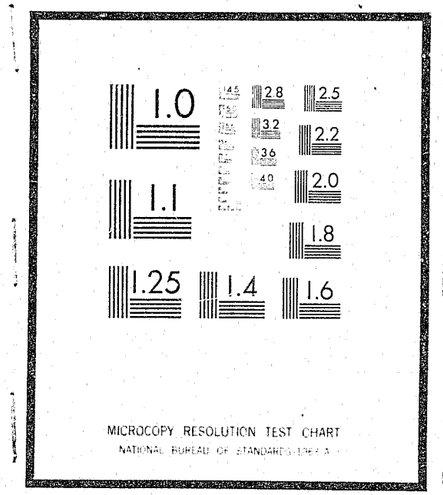




# DEVELOPMENT OF A MODEL OFFENDER CLASSIFICATION SYSTEM

## EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

IITRI

Advanced concepts are being used by IIT Research Institute to solve research, development, and design problems for industry and government through contract research. Our services encompass virtually all of the physical and biological sciences. Principal areas are: chemistry, computer sciences, electronics, engineering mechanics, life sciences, mechanics of materials, medical engineering, metals, and management and social science research.

The interdisciplinary approach at IITRI brings the latest technology to bear upon the problem-solving process.

*Principal office:*
10 West 35th Street
Chicago, Illinois 60616

# DEVELOPMENT OF A MODEL OFFENDER CLASSIFICATION SYSTEM

## EXECUTIVE SUMMARY



Prepared by:

IIT RESEARCH INSTITUTE
Criminal Justice Science
and Technology Center
10 West 35th Street
Chicago, Illinois 60616

Prepared for:

U. S. DEPARTMENT OF JUSTICE
Law Enforcement Assistance Administration
National Institute of Law Enforcement
and Criminal Justice
Washington, D.C.

# EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

# DEVELOPMENT OF A MODEL OFFENDER CLASSIFICATION SYSTEM


## PROJECT STAFF

Jack P. Kornfeld. Director
Thomas G. Eynon, Senior Scientist
William A. Hetzner, Associate Scientist
Marion E. Pfeiffer-Kornfeld, Consultant
William Bates, Consultant
Terry Baumer , Consultant
George S. Speer, Consultant



This project was supported by Contract No. J-LEAA-023-74, awarded by the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, U. S. Department of Justice, under the Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1968, as amended. Points of view or opinions stated in this document are those of the author(s) and do not necessarily represent the official position or policies of the U. S. Department of Justice.



MARCH, 1975
IIT RESEARCH INSTITUTE
Criminal Justice Science & Technology Center

TABLE OF CONTENTS

## I. PROJECT OBJECTIVES AND TASKS

The purpose of this project was to develop an improved classification system capable of screening offenders for placement in treatment programs. Beginning on March 1, 1974 and ending on February 28, 1975, the project had three main tasks:

1. The identification of classification systems and treatment programs presently in use and the analysis of related quantitative studies of the application of these systems. A "State of the Art" monograph and bibliography resulted.

2. The documentation in detail of classification tests and test parameters useful in testing offenders. The test characteristics, predictive powers and significance of the referenced sample studies were subsequently used in the design of an offender classification model.

3. The development and design of an improved classification system which is interdisciplinary and which relates offender characteristics to specific crime categories in order to improve the ability to predict relative success through the criminal justice system continuum from arrest through parole.

## II. PROJECT METHODS

The project began by developing a bibliography of books, articles and research reports, published and unpublished, relating to offender classification, criminal typologies and treatment programs in the United States. The resulting 5,000 item listing was reviewed, abstracts read and, if found relevant, original documents were obtained. Ultimately 600 documents were selected for key wording by project staff. Document titles and key words were listed and permuted indexes were generated by a special computer program.

Project staff compiled a list of all standard psychometric tests known to be used by criminal justice practitioners to assess offenders. The computerized bibliography was searched for research findings regarding the psychological test results with offenders. These results were tabulated and used in the construction of the classification model.

## III. KEY PROJECT FINDINGS

1. There are very few studies of offenders designed and executed with sufficient skill to be confident about their findings.

2. Available research findings that are valid and reliable require re-analysis before their data can be used in a realistic offender classification model.

3. Presently, in the United States there is no offender classification system that is based on sufficiently solid scientific grounds so that it could reasonably be adopted; there is

not enough solidly grounded research to make what is available fit the criminal justice system continuum from arrest through parole.

4. There is an urgent need for longitudinal data on offender treatment and outcomes as offenders traverse the criminal justice system continuum from arrest through parole in order to provide decision-makers with predictive data on offender outcome at each decision node in the system. A data base of expanded social and criminal histories together with select psychological, personality, and achievement tests has been identified to serve as the basis for this much needed longitudinal study. Without such a study, there can be little improvement in the decision processes of the criminal justice system to optimize treatment of offenders in order to reduce the social risks of recidivist criminality to an acceptable level.

## IV. RELATIONSHIP TO OTHER RESEARCH IN THE FIELD

The three documents summarizing the project findings and results make a significant contribution to the criminal justice field because they pull together and synthesize most of the current literature on offender classification, testing, and treatment. The findings delineate the areas of knowledge and pinpoint the most glaring deficiencies in this field. The reports make specific recommendations for further necessary research including a preliminary feasibility study of needed major longitudinal research.

## V. DOCUMENT SUMMARIES

The following pages present the summaries of the three monographs which represent the product of LEAA Project No. J-LEAA-023-74, "Development of a Model Offender Classification System."

A. The State-of-the-Art of Offender Classification in the U.S.A.

B. Documentation of Tests Used In Offender Classification

C. Development of a Model Offender Classification System

## A. THE STATE-OF-THE-ART OF OFFENDER CLASSIFICATION IN THE U.S.A.

### I. Chapter I

Although offender classification dates back to antiquity, it emerged during the Golden Age of Penology (1870-1910 in the United States) as a correctional technique. Prisoners were assigned to "progressive stages" of treatment based upon their degree of compliance. Early classification meant treatment; later it became clinical diagnosis; and only much later (1930's) classification evolved as a way of "solving offenders' problems and planning correctional programs." The discovery of offender pathology and the medical model of treatment generated a clinical/correctional bureaucracy of experts "finding and meeting needs." The introduction of casework methods supported the myth of individualized treatment. Case evaluation of inmates elaborated into Reception and Diagnostic Centers, correctional jargon, and rehabilitation programs before theory, research, or behavior technology developed beyond the primitive state of "super maximum segregation of bad actors." Heavy emphasis has been placed upon community based programs such as probation, work release, and furloughs as "treatment modalities." Unfortunately, our classification and rehabilitation technologies have not kept pace with the demands placed upon them. Recent disillusionment with the medical model which focuses on offender life factors and relies upon "prescriptive program delivery systems," has led to

virtual abandonment of rehabilitation rhetoric. The emerging trend seems to be "systems analysis", with offender classification being employed throughout the criminal justice continuum from screening and diversion programs to parole adjustment.

II. Chapter II

Classification, recognized or not, occurs at each point in the administration of justice. Police sort offenders into types as a way of simplifying police work and they hold different attitudes regarding each offender type. Race, age, sex, and social status have differential risk for arrest affecting "hidden classification" at the entry point of the criminal justice system. Police and prosecutors exercise considerable discretion as they screen offenders out of the system, their classification criteria remain informal and nonlegal, assisting management rather than justice. Evaluation of the PROMIS project in the District of Columbia may illuminate classification for prosecution. Data from the Manhattan Court Employment Project and Project Crossroads will assist development of classification for court related diversion. Much work remains to be done in classifying offenders for probation. We have not moved very far from the standard presentence investigation and it is unclear how offenders are selected for sentencing alternatives. Caseload management is still an intuitive art. "Score sheets" using point scoring systems seem a simple way to classify offenders by problem areas considered by the probation officer in working out a supervision plan. So far, the bulk of formal classification has centered on the

reception of offenders into correctional institutions. Debate on the merits of Reception and Diagnostic Centers is warming considerably despite the Hellervik Report (1974) recommendation that central and separate centers be established in each of the fifty states. Our consideration of classification has expanded to distinguish four distinct functions: 1) custody (security and/or surveillance); 2) management (offender access to resources); 3) rehabilitation (offender potential for change); 4) treatment (basic approach to offender).

III. Chapter III

Offender information is collected at many points in the criminal justice system, yet the collection, processing, and reporting of this information is unsystematic and not standardized on basic data. Variations exist between agencies, jurisdictions, and governmental levels. Statewide criminal justice information systems have not improved or adequately analyzed the information now available. A summary of the information elements now collected shows that agencies collect and recollect much the same information. This chapter describes the aggregate information concerning offenders and the reporting forms used in its gathering. It discusses police arrest information, court and probation data, and information reported by local, state and federal correctional agencies. Data reliability and validity have been concerns in any information system, computerized or manual. Project SEARCH is examined for its relevance and potential for offender classification. Data categories which are vague or ill defined (e.g.

"emotional health") are better left unreported unless careful specification can be assured. Reliable methods of information collection, including control and audit procedures, must be developed if we are to improve data based offender classification.

IV. Chapter IV

This chapter analyzes classification relevant studies of parole prediction, offender outcome, "environmental inputs", interpersonal maturity, behavioral categories, and resource allocation. The Burgess experience table is analyzed as the prototype of later tables used in scoring probability of parole success. The present day base expectancy research, stemming from Mannheim and Wilkins Borstal studies represent statistical sophistication and conceptual simplicity. Predictive attribute analysis, association analysis, and multiple regression are the newer techniques. The Parole Decision Making Project is probably the most extensive and potentially useful approach. It will most likely provide the major direction for parole research and offender classification for the next few years. The Federal Board of Parole "salient factor" classification is described and its experience table is included. The work of the Experimental Manpower Laboratory for Corrections in Alabama is reviewed and their instruments are felt useful for classification research. The Interpersonal Maturity Level studies, dating back to 1957, suggest a theoretical framework for classification based upon a personality theory. Extensive research has been done along these lines, particularly matching offenders to staff and program alternatives. The emphasis upon behavioral categories and differential treatment at

Morgantown, West Virginia has not been matched by research precision or careful documentation due mostly to institutional management problems (i.e., housing and bed space). The Federal RAPS system seems a neat device for classifying inmates in order to allocate resources in a "rational way", and provide management with program utilization data.

V. Chapter V

This chapter describes a wide range of offender typologies, including women and juveniles, and concludes that typology construction is a useful approach to the methodology of classification. Numerous offender types have been recognized since the time of Mayhew (1860) leading to descriptive studies using biological, psychological, and sociological dimensions. Lombroso, Hooten, Sheldon, and the Gluecks represent anthropological and physical type approaches; Hewett and Jenkins, Warren, Jesness, Quay and others provide psychological types; and Clinard and Quinney, Glaser, Gibbons, and Garrity give us social types of offenders. Flanigan and Kapture type by motivation; Schrag, Sykes and Irwin type by inmate role; and Roebuck explores types of black offenders in the District of Columbia. Women offenders have been typed by Ward and Kassebaum, Heffernana and Giallombardo. Gibbons, Downe, Ferdinand, Cohen, Short, and Cloward and Ohlin have provided typologies of delinquent youth. So far, however, we have not developed an offender typology which covers age, sex, race, and offense in a way satisfactory for research or further development of classification.

VI. Chapter VI

Most efforts have ignored the role, perceptions and attitudes of offenders in the classification process. We have been caught in system concerns to the exclusion of offender participation. This exclusion has served to keep classification removed from the reality of the offenders'everyday life whether on the street or in the institution. A very small number of interviews with inmates revealed not only institutional lack of concern but also offender ignorance of the main approach to his supposed rehabilitation. Although others said it years ago and it has become part of our vocabulary, the offender participation has yet to occur in decisions which affect the most crucial elements of his existence. It is apparent that classification has yet to help offenders and remains at the less relevant organizational levels as one of the "paper rituals" most bureaucracies have invented to expand "work".

VII. Chapter VII

Many of the issues which emerged from our offender classification study can be grouped as operational, legal and ethical, or research and methodological concerns. Lack of universal and unambiguous consensus upon the approach, methods, and objectives of classification seems to be the main hurdles to progress. Inability to extend classification to the criminal justice system entry point for offenders has also hampered our efforts to be more effective. Flexibility and commitment to changes in our ideas is also necessary. Problems of taxonomy in general have

not reached a state of consciousness in criminal justice because we are still functioning with a primitive set of labels. We yet lack sophistication in seeing environment relevant offender data. We will abandon our "needs meeting syndrome" when we realize that needs are infinite but resources are finite. Classification for prediction will remain a technical enigma until we agree upon what we mean by "success". Practitioners of classification will be forced to defend their expertise as the trend toward accountability proceeds. The development of offense specific or treatment relevant classification has been called into question by those who have seen little or no progress. The legal and ethical issues involved with intervention into human lives in a democratically oriented free and pluralistic society staggers the imagination. Is it time to stop asking how and begin to wonder why?

## B. DOCUMENTATION OF TESTS USED IN OFFENDER CLASSIFICATION

Classification is a set of procedures which extend back into man's history and has been done on a great variety of bases ranging from possession by demons to throwbacks to under-evolved ancestors. This current monograph attempts to discuss those instruments which are currently used in correctional institutions and meet the following criteria.

1. are widely used by significant numbers of practical persons for real correctional purposes.
2. are relatively easy to administer, score and interpret.
3. can become a significant part of a planned national system of evaluation, as an essential segment of a model offender classification system.

Each test has been briefly described, and its purpose, administration, scoring and interpretation explained. An appendix summarizes the tests covered, and such items as publisher and cost. This monograph has only presented those studies and references of relevance to corrections. It has not attempted to provide the extensive detail of such works as Buros' Mental Measurement Yearbook. There is also a brief discussion of reliability and validity.

Chapter I - Introduction. Intelligence testing dates back to the 1904 Binet-Simon test and to Terman's 1916 I.Q.

Testing to uncover emotional and personality problems dates back to the work of Woodward in 1917 and has been developed over time into a large repertory of tests, including the Bernreuter Personality Inventory, very important not only in correctional practice but also in general clinical work prior to World War II. Test development in this area has continued to the present with the Eysenck Personality Inventory of 1964 and the Comrey Personality Scales of 1970.

Vocational interest testing started with the interview and counseling guide of Kelley in 1914. Perhaps the two most frequently used inventories of this sort are the Kuder Preference of 1963 and the Strong Vocational Interest Blank of 1969.

In addition to the above types of scales, we have seen developed measures of introversion-extroversion, masculinity-femininity, personal values and needs. Perhaps the most recent of these is the Environmental Deprivation Scale which is a checklist of "criminal offender's environmental inputs" developed by the Rehabilitation Research Foundation in Montgomery, Alabama.

An illustration of how a researcher moves from questionnaire item response to classification is found in the work of Quay and his associates. They developed their Personal Opinion Study which "discovers" four deviant personality types transformed into behavior categories.

A. Documenting the Tests

Identification and location of psychological tests relevant to classification of offenders required conversations and letters to professional colleagues, the scanning of much literature, and such references as Buros' Mental Measurement Yearbook. Documentation of tests has included:

1. primary reference, including bibliographical reference, author and cost;
2. description of test; and
3. application or where and how the test has been used in offender research.

B. Standards

To be useful and valid, tests must be standardized on populations relevant to the individual who is to be assessed. Many tests in general use, and particularly tests in the offender classification process, lack the broad base and adequate sampling to make their results validly useful.

Chapter II - Classification of Tests, Scales and Inventories. Tests may be classified by purpose, materials, method of administration and so forth. For the purposes of this monograph, we are classifying tests as to whether they are individual or group, and according to trait measured, i.e., character and personality; intellectual functioning and organicity; acquired skills; vocational aptitude; interests and values; and social adjustment.

The behavior or attitude of the administrator of a test may significantly affect the response of the subject. The value of the interpretation of the results is a direct function of the skill and professional competence of the interpreter. Although little professional skill or training is required for the administration of the objective tests, it is assumed here that the testing practices are competent and the test is appropriate to the setting and individual being tested.

The goal of classification is the gathering of information that will permit his assignment to a group for treatment based on common characteristics. The individual is matched to a group and the group then matched to an appropriate treatment program.

The three functions to be fulfilled by the tests are those of identification, classification and research. Any of the tests may be found to have an application to all three functions, depending upon the problem and the skill of the experimenter.

In the evaluation of the tests, one must consider the competing techniques available for use. Validation in the classification situation is more complex than in the test development laboratory. The trait being measured must be pertinent to the purpose, and the test must measure it in a manner suitable to the immediate goals.

The selection of a test is an administrative decision to be made in each testing program on a cost accounting basis involving these factors:

A. The benefits to the criminal justice system and/or the community of identifying an individual in the target population.

B. The cost to the system and community of missing one;

C. The cost to the individual of false identification;

D. The cost to the system and community of applying the treatment when it is not justified;

E. The cost in time, personnel and money involved in the testing program; and

F. The cost of the treatment applied to the target population.

These questions go far beyond the ordinary requirements of test reliability and validity.

Chapter III - Reliability and Validity. Reliability is an expression of the accuracy with which a test measures whatever it measures. Accuracy refers to consistency and stability of measurement. The two most generally used methods are the odd-even or split-halves method, and the test-retest method. The former is a comparison of performance on the odd-numbered items with performance on the even-numbered items. The latter is a comparison of a first administration of a test with the results

of a second administration after the lapse of some time period.

A reliability measure often used when evaluating some subjective data such as ratings or behavioral observations is the use of inter-rater agreement. This is really a measure of the reliability of the observers rather than the instrument. Detailed instructions, training and practice tend to improve inter-rater agreement.

Validity may be defined as the extent to which the test measures what it says it measures. Congruent validity usually refers to the agreement between the test in question and performance on some other accepted test of the purported factor.

Concurrent validity is obtained by comparing groups with established characteristics in their performance on the test. For example, a test of social attitude may be administered to a group of known delinquents and to a group of outstanding "good citizens". A significant difference in the predicted direction would be accepted as evidence of validity.

Content validity may be established by showing that the test successfully measures certain knowledge, traits, skills or abilities that are shown to be necessary in the performance of some task.

Construct validity rests basically on the theoretical formulations that are tested by the instrument. This means that items in an inventory which are responded to in the way that the theory requires are considered valid.

Predictive validity is the degree to which the test or instrument predicts future behavior, and the accuracy of such prediction.

All of these methods of determining validity are legitimate and acceptable under certain conditions. Only predictive studies meet the hard test of scientific reality: the understanding, control and prediction of behavior.

We must also consider the base rate among the general population of the behavior we wish to predict. If the existence of the behavior is very high in the population, it might be more economical to overlook any differential classificatory procedure and treat the entire population.

In general, test performance seems to be a function of the answers desired. A tendency toward delinquency is more easily predicted than the type of crime the delinquent will commit. There is a danger that the hard-pressed administrator may unwittingly overtax the predictive power of a test in a specific situation for which it was not designed, especially with tests having research potential but not usable for classification purposes.

Although there are computerized systems for interpreting tests, in most situations human judgement is still necessary in integrating the data base and making a correctional decision.

Chapter IV - Individual Personality Assessment. The Bender-Gestalt is essentially the task of copying nine simple drawings. It is one of the most widely used tests for psychologists working in a correctional situation because it is brief, simple and non-threatening, and of value as a test of organicity. Its predictive validities are low, and test-retest reliability are also low.

The Draw-A-Person is also widely used. Reliability and validity values are known and significant. As an intelligence test, its use is appropriate only with children.

The House-Tree-Person is a process rather than a test. It yields I.Q. scores that are highly variable, and considers intellectual function as one aspect of an interrelated total personality constellation. Overall drawing may be indicative of organicity or severe pathology, but individual evaluation is extremely uncertain. But as a clinical tool in the hands of a skilled, trained and experienced examiner it may yield significant clues to the total personality.

The Thematic Apperception Test (TAT) and the Children's Apperception Test (CAT) are tests which present the individual with vague pictures that may be described with an infinite variety of stories. Examiners have come to realize that this is not a test but rather a method of studying personality.

The Rorschach is another test that is subject to the same criticism and limitation as the TAT. The stimulus here is a series of ten cards, some in black and white, and some in color

on which appear inkblots to which the individual responds in an unstructured manner.

In general, projective tests of personality have low reliability and validity. They are difficult to administer and interpret, and depend almost entirely on the training, experience and sophistication of the examiner. They have little predictive value.

The I-Level Classification System finds its theoretical basis in a paper by Sullivan, Grant and Grant and further developed by M. Q. Grant (later M. Q. Warren). It has been widely used as a method of classifying offenders, as an aid to differential treatment, and in management and assignment decisions, especially in the California Youth Authority. As originally developed, it describes seven levels, but the work with delinquent offenders has essentially been limited to levels $I_2$, $I_3$, and $I_4$. There are a total of nine subtypes within these three levels.

As originally developed, training for the lengthy, clinical type interviews requires a five-week course, and weeks of practice following the training. The system requires further research on populations larger than California Youth Authority wards to show its general usefulness.

Chapter V - Group Personality Assessment. The Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI), a 550 different true-false item instrument, is the foremost in the field of objective clinical assessment. It produces scales in nine separate traits

and three validity scales. The MMPI comes in a card sorting form, a booklet form and a computerized version. In addition, it has versions in other languages including Spanish.

In 1968, Kincannon offered a short version termed the Minimult with only 71 items. Research has shown this to be useful when caution is exercised due to its limited reliability and information potentials.

Several special correctional scales have been attempted, including one on escape and one on violence, but none of them have shown sufficient predicting power to be useful.

The 16PF Questionnaire is an objectively scored test for individuals 16 and over. It is easily administered and scored and has over 30 years of research behind it. Studies have shown the test to be superior in distinguishing between subgroups such as serious and non-serious offenders. It does not predict institution adjustment.

The Jr.-Sr. High School Personality Questionnaire (HSPQ), is for the age range 12-17. It is easily scored and covers 14 factor or source traits. The inventory has been challenged as deficient in evidence for validity. It is not widely used in corrections and should be approached with caution.

The California Psychological Inventory (CPI) is a 480 item scale, with 200 items taken from the MMPI. It is a self-administered inventory with separate answer sheet and takes 45 minutes

of test time. It gives 18 general scales that produce a profile. Test-retest reliabilities are acceptable, and validity is demonstrated by correlation with grades and other external behavior. The socialization scale consistently distinguishes between delinquent and non-delinquent groups.

The Jesness Inventory and Behavior Check List are used as objective means of determining I-levels. The Jesness Inventory provides ten scales together with an Asocial Index used to predict delinquency. Reliability and validity data are known and substantial. The Asocial Index does not effectively discriminate between delinquents and non-delinquents. The inventory identifies but does not predict delinquency, and was not found to predict recidivism in AWOL soldiers.

The Tennessee Self Concept Scale (TSCS) is a 100 item scale that measures self-concept and defensiveness. The self concept of delinquent girls as measured on this scale shows they are more negative, more uncertain, more variable and more conflicted.

Chapter VI - Intellectual Measures. The Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale and the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children (WISC) have been established over the years as a basic psychological diagnostic instrument. It was standardized in a nationwide sample of 1700 adults including a prorated sample of the non-white population. Reliability and validity material are available. Despite some early evidence to the contrary, the research literature indicates it is not possible to predict delinquency or mental illness solely from intelligence tests.

Chapter VII - Measures of Educational Level. The Otis Lennon Mental Ability Test has been standardized on a sample chosen to represent the educational system, not the country at large. It reflects the highest standards in construction, norming, reliability and validity. It is widely used in institutional classification. It provides grade levels and subject matter grade level equivalent. It also supplies deviation I.Q.

The Stanford Achievement Test has been published since 1922 and has test batteries for grades 1.5 through 12. It is available in Braille or large type and has norms for every standard high school subject and some less common ones. Norms are based on a sample of 22,699. Testing time is 350 minutes.

The California Achievement Test covers grades 1.5 to 12 also. It reports reading, mathematics, and language scores for grades 9 to 12. The norms for the 1970 Edition are based on 203,684 students from all parts of the country.

The Wide Range Achievement Test is a measure of reading, spelling and arithmetic ordinarily given individually. Reliability and validity are high but the test is intended as an adjunct for clinical evaluation, not for general school use.

The Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test (PPVT) consists of 150 numbered plates each with 4 pictures. It is intended for illiterates who point to the pictures that match the words read aloud by the examiner.

The General Aptitude Test Battery is the best multi-aptitude test available for evaluating career potential. It is, however, slanted to blue collar occupations. It is really a measure of current status rather than ability to learn.

The Non-Reading Aptitude Test Battery is intended for illiterates, semi-literates, and those from a cultural background different from the traditional native white American. The test is too new to have independent reports of its value in print, but is apparently adequately standardized.

Chapter VIII - Expressions of Interest and Value. This chapter identifies three vocational preference inventories that are of interest to correctional classification. The most widely used are the Kuder General Interest Survey (KGIS) and the Kuder Preference Record Vocational (KPRV). Both of these inventories are easy to administer, score and interpret. The KPRV has been widely accepted, generously used, but often misinterpreted.

Another interest inventory that is widely used, but not in correctional institutions, is the Strong Vocational Interest Interest Inventory. It is more complex, more difficult to administer and score, more costly and focused primarily on business and professional occupations.

Chapter IX - Assessment of Social Adjustment. The Quay Battery consists of three scales - The Behavior Problem Checklist (BPC), the Checklist for the Analysis of Life History data (CALH) and the Personal Opinion Study (POS). These produce four deviant personality types:

BC1 Inadequate - Immature

BC2 Neurotic - Disturbed

BC3 Unsocialized Psychopath

BC4 Socialized Subcultural

The reliability is good and validity is excellent. Careful factor analysis has provided good internal consistency. It is probably the best test designed for classification. The only question is the relevance of the categories for treatment.

The Environmental Deprivation Scale is an interview guide covering 16 items, each scored "0" for positive inputs, "1" for negative. Total score is the sum. Validated against offense subsequent to release, as measured by the Law Encounter Severity Scale (LESS), there appears to be a significant discriminating relationship. The lower the EDS, the lower the LESS. There is a tendency for high EDS scores to become higher over time. If EDS holds up as a parole prediction device in future studies, it will become a highly valuable scale to use in conjunction with an experience table.

The Maladaptive Behavior Record (MBR) was designed to accompany the EDS as a measure of response outputs. The final measure in this battery is the Weekly Activity Record (WAR). This has not shown any significant data on difference of means against five groups whose LESS scores are of graduated severity. In general these scales, the EDS, the MBR, and the WAR have weak validity data and rely on subjective judgement, although their dimensions are promising.

Chapter X - A Suggested Program of Test and Assessment for Adult Offenders. To plan a testing program requires a statement of the goal intended. It might be "to obtain maximum useful information with least effort, least time and least cost." We wish to assess the following areas:

a. Probability of recidivism (base expectancy)
b. Educational skills and background
c. Intelligence or learning ability
d. Personality factors and adjustment
e. Occupational interest, aptitude and ability

A. Base Expectancy Rates Determined by Prior Career

The California Base Expectancy Tables do an adequate job for adult males. There is no similarly well established tables for women or youthful offenders. Since these experience tables change over time, feedback is necessary to change these tables as the population changes. In addition, it is imperative that the research be done to construct similar tables for women and youthful offenders. In the development, "normal" populations must be included so that the incidence of "normal" crime can be found.

B. Education

Since reading skill is required for many other tests, the first test to be given should be the Reading subtest of the California Achievement Test. If the reading level is below ninth grade, a special diagnostic battery will be used.

Diagnostic battery: Wide Range Achievement Test to evaluate basic reading, spelling, writing and arithmetic. The WAIS to evaluate intelligence if retardation is suspected.

C. Intelligence

For persons of adequate reading ability, the OLMAT will be used. If the OLMAT shows inferior performance, especially if language difficulty is suspected, we recommend the Revised Beta.

D. Personality and Character

The basic test will be the MMPI. If time and budget permit, the 16PF will be added. If these indicate serious maladjustment, individual assessment, to include the Bender-Gestalt and the HTP should be provided.

E. Occupational

No test or test battery appears to yield as much information for the same investment of time and money as the General Aptitude Test Battery. It should be realized, however, that the GATB is oriented to blue collar occupation. If the individual is deficient in educational skills, the NATB can be substituted.

F. Classification for Minors

There is no battery of tests for minors as well established as those for adult males. Intelligence testing should start with OLMAT. If the person tests low, then the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test (range 3 years to 18) should be given. For personality assessment, individuals 16 and over of adequate reading levels should be given the MMPI. There is no really adequate substitute for the younger or poor reading youths. It is hoped that the Jesness Inventory and Quay Battery can be given on wide enough samples to establish their relative merits. For learning levels we recommend the CAT.

## C. DEVELOPMENT OF A MODEL OFFENDER CLASSIFICATION SYSTEM

Chapter I points out that little is known about offenders who do not penetrate the criminal justice system, particularly unknown are the reasons why they do not continue their offenses. For apprehended offenders, we do not know if any treatment program produced better results than non-intervention. Official records do not provide sufficiently good data to make predictions about offender outcomes. Most prediction studies have not been well designed or longitudinal. The lack of scientifically valid data makes it presently impossible to test a model offender classification system. The base expectancy rate studies provide a beginning approach if they can be applied to most of the decision nodes of the criminal justice system. The assessment of risk to the community has not been developed in ways useful for CJS decision makers, especially in the cases of assaultive offenders. A discussion of treatment evaluation finds the concept of recidivism in need of supplementary outcome criteria.

Chapter II presents an offender classification model as a decision-making tool at three crucial nodes in the criminal justice system: Diversion, Sentencing, and Commitment. The decision nodes are examined as choice points with many branching alternatives and consequent limitations on future options in the treatment of individual offenders. A point scoring system for basic

life history items is suggested with differential weights which can be rotated in the model to maximize predictive efficiencies for age, sex and race of offenders.

The classification model, using a data base including psychological test results and criminal justice system experience in addition to the life history items, focuses on offender mental health, assaultive propensities, and economic self support.

Chapter III suggests the psychometric tests to be used with adult and youthful offenders on flow charts showing that the CAT Reading, OLMAT and MMPI are common to both. If no retardation is suspected or clinical assessment is necessary, the youth get further tested on I-level and the Quay Battery, and the adults are given the GATB and Kuder.

Chapter IV examines the problems involved in a realistic appraisal of offender outcomes after "treatment" and specifies the predicting (independent) variables as life history data, test data, and offender experience with the criminal justice system. Offender outcome (dependent variable) is measured by recidivism (arrest), employment record, and social integration. The intervening "treatment" alternatives mediate between predictors and offender outcome. Figure 4 illustrates how the classification model ties together the data base, system alternatives, treatment modalities, and offender outcomes.

Chapter V proposes a feasibility study to determine the cost/benefit of a massive national research effort following offenders as they travel past the CJS decision nodes through treatment alternatives to their eventual outcomes. The object of the preliminary research is to design a longitudinal predictive study with adequate and reliable samples to produce results which can be used to test the proposed classification model. There can be but little progress for the criminal justice system if we fail to implement and test predictive models.

END