1998). The Ohio Department of Rehabilitation and Correction uses victim impact panels presentations during the course of the program. There is a more extensive examination into this particular type of encounter program in a later section of this paper.

Restorative justice and the mediation process seek to help both parties involved make a transition after the offense. Cultural differences may reduce the success of mediation and impact panels in numerous ways (Umbeit, 2000). One of the major errors with cultural differences is mis-communication and misunderstandings. A person in tune with themselves will have a better understanding of their own biases. Individuals trained to facilitate mediation hearings should have a true sense of whom they are. Once a person understands their own perspective, they become sensitive to socioeconomic barriers, sociopolitical influences, other people's personal biases and ethnic identity.

Within the larger culture, subcultures exist. The subculture may have a similar set of traits and experiences with groups that share similar interests or characteristics. These traits may include but are not totally exhaustive of all groupings: race, ethnicity, gender, religion, sexual orientation, age, disability, socioeconomic status, and location of residence. Mediations and impact panels correctly facilitated may increase the appreciation and understanding of cultural diversity (Umbeit, 2000). An understanding of customs, beliefs, body language, personal space, dialect, mannerism, and language play key roles in maintaining sensitivity and integrity to both parties involved.

A basic difference of offender accountability lies in the perception of the offender. Offenders view themselves as being the victim and having a victim mentality

throughout the justice process. Inmates start to believe they are the victims in the process and do not take responsibility for the wrong they have committed or attempt to minimize the impact of the offense. The Ohio Victim Awareness Program serves to broaden the offender's perspective on crimes committed. Offenders have reported they no longer "feel like a victim" and start to hold themselves accountable (Lane, 2001). Restorative justice allows the offender to take responsibility and accountability while both parties work toward change and righting wrongs.

Victim impact panels or mediations may not be the answer for all individuals. However, individuals can address issues within themselves. Healing is a process that takes time, courage and acceptance (Casearjian, 1995). Acceptance not in the terms of the crime committed against the victim, but the admittance that the event has transpired and how to move forward. Qualities that lead to healing are honesty, trust, faith, tolerance, gentleness/kindness, generosity, patience, forgiveness, justice, and love (Larsen and Haggerty, 1992).

## **Victims**

In reference to the new way of thinking under the Restorative Justice framework, victims are a key component. The focus of the program is to address victims' needs and bring restitution and emotional healing (Kurki, 1999). The victim in the past was viewed as a tool to provide evidence to convict the felons or misdemeanants. The origins of the victim's movement began in 1982. Emphasis has been placed on dealing directly with the offender or the causes of crime.

As described by Ohio Attorney General Betty Montgomery (2000) a victim is a person who has suffered an injury resulting from the commission of a crime. The



National Center for Victims of Crime (1999) report victims are not familiar with their rights, the process and/or do not utilize the services available to them. When looking at crime, people tend to first think of those victims suffering from the most bodily injury. There are other ways in which people are victimized. Victims of crime may experience physical, emotional, and economic hardship.

The effect of crime has not always been the most important element in the criminal justice system. It has become customary for courts and prosecutors to involve the victim in the judicial court proceedings of cases. Rape cases have been mentioned throughout time as “re-victimizing” the victim. The very nature of collecting evidence from a rape victim tends to demean the victim further. Prosecutors are now handling cases better when they view victims as their client (Flynn, 2000).

President Ronald Reagan developed a Task Force on Victims of Crime to advance victim’s rights. In December 1982, the Task Force made 12 recommendations for federal, state, legislative and executive branches for victims of crime. A separate proposal was submitted for recommendations to police departments, prosecutors and the courts (Office for Victims of Crime, 1997). During the Victim Movement, there were three thrusts that advanced victim rights. The first is to increase services to victims in the aftermath of the crime. Secondly, is to increase the likelihood of financial reimbursement for the harm inflicted. Thirdly, is to expand the victims’ opportunity to intervene during the course of criminal justice processes (Van Ness and Strong, 1997).

Through the recommendations of the Task Force, the Federal law has empowered individual states to enact laws that will afford crime victims with a protection of rights. Rights vary from state to state. The following are guidelines applicable for most victims

of crime: the right to be treated with fairness and respect, the right to reasonable protection, the right to information about their case through the justice system, notification, participation in public court proceedings, the right to confer with an attorney, the right to information regarding conviction, sentencing, imprisonment and offender release, restitution (Office for Victims of Crime, 1997; Castellano, 1998).

The executive branch of government allows correctional professionals to issue “cease & desist” and “no contact orders” to offenders under their authority. During the mid 1980’s, correctional agencies have become involved with crime victim’s rights, services and programs (National Institute of Corrections, 1998). Notification systems have been established to notify victims of the status of an offender’s case. Examples include up coming parole hearings, end of definite sentence, expirations of stated term, death of the inmate, transport to county court proceedings, escape and/or pending execution. Under certain guidelines, the victim also has the right to know the residential address of the perpetrator.

Across the country, Departments of Corrections allow victims to participate with parole board administrative proceedings. Victims may meet with parole board members to provide the boards with an impact statement on the effects of their victimization. This has been instrumental by providing the hearing boards with a more thorough understanding of the case to make well-informed decisions about sentencing and release while allowing for the victim to have a sense of an expression and justice (Kurki, 1999).

Restorative justice and victim’s rights have broadened over time and address both primary and secondary victims compensation programs which may include expenses for medical, dental, counseling, rehabilitation, prescriptions, co-pay, mileage, lost wages,

replacement services, loss of income to dependents of deceased victims and funeral expenses. Victims have been incorporated into programming and procedures via the mediation process, impact statements, family group counseling, citizen's boards, and sentencing circles (Umbreit, 2000; Kurki, 1999).

The National Center for Victims of Crime (1999) reference impact panels as key stages for victims in the justice and corrections processes. It has made a substantial change in how people view victims and the effects of victimization through the use of victim impact panels and/or statements.

A victim impact statement is defined as a written or oral statement regarding the impact of a crime on the victim including financial, physical, and emotional consequences (Montgomery, 2000). Bodenhausen (1993) states that emotions influence social judgments in a systematic way of processing messages that result in strong attitude formation and/or changes. The impact panels often evoke sadness and a sense of empathy and/or sympathy. Victim impact statements may be presented as victim impact panels individually or as a group.

During impact panels, the victim or survivor gives their perspective and the impact the crime has had on them, their lives and families. The victims are given a voice to express the effects since the commission of the crime. The victims become involved with the process of defining the harm of each crime, identifying how the harm may be repaired, and determination of what should happen with the offender (Wilkerson, 1998). Mothers against Drunk Drivers (MADD) and Parents of Murdered Children (POMC) frequently use impact panels (Van Ness and Strong, 1997).

## Offenders

The history of criminal behavior and crime control has been discussed for decades. Theorists have developed various theories on the causes of crime and the reduction of crime. For example, the following is a non exhaustive list of schools of thought: the Classical School (Beccaria, 1764; Bentham, 1789), the Positive School (Darwin, 1859), The Chicago School, (Matza, 1969), the Social Learning (Jeffery, 1989), the Social Control Theory (Empey, 1978), the Differential Association, (Sutherland, 1939), the Labeling Theory (Tannenbaum, 1938), the Anomie Theory (Merton, 1957).

Colonial Times focused on the natural wickedness of humans. The norm entailed public humiliation and corporal punishment. The form of justice was retributive in nature. The construction of prisons was geared toward solitary confinement. The Quaker “Solitary Model, and Auburn “Silent” System were acceptable means of confining offenders (Cullen and Gilbert, 1982). The basic mood was “pay time for the crime” or “lock them up and throw away the key”. There was no emphasis on what causes crime or how to treat the offender.

During the Enlightenment Period, surrounding the American Revolution, researchers began to shift paradigms toward human nature, social order, and origins of criminality (Cullen and Gilbert, 1982). The construction of the prison buildings shifted to a more rehabilitative stance. Under the Pennsylvania Model, two new designs for penitentiary construction and different schools of thought influenced a change in how offenders were viewed and treated.

The Liberal Justice Model influenced the “just deserts” thinking from giving the offender that which he/she deserved to giving the offender “only” that which he/she

deserved. With the transition from a punitive model to a rehabilitative model, critics have indicated with both eras a sense that no one indicator works (Glaser, 1969; Martinson, 1974; Secret, White, and Brown 1979; and Petersilla and Turner, 1993). Emphasis was placed on numerous outlets on what causes crime and the reduction of recidivism rates to solve the problem with criminal activity and deviant behavior (National Institute of Justice, 1982).

Prison sentence time, security type, or prison sanctions have not had an effect on eliminating violence (Najin, 1998). Offenders may react to incarceration in various ways. However, not all offenders respond or adjust well inside of prison walls. Rollo and Adams (1993) write in their book, *A Map through the Maze: A Guide to Surviving in the Criminal Justice System*, that offenders possess “the power of their wills,” and “gravity of their minds.” Offenders sometimes allow the time to make the best of them Instead of offenders making the best of their time while incarcerated (Casarjian, 1995). Coping with stress in prisons is a phenomenon that also occurs in some cases by the sheer fact of being incarcerated (Smith, 1990). Offenders may also display maladjustment by attempting suicide (Hayes, 1995; Liebling, 1999), planning for escape (Allen and Bosta, 1981) or suffer from depression (Rollo and Adams, 1993). In 1993, suicide was the third leading cause of prison deaths (Rennison, 2001).

Notwithstanding offenders adjusting to the criminal justice system, restorative Justice seeks to hold the offender accountable for their actions. Impact panels usually place the perspective on a more holistic approach in which offenders can no longer hide and must face the positive or negative qualities within themselves and the ramification of their actions. Offenders often attempt to minimize the affects of their crime. Offenders

project themselves as being victims of the crime and do not take account or responsibility for the impact of their actions. One inmate stated “this class didn’t allow me to be a victim” *Toledo Blade* (Lane, 2001).

It is the hopes of the people who run the program that an understanding will ensue and be reached between the parties (Van Ness and Strong, 1997). The parties are not required to accept the behavior, thinking patterns or experiences, but they are given the opportunity to see the human side of one another. The parties may not reach a total resolution, but they are able to give their perspective to provide a more in depth understanding. The parties may be able to reach a level of agreement, whether with one another or within themselves.

### **The Community**

The first goal of restorative justice is to the victim. The second goal is to restore communities (National Center for Victims of Crime, 1999). Pranis (1998) advocates community responsibility for all of its members. Living within communities, victims sustain financial, physical and/or psychological ramifications of crime. Dealing with crime communities may have economic and family structure losses from both the victim and the offender. In cases of incarceration, society removes a portion of the ecosystem and causes “unintentional consequences” (Dickey, 1996).

Van Ness and Strong (1997) state, “restorative justice binds on strength of the community and the government,” and the government should preserve order while the community establishes peace. Restorative Justice elements build on peace through “strong, inclusive and righteous relationships” (Van Ness and Strong, 1997). The

philosophy is best described as viewing, thinking and responding to crime in different paradigms.

Restorative Justice and Community Justice are new ways of thinking about crime (Kurki, 1999). Restorative Justice encourages governments to surrender its total control. Community Justice redefines the role of the government and justice professions in a broader sense to prevent crime address social problems and involve the community in decision making. Restorative justice has promoted shared power in its resolution. Community Justice is conceptually complex and tends to change the structure of justice without a clear goal (Nicholl, 1999). Community corrections, community policing, community protection and involvement, and competency development ((Jacobson, 2000; Pranis, 1998; National Center for Victims of Crime, 1999) were developed as possible solutions (Cullen and Gilbert, 1982; Altman and Murray, 2000).

### **Criminal Justice Professionals**

Justice professionals that work within the criminal justice system may work for the legislative branch of government making laws, the judicial branch with court proceedings or the executive branch enforcing laws. The Executive branch may consist of agencies that enforce laws such as law enforcement and corrections. Since the program being analyzed is implemented within a correctional setting, for the purposes of this paper, corrections will be the focal point.

Prisons are viewed as complex social organizations (Dickey, 1996). Prison managers have little discretion over what type of offender or how many offenders are sent to prison. The attitude of sentencing guidelines directly effect prison populations (Dickey, 1996). The guidelines may influence the type of charges, length of sentence,

prior incarcerations, use of weapons, and the number of offenders sentenced. Sentencing guidelines have changed over the past few years making sentences harsher, increasing the number of offenders incarcerated and providing definite sentencing guidelines. A study in 1985 listed Alaska and New Mexico as having the most costly prison systems to operate. The inmate/staff ratios were 4.1, and 2.1 respectively. The study also listed Missouri and West Virginia as having the least costly prison system to operate with inmate/staff ratios of 33.0 and 4.8 (Corrections Yearbook, 1986).

Managers must maintain a level of safety and security for those inside prison wall as well as those in the community. Managers must address issues of both staff and inmates. Both areas contain complex issues. Prison officials must manage staff and offenders on allotted budgets. When considering situations that arise within a prison structure, the more obvious issues are overcrowding, riots, escapes, hostage situations, staff and inmate assaults, inappropriate relationships, managing personnel, inmates work assignments and security with aspiration of rehabilitating the offender.

Concerns for prison managers are those offenders not adjusting to prison life and acting out accordingly. Offenders choosing to do their time negatively may incur violations of established rules, and may create major or minor disturbances, participate in gang involvement, prepare or smuggle illegal substances or establish an inappropriate relationship with staff (Allen and Bosta, 1981). A sense of the “kept and the keeper” mentality is present. Due to the nature of the business, a built in level of animosity is present (Allen and Bosta, 1981).

Prison officials are often given little information on managing prisons and achieving outcomes (Dickey, 1996). Administrators must ensure that staff are adequately



trained and comply with policy and procedure while satisfying union and vendor contracts. The community in which prisons exist also influence prisons populations (Dickey, 1996). For example, facilities constructed in rural communities may not have staff adequately trained to handle issues with diversity or urbanization.

After the Attica riots in 1971, the National Institute of Justice was established in 1974 to deliver training and information to facilities and programs at the state and local levels (National Institute of Justice, 2001). For prisons to operate, management tools, quality management, performance-based standards and "best practices" have been the current trend for administrators (Dickey, 1996; Mackenzie, 1996; Wilkerson, 1992). The Federal Bureau of Prisons periodically collects information about prison conditions and provides feedback on the findings. Leadership and executive training sessions to enhance and prepare prison administration on how to resolve matters, develop and implement policies, stay abreast of procedural changes, and effectively manage and operate organizations and institutions has risen (Freeman, 1999).

Restorative justice seeks to break down the barrier of total control of governments and allow for participation of all parties. Returning offenders back into society that have not been rehabilitated, equipped with viable means of contributing, or lacking the understanding of the significance and impact of their actions on the infrastructure, has the potential to further handicap and threaten public safety efforts. It is imperative that correctional professionals design and implement programming that leads to positive and effective outcomes on offenders while incarcerated and subsequent to release.

Few elements have been identified that have greater significance on correctional treatment. Programming is an avenue prison managers may use to better manage prisons.

The most effective treatment must have programs matched to the offender's needs, careful implementation, evaluation, and continuum of care (Torny and Petersilla, 1999; Andrews, Zinger, Hoge, Bonta, Gendreau, and Cullen, 1990; Gaes, Flanagan, Motiuk, and Stewart, 1999). Treatment may include cognitive programming, education, individual and group counseling, substance abuse, jobs, vocational training, community service, instruction on basic life skills, apprenticeships, and pre release preparation. Work and education cognitive programs have shown to be more conducive in preparing offenders to return to society (Kratoski, 2000).

Although empirical research most often focuses on recidivism rates, little evaluation has been constructed on incapacitation or effective treatment programs within prisons. The most notable areas were the "Nothing Works" studies (Lipton, Martinson, and Wilkes, 1975). However, those studies provided little justification for progressive correctional treatment and intervention. Since there is little empirical data available and/or the empirical data available regarding correctional treatment is poorly evaluated, there has been a shift from rehabilitation back to punishment and deterrence (Cullen and Gilbert, 1982; MacKenzie, 1996).

Intervention targets known predictors of crime and recidivism (MacKenzie, 1996). New correctional programs have been introduced into facilities that have little evidence of success of the program and these programs are often influenced by an attitude of guessing rather than by statistical evidence (MacKenzie, 1996). There is a need for additional research on correctional treatment to include the types of programs that work for particular types of offenders (Gaes, Flanagan, Motiuk, and Stewart, 1999; Andrews, 1996).

## **Cognitive Programs**

Cognitive programs attempt to address static criminogenic factors as a method for changing behavior. Focusing on the individual's characteristics and circumstance related to criminal behavior, researchers are able to target the criminogenic need of the offender. It is important to address elements that have been linked to criminal behavior. Researchers have indicated two types of predictors that put offenders at risk for crime (Andrews, 1996; Andrews and Bonta, 1998).

The first is a "dynamic" predictor. Dynamic predictors are factors that can be changed. These types of indicators may include antisocial associations, attitudes, beliefs, values, and perceptions. The second predictor is "static." Static predictors are factors that cannot be changed. These factors may include the offender's previous criminal history and genetics. Research has indicated targeting only dynamic factors will have little effect on the intervention of offender's conduct (Andrews and Bonta, 1998; Gendreau, Little, and Goggin, 1996). The rationale behind the design of correctional programs is to change characteristics of offenders with the end result of impacting criminal activity and antisocial behavior (MacKenzie, 1996).

Cognitive development attempt to correct thinking errors (Yochelson and Samenow, 1976). Thinking or thought patterns determine behavior (Small, 1990). Cognitive behavior offender programming teaches offenders abilities and strategies (Chavaria, 1997). With cognitive based programming, offenders are taught that they have the ability to recognize thinking, feelings and perceptions. They are taught how thinking patterns are related to dysfunctional/criminal behavior. Offenders are enabled to make a conscious decision to make change in their lives by changing thinking patterns.

Finally, cognitive programs allow offenders to follow the path of change through a program of cognitive skills self-change. Offender's strategies include how offenders think and act in relationship to planning, executing and evaluating performance outcomes.

Cognitive strategies include: stopping and thinking before acting, consideration of consequences for actions and the impact on others, conceptualizing alternative modes of responding, and implementation of prosocial behavior (Chavaria, 1997). Through applicable terms, the program seeks to equip the offender with options of making better decisions by revealing to the offenders thinking errors and the ramification of their behavior. Ultimately, making the offender more accountable and responsible. Accountability is in reference to the offender making amends to the victim and the community for their crimes (Bazemore and Washington, 1995). The program may also express itself cognitively by the five requirements for responsible behavior (Pranis, 1998). The requirements entail the offender understanding how the behavior affected others; acknowledgement that the behavior was a choice and now can be made differently; acknowledging to victim that harm was done and reparation is due; and make necessary changes to avoid the same behavior in the future.

Social interventions have been developed, implemented and evaluated with little success. These intervention mechanisms included community corrections, probation, parole, intensive supervision, electronic monitoring, and imprisonment (Glaser, 1969, Sechrest, White, and Brown, 1979; DiIulio, 1997; Martinson, 1974; and Petersillia and Turner, 1993). During the 1970's, studies were conducted to assess the effectiveness of correctional rehabilitation on recidivism rates (Martinson, 1974; Lipton, Martinson and

Wilkes, 1975). The studies were a continuum of efforts to rehabilitate and reform offenders.

Martinson co authored the analysis of 231 studies between 1945 and 1967. The components of the analyzed studies had both a treatment and comparison group. The published results reported that rehabilitative efforts had “no appreciable effect on recidivism” with “few and isolated exception” (Martinson, 1974, 1979; Lipton, Martinson and Wilkes, 1975). Once the information was released, different interpretations were made. The studies then lead individuals to believe the misnomer “nothing works.” Consequently, Martinson (1979) continued his research efforts by evaluating 555 studies.

After the phrase “nothing works” spread across the nation, critics began to analyze the co-authored study of Martinson. The first noted was that the 1974 studies needed to have one of the following outcomes: institutional adjustment, vocational adjustment, educational achievement, drug and alcohol readdiction, personality and attitude change, and community adjustment (Lipton, Martinson, and Wilkes, 1975; Cullen and Gendreau, 2000). Some of the studies evaluated contained no more than one outcome element. After reassessing the outcomes, it was apparent that important elements having an impact on the results had not been assessed and evaluated.

Secondly, “treatment methods” or independent variables were cross-tabulated with parole, probation, imprisonment, casework and counseling, skill development, individual psychotherapy, group methods, milieu therapy, partial physical custody, medical methods, and leisure time activities. Researchers criticized the significance of cross tabulating independent variables with categories listed above (Cullen and

Gendreau, 2000). The once reported 231 studies analyzed were now reduced to 73 outcomes after evaluating recidivism and treatment outcomes (Cullen and Gendreau, 2000).

Thirdly, “cognitive behavioral” programs were excluded from the study. Growing evidence has indicated that “cognitive behavioral” programs are most effective in reducing offender recidivism (Andrews and Bonta, 1998; Gendreau, 1996). However, the elements were absent from the study. Therefore, even less attention was focused on the “nothing works” thinking and more geared toward what has been proven to work.

Fourthly, the 1974 “What Works” studies reported various intervention strategies did have positive impact on institutional adjustment and educational achievement (Lipton, Martinson, and Wilks, 1975). In light of the assessment, researcher Gaes, Flanagan, Motiuk, and Stewart, (1999) concluded that prison work and education programs are likely to reduce post prison recidivism. Gaes, Flanagan, Motiuk, and Stewart, (1999) also concluded that treatment interventions improved inmate institutional adjustment, and once released foster a constructive employment and continued participation in education.

The reflection of “nothing works” studies brought about the observation and evaluation of “what works” studies. Ted Palmer (1975) analyzed 82 of the same studies evaluated by the Martinson study (1974). The work of Ted Palmer (1975) further proved the nothing works philosophy was incorrect by showing the number of studies had a “positive” or “partially positive effect on recidivism. Further review revealed “40 percent of the better controlled evaluations of correctional treatment services reported

positive effects” (Andrews, Zinger, Hoge, Bonta, Gendreau, and Cullen, 1990; McKenzie, 1998).

Areas of studies were set in motion to address which type of programs work for which type of offenders under what type of conditions and settings (Andrews, 1996). Palmer (1995) concluded that “positive” results tended to be “more plentiful in programs conducted in the community rather than in prison, for juveniles as opposed to adults, and for offenders at middle “risk””. It was then that the “what works” philosophy was useful only when matched with treatment modalities to offenders and can be applied to categories of offenders along with learning styles (Cullen and Gendreau, 2000; Andrews, 1996).

The amounts of prison sentence time or security type, prison sanctions have not had an effect on eliminating violence (Najin, 1998). With a shift in focus to “truth in sentencing” laws and guidelines, violent offenders are incarcerated while non-violent offenders are diverted from the system. A symposium held in Longmont, Colorado on violent offenders in 1996, reported offenders often return to society worse than when they went in prison environments and displaced violent activity to another time and place (Karuth, 1996; Clear, 1996). The growing tendency to withdraw programs coupled with incarcerating more violent offenders for potentially longer and definite sentences concerned correctional administrations. The US Department of Justice (1999) initiated a new “re-entry” initiative focused on monitoring the offender throughout the criminal justice system via re-entry courts and re-entry partnership agreements with individualized case management plans (Travis, 2001).

Various treatment modalities and outcomes have been evaluated as effective and/or in some cases ineffective, Barbara Karuth (1996) writes in her introduction to the National Institute of Correction and What Works Interdivisional Committee report two caveats. They are “no matter how effective a program, if the context of the community is ignored, relapse is inevitable,” and regardless of the outcome of interventions working or not working there is a need to build on the knowledge that is available.

The National Institute of Corrections (Andrews, 1996) has found that offenders under correctional supervision need better assessment, programs with therapeutic integrity, programs responsive to criminogenic factors, program evaluation with results made public, and a trained staff. In controlled outcome evaluations, the delivery of appropriate correctional treatment services has been effective (Andrews, 1996). While providing inconsistent principles of risk, need, and responsivity has shown it does not work (Andrews, 1996).

Dr. Donald Andrews, of Carleton University, assesses offender risk as working with those at risk of re-offending in the absence of treatment with moderate and high-risk cases. The need principle should focus on criminogenic needs such as antisocial associates, attitudes, values, beliefs and rationalizations. The responsivity principle is best described as matching the mode and style of services to the learning style and motivation of offenders by using cognitive behavior methods. Andrews (1996) further states behavioral methods work by modeling graduated practice, role- playing, reinforcement, extinction, resource provision, and concrete verbal suggestion.

Related to correctional programs and interventions there are three basic reasons treatment programs are ineffective (Quay, 1977). The first is that the correctional



programs may lack therapeutic integrity. Quay (1977) gives examples of deficiencies as weak foundations, untrained staff, and unstable counseling groups. The second, many programs may not have cognitive-behavioral elements addressing criminogenic needs (Quay, 1977; Gendreau and Ross, 1979, 1983). Thirdly, individual differences are not taken into account. Evidence presented that the effectiveness of treatment programs varies by the way individual differences are measured on the delivery of services (Gendreau and Ross, 1979, 1987). Since there is little empirical data available and/or since the empirical data available regarding correctional treatment is poorly evaluated, it is important to identify types of treatment programs that are effective.

### **Impact Panel Classes**

The concept of victim awareness impact panel classes is fairly new to the criminal justice system. More states are beginning to implement victim awareness programs to address offender needs and/or treatment plan. The principle goal behind victim/offender programs is to provide forums to promote a greater understanding on the impact of crime on victim, offenders, their families, neighborhoods and communities while holding the offender accountable and providing a positive learning experience for all participants (National Center for Victims of Crime, 1999). With the development and implementation of victim offender classes being a little over two-decade, little statistical data can be used for literature review.

### **California Youth Authority and MADD**

In 1984, the California Youth Authority began delivering impact classes to youthful offenders at the Youth Training School in Chino, California (Lord, Sobieski, Neale, 1995). The Youth Authority was awarded an Innovative Program Award in 1988

(see writer for reference). The program was developed to 1) expose youthful offenders to the harm suffered by their victims, 2) to hold offenders accountable, 3) to teach positive solutions for handling conflict and violence (Lord, Sobieski, Neale, 1995).

In 1992, Mother's Against Drunk Drivers (MADD), began its impact panels in Plymouth County Massachusetts. The California Youth Authority and MADD combined efforts in developing victim awareness impact classes (Lord, Sobieski, Neale, 1995). The National Office for Victim Center and Office for Victims of Crime supported the agencies. It was the belief that the program has a significant positive impact on the offender and the process should have victim involvement. The MADD organization prepared a grant to fund a training session.

In 1989 and 1990, studies on recidivism rates and the effects of MADD impact panels were conducted in Washington County, Oregon and Clackamas County, Oregon. The Washington County study reported panel member participant recidivism rates were 8.8 percent in contrast to non-participants at 40 to 45 percents (Lord, Sobieski, Neale, 1995). In Clackamas County, it was demonstrated that panel intervention was 3 times higher for non-participants than impact panel participants. There have not been any studies completed on the effects of impact panel/classes on institutional behavior on adult male offenders.

### **History of the Ohio Victim Awareness Program**

In developing the program, Ohio utilized elements from MADD and the California Youth Authority. The manuals used by MADD and the California Youth Authority are "The Promising Practices and Strategies for Victim Services in Corrections" and "Victim Impact Classes/Panel for Offenders" (Lord, Sobieski, Neale,

1995). Ohio was one of 37 states requesting information on the classes (Ohio DR&C, 1999). Many of the concepts established in the Ohio version of the program derive from the two agencies listed above. In 1995, the Office of the Victim Advocate within the Department of Correction in Pennsylvania also shared their expertise in further developing the Ohio program. London Correctional Institution, located in London, Ohio, was the original pilot site for the program. Ronette Burkes who facilitates the overall implementation of the program stated the program was conducted similar to a life skills-type of cognitive treatment group facilitated by case management under the unit management concept

During the summer of 1998, The Ohio Department of Rehabilitation and Correction formed an advisory board through the Community Justice Council. The Council was formed to research, improve, and finalize a training manual for the Victim Awareness Program (Ohio DR&C, 1999). The members of the council consisted of the Ohio Department of Rehabilitation and Correction, the Ohio Department of Youth Services, victim advocates, offender advocates and other members from the community.

After the manual was completed, there was a demand for more classes. Ronette Burke stated in a personal interview that the Ohio Department of Rehabilitation and Correction along with the Ohio Department of Youth Services sponsored a standardized training session in January 2000 (see writer for reference). Over 100 staff members were trained. The following agencies were represented at the training: the Department of Corrections, the Department of Youth Services, halfway houses and community-based correctional facilities. Another training session was conducted in March 2001, an additional 72 employees were trained to facilitate the program to offenders and include

the Urban Minority Alcohol/ Drug Abuse Outreach Program also stated by Ronette Burkes in a personal interview. A wide range of staff working within the agencies varied from case managers, parole and corrections officers, chaplains, teachers, mental health clinicians, and various other treatment positions facilitate the program to offenders in Ohio.

The Ohio Victim Awareness Program titles the chapter as Community Justice. However, the concepts are those of restorative justice, which is supported by the information listed in the chapter and the definition given in the pre and post test. This is further confirmed by examining how the program was developed. The program was replicated from professionals working in the field with victims and the restorative justice concept was used in developing those programs the Department of Corrections used as a model. The Director of Corrections preferred using the term Community Justice as opposed to Restorative Justice (Wilkerson, 1997).

### **Description of the Program**

The Victim Awareness Program offered in Ohio is designed for offenders to participate for 10-12 weeks. The program has 11 manuals the facilitator uses to instruct the program covering 10 crime-related topics (Ohio DR&C, 1999). The first chapter is a message to the trainers. The material in the first chapter covers steps on facilitating the program, an application for inmate participation, an explanation on levels of group awareness, a process for screening guest speakers, a do's and don'ts checklist, goals and objectives.

The following chapters cover subject matter on particular crimes and the community justice concept (See writer for reference). The offenses covered are robbery,

property crimes, hate/bias, domestic violence, child abuse, crimes against the elderly, assault, sexual abuse, and homicide. Each chapter gives literature on facts and information related to the crime. The chapters also contain activities, exercises, role-playing, impact statements, and pre and post test.

For the purposes of this paper, an examination is made of the Community Justice Chapter in the Victim Awareness Program manuals (Ohio DR&C, 1999), which is related to restorative justice elements (See writer for reference). It is important to review the Community Justice Chapter because it emphasizes the new philosophy of viewing and understanding crime that is intrinsic to restorative justice concepts.

The central focus of the program is to incorporate victims, offenders, criminal justice professionals, and the community as part of the response to crime and justice. Karen Ho, Director of the Department of Rehabilitation and Correction, Office of Victim Services stated in a personal interview that the program encourages the use of outside community guest speakers to deliver a victim impact statement or presentations to offenders. However, the Department will not allow guest speakers to make presentations at facilities housing the offender of their crimes. The program serves to broaden the offender's perspective on crimes committed. Offenders have reported they no longer "feel like a victim" (Lane, 2001) and start to hold themselves accountable. The offender at some point must look internally at themselves in search for answers. Like restorative justice concepts, the program incorporates elements of the victim, offender, justice officials, and community volunteers.

## **Chapter II**

### **Methodology**

#### **Participants**

The subjects for study were 50 male offenders assigned to the Richland Correctional Institution within the Department of Rehabilitation and Correction. The fifty subjects represented a sufficient number to test any increase in knowledge. Males were selected because they represented the largest segment of the population (Ohio DR&C Fact Sheet, 1999). The study was designed to evaluate and assess an increase in the participant's level of awareness as related to restorative justice concepts. The subjects were those who had participated in the program between January 1, 2002 and December 31, 2002.

There were no human subject concerns for this project. The data were pre-existing and had been collected as part of another project. No information that identified any subject in any way was obtained for this project (see Appendix D). The appropriate human subjects approval/notification forms was submitted to the YSU committee (see Appendix E).

It was hypothesized that subjects exposed to the program would exhibit a more accurate definition of the elements of restorative justice after exposure to the Community Justice Chapter of the Victim Awareness Program. Once the offenders were able to identify the elements of restorative justice, it would be important for offenders to understand how their involvement with crime has affected key stakeholders. By increasing offenders' knowledge, the offender may have been able to change negative behavior and decrease their poor decision making characteristics.

## **Design and Procedure**

The research project was within subjects design and used pre and post testing. During the program, a pre and post test for each section of the manual was established. The project used existing data from pre and post tests established with the program.

The pre and post test for community justice contained four questions and the manual provided answers to the questions given to the participants (see attached Appendix A, B, and C). The questions explored the basic essence of restorative justice concepts. The questions examined the definition of community justice (restorative justice), offender accountability, identification of key stakeholders and their roles in the restorative justice model, and how offenders can make amends to the victim and community.

## **Data Collection**

The data for this project were collected in accordance with the way the program was designed. At the beginning of the segment regarding restorative justice components, subjects were administered by using the Acquired Knowledge Test (AK) consisting of four questions shown in Appendix A. At the conclusion of the program segment, the subjects were again administered the AK Test, which was shown in Appendix B. The program did not use a statistical evaluation to determine the actual level of increased knowledge for each subject. However, this project did provide an in depth analysis of the Community Justice Chapter to determine if the participants acquired the knowledge as hypothesized.

Four questions from the testing procedure used during the program implementation were used. Correct answers as indicated in the program answer sheet

were used to score each item where: 2 = correct, 1= partially correct and 0 = incorrect. Any question not answered was scored 9 = missing data. The subject's score on pre and post AK test was the sum of the answers to the four questions according to the answers provided with the program booklet shown in Appendix C. For questions number one, three and four that had multiple answers, subjects who correctly responded with one or two correct answers of the possible four answers received partial credit. Those subjects answering three to four correct answers were given full credit. On question number two, offenders correctly responding with accepting responsibility for behavior and consequences received full credit. Neither participant's names nor any other identifying information was included in the data set.

### **Analysis**

A within subjects t-test was used with the Acquired Knowledge (AK) score as the dependent variable. A repeated measures t-test was conducted using Pre-Score and the Post-Scores. Scores were defined as the sum of the answers to the following questions:

1. What is meant by the term Community Justice:
2. What is offender accountability:
3. Who are the key stakeholders in Restorative Justice? What are their roles:
4. What can I do to make amends to my victim and community:

Answers to these items ranged from: 0 = incorrect; 1 = partially correct; and 2 = correct.



## Chapter III

### Results

Descriptive statistics and the results of a paired t-test are displayed in Table 4.1. As can be seen in this table there was not a significant difference between the means for Pre-Score and Post-Score ( $t_{(49)} = -.187$ ; NS. Pre-Score<sub>M</sub> = 6.04; Post-Score<sub>M</sub> = 6.26). The hypothesis was rejected.

**Table 4.1**

Variable	n	Mean	SD	PS Mean	PS SD	t	df	p<
<b>Pre-Score</b>	50	6.04	6.08	-.22	8.304	-.18	49	NS
Post- Score	50	6.26	5.48					

*Table 4.1* Descriptive statistics and the results of a repeated measures t-test for pre and post questionnaires administered to participants in the Victim Awareness Program.

\*PS Paired Sample statistics

Descriptive statistics and the results of a paired t-test are displayed in Table 4.2. As can be seen in this table there was not a significant difference between the means for Pre-Score and Post-Score for each individual variables on the pre and post questionnaires administered to participants in the Victim Awareness Program. The hypothesis was not supported to determine that the participants acquired a significant difference on any one question on the Pre-Score and Post-Score questions related to the component elements of

restorative justice. The scales were reliable as indicated by Cronbach's Alpha  $p < .05$ . The standardized Chronbach's Alpha reliability coefficient for the pre-test was found to be .74. The standardized Chronbach's Alpha reliability coefficient for the post-test was found to be .77.

**TABLE 4.2**

Pair #	Question Subject	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	PS Deviation	PS Mean	t	df	P <
Pair 1	Definition of Community Justice	50	.20	2.60	.588	.37	.545	49	NS
Pair 2	Offender Accountability	50	-.26	1.83	.319	.26	-1.006	49	NS
Pair 3	ID Key Stakeholders and their roles	50	.34	3.74	.524	.53	.642	49	NS
Pair 4	How Offenders can make amends to victims and the community	50	-.50	2.21	.115	.31	-1.603	49	NS

**TABLE 4.2** Descriptive statistics and the results of a repeated measures t-test for pre and post individual subject questions administered to participants in the Victim Awareness Program.

\*Paired Samples Test

# Pair includes pre and post test score for individual subject questions.

Descriptive statistics and results of frequency for pre test score questionnaire on offender accountability administered to participants in the Victim Awareness Program. Descriptive statistics and the results of a frequency test are displayed in Table 4.3 and 4.4. The test of frequency on the individual question on offender accountability indicated a high percentage on both the Pre test score and post test score. On the Pre test score participants answered correctly at a rate of 72% and at a rate of 86% on the post test scores. The high percentage indicates the offenders most correctly answered and are aware of their actions and behavior prior to participating in the program. However, there is not a significant difference in relationship to the hypothesis.

**Table 4.3**

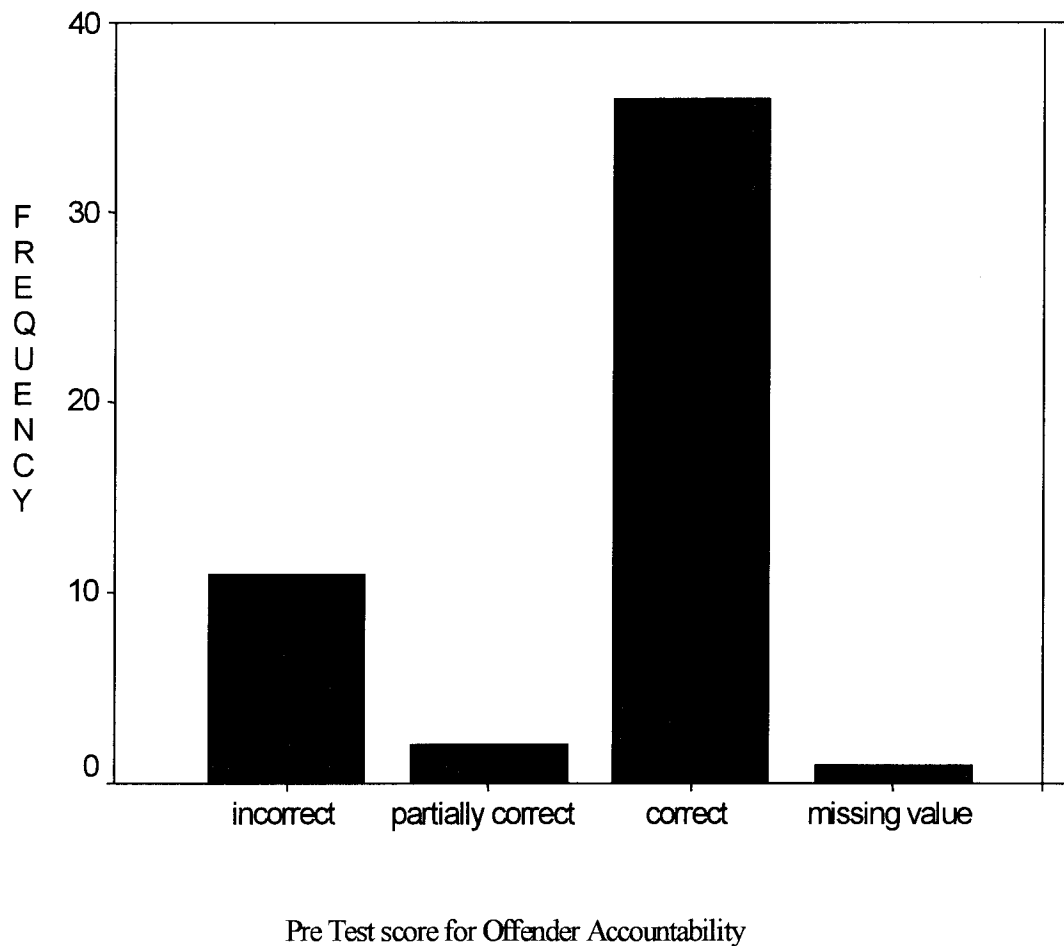
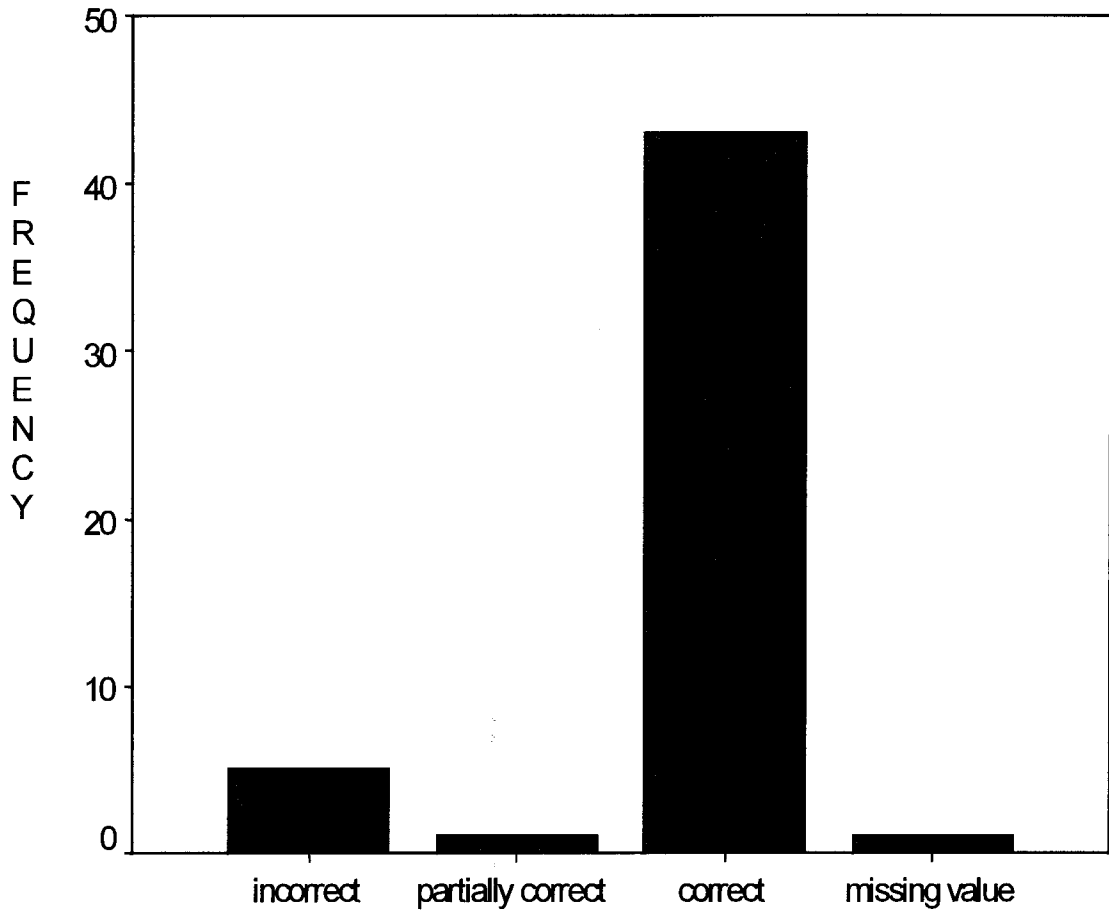


Table 4.4



Post Test score for Offender Accountability

## Chapter IV

### Summary

#### Discussion

The purpose of this study was to complete an evaluative research project to determine if subjects exposed to the Ohio Department of Rehabilitation and Correction's Victim Awareness Program would exhibit a more accurate definition of restorative justice elements. It is hypothesized that subjects exposed to the program would exhibit a more accurate definition of the elements of restorative justice. The hypothesis was to determine if exposure to the Victim Awareness program would significantly increase the awareness of restorative justice concepts after participants had completed the community justice portion of the program.

The hypothesized notion that participant's knowledge would increase on restorative justice after being introduced to the subject matter was not supported. There were no significant results recorded from the pre and post test scores. There was not a significance difference in the sum total of the pre test and post test scores. Nor was there a significant difference on any one question of the pre test and post test scored individually, which may have indicated the participants were learning at least one component of the restorative justice concepts.

Restorative Justice and Community Justice are new ways of thinking about crime (Kurki, 1999). Community Justice is conceptually complex and tends to change the structure of justice without a clear goal (Nicholl, 1999) while restorative justice encourages governments to surrender its total control. Community Justice redefines the role of the government and justice professions in a broader sense to prevent crime,

address social problems and involve the community in decision making (Nicholl, 1999). Restorative justice has promoted shared power in its resolution (Nicholl, 1999). The programs used of the term “community justice”, but the program was based on the same concepts as restorative justice concepts.

The program was developed upon restorative justice concepts, which was observed through the definition given in the training manual as well as on the answer sheet for the pre and post questions. Staff were required to use the term community justice rather than restorative justice to place the focus on the correctional agency leading and implementing the programming effort (Wilkerson, 1998). One of the fundamental problems restorative justice proponents try to negate is the control of governments in the process of a holistic approach and lends to the confusion in clearly defining the difference between community justice and restorative justice that supports the lack of setting clear goals.

The program stressed the importance of training staff. The Department focused on this goal by conducting a uniform training session for facilitators. However, the program did not screen offenders for participation in the program. There was no mechanism in place to filter criminogenic factors. Dynamic factors such as offender sentence, offense, prior record, age and race were not considered.

While staff are trained to facilitate the program, they were instructed that the use of the test instrument designed with the program was not mandatory. Therefore, there was a vast variation in the evaluation portion of the program that it was not easy to grasp what was successful and/or effective. While gathering research for the project, it was determined that facilitators implementing the program were not consistent with testing

the effectiveness of the program. There was variation between each facilitator as well as variation between correctional facilities as well as between different correctional agencies. Mrs. Anna Mackie, case manager at Noble Correctional Institution developed an entirely different test instrument instead of using the instrument designed with the program for the Community Justice Chapter. Mrs. MJ Latta, Director for the Office of Victim Services, Ohio Department of Youth Services also did not use the test instrument designed with the program. She has developed and implemented a more extensive instrument that reflects the entirety of the program.

The design of test instrument may have impacted the results. The instrument reflected a set of four questions. However, three of the four questions contained four answers per question. Partial credit was recorded for those questions containing one or two correct answers. Full credit was awarded for three to four correct answers. It is possible that more participants may have better answered the questions had they had known how many answers were needed within each question. The questionnaire may have been designed better to reflect one answer or indication of the number of answers needed to reduce the chance of error.

Restorative justice allows the offender to take responsibility and accountability while both parties work toward change and righting wrongs. Accountability referenced the offender making amends to the victim and the community for their crimes (Bazemore and Washington, 1995). In the area of offender accountability, a frequency of the Pre and Post test scores did indicate a high percentage for participants correctly answering this question. The high percentage indicates prior to the implementation of restorative justice concepts, the participants were familiar with the responsibility of their actions prior to

completing the chapter on community justice. The high percentages on offender accountability may also lend credence that the participants involved in the program were those trying to improve their basic life skills and institutional records rather than those who were not.

## **Conclusion**

Kurki stated that the restorative justice programs were not easy to define and vary in such styles and implementation that yield useful data. There was no consensus on how to measure or evaluate these types of programs (Kurki, 1999). Leena Kurki (1999) determined there is a degree of uncertainty with regard to the type, number and participation of restorative justice programs. The National Institute of Corrections (Andrews, 1996) found that offenders under correctional supervision need better assessment, programs with therapeutic integrity, programs responsive to criminogenic factors, program evaluation with results made public, and a trained staff.

In controlled outcome evaluations, the delivery of appropriate correctional treatment services had been effective (Andrews, 1996). While providing inconsistent principles of risk, need, and responsivity does not work (Andrews, 1996). Areas of studies were set in motion to address which type of programs work for which type of offenders under what type of conditions and settings (Andrews, 1996). Palmer (1975) concluded, that “positive” results tended to be “more plentiful in programs conducted in the community rather than in prison, for juveniles as opposed to adults, and for offenders at middle “risk””. It was then that the “what works” philosophy was useful only when matched treatment modalities to offenders and can be applied to categories of offenders along with learning styles (Cullen and Gendreau, 2000; Andrews, 1996). The most



effective treatment must have programs matched to the offender's needs, careful implementation, evaluation, and continuum of care (Torny and Petersilla, 1999; Andrews, Zinger, Hoge, Bonta, Gendreau, and Cullen 1990; Gaes, Flanagan, Motiuk, and Stewart, 1999).

Restorative justice programs are still being explored and have not found a solid foundation into the realm of correctional management especially with the introduction of community justice that has further muddied the waters for correctional administrators to grasp. New correctional programs have been introduced into facilities that have little evidence of successfulness of the program and these programs are often influenced by an attitude of guessing rather than by statistical evidence (MacKenzie, 1996).

This evaluation of the Victim Awareness Program has not demonstrated having a significant increase of restorative justice concepts on participant's Acquired knowledge. Since the evaluation did not indicate an increase in participant knowledge, it further supports past theorist findings of the inconsistency on restorative justice concepts as well as correctional programs being developed without the foundation of principles already proven to work and the inability to properly assess correctional program effectiveness.

The Victim Awareness Program (VAP) is popular because of the staff's belief in the integrity of the program and commitment to advance restorative justice concepts and victim involvement. The Victim awareness program incorporated several of the essential elements described by Andrew (1996), and Kurki (1999), which include a trained staff, use of program manuals, staff enthusiasm and the use of at least one form of encounter program (Andrews 1996; Kurki 1999). The program also enhanced restorative justice concept by involving the victim, offender, community, and justice professionals.

Even though the program encouraged staff training and had formal printed manuals, the program excluded other essential key factors that affect cognitive behavior and effective programming. The program did not address criminogenic factors, offender risks, needs and responsivity, follow up and consistency with the implementation process and a continuum of care. The program also did not have an internal means of effectively evaluating the program. Due to departmental policies and procedures, it was also difficult for researchers outside of the department to effectively assess the program that may assist victim professionals.

Like other evaluation studies on correctional program effectiveness, this study on the Victim Awareness Program has not proven any differently. Correctional agencies are still in need of developing and implementing programs that are effective or at least can be evaluated for its effectiveness. Correctional administrators must place more emphasis on the development and implementation of programs with viable means of testing effectiveness based upon principles proven to work. At that time, then researchers can have more substance to work with to assess effective programming, improved institutional adjustment and in the long term plan of recidivism.

Still there continues to be a dilemma with the availability of empirical data regarding effective correctional treatment program evaluation. With correctional professionals unable to support the notion of effective correctional programming while offenders are incarcerated, the theory of a shift from rehabilitation back to punishment and deterrence (Cullen, 1982; MacKenzie, 1996) was supported. Little research over time has proven correctional programming is effective while offenders are incarcerated and does not suggest that the offenders receive any kind of change to effect cognitive

behavior while incarcerated, but that the offender is not committing more crimes because they are removed from society.

## **Recommendations**

Based upon the result of the study there are five recommendations. The first is related to program development and design. Program integrity may be enhanced by establishing clearer program goals and by establishing a solid foundation of defined terms. This can be achieved by properly defining the distinctions between community justice and restorative justice concepts. Also the correctional administrators may want to customize those elements borrowed from the California Youth Authority and MADD even more to adapt the program to correctional facilities.

Secondly, the program needs a mechanism in place to monitor and to control the progress of the program from the time of developing the program, training staff, the implementation process and continuum of care for possible flaws that would effect the delivery and outcome of the program to offenders. The program at the time of review did not have these mechanisms in place. Any one of these factors could affect the delivery of the program and not offer support that the program is effective.

Third, there is a need to redesign the test instrument. The devices the programs have established to test and evaluate the effectiveness of the program are not useful to properly evaluate the program. The evaluation project only reviewed one chapter of the program. However, the instrument developed for the chapter is not useful in determining the participant's knowledge on key principles of the program.

Fourthly, practitioners should consider proven facts prior to developing and implementing programs for things that already known to work or not to work. Research

has been completed on “what works”. The program should have those principles to allow for proper assessment. The program should screen the participants by criminogenic factors and address offender needs, risk, and responsivity to determine if the program works for certain groups rather than others. Then the addition of restorative justice concepts and impact panels would achieve the advancement of victim and community involvement, offender rehabilitation and effective correctional management.

Fifth, it would most benefit offenders if those correctional administrators encouraged the facilitation of the program for those that would best benefit from the program instead of the number of institutions offering the program and the number of participants that complete the program. After reviewing the information submitted by the department, it appears the focus has been to offer the program to as many offenders as possible. It has also been a goal of the department to implement the program in every facility. If the program does not work for certain groups then another type of program would benefit the needs of the offender.

Finally, Bodenhausen (1993) states that emotions influence social judgements in a systematic way of processing messages that result in strong attitude formation and/or changes. The impact panels often evoke sadness and a sense of empathy and/or sympathy. Practitioners in the field believe that the program is useful and offenders have reported that they were impacted and did in fact learn something from the program. Possibly, it is the use of impact panels and/or offender accountability that is of benefit. Further investigation on those areas may determine positive outcomes for correction administrators in their struggle to produce effective correctional treatment programs.

## References

- Allen, Bud and Diana Bosta (1981). *Games Criminals Play: How You can Profit by Knowing Them*. Sacramento: Rae John Publishers.
- Altman, Robert N. and Robert E. Murray (2000). "Home Confinement: A'90s Approach to Community Supervision." In *Correctional Counseling and Treatment*. Prospect Heights, IL: Waveland Press.
- Andrews, Donald (1996) "The News: Overview of Treatment Effectiveness" In A National Symposium on Violent Offenders: Summary and Resources. For the National Institute of Corrections. Washington D. C: US Department Of Justice, Federal Bureau of Prisons
- Andrews, D. A., Ivan Zinger, Robert D. Hoge, James Bonta, Paul Gendreau, and Francis T. Cullen (1990). "Does Correctional Treatment Work? A Clinically-Relevant and Psychologically Informed Meta-analysis." *Criminology*, 28 (August) pp. 369-404.
- Andrews, D. A. and James Bonta (1998). *The Psychology of Criminal Conduct*, 2<sup>nd</sup> edition. Cincinnati: Anderson Publishing.
- Barnett, Randy E. and John Hagel. (1977). *Assessing the Criminal: Restitution, Retribution, and the Legal Process*. Cambridge, MA: Balinger Publishing Company
- Bazemore, C. and Umbreit, M. (1994). "The Balanced and Restorative Project." (A concept paper). Washington, DC: U. S. Department of Justice, Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, NCJ no. 149727.

Bazemore, G. and C. Washington (1995). Charting the future of the Juvenile Justice System: Reinventing Mission and Management. *Spectrum: The Journal of State Government*, 68 (2) pp. 51-66.

Bazemore, Gordon and Mara Schiff, 2001. Dangers and opportunities of Restorative Community Justice: A Response to Critics. [Online]. Retrieved May 15, 2002 Available: <http://www.restorativejustice.org/rj3/reviews/Bazemore&Schiff/dangers&opportunities.htm>.

Beccaria, Cesare (1764). *On Crimes and Punishments*. Trans. Henry Paolucci. Indianapolis, IN; Bobbs-Merrill. (Reprinted 1963.)

Bentham, Jeffery (1789). *An Introduction to the Principles of Morals and Legislation*. New York; Kegan Paul. (Reprinted 1948.)

Bodenhausen, Galen V. (1993). "Emotion, Arousal, and Stereotypic Judgments: A Heuristic Model of Affection and Stereotyping." In D. M. Mackie and D. L. Hamilton. *Affect, Cognition, and Stereotyping: Interactive Process in Group Perception*. San Diego, CA; Academic Press.

Bureau of Justice Statistics Criminal Offender Statistics (2000). *Lifetime Likelihood of Going to State or Federal Prison*. Retrieved June 11, 2001 at <http://www.ojp.usdoj.gov/bjs/crimoff.htm>. Washington, DC: U. S. Department of Justice, Bureau of Justice Statistics.

- Bureau of Labor Statistics: Bureau of Labor Statistics. (2001). National Census of Fatal Occupational Injuries in 2000. Washington, D. C.: Bureau of Statistics, U. S. Department of Labor.
- Carey, M. (1996). "Restorative Justice in Community Corrections." *Corrections Today* (August).
- Casarjian, Robin (1995). *House of Healing: A Prisoner's Guide to Inner Power and Freedom*. Canada: Transcontinental Printing.
- Castellano, Mary Anne (1998). "Victim-Witness Panel." Denver, CO: U. S. Attorney's Office.
- Chavaria, Fredrick R. (1997) "Probation and Cognitive Skills." *Federal Probation* (June).
- Children's Bureau: Children's Bureau. (2001). Child Maltreatment 1999. Reports from the States to the National Child Abuse and Neglect Center. Washington, DC: U. S. Department of Health and Human Services, Children's Bureau.
- Clear, Todd R. (1996) "The Unintended Consequences of Incarceration." Prepared for the National Institute of Justice Workshop on Corrections Research (February). Washington DC: US Department of Justice National Institute of Justice.
- Corrections Yearbook (1986). Washington D. C.: US Department of Justice, Office of Justice Program, Bureau of Justice Statistics pp. 40-42.
- Cullen, Francis T. and Paul Gendreau (2000). "Assessing Correctional Rehabilitation: Policy, Practice, and Prospects." In J. Horney (ED.),

NIJ Criminal Justice 2000: *Changes in Decision Making and Discretion in the Criminal Justice System*. Washington DC: U. S.

Department of Justice, National Institute of Justice 2000, NCJ no. 185530 and NCJ no. 182410.

Cullen, Francis T. and Paul T. Gendreau (1989). "The Effectiveness of Correctional Treatment: Reconsidering the 'Nothing Works' Debate," in *The American Prison: Issues in Research and Policy*, ed. Lynne Goodstein and Doris L. MacKenzie Wright. New York: Plenum.

Cullen, Francis T. and Karen E. Gilbert (1983). *Reaffirming Rehabilitation*. Cincinnati: Anderson Publishing.

Darwin, Charles (1859). *The Origin of Species*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press. (Reprinted 1964.)

Dickey, Walter J. (1996) "Managing Change in Correctional Institutions." Washington DC: US Department of Justice, National Institute of Justice, NCJ no. 163786.

DiIulio, John (1997). "Reinventing Parole and Probation." *Brookings Review* 15 (2) pp. 40-42.

Empey, Lamar T. (1978). *American Delinquency: Its Meaning and Construction*. Homewood, IL: Dorsey.

Federal Bureau of Investigation (2000). *Crime in the United States, Uniform Crime Reports, 1999*. Washington, DC: U. S. Department of Justice, Federal Bureau of Investigation, (October).



Federal Bureau of Investigation: Federal Bureau of Investigation (2001).

*Crime in the United States 2000*. Washington, DC: U. S. Department of Justice,  
Federal Bureau of Investigation.

Flynn, Errol. (2000). "Victims Services Aid Prosecutors." *The Crime Victims Report: The Criminal Justice Professional and Providers of Support*.  
(May/June vol. 4, no. 2).

Freeman, Robert M. (1999). *Correctional Organization: Public Policy, Challenges, Behavior, and Structure*. Laurel, MD: American  
Correctional Association.

Gaes, Gerald G., Timothy J. Flanagan, Larry Motiuk, and Lynn Stewart.(1999).  
"Adult Correctional Treatment." In *Prisons*, edited by Michael Tonry  
and Joan Petersilia. Volume 26 of *Crime and Justice--A Review of  
Research*, edited by Michael Tonry. Chicago: University of Chicago  
Press, pp. 85-150.

Gendreau, Paul (1996). "The Principles of Effective Intervention with  
Offenders," in *Choosing Correctional Interventions that Work:  
Defining the Demand and Evaluating the Supply*, ed. Alan T.  
Harland. Newbury Park Ca: Sage Publishing, pp. 117-130.

Gendreau, Paul, Tracy Little, and Claire Goggin (1996). "A Meta-Analysis of the  
Predictors of Adult Recidivism: What Works!" *Criminology* 34  
(November), pp. 575-607.

Gendreau, Paul and Robert R. Ross (1987) "Revivification of Rehabilitation:  
Evidence from the 1980's." *Justice Quarterly*, 4 (September), pp. 349-407.

- Gendreau, Paul and Robert R. Ross (1983-1984). "Correctional Treatment: Some Recommendations for Effective Intervention." *Juvenile and Family Court Journal* 34 (Winter), pp. 31-39.
- Gendreau, Paul and Robert R. Ross (1979). "Effective Correctional Treatment: Bibliography for Cynics." *Crime and Delinquency*, 25 (October), pp. 463-489.
- Glaser, Daniel (1969). *The Effectiveness of a Prison and Parole System*. Indianapolis, IN Bobbs-Merrill.
- Hayes, Lindsay M. (1995). "Prison Suicide: An Overview and Guide to Prevention." Washington DC: U. S Department of Justice, National Institute of Justice, NCJ no. 162095.
- Irwin, John and James Austin (1994). *It's about Time: Americas Imprisonment Binge*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Jacobson, Michael P. (2000). "Managing Correctional Change in Community Corrections." New York City Department of Corrections and New York City Department of Probation.
- Jeffery, C. Ray (1989). *Criminology: An interdisciplinary Approach*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Karuth, Barbara (1996) "A National Sunposium on Violent Offenders: Summary and Resources." For the National Institute of Corrections, Washington DC.
- Kratcoski, Peter (2000). *Correctional Counseling and Treatment*. Prospect Heights, Illinois: Waveland Press.

- Kurki, Leena. (1999). Incorporating Restorative Justice into American Sentencing and Corrections. In *Sentencing & Corrections: Issues for the 21<sup>st</sup> Century*. Washington D. C: U. S. Department of Justice, NCJ no. 175723.
- Lane, Tahree. *Toledo Blade*. January 2001.
- Larsen, Earnie and Carol Larsen Hegarty (1992). *From Anger to Forgiveness: A Practical Guide to Breaking the Negative Power of Anger and Achieving Reconciliation*. Canada: First Ballentine Books.
- Liebling, Alison (1999). " Prison Suicide and Prisoner Coping." In *Prisons*, edited by Michael Torny and Joan Petersilla. Volume 26 of *Crime and Justice: A Review of Research* edited by Michael Tonry. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Lipton, Douglas, Robert Martinson, and Judith Wilks (1975). *The Effectiveness of Correctional Treatment: A Survey of Treatment Evaluations Studies*. New York: Praeger Publishing.
- Lord, Janice Harris, Regina Sobieski and Christie Neale (1995). "Victim Impact Classes/Panel for Offenders Training Seminar." A Comprehensive Program Announcement Federal grant application, NCJ no. 177605.
- MacKenzie, Doris Layton (1996). "Measuring Sentencing Outcomes through Experiments." A concept paper for the National Institute of Justice Washington DC: US Department of Justice, NCJ no. 163789.
- Mac Kenzie, Doris Layton (1998). "Criminal Justice and Crime Prevention," in *Preventing Crime: What Works, What Doesn't What's Promising*,

ed. Lawrence W. Sherman, Denise Gottsfredson, Doris MacKenzie, John Eck, Peter Reuter, and Shawn Bushway. A Report to the United States Congress, Prepared for the National Institute of Justice, Washington DC US Department of Justice, NCJ no. 171676.

Martinson, Robert (1974). "What Works? Questions and Answers about Prison Reform." *The Public Interest*, 35 (Spring), pp. 22-54.

Martinson, Robert (1979). "New Findings, New Views: A Note of Caution Regarding Sentencing Reform." *Hofstra Law Review* 7 (Winter), pp. 243-258.

Matza, David (1969). *Becoming Deviant*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Meachum, Larry (1998). "State Efforts to Reduce Substance Abuse among Offenders." Prepared by Office of Justice Programs, Corrections Program Office.

Merton, Robert K. (1957). *Social Theory and Social Structure*, rev. ed. New York: The Free Press.

Montgomery, Betty D. (2000). *Picking Up the Pieces: Your Rights & Responsibility as a Crime Victim*.

Najin, Daniel (1998). Criminal Deterrence Research at the Outset of the Twenty-First Century." In *Crime and Justice*. A review of Research, vol. 23. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

National Center for Victims of Crime (1999). "Promising, Practices, and Strategies for Victim Services in Correction". Washington, D. C.: US Department of Justice, Office for Victims of Crime, Office of Justice Programs, NCJ16605.

National Institute of Corrections (1998). "Involvement of Victims of Crime in Correctional Process." Washington, D. C.: US Department of Justice, Federal Bureau of Prisons.

National Highway Traffic Safety Administration: National Traffic Safety Administration (2001). *Alcohol Involvement in Fatal Accidents*. Washington, DC.: U. S. Department of Transportation, National Highway Traffic Safety Administration.

National Institute of Justice (1996). *The extent and Cost of Crime and Victimization: A New Look*. Washington, D. C.: US Department of Justice, Bureau of Justice Statistics.

National Institute of Justice (1998). Washington, D. C.: US Department of Justice, Bureau of Justice Statistics.

National Institute of Justice (2001) Press Release. Retrieved June 20, 2001 available <http://www.ojp.usdoj.gov/nij/about.htm>. Washington, DC.: US Department of Justice, Office of Justice Programs.

National Institute of Justice (1982). *Prisoners in State and Federal Institutions on December 31, 1980*. National Prisoner Statistics Bulletin. Washington, DC: U. S. Department of Justice, Bureau of Justice Statistics March: 2, 7 NCJ 80520.

Nicholl, Caroline G. (1999). *Community Policing, Community Justice, and Restorative Justice: Exploring the Links for the Delivery of a Balanced Approach to Public Safety*. Washington DC: US

Department of Justice, Office of Community Oriented Policing Services.

Office for Victims of Crime (1997). "New Directions from the Field: Victim's Rights and Services for the 21<sup>st</sup> Century." Office of Justice Programs. Washington DC: US Department of Justice, NCJ186488.

Office for Victims of Crime (2000). *National Victim Center and Crime Victims Research and Treatment Center, 1992*. Retrieved August 12, 2001 available at [www.ojp.usdoj.gov/ovc/assist/nvaa2000/academy/cospon.html](http://www.ojp.usdoj.gov/ovc/assist/nvaa2000/academy/cospon.html). Washington, DC: US Department of Justice, Office of Justice Programs.

Ohio Department of Rehabilitation and Correction (1999). *Fact Sheets*. Retrieved February 22, 2001 available at <http://www.drc.state.oh.us/web/profile.html>

Ohio Department of Rehabilitation and Correction (1999). *Victim Awareness Program Manuals*. Columbus: Ohio Penal Industries

Palmer, Ted (1995). "Programmatic and Nonprogrammatic Aspects of Successful Intervention: New Directions for Research." *Crime and Delinquency*, 41 (January), pp. 100-131.

Palmer, Ted (1975). "Martinson Revisited." *Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency*, 12 (July), pp. 133-152.

Pranis, K. (1998). *Guide for Implementation the Balanced and Restorative Justice Model*. Washington, DC: US Department of Justice, Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, NCJ no. 167887.

Petersilla, Joan and Susan Turner (1993). "Intensive Probation and Parole."

*Crime and Juvenile Justice: A Review of Research*. Chicago:

University of Chicago Press, pp. 281-335.

Quay, Herbert C. (1977). "The Three Faces of Evaluation: What Can be

Expected to Work." *Criminal Justice and Behavior*, 4 (December), pp. 341-354.

Rennison, Callie. (June 2001). Criminal Victimization 2000 Changes 1999-2000 with

Trends 1993-2000. Washington, DC: U. S. Department of Justice, Bureau of

Justice Statistics, NCJ no. 194610.

Rollo, Ned and Louis W. Adams (1993). *A Map through the Maze: A Guide*

*to Surviving the Criminal Justice System*. Dallas, Texas: Offender

Preparation and Education Network, Inc.

Sechrest, Lee, Susan White and Elizabeth Brown (1979). *The Rehabilitation*

*of Criminal Offenders: Problems and Prospects*. Washington, D.C:

National Academy of Sciences.

Small, M. Y. (1990). *Cognitive Development*. Orlando, FL: Harcourt Brace.

Smith Harold E. (1990) *Nowhere to Hide: Coping with Stress in Prisons*.

Marcy New York: Central New York Psychiatric Center.

Sutherland, Edwin H. (1939). *Principles of Criminology*, 3d ed. Philadelphia,

PA: Lippincott.

Tannenbaum, Frank (1938). *Crime and the Community*. Boston: Ginn.

Tonry, Michael and Joan Petersillia (1999). "American Prisons at the

Beginning of the 21<sup>st</sup> Century." In *Prisons Crime and Justice*.

Washington, DC: US Department of Justice, Office of Justice Programs, National Institute of Justice, NCJ no. 179473.

Travis, Jeremy (2001). "But They All Come Back: Rethinking Prisoner Reentry." *Sentencing and Corrections: Issues for the 21<sup>st</sup> Century*.

Washington DC: US Department of Justice, National Institute of Justice, NCJ no. 189674.

Umbreit, Mark S. and Robert B. Coates (1999). *Multicultural Implications of Restorative Justice: Potential Pitfalls and Dangers*. Washington DC: U. S. Department of Justice, For the Office of Victims of Crime, NCJ no. 181603.

Umbreit, Mark S. (2000). *Guidelines for Victim-Sensitive Victim-Offender Mediation: Restorative Justice Through Dialogue*. Washington D. C: U. S. Department of Justice, Office of Justice Programs. Center for Restorative Justice Peacemaking.

U. S. Department of Justice Reentry Court Initiative: Fact Sheet (2001).

Retrieved June 14, 2001 available <http://www.usdoj.gov>. Washington DC: US Department of Justice

Van Ness, Daniel V. and Karen Heetderks Strong (1997). *Restoring Justice*. Cincinnati: Anderson Publishing Company.

Wilkerson, Reginald A. (1992). "Total Quality Management in Corrections."

*Association of State Correctional Administrators* retrieved July 11, 2001 available at <http://www.drc.state.oh.us/web/articles/article22.html>. Ohio Department of Rehabilitation and Correction.



Wilkerson, Reginald A. (1997). "Community Justice in Ohio: Department Implements Variety of Programs to 'Restore' the Community." *Corrections Today* (Dec). Retrieved July 11, 2001 available at <http://www.drc.state.oh.us/web/articles/article29.html>. Ohio Department of Rehabilitation and Correction.

Wilkerson, Reginald A. (1998). "The Emergence of Restorative or Community Justice in United States." *Frontiers of Justice: Volume 2: Coddling or Common Sense?*). Retrieved July 11, 2001 available at <http://www.drc.state.oh.us/web/articles/article34.html>. Ohio Department of Rehabilitation and Correction.

Wilkerson, Reginald A. (2000). "The Impact of Community Service Work on Ohio State Prison Perspective and Overview." *Corrections Management Quarterly*. Retrieved July 11, 2001 available at <http://www.drc.state.oh.us/web/articles/article63.html>. Ohio Department of Rehabilitation and Correction.

Yochelson, S. and S. Samenow (1976). *The Criminal Personality* (Vol 1.)  
New York: Jason Aronson.

**APPENDIX A**  
**Pre Test Questionnaire**

Victim Awareness Program  
Community Justice Pre-Test

Name \_\_\_\_\_

What is meant by the term “**Community Justice?**”

What is “**offender accountability?**”

Who are “**the key stakeholders** in Restorative Justice? **What are their roles?**”

What can I do **to make amends to my victim and community?**

**APPENDIX B**  
**Post Test Questionnaire**

Victim Awareness Program  
Community Justice Post-Test

Name \_\_\_\_\_

What is meant by the term “**Community Justice?**”

What is “**offender accountability?**”

Who are “ the **key stakeholders** in Restorative Justice? **What are their roles?**

What can I do to **make amends to my victim and community?**

**APPENDIX C**  
**Answer Sheet**

Victim Awareness Program  
Community Justice  
Pre/Post-Test (Answer Sheet)

What is meant by the term “**Community Justice?**”

*Community justice is a way of viewing, understanding and responding to crime and the effect it has on victims, communities and offenders.*

*Community Justice views crime as a violation of people and personal relationships.*

*Community Justice holds offenders directly accountable.*

*Community Justice creates community partnerships and offers a balanced approach to justice by balancing the interests and needs of victims, communities and offenders.*

What is “**offender accountability?**”

*Offender accountability is when an offender accepts responsibility for his behavior and accepts the consequences. Offenders can write apology letters to their victim; complete community service and pay restitution as a sign of accountability.*

Who are “**the key stakeholders** in Restorative Justice? **What are their roles?**”

*Victims: Those affected by criminal behavior*

*Communities: This can include schools, churches, neighborhoods, or groups.*

*Offenders: Those responsible for committing a crime.*

*Justice Professionals: Justice professionals such as probation and parole officers; judges, prosecutors, corrections officers, superintendents/wardens, parole board members, victim advocates, etc.*

What can I do **to make amends to my victim and community?**

*Apology; community service; restitution; and victim offender dialogue.*

**APPENDIX D**  
**Agency Approval**





# Ohio Department of Rehabilitation and Correction

RICHLAND CORRECTIONAL INSTITUTION  
1001 Olivesburg Rd  
Mansfield, Ohio 44905

Bob Taft, Governor

Reginald A. Wilkinson, Director

July 29, 2002

Sherry Carroll  
1911 Crack Willow Court  
Upper Marlboro, MD 20774

Dear Ms. Carroll:

This letter is in response to your request for documentation for the Significance of the Victim Awareness Program on Restorative Justice thesis project. I approve for the release of information for pre and post test for the Community Justice Chapter of the Victim Awareness Program. In accordance with Human Subjects concerns, the documents will not contain any identifying information.

Sincerely,

Norman R. Rose, Warden  
Richland Correctional Institution

CC: File



Ohio Quality Corrections ...  
... Quality Services through Partnership

QS  
tP

**Appendix E**  
**Human Subjects**



Youngstown State University / One University Plaza / Youngstown, Ohio 44555-0000

June 11, 2002

Dean of Graduate Studies

(330) 742-3000

FAX (330) 742-1500

E-Mail: [graduateschool@cc.ysu.edu](mailto:graduateschool@cc.ysu.edu)

Dr. Joseph Waldron, Professor  
Ms. Sherry Carroll, Graduate Student  
Department of Criminal Justice  
UNIVERSITY

RE: Human Subjects Research Protocol #63-02

Dear Dr. Waldron and Ms. Carroll:

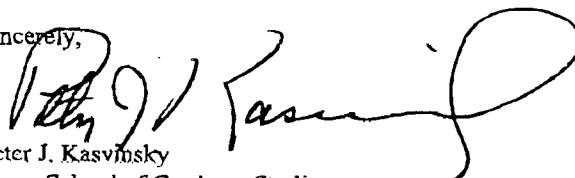
The Human Subjects Research Committee of Youngstown State University has reviewed your Protocol titled "The Significance of the Ohio Victim Awareness Program on Restorative Justice," (HSRC#63-02), and, since the Investigators will be using secondary data and will remain completely anonymous, has approved it with the following conditions:

- (1) The Investigators should provide the Committee with a Memorandum from an administrator of each institution from which she intends to collect data stating their approval for the project to be conducted in their institution.
- (2) The Investigators both must sign the Assurances agreement in the protocol.
- (3) The survey pages provided with the protocol included space for the name of the participant. The Investigators must ensure that the institutions involved will remove identifiable information from any and all data to be included in the project.

Please submit the aforementioned materials, where applicable, to Cheryl Coy, Secretary, Office of Grants and Sponsored Programs, 357 Tod Hall, before initiating your project.

Any changes in your research activity should be promptly reported to the Human Subjects Research Committee and may not be initiated without HSRC approval except where necessary to eliminate hazard to human subjects. Any unanticipated problems involving risks to subjects should also be promptly reported to the Human Subjects Research Committee. Best wishes in the conduct of your study.

Sincerely,



Peter J. Kasvinsky  
Dean, School of Graduate Studies  
Research Compliance Officer

cc: Dr. Tammy King, Chair  
Department of Criminal Justice