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imprisoning offenders who could be safely and successfully supervised in less restrictive settings.

The master plan advocates the development of more detailed policy and procedure statements by central office staff, to ensure that community corrections services are of uniform quality throughout the state. Some revision of the current policy manual will be necessary to encompass expanded services and changing practices; this presents the opportunity to develop more detailed descriptions of service objectives, preferred methods and general policies for community corrections services.

Revisions in service delivery procedures which are intended to better utilize staff time are recommended and illustrated in the plan. A modified client classification system, which categorizes offenders according to their relative levels of need for supervision and services (intensive, regular or minimum) is suggested. In addition, revisions of the workload weighting system to accommodate this new tri-level supervision system are proposed; this would permit a more precise monitoring of actual staff workloads, and thus more effective use of staff time for clients with greater need for supervision or services.

Other means of increasing the level of services offered to needy clients without necessarily greatly increasing the total community services budget are proposed as well. Increased use of paraprofessionals and trained volunteers should be encouraged; in particular, use of indigenous paraprofessional case aides to

supervise clients in rural areas of Alaska is suggested as a means of improving service delivery to these rural offenders. These case aides would be paid on a case-by-case basis, and would report to full-time professional community services staff who are more centrally located. Community services staff should be strongly encouraged to function as service "brokers" for their clients, directing them to resources, programs and services available from non-correctional sources. An increase in funds available to the Division of Corrections for contractual services would allow community corrections staff to purchase services for their clients as needed.

The Division should provide more appropriate training for community services staff than is now available, focusing less on a lengthy orientation course and more on periodic refresher seminars in specialized topic areas. Training needs for these staff members are quite different from those of institutional security staff due to differences both in educational background and in the demands of the job. It is recommended that the Division not allow the carrying of firearms by community services staff, since their role should not be law enforcement so much as service brokers for their clients. Staff also require adequate office space, with sufficient privacy, space for records storage, and accessibility to their clients' communities.

A major expansion of community corrections services is advocated in two areas: pretrial assessment and supervision, and prerelease and halfway house programs. There are no formal pretrial assessment and release programs now in operation in Alaska,

but given their potential for decreasing unnecessary pretrial detention, they are critical to reducing the institutional bed space needs. Community services staff, who already perform other offender assessments for the courts, the Parole Board and corrections, are best-equipped to assume this new function. Expanded use of prerelease and halfway house settings for selected offenders is another promising means of reducing unnecessary incarceration. This function is also most logically subsumed within community corrections' responsibilities. Implementation of both of these programs will of course require additional staff, and probably additional monies for contractual services (prerelease and halfway houses). Therefore, this expansion should be undertaken on a gradual basis, through pilot programs in one or two urban areas which can be transferred to other regions as more funds become available. This is the process which the Division's existing New Start program has followed; it is recommended that, due to its demonstrated success in Anchorage, it be replicated in other urban areas of the state.

Clearly, community corrections services as here envisioned will have contact with offenders at many crucial decision points, from their initial intake to their final release from community supervision. Therefore, close coordination of community corrections with the other criminal justice system components (law enforcement and the courts) is essential. In addition, community corrections services must work closely with institutional services to ensure that offenders receive consistent treatment as they progress through the system. Finally, community corrections will of necessity be closely affiliated with many other non-correctional community agencies

which provide services to correctional clients.

With an increased emphasis on diverting as many offenders as possible from incarceration, community corrections will assume an ever more central role in the Division of Corrections.

Adult Institutional Services

The Division of Corrections is responsible for the maintenance of control and good order within its confinement facilities. Although the State's first priority should be to minimize the number of offenders confined in corrections facilities, there will continue to be some for whom incarceration is felt to be the only appropriate disposition. For these offenders, the provision of a secure and humane setting which affords them opportunities for self-improvement should be the primary goal of the Division and the State of Alaska.

Because many of the facilities currently in use are seriously deficient with regard to space available, its arrangement and allocation, and even in some instances significant physical deterioration of the buildings, and major system-wide improvements in institutional programming must await renovation or new construction. Thus, although recommendations presented here are applicable to the entire institutional system, many will probably be implemented on a facility-by-facility basis, as replacement facilities or renovations are completed.

Based on a detailed evaluation of the adequacy of existing institutions, the following course of action is suggested:

1. Facilities which should be abandoned and replaced by new construction and/or alternative facilities are:

   a. Ketchikan CC*
   b. Ridgeview CC
   c. Anchorage Third Avenue CC
   d. Nome CC
   e. Bethel CC
   f. Rural jails in Kotzebue, Kodiak, Kenai, and Barrow.

2. Facilities which should be renovated and/or expanded are:

   a. Anchorage Annex* (for eventual use only as a prerelease center)
   b. Juneau CC*
   c. Fairbanks CC
   d. Palmer CC
   e. Eagle River CC (expansion)

The recent bond issue has provided funds for the partial renovation of the Juneau CC and the Anchorage Annex, as well as for replacements for the Annex's present pretrial detention function, for the Ketchikan CC, and for the Bethel CC.

Of the remaining facilities obtaining a replacement for Ridgeview crucially important due to the impending termination of the states' lease on that building. Because of the very small number of female inmates in Alaska, it is strongly recommended that they be housed in a larger institution which also houses men, so that they will have a range of program opportunities not usually feasible to offer in very small facilities. Several alternatives for the housing of female inmates are suggested, including the addition of residency at Eagle River, and provision for a female unit within the new sentenced inmate facility at Anchorage (discussed later). The

* Indicates total or partial funding through the 1978 G.O. bond issue.

latter solution will only be viable in the long run, of course, and given that a short-range alternative must be utilized, the Eagle River option is the most appropriate of those considered.

The potential for expansion of Eagle River was provided for in the original design. Although housing of men and women in the same institutional complex may present management difficulties initially, the benefits are felt to outweigh the disadvantages, particularly if that institution's staff has been adequately trained to cope with the potential problems and to make the most of the positive aspects of co-corrections.

The plan strongly recommends that in the long run, the state should discontinue the practice of housing Alaskan inmates in Federal Bureau of Prisons facilities. Even with maximal use of alternatives to incarceration, this suggested policy of retaining Alaskan inmates in the state, along with the deteriorated condition of the Third Avenue CC, will require the construction of a new facility for sentenced inmates in the Anchorage area. This facility should not be a traditional maximum security prison, but rather should incorporate the progressive design features and building materials utilized in model facilities elsewhere in the nation which confine a wide range of inmates. The capacity of this facility should be determined based on maximal use of alternatives to incarceration, and on the level of regionalization of confinement which is felt to be feasible and appropriate.

Ten potential institutional service areas, each of which now has at least one correctional facility within it, are discussed in the plan. These are viewed as the smallest practical subdivisions of the state for corrections purposes; they could be combined into fewer larger service areas. None of the existing rural facilities (Bethel, Nome, Kotzebue, Barrow, Kodiak, and Kenai), which are the primary corrections facilities in six of the ten service areas, are suitable to house sentenced inmates, so if any level of regionalization is to be achieved, all or some of these facilities must be replaced. However, due to the tremendous cost and the potential for overuse of such new rural corrections facilities, replacement of the existing rural jails should assume a lower priority than recommended renovation or expansion of the more urban state facilities and construction of a sentenced inmate facility in Anchorage. Therefore, although regionalized incarceration is desirable in that it maintains offenders closer to their home communities, it may not be practical in Alaska's areas to any large extent for some time to come.

In general, expansion of the total institutional system's bed space capacity should not outpace the Division's and the State's efforts to maximize diversion from incarceration (both pre- and post-sentence). The State of Alaska should not make the costly mistake of overbuilding to accommodate a temporary "bulge" in the growth rate of the inmate population. Inmate populations may well be reduced (from projected current practice levels) in the future through more aggressive use of alternatives to incarceration coupled with effects of the changing age composition of the general population (fewer persons in the high-risk, crime-prone age range).

The Division, despite present facility limitations, is obligated to provide secure housing and at least minimal program opportunities for its inmates. Therefore, the plan proposes several initiatives in the area of institutional programming. One of the most vital concerns is classification of inmates. The Division must develop an inmate classification system which can be uniformly applied across the system. The designation of a Classification Coordinator with central policy-making authority to develop classification criteria and procedures is an essential step in improving the Division's classification system. Specific definitions of inmate types must be developed, based not only on the type of housing and supervision they require (security considerations), but also on their programming needs. Classification committees within each institution would have responsibility for classifying each inmate at intake and developing a program plan with the individual; this plan, and the inmates' custody level, should be periodically reviewed and revised as necessary. Prerelease programming should be included in the committee's considerations. The Classification Coordinator can thus function as advisor to the committees in the application of criteria and procedures developed by him or her in consultation with institutional administrators and staff; the Coordinator would not have line authority over any institutional staff, but should have policy-making and monitoring responsibilities under the direction of the Adult Institutional Services Administrator. The Coordinator should also hear appeals of inmates regarding decisions of the classification committees.

A full range of services and program opportunities should be

available to all inmates, and particularly to sentenced inmates. Facility limitations have not been accepted by the courts as sufficient rationale for inmate idleness, a pervasive problem in Alaska and elsewhere. Designation of a Program Coordinator at the central office level, who, under the authority of the Adult Institutional Service Administrator, would be delegated responsibility to develop program concepts and monitor their implementation, is recommended. At each institution, one staff member should be given the responsibility of being Program Director, coordinating staff and program availability and working closely with classification committees to ensure that inmates needs are being met. The central Program Coordinator would not have line authority over institutional staff, but would have policy-making and monitoring responsibilities.

The range of programs available to inmates should include education (which should be statutorily specified as the responsibility of the public school system through the 12th grade level), vocational training (to be developed in conjunction with prison industries, discussed later) drug and alcoholism treatment (through the State Office of Alcoholism and Drug Abuse), and library services. In addition, leisure-time activities, and indoor and outdoor recreation, are essential components of any institution, both for security and for programmatic reasons. Counseling, both with regard to specific institutional program opportunities and in relation to more general emotional problems, should be available to all inmates, either through in-house staff or contractual arrangements with other public or private agencies. Community-based

programming, particularly furloughs and work and education release, should be fully developed and utilized for appropriate inmates as a valuable reintegrative tool. Prerelease preparation is essential for inmates making the difficult transition from the institution to their communities.

Development of a system of prison industries is a central recommendation of the master plan. Industries, when efficiently operated, can result in savings to the State in terms of reduced state agency purchasing expenditures, reduced criminal justice costs, and prison industry wages and profits; benefits for the institutions in terms of reduced state agency purchasing expenditures, reduced criminal justice costs, and prison industry wages and profits; benefits for the institutions in terms of reduced numbers of disciplinary infractions and more normalized social atmosphere; and benefits to the inmate worker in terms of ability to provide family support, participate in vocational training, and obtain jobs upon release. The prison-industries approach advocated for adoption in Alaska is the Free Venture model, which emphasizes a realistic work environment (a full work day, inmate wages based on work output, and transferable training and job skills) and self-supporting or profit-making business operations. Alaska offers a unique setting for prison industries, in that there are several product areas in which there is now no in-state private sector involvement. Thus, it is recommended that prison industries manufacture not only state-use goods, but goods to sell on the open market as well. Development of a prison industries system in Alaska will require a substantial initial funding commitment, as

well as statutory authorization. To ensure that the system is developed in a coordinated and planful fashion, a Prison Industries Coordinator should be designated as part of the central office staff under the authority of the Adult Institutional Services Administrator. Institutions recommended as sites for industries are those at Eagle River, Palmer, Juneau and Fairbanks. The proposed new facility for sentenced inmates should also provide space for a full range of industrial operations. Other, smaller Alaskan institutions are not seen as appropriate for full-scale industries, inmates of these facilities could be engaged in more small-scale crafts production or activities such as repairing small engines.

Health care services are essential to the operation of correctional institutions. With the hiring of a central office Health Care Coordinator, the Division of Corrections has taken a major step in the improvement of its health care systems. The master plan endorses the development of detailed, written policies, standards and guidelines for health care, a process in which the Coordinator is now engaged. With the addition of more med. al staff, both in-house and contractual, it is hoped that more consistent treatment can be provided to all inmates in areas such as intake medical screening, drug and alcoholism intervention, mental health, dental services, and routine medical care. Adequate space and necessary equipment must be provided so as to ensure that medical staff can offer high quality care to inmates.

Even within ideally designed and equipped facilities, programs and security will not be adequate without sufficient numbers

of qualified staff to operate the facilities. Four major factors determine the number of staff necessary for a given institution: the number of inmates confined there, their custody or security requirements, the types of program and work opportunities available, and the physical design of the building. All of these factors must be considered in determining both the minimum number of staff necessary to operate the facility and the optimum number of staff desired to develop a full range of program and work options in a secure environment. Sufficient funds must be made available to hire and train the requisite numberof staff; as documented needs change, funding levels should be adjusted. Use of contractual agreements with outside agencies and individuals specializing in particular program areas, as well as encouragement of volunteer involvement, are recommended methods of stretching scarce correctional resources to serve the maximum number of inmates. Corrections must be provided with sufficient numbers of trained staff for its institutions in order to carry out its statutory responsibilities to ensure public safety and promote positive change in offenders.

Youth Services

The Division of Corrections has responsibility for both community and institutional corrections for juveniles. The master plan makes several organizational and policy recommendations for youth corrections services, the most far-reaching of which is the recommendation that a separate Youth Services Unit be created within the Division's organizational structure. This will focus attention on services to juveniles, which is not now as feasible with one administrator having responsibility for both adult probation and

parole and youth services.

The plan strongly recommends that all youth intake functions be operated by the Division of Corrections rather than being shared with the court system. It is also suggested that all juvenile petitions should be written and filed by the Department of Law-rather than by youth services caseworkers.

As with adult corrections, the plan emphasizes the need to focus resources on the development of a range of alternatives to incarceration for youths. Expansion of foster and group homes through contractual arrangements is proposed as a primary means of diverting youths from secure detention and as alternatives for adjudicated juveniles as well.

Because it is anticipated that very few youths will require secure detention while awaiting court processing, if a range of alternatives are available, it is not recommended that Alaska construct any new secure detention facilities for youths. In areas where no specialized juvenile facilities are available, the occasional child who requires secure detention can be held in an adult correctional facility, provided they are separated by sight and sound from confined adults.

The McLaughlin Youth Center's operations and programs for both adjudicated and non-adjudicated youths are exemplary, and should continue to be supported. Current efforts at implementing and evaluating new intervention strategies for institutionalized Alaska youths should also be encouraged and supported.

Staff needs, particularly for community services functions (intake, predisposition studies, community resource development and monitoring, and probation supervision) are likely to grow over the next two decades. Even in 1978, to offer all or the suggested services would have required 60 community services staff, or 50 percent more than were available for such functions. Therefore, additional funding for staff is a prerequisite to expansion of services to Alaskan youths. Expenditures of funds for youth services are well-justified, particularly if it can enhance the effectiveness of rehabilitative and preventive efforts, since this will keep more youths from becoming adult criminals (thus avoiding the costs of their criminal activity to the state and the general public.)

Rural Corrections

Although a relatively small percentage of the offenders for whom the Division is responsible originate in the rural areas of Alaska, the equitable provision of corrections services to rural and urban sectors of the state is a central concern. Because of the cultural diversity, sparse population, and unique nature of Alaska's bush country, development of corrections services for this part of Alaska presents a substantial challenge. However, solutions must be attempted, so that residents of rural Alaska will receive the services to which they are entitled as citizens of the state.

Perhaps because of the remoteness of rural Alaska coupled with a greater community tolerance of deviant behavior, diversion from incarceration (or "community corrections") is practiced with

greater frequency in rural Alaska. This is consistent with the philosophy advocated in this plan, and should be supported through the provision of more adequate probation and parole services. One means of developing this capability is the use of indigenous probation case aides on a fee-for-service basis. This has the dual advantages of providing more supervision to rural clients and involving members of the local communities in the corrections process. This approach can be gradually implemented, with newly sentenced offenders.

Another crucial need in Alaska's rural areas is for adequate alcoholism treatment. Sleep-off centers, which exist now in some communities, should be more widely available. Alcohol abuse is a primary cause of criminal behavior, particularly in rural Alaska, so provision of adequate alcoholism treatment, both through the corrections system and in the communities, should be a high priority.

Jails in rural Alaska are at present generally inadequate, even for short-term detention. However, total replacement of these facilities is neither economically feasible nor philosophically desirable. One less costly means of improving the quality of institutional corrections in rural Alaska is the statutory consolidation of responsibility for all local jail contracts under the Division of Corrections. Responsibility for standard-setting and periodic inspection of these facilities should also be vested in the Division. A much more long-range goal is the regional incarceration of sentenced inmates in rural facilities. This practice could preserve family and cultural ties, and is quite consistent

both with modern correctional practice and with rural Alaskan heritage and tradition. However, full implementation would be prohibitively expensive, and in some instances perhaps not feasible at any price, because inmates confined for lengthy sentences require services and programs which cannot be readily provided in very small facilities. Ten service areas are proposed in the plan, six of which are rural; these areas are the smallest pragmatic divisions of the state in terms of corrections' workload, and could be consolidated into fewer, larger service regions as economics and cultural boundaries dictate. However, until corrections facilities in the hub communities of each rural service area are replaced with new buildings adequate for the housing of sentenced inmates, regional incarceration of Alaskan offenders cannot take place. An interim measure which may alleviate some of the problems faced by offenders returning to rural communities is the development of a network of prerelease housing across the rural areas of Alaska. Returning offenders could be housed closer to their home communities for the last few months of their sentences, in order to ease their transition back to community living. Existing corrections facilities could be utilized for this purpose on a limited basis.

In general, local involvement in the corrections process should be encouraged by the state. Enforcement of local ordinances, and even selected state laws, with non-criminal sanctions such as community service work, should be allowed and reinforced. The appointment of local advisory bodies (called "regional guidance committees" by the University of Alaska Criminal Justice Center's March 1979 report on criminal justice in rural Alaska" is also a

vital means of ensuring that the corrections system will be responsibe to local and cultural priorities.

Technical Services

Along with the three major direct service components proposed for the Division of Corrections (Adult Community Services, Adult Institutional Services, and Youth Services), a fourth component is recommended to provide support for the management of the Division. Although several of the functions proposed to be subsumed within the rubric of Technical Services are already being performed, they are not as coordinated or extensive as they must be to ensure the attainment of the Division's correctional goals.

The Technical Services unit should be administered by one person, reporting to the Director of the Division. Within this administrative unit, Management Services is an essential element. This includes both fiscal management and personnel functions. In order to cope with the increasing complexity of budgeting and financial management, the addition of at least one accountant to the present central office staff will be vitally necessary. The development of a prison industries system may well require an additional full-time accountant devoted only to that function.

A Policy Development unit, with responsibility for all the planning, research and data gathering functions essential to modern management, should be developed within Technical Services. Facility standard setting and inspection should also be the responsibility of this unit, for both state and local facilities. Development of a full-

scale Policy Development unit will require greater emphasis on the refinement of the current corrections information systems (especially with regard to offender profiles), as well as the addition of at least one full-time researcher-planner to the current staff.

Staff services, including training and career ladder development, are another very important component of Technical Services. The Division, with its existing staff trainers, has a solid foundation upon which to build a training strategy which will reinforce the overall service philosophy of the Division of Corrections. The master plan makes several suggestions for the future of Staff Services, many of which involve simply policy changes, but some of which will depend upon increased funding.

To ensure that corrections staff are adequately prepared for the changing demands of their positions, training should: focus on human behavior and communications skills as well as the more traditional security and law enforcement considerations. Although all new staff should continue to receive some type of orientation, it may be appropriate to shorten the length of the training sessions now provided for correctional officer trainees (the Division provides 240 hours of orientation training, while ACA standards require only 160). In this way, resources now expended on lengthier orientation sessions could be redirected at providing periodic refresher and in-service training sessions to experienced staff members.

It is also suggested that in-service or on-the-job training is more appropriate for orienting new community services staff than is the current three-week orientation course offered through the Training Academy. Both administrative and community service staff usually come to their jobs with more extensive educational backgrounds than do most correctional officer trainees, it is therefore appropriate to utilize different training styles with these groups.

In order to enable full development of training opportunities for all levels of staff, it is essential that adequate state funding be provided. It is recommended that funds be allocated to enable the hiring of an additional ten percent of the existing number of authorized staff to cover absences of staff due to on-going training. It is also recommended that the Corrections Training Academy be relocated to Anchorage (probably at Alaska Pacific University) where it would become primarily non-residential. Along with a permanent staff complement of three, the Academy should make extensive use of outside specialists and contract instructors, for which sufficient contractual funds must be available. The development of an advisory training committee comprised of representatives of the Division, the academic community, selected state agencies and the private sector, is recommended as a means of continually monitoring and improving staff training to accommodate changing needs and priorities.

In developing a career ladder for adult institutional personnel, militaristic job titles for non-security staff should be avoided. Both security and treatment personnel should have equal access to promotion to administrative positions in institutions.

Lateral promotion across job types should be available to interested and qualified staff. Upward mobility on the lower rungs of the career ladder can occur within a single institution, but it is suggested that promotion beyond the level of "sergeant" (as defined in the Division's newest career ladder) require the individual's transfer to another institution. Career ladders for community services and youth services staff must be developed which allow flexibility for lateral entry into upper-level positions, and which permit a reasonable substitution of experience for education, and vice versa. The goal of the Division's career ladder structure should be fair and equitable promotion for motivated and qualified staff. The retention of such staff through promotion incentives is crucial to the successful achievement of the Division's correctional goals.

Criminal Justice Decision-making

Decisions made about offenders by agencies other than the Division of Corrections have a profound effect on the Division's ability to accomplish its mission. The master plan discusses three primary decisions in the context of efforts to minimize the use of incarceration: the decision to release or detain those awaiting trial, the sentencing decision, and the parole release decision. Although the Division may influence these decisions through its provision of offender assessments to the decision-makers, ultimate authority rests with the courts, the Parole Board and the Legislature.

The plan strongly recommends the development of a uniform pretrial assessment and release procedure, with responsibility for assessment of arrestees for release eligibility being given to

the Division's Adult Community Services unit. The potential benefit of use of objective criteria to speed the release all non-dangerous persons awaiting trial who can be expected to appear at trial (including those who could not afford to pay a cash bail bond) is substantial in terms of reduced bed-Space needs. Another means of streamlining the pretrial release process, which has already been implemented in Anchorage, is the provision of 24-hour "on call" magistrates who have authority to act on the Division's release recommendations as soon as possible after booking. In Anchorage, this has substantially reduced release delays and thus the pretrial detainee population.

Equity in sentencing is a goal which most would agree is essential. This was a primary motivation for enactment of Alaska's new Criminal Code, which will take effect January 1, 1980, and which provides for determinate sentences (prescribed minimum incarceratory sentences) for selected classes of felons. There is some reason to believe that this new Code will result in an increased prisoner population in the long run, due to increases in average lengths of stay for the affected categories of offenders. The actual impact of the Code should therefore be carefully and continuously monitored to ascertain whether average daily population increases result from its implementation. If so, and if this is considered an undesirable side effect of equity in sentencing, the State should consider several approaches: 1) shortening the length of prescribed minimum sentences for repeat felons, 2) specifying in greater detail the weight (in

months and/or years) which each aggravating or mitigating factor should be given in modifying the prescribed term, and/or, 3) appointment of a Sentencing Commission to develop a "matrix" approach to sentencing which would include consideration not only of current offense and prior record, but also of the risk-level presented by each offender. Sentencing seminars for Alaska judges, particularly after the new code takes effect, are another means of encouraging equitable and appropriate sentencing; it may well be that the courts, through administrative policy decisions, can limit the potential negative impact of the Code by careful exercise of the discretion with the Code still permits the judiciary. In any case, it is essential to balance concerns for equitable punishment with the realistic limits of Alaska's correctional resources (particularly its institutions).

The Parole Board will continue to make release decisions even after the new Criminal Code takes effect, since parole is eliminated only for certain classes of offenders. Therefore, improvement of the Board's functioning is important to sound correctional practice. The master plan recommends several organizational and procedural changes to enhance the Board's decision-making capabilities:

1. The Parole Board should be composed of three full-time members.

2. The staff of the Board should be reorganized and augmented.

3. The Board should prepare and keep up-to-date a detailed manual of policies and procedures.

4. Hearing procedures should be modified, and as soon as the on-going study of options is complete, a matrix criteria system should be adopted.

5. A formal appeals process should be established.

6. Prisoners with maximum sentences of five years or less should be considered for parole eligibility and a tentative release date set within four months of their commitment.

7. The Board should be statutorily authorized to give sentence time credit to selected inmates whose paroles have been revoked, for time served on parole.

8. The Board should be statutorily authorized to discharge parolees from parole status after two years of succe sful performance under supervision.

9. The goals and philosophy of the Board should be closely coordinated with those of the Division of Corrections, to ensure that offenders are treated consistently and equitably.

All of the proposals made regarding pretrial release, sentencing and parole decisions will require actions by agencies outside of the Division of Corrections. Timely and equitable decision-making about offenders, both by the Division and by other agencies (the courts, the Department of Law, the Parole Board, and the Department of Public Safety, as well as other non-criminal justice agencies), can have a profoundly beneficial impact on Alaska's corrections system.

Conclusion

The corrections master plan here summarized charts a course for the future of the Division of Corrections which will influence its practices for many years to come. Many important tasks remain to be accomplished, but the Division has already demonstrated its capability to respond to the challenges which confront it. Translation of the policies developed in this planning process into programs, procedures, buildings and staffing patterns will be a time-consuming and massive undertaking. The Division of Corrections alone cannot accomplish Alaska's correctional goals; the firm support of other criminal justice agencies, of the Department of Health and Social Services, of the legislature and of private citizens will be critical to the success of Alaska's corrections system in reforming offenders and protecting the public.

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STATISTICAL ANALYSIS OF MISDEMEANOR SENTENCES IN ANCHORAGE AND FAIRBANKS

(August 15, 1974 - August 14, 1976)

PRELIMINARY REPORT

November 7, 1979

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Methodology

This analysis is based on 1795 cases that began as misdemeanor charges and resulted in convictions during the two-year period between August 15, 1974 and August 14, 1976. The data contains offenses against state and municipal codes in Anchorage and Fairbanks It was originally collected for purposes of our plea bargaining study.

The population source was the Judicial Information System records which are the official records of the Alaska Court System. The Technical Operations office of the court system (Mr. Merle Martin) furnished us with a listing of about 14,000[1/] misdemeanor convictions by case number for the two-year period of interest. On the basis of standard statistical procedures a sample size was determined that would be representative of this population. The size of the total sample was then increased to enhance its representativeness, and, as we will explain below, to allow for the overrepresentation of cases convicted after trials.

1/ Although the official records for the period of the study are no longer available, Merle Martin of Technical Operations estimated that there were approximately 14,400 misdemeanor convictions during this period.

The major hypothesis that was originally to be tested under the federal grant concerned changes, if any, in plea/trial sentencing differentials--differences in sentences received by those convicted after trial vis-a-vis those who pled guilty. We sought to find out whether such differentials were affected by the new plea bargaining policy. Thus, it was important to sample a sufficient number of cases that were convicted after trial. Since proportionately few cases actually went to trial, it was decided that all of the 309 trial cases during the two-year period (309 out of 14,000) should be included in the sample. The remainder of the sample--i.e., the 1486 convictions that involved guilty pleas--were randomly selected from the Judicial Information Systems records using a standard sampling technique. According to this technique cases are selected according to random numbers taken from a table of random numbers. The overweighted trial convictions constituted 17% of the present sample N of 1795 cases, while randomly-selected guilty-plea sentences constituted the remaining 83%.[2/]

The basic outcome variable of "sentence"--both jail and fine--was adjusted to reflect periods of time and sums of money suspended from the sentence. Means (averages) of these adjusted or "net" sentences were then used in breakdown and analysis of variance procedures to

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2/ The 309 trial cases included 38 Black cases (28.1% of all Black cases in the sample), 37 Native cases (10.8% of all Native cases), and 215 White cases (18.2% of all White cases). This is fairly consistent with findings in our felony plea bargaining study indicating that Blacks go to trial more often that Whites and Natives go to trial least of all among the three groups.

compare sentences across different subpopulations or groups. Thus, for instance, mean sentences can be broken down according to the level of severity of the defendant's prior record, by his racial group, by whether the conviction was by guilty plea or trial, or by several of these variables at once. The likelihood of receiving probation is expressed by the proportion (in per cent) of a subpopulation that receives a zero jail sentence.

For purposes of analysis we classified misdemeanor offenses according to five broad categories that we believed reflected some substantive similarity. These include (1) Property, (2) Street Crimes, (3) Assaults, (4) Traffic and (5) OMVI-DWI offenses. Representative offenses included in each of these categories are listed in footnote 3, infra.

Analysis Across All Five Offense Classes

The tables that follow deal primarily with mean (average) sentences. Jail times are in days and fines in dollar amounts. These mean sentences were computed only for defendants who received active sentences--that is, sentences of at least one day in jail. Thus, cases that received no active time (0 days in jail) are omitted from the computation.

Averaging in all offenses, Natives and Blacks received substantially longer jail sentences than Whites (Table I). The mean jail

term for Natives (13.76 days) is 83% longer than that of Whites (7.53 days). The mean jail term for Blacks (11.06 days) is 68% higher than that of Whites.

TABLE I

OVERALL MEAN JAIL SENTENCES
BY RACE (IN DAYS)

Blacks	11.06	(64)
Natives	13.76	(181)
Other	7.53	(286)

significant at .001

These mean sentences do not take into account the substantive nature of the convicted offenses or any other variables. Table II reflects a breakdown of mean sentences according to the type or class of misdemeanor at conviction.[3/]

3/ For purposes of this analysis, misdemeanors were classified in five broad groups. These classes are not the same as those we used in the felony analysis. Class I: Property Offenses. Includes petty larceny, malicious destruction, concealment of merchandise, joy riding, credit card theft, and misdemeanor embezzlement. Class II: Street Crimes. Includes disorderly conduct, vagrancy, and prostitution-related offenses, and non-traffic alcohol offenses. Class III: Assaults. Includes simple assault and battery, "misdemeanor" assault with a dangerous weapon and misdemeanor weapons offenses. Class IV: Traffic Offenses. Include reckless driving, negligent driving, and failure to render assistance. Class V: OMVIs and DWI.

TABLE II

MEAN JAIL SENTENCES FOR EACH CLASS OF MISDEMEANOR BY RACE (IN DAYS) (ACTIVE JAIL ONLY)

	BLACKS	NATIVES	WHITES	SIGNIFICANCE
PROPERTY	12.04 (26)	18.30 (78)	7.39 (79)	.001
STREET	13.84 (19)	6.18 (28)	8.66 (53)	NO
ASSAULTS	9.20 (10)	9.43 (23)	8.50 (29)	NO
TRAFFIC	10.00 (1)	20.33 (12)	6.88 (26)	.001
OMVI	3.75 (8)	11.00 (39)	6.94 (100)	.05

The above table indicates that mean Native jail sentences are substantially[4/] longer than those of whites for three of the misdemeanor types: property offenses (148% higher), traffic offenses (195% higher), and OMVI/DWIs (59% higher). Among street offenses, Natives received a less severe mean jail sentence than Whites (29% less than Whites). Black mean sentences are substantially longer than White sentences in two classes of offense--property (63%) and street (60%).

Note that there are no appreciable differences in mean sentences among the three racial groups for misdemeanor assaults. This parallels

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4/ "Substantial has been operationally defined as a mean sentence 50% greater than the mean sentence for Whites.

the finding of our previous felony sentencing study in which Class 2 (violent) offenses were apparently unaffected by any racial bias.

Another way of representing the overall differences in the sentences received by the three racial groups is to compare the proportion of each population receiving a categorical sentence. Five categories of length of jail sentence were used in this analysis, including (1) no active time (all suspended), (2) one to three days in jail, (3) four to seven days, (4) eight to fourteen days, and (5) over fifteen days.[5/] Table III (a bar graph) represents in graphic form the proportion of Black, Native and White defendants receiving these categorical sentences.

5/ These categories were selected based on a frequency distribution of all misdemeanor sentences. We were interested in utilizing a scheme where each level (or category) would have a substantial number of cases.

TABLE III

PROPORTION OF RACIAL GROUP
(in %)

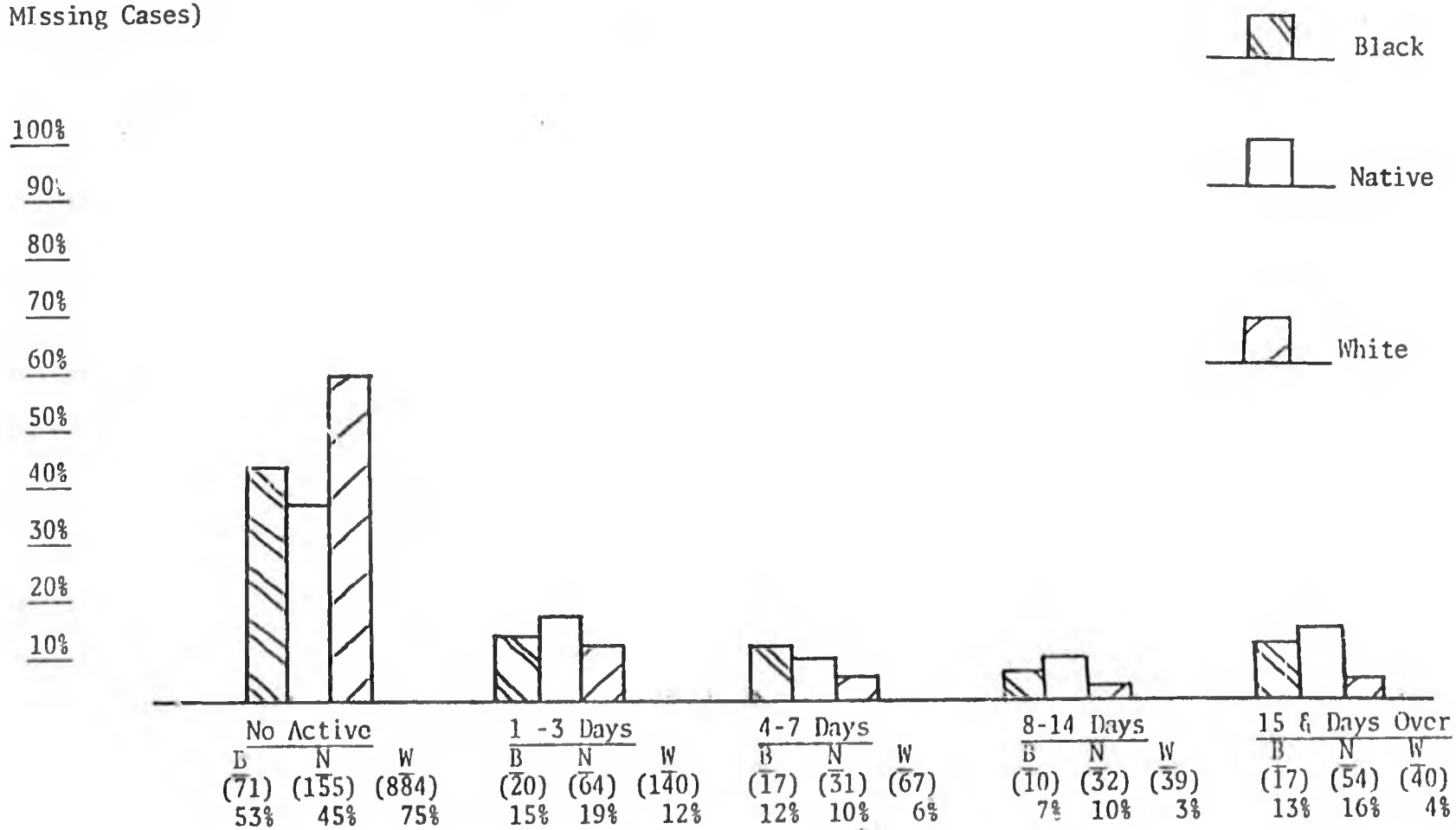
PROPORTION OF RACIAL SUBGROUPS RECEIVING CATEGORICAL SENTENCES

(135 Blacks = 100%)

(342 Natives = 100%)

(1180 Whites = 100%)

TOTAL N= 1657 (138 MIssing Cases)



Prior Record

The severity of the defendant's prior criminal record shows a strong positive association with length of jail sentence. As Table IV shows, mean jail sentence increases as the prior record increases in severity. This table indicates that those defendants with the worse prior misdemeanor records (10 or more prior misdemeanor convictions) received longer mean sentences than those with two or more prior felony convictions.

TABLE IV

MEAN JAIL SENTENCES
BY LEVEL OF SEVERITY OF
PRIOR RECORD
(IN DAYS)
(ACTIVE JAIL SENTENCES ONLY)

All Defendants	10.08	(566)
No prior record	7.42	(188)
1-3 misdemeanors	9.10	(195)
4-9 misdemeanors	10.20	(84)
10/more misdemeanors	19.00	(19)
2/more felonies	17.25	(73)

Given the relationship between severity of prior record and length of jail sentence it is important to consider the distribution of Natives and Whites within the prior-record variable. Perhaps Natives have considerably worse prior records than Whites, and perhaps this difference in prior records explains their longer mean jail sentences.

TABLE V

PROPORTION OF RACIAL GROUP BY LEVEL OF SEVERITY OF PRIOR RECORD (PROPORTION EXPRESSED IN %)

	Natives	Whites
No prior record	28% (97)	53% (623)
1-3 misdemeanors	38% (127)	30% (341)
4-9 misdemeanors	17% (59)	8% (91)
10/more misdemeanors	4% (12)	1% (14)
2/more felonies	13% (43)	8% (89)

significant at .001

Table V, above, indicates that Natives do have worse prior records than Whites. Subsequent tables consider the hypothesis that these worse prior records account for their longer mean jail sentences. Accordingly, mean jail sentences were broken down according to the above levels of severity of prior record for Natives and Whites.

Table VI (below) shows that Natives consistently received longer sentences than Whites among all levels of prior record. Whether the Natives had many prior convictions or few prior convictions, when compared to Whites in the same prior-record group, the Natives always received more severe sentences. Note that Natives with no prior convictions at all received jail sentences almost twice as long as those of similarly situated Whites (11.00 days vs. 6.05 days).

TABLE VI

MEAN JAIL SENTENCES BY
LEVEL OF SEVERITY OF PRIOR
RECORD BY RACE
(IN DAYS)
(ACTIVE JAIL SENTENCES ONLY)

	Natives	Whites	Significance
No prior record	11.00 (41)	6.05 (112)	.005
1-3 misdemeanors	11.82 (65)	6.69 (102)	.05
4-9 misdemeanors	11.96 (38)	9.15 (34)	NO
10/more misdemeanors	26.33 (9)	12.40 (5)	.05
2/more felonies	21.81 (26)	13.57 (30)	.05

However, when mean fines are broken down according to this scheme, the pattern is reversed. (See Table VII). That is, Natives consistently received lower fines than Whites (with the exception of first offenders, where fines are substantially equal).

TABLE VII

MEAN FINES BROKEN DOWN BY LEVEL OF SEVERITY OF PRIOR RECORD BY RACE (IN DOLLARS)

	Natives	Whites	Significance
No prior record	$158.40 (53)	$157.27 (519)	NO
1-3 misdemeanors	$139.69 (65)	$195.11 (282)	NO
4-9 misdemeanors	$189.17 (24)	$216.26 (66)	NO
10/more misdemeanors	$141.67 (3)	$287.50 (8)	NO
2/more felonies	$197.69 (13)	$206.33 (64)	NO

Staying Out of Jail

As noted earlier, all sentences of zero days (no jail time at all) were omitted from the above computations. We will now consider zero sentences separately in order to deal with the following possibility: When jail sentences are handed out Natives are incarcerated for more time, but perhaps this fact is "balanced" by Natives more frequently receiving sentences requiring no time at all, omitted from the previous averaging. Accordingly, Table VIII indicates the proportion of cases that received no jail time, by race, among the five substantive classes of misdemeanors.

TABLE VIII

PROPORTION OF CASES RECEIVING
NO ACTIVE JAIL SENTENCE
BY CLASS OF MISDEMEANOR AND
BY RACE
(PROPORTION EXPRESSED
IN PERCENT)

	Natives	Whites	Significance
Property	25% (26)	52% (87)	.001
Street	62% (46)	78% (191)	.005
Assaults	44% (18)	60% (42)	NO
Traffic	66% (23)	91% (260)	.001
OMVI	55% (47)	76% (314)	.001

Table VIII was compiled to test the alternative hypothesis that more Natives received zero sentences than did Whites, which might have "balanced out" the tendency for Natives to get more active time once the basic incarceration or "in" decision was made. However, Table VIII refutes this hypothesis and actually strenghtens the opposite case. Natives avoided incarceration less often than Whites among all classes of misdemeanor convictions. The numbers of cases in each group are reasonably large. Note that the previously-observed "pro-Native" sentencing differential in street offenses dissipates when the incarceration (in/out) decision is analyzed separately.

Defendants With Clean Records

In an effort to "neutralize" the effect of prior record and simplify comparisons we constructed Table IX, which compares first offense Native and White mean jail sentences for each of the five classes of misdemeanors.

TABLE IX

MEAN JAIL SENTENCES
FOR FIVE CLASSES OF MISDEMEANORS
BY RACE
FIRST OFFENDERS ONLY

	Natives	Whites	Significance
Property	13.00 (11)	4.73 (40)	.01
Street	4.57 (7)	8.62 (21)	NO
Assaults	9.14 (7)	8.33 (9)	NO
Traffic	22.00 (7)	5.25 (12)	.01
OMVI	14.80 (10)	5.69 (29)	.05

As can be seen from this table, the Native-White sentence differentials among property, traffic and OMVI offenses are even greater for first offenders than for defendants generally. Native jail sentences

for property offenses were 175% greater than for Whites, while mean sentences for traffic offenses were 319% longer than the White mean. Finally, Native OMVI sentences were 160% greater than for Whites. However, in street crimes Native first offenders were accorded more lenient treatment than Whites. ("Street" includes prostitution, disorderly conduct, vagrancy, etc.)

Defendants With Bad Records

To contrast with the "clean" first offenders, let us consider a "bad" group of defendants. We selected those with the worst records[6/] (10 or more prior misdemeanor convictions) for analysis. Since the number of cases involved in this table is too small to break down by type of crime, we chose to look at this group on an overall basis, regardless of the nature of the last charge. This seems reasonable, since by the time a person has accumulated a record of over 10 previous convictions, what kind of mischief he has been up to "lately" may not be of overriding importance (if it is still on the misdemeanor level).

6/ As Table IV indicates, overall, defendants with 10 or more prior misdemeanor convictions received the highest mean sentence (19.00 days).

TABLE X

COMPARISON OF NATIVES AND WHITES WITH 10 OR MORE PRIOR MISDEMEANOR CONVICTIONS

	Natives (n=12)	Whites (n=14)
Proportion receiving no active jail	25%	64%
Mean jail sentence	19.75 days	4.43 days
Mean fine	$35.42	$164.29
Mean number of prior misdemeanors	11.5	13.0

N too small for significance tests

As these comparisons indicate, Native sentences persist in being longer than those of Whites, while their likelihood of receiving probation is less. The sizes of the two groups are very comparable, and within this group the Whites actually have somewhat more previous convictions.

Alcohol Intoxication At Time of Arrest

In an effort to obtain information concerning the effect on sentences of alcohol use among the defendants in the sample, the coding instrument included the following item which was to be completed from information on the police report.

What was condition of defendant? (1=Defendant alleged by reporting officer to be under influence of liquor; 2=Defendant alleged by reporting officer to be under influence of drugs; 3=neither or no indication)

While this variable does not provide a perfect measure of the information we seek, it is a fairly good proxy.

Overall, in 37% (n=123) of Native cases and in 47% (n=512) of White cases the reporting police officer said the defendant was under the influence of alcohol at the time of arrest. Information was unobtainable (missing) for 236 defendants (13% of the total N in the sample). A reasonable assumption is that the police reports made no mention of alcohol or drugs in most of the "missing" cases.

TABLE XI

MEAN JAIL SENTENCES
BY RACIAL GROUPS FOR
ALCOHOL INTOXICATION
AT TIME OF ARREST
(IN DAYS)
(ACTIVE JAIL SENTENCES ONLY)

	Natives	Whites
No alcohol	15.13 (124)	8.07 (169)
Alcohol intoxication at arrest	10.79 (57)	6.76 (117)

Table IX indicates that alcohol intoxication at the time of arrest--for those defendants for whom this data was available--was associated with lower mean sentences for both Natives and Whites. However, Native defendants received substantially longer mean jail sentences than Whites, whether or not intoxicated at arrest.

Multiple Regression Analysis

The preceding breakdown tables allow us to consider the relationship between two variables--for example jail time and race--while controlling for variation in other variables, e.g., severity of prior record. However, they do not allow us to control for variation among several variables at once, or to take into account the interrelationships among these variables. Accordingly, we turned to multiple regression analysis which shows us the independent effect of a single variable on length of sentence, while at the same time controlling for variation among a number of other factors. Multiple regression analysis provides a set of coefficients for each of the variables considered in the analysis. These coefficients are an index to the relative contribution of each variable while controlling for the others. Consider the coefficients in Table XII, below.

TABLE XII

MULTIPLE REGRESSION COEFFICIENTS
(ALL OFFENSE CLASSES)

OMVI conviction	-0.789
Native	+2.391
White	-1.400
Each prior misdemeanor conviction	+0.658
Property conviction	+3.811

The above coefficients indicate that a property conviction is the single most important factor associated with a positive jail sentence when the other listed factors (or variables) are controlled for. Moreover, the Native-White disparity noted in the earlier breakdown analysis is confirmed by the coefficients. Whereas being Native has a coefficient of +2.391, being White has a coefficient of -1.400. Any easy (but very crude) way to interpret these coefficients is that, other things being equal (e.g. the number of prior misdemeanor convictions of the defendant and the substantive class of offense) Native defendants receive average jail terms four (4) days longer than Whites.

One hypothesis that we considered earlier concerns the effect of being intoxicated at the time of arrest. Specifically, we ask whether it is Nativeness, in and of itself, that accounts for the higher jail sentences of Natives, or whether these higher sentences are in actuality a function of alcohol intoxication. The following multiple

regression coefficients, which add alcohol intoxication to the list of variables in Table XII, above, allow us to test this hypothesis.

TABLE XIII

MULTIPLE REGRESSION COEFFICIENTS
(ALL OFFENSE CLASSES)

OMVI conviction	-0.818
Native	+2.367
White	-1.420
Each prior misdemeanor conviction	+0.670
Alcohol intoxication	+0.127
Property conviction	+3.852

Table XIII, above, indicates that this hypothesis fails. First, the coefficient for alcohol intoxication at the time of arrest is very small, indicating that its independent contribution to jail sentence is slight. More importantly, the Native-White disparity remains nearly the same. Thus, it is not alcohol intoxication which accounts for the higher Native sentences.

PROPERTY OFFENSES

This section is exclusively concerned with misdemeanor property sentences. These include sentences for petty larceny, malicious destruction, concealment of merchandise, credit card theft, misdemeanor embezzlement and trespass. There were a total of 104 Natives and 166 Whites convicted of property offenses.

Table XI indicates the overall mean jail sentence and fines for Natives and Whites convicted of property offenses.

TABLE XIV

MEAN SENTENCES FOR
PROPERTY OFFENSES BY RACE
(IN DAYS AND DOLLARS)
(ACTIVE SENTENCES ONLY)

	Natives	Whites	Significance
Mean Jail	18.30 (78)	7.39 (79)	.001
Mean Fine	$73.27 (26)	$89.20 (94)	NO

Thus, while Native mean jail sentences were 148% longer than those of whites, their mean fines were 18% less.

Differences between Native and White categorical sentences for property offenses are indicated graphically in Table XV. (See the discussion of these categorical sentences in the preceding section).

TABLE XV

PROPORTION OF RACIAL GROUP
RELIEVING CATEGORICAL SENTENCES

PROPORTION OF RACIAL GROUP

(In %)

PROPERTY OFFENSES

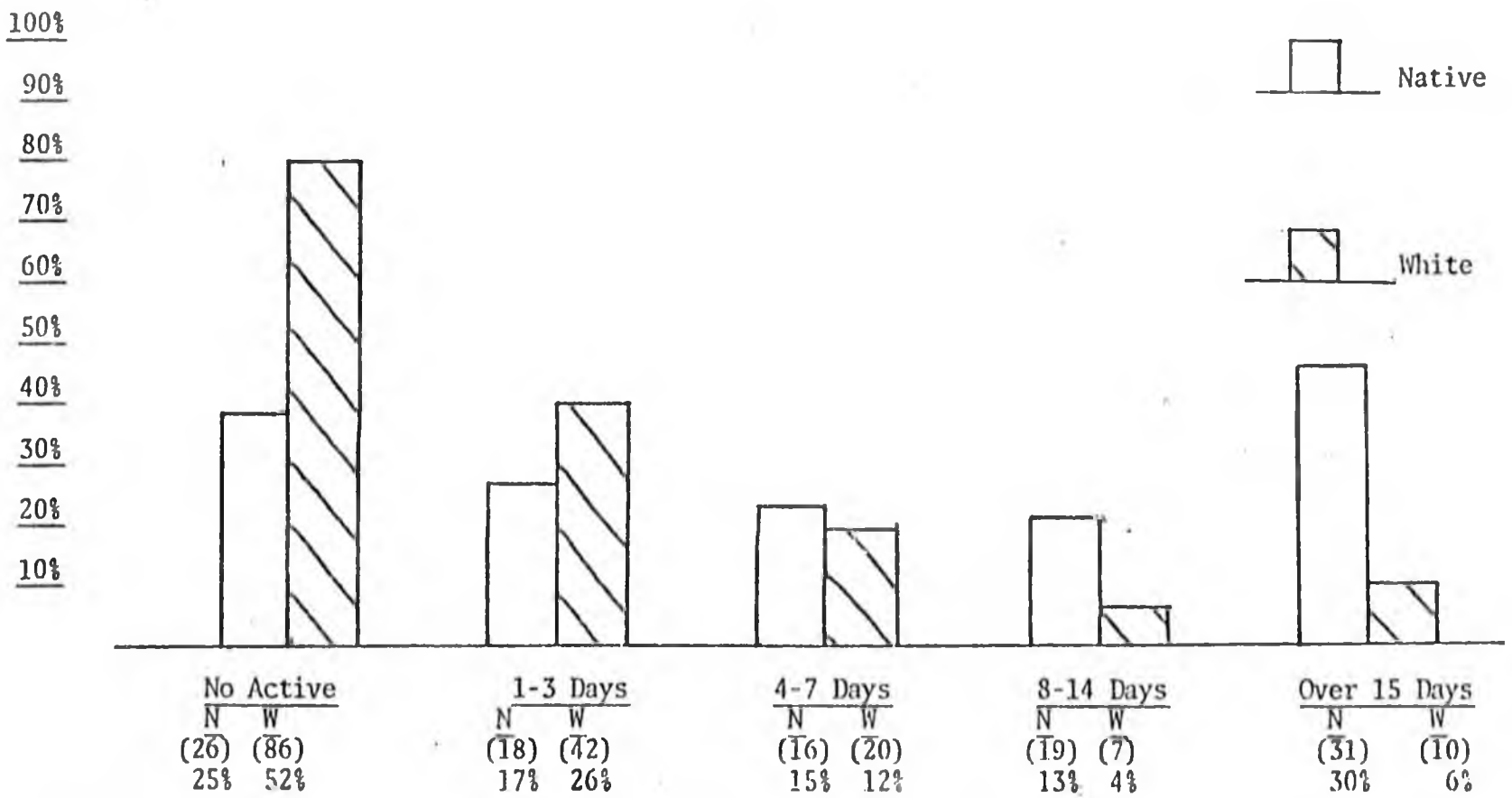


TABLE XVI

PROPORTION OF RACIAL GROUP
BY LEVEL OF SEVERITY OF
PRIOR RECORD
(PROPORTION EXPRESSED IN %)

	Natives	Whites
No prior record	17% (17	56% (92)
1-3 misdemeanors	38% (39)	28% (45)
4-9 misdemeanors	17% (17)	7% (12)
10/more misdemeanors	6% (6)	1% (2)
2/more felonies	22% (22)	8% (13)

significant at .001

Table XII reflects the distribution of level of severity of prior record for Natives and Whites. As this table indicates, Natives convicted of property offenses have substantially worse prior records than comparable Whites. The tables that follow consider the hypothesis that the worse prior record of Natives account for their longer property-offense sentences.

Tables XVII and XVIII, which follow, indicate the impact of the level of severity of the defendant's prior record on the disparities noted in Table XIV. Zero sentences are not computed.

TABLE XVII

MEAN JAIL SENTENCES FOR PROPERTY OFFENSES BY LEVEL OF SEVERITY OF PRIOR RECORD BY RACE (IN DAYS)

	Natives	Whites	Significance
No prior record	13.00 (11)	4.73 (40)	.01
1-3 misdemeanors	11.36 (25)	8.16 (25)	NO
4-9 misdemeanors	17.73 (15)	10.83 (6)	.05
10/more misdemeanors	41.00	----	
2/more felonies	25.75 (20)	15.75 (8)	.05
Missing	(2)		

TABLE XVIII

MEAN FINES FOR PROPERTY OFFENSES BY LEVEL OF SEVERITY OF PRIOR RECORD BY RACE (IN DOLLARS)

	Natives	Whites	Significance
No prior record	$100.00 (6)	$ 99.14 (58)	NO
1-3 misdemeanors	55.33	78.40	NO
4-9 misdemeanors	75.00 (3)	100.00 (3)	NO
10/more misdemeanors	----	50.00 (1)	
2/more felonies	100.00 (1)	50.00 (5)	NO
Missing	(1)		

As these tables show, Natives receive substantially longer jail sentences than Whites among all levels of severity of prior record. This suggests that severity of prior record does not explain the Native-White jail disparity in property crimes. With regard to fines, Whites in the one-to-three and four-to-nine prior misdemeanor categories received larger fines than comparable Natives, while Natives with prior felony convictions received greater fines than comparable Whites.

The Incarceration Decision

TABLE XIX

PROPORTION OF RACIAL GROUP RECEIVING NO ACTIVE JAIL SENTENCE (PROPORTION EXPRESSED IN %)

	Natives	Whites	
	No Jail	No Jail	Significance
No prior record	35% (6)	57% (52)	.05
1-3 misdemeanors	36% (14)	44% (20)	NO
4-9 misdemeanors	12% (2)	46% (5)	.05
10/more misdemeanors	17% (1)	100% (2)	.05
2/more felonies	9% (2)	39% (5)	NO

Table XIX indicates that White defendants are proportionately much more likely than Natives to avoid going to jail for property offense convictions. Moreover, it indicates that this pattern persists despite differences in the level of severity of the prior record of the defendants.

A potentially significant variable among property offenses is the value of property stolen in applicable cases. Table XX indicates that the mean value of property stolen by Whites was 145% greater than that stolen by Native defendants ($64.95 for Natives compared with $159.04 for Whites).

TABLE XX

MEAN VALUE OF PROPERTY STOLEN AMONG PROPERTY OFFENSES BY RACE (IN DOLLARS)

Natives	$64.96	(99)
Whites	$159.04	(166)
Missing	(5)	

significant at .05

In an effort to control for the impact of differences in the value of property stolen this variable was categorized into a four-level measure. These values include (1) none, (2) $1 to $50, (3) $51 to $100, and (4) over $101.

TABLE XXI

MEAN JAIL SENTENCES
BY CATEGORICAL VALUE OF
PROPERTY STOLEN BY
RACE
(IN DAYS)
(ACTIVE SENTENCES ONLY)

	Natives	Whites	Significance
None	17.67 (9)	5.44 (9)	.05
$1 to $50	16.36 (57)	7.24 (55)	.01
$51 to $100	35.60 (5)	9.83 (6)	.05
Over $101	9.00 (2)	8.67 (9)	NO

Table XXI indicates that except among those cases with the greatest value of property stolen, Natives received substantially longer jail sentences than Whites. It would appear that cases involving stolen property of the greatest value are treated more uniformly by sentencing judges; Native-White differences are greatest when the amounts in question are smallest.

Alcohol Intoxication

Another potentially important factor to consider in analyzing the Native-White sentence disparity concerns alcohol intoxication at the time of arrest. Nine percent of the Natives (n=9) and 7% of the Whites (n=11) were intoxicated at the time of

this arrest for property crimes, according to the police reports. Table XXII indicates two important things: First, alcohol intoxication at the time of arrest is associated with a less severe jail sentence when compared to non-alcohol arrests. Second, Native defendants who were intoxicated at the time of arrest received a mean jail sentence nearly five times as great as comparable Whites.

TABLE XXII

MEAN JAIL SENTENCES BY RACE FOR ALCOHOL INTOXICATION AT TIME OF ARREST AND NO INTOXICATION (IN DAYS) (ACTIVE JAIL SENTENCES ONLY)

	Natives	Whites	Significance
No intoxication	18.53 (72)	7.74 (73)	.05
Alcohol intoxication at arrest	15.50 (6)	3.17 (6)	*

*(N too small for significance test)

To summarize, neither level of severity of prior record, value of property stolen, or alcohol intoxication at the time of arrest appear to explain the disparity of the Native-White jail sentences in property crimes. The analysis will now turn to a consideration of specific offenses within the class of property crimes. Perhaps differences in specific offense of conviction explain the apparent racial sentencing disparity.

Specific Offense

A frequency distribution of specific offenses of conviction reveals no appreciable differences between Native and White offenses. The majority of both groups (n=70, or 67% of Natives and n=87, or 52% of Whites) were convicted of petty larceny (AS 11.20.140). Nearly equal proportions of Natives and Whites were convicted of defrauding an innkeeper (AS 11.20.480) (n=4 or 3.8% of Natives, n=5 or 3.0% of Whites), and unauthorized entry (AS 11.20.135) (n=6 or 5.8% of Natives, n=6 or 3.6% of Whites). Proportionately more Whites (n=29 or 17.5% were convicted of concealment of merchandise (AS 11.20.275) than Natives (n=8 or 7.7%), and of trespass (AS 11.20.630) (n=7 or 6.7% of Natives, n=25 or 15.1% of Whites).

Larceny

Insofar as larceny convictions constitute the majority of Native and White property convictions and also involve some of the longest property sentences we chose to analyze larceny sentences separately.

Table XXIII (below) indicates that the Native mean jail sentence for larceny is 128% longer than that of Whites (17.16 days for Natives compared to 7.54 days for Whites). (No significance tests were computed for the following tables because the numbers were too small).

TABLE XXIII

MEAN SENTENCES FOR
LARCENY CONVICTIONS
BY RACE
(IN DAYS AND DOLLARS)
(ACTIVE SENTENCES ONLY)

	Natives	Whites
Mean Jail	17.16 (58)	7.54 (52)
Mean Fine	$82.67 (15)	$98.93 (42)

However, mean fines for Whites were 19% greater than those for Natives.

Table XXIV reflects a breakdown of larceny sentences by level of severity of prior record, and by race.

TABLE XXIV

MEAN LARCENY SENTENCES BY
LEVEL OF SEVERITY OF
PRIOR RECORD BY RACE
(IN DAYS AND DOLLARS)
(ACTIVE SENTENCES ONLY)

	Natives		Whites	
	Mean Jail	Mean Fine	Mean Jail	Mean Fine
No prior record	10.22 (9)	$100.00 (2)	4.30 (27)	$106.88 (32)
1-3 misdemeanors	13.42 (19)	69.00 (10)	6.13 (16)	79.38 (8)
4-9 misdemeanors	17.10 (10)	100.00 (1)	18.33 (3)	50.00 (1)
10/more misdemeanors	45.00 (3)	----	----	----
2/more felonies	21.87 (15)	100.00 (1)	20.50 (6)	----

Table XXIV indicates that among larceny defendants with no prior records and defendants with one-to-three prior misdemeanors, Natives received substantially longer jail sentences than Whites. Natives with no prior records received mean jail sentences 138% longer than Whites. Further, among those defendants with four-to-nine prior misdemeanor convictions and two or more prior felony convictions mean sentences were nearly uniform. This would tend to indicate that having a severe prior record (over four misdemeanors) is the most important or significant factor for a defendant convicted of larceny. Native-White disparities dissipate among these groups with the more severe prior records (with the exception of the 10 or more prior misdemeanor group).

The Incarceration Decision (In or Out)

Table XXV

PROPORTION OF RACIAL GROUP
RECEIVING NO ACTIVE JAIL SENTENCE
FOR LARCENY CONVICTION
(PROPORTION EXPRESSED IN %)

	Natives	Whites
No active jail	16% (11)	40% (35)

With regard to the incarceration decision, Table XXV indicates that a far greater proportion of White defendants convicted of larceny stayed out of jail than did Natives (40% of Whites compared to 16% of Natives).

Multiple Regression Analysis

In an effort to study Native-White property offense sentence disparities by a more statistically rigorous method, and as a check on the earlier breakdown analysis, we used a multiple regression analysis of sentence length. This procedure tells us the independent impact of a given variable on sentence length while controlling for the effects of (or variation in) other variables. Consider the regression coefficients represented in Table XXVI.

TABLE XXVI

MULTIPLE REGRESSION COEFFICIENTS FOR SIGNIFICANT VARIABLES ON SENTENCE PROPERTY OFFENSES

Native	2.927
White	-4.359
Alcohol intoxication at arrest	-1.009
Each prior misdemeanor conviction	0.810
Each dollar of value stolen	0.001
Larceny conviction	2.154

$R^2 = .24$

Perhaps the best way to consider the above coefficients is to view them relative to one another. Thus, a present conviction of larceny, considered by itself and controlling for the other listed factors, has an impact nearly three times as great as having one prior misdemeanor conviction. The interesting thing to note regarding the Native and White coefficients is the magnitude of the negative White coefficient. An interpretation that we believe is consistent with these values is that, other things being equal (or controlled for), a Native defendant starts with the disadvantage of getting some jail time (+2.8) while a comparable White starts with the advantage of getting "negative" time (4.4). The important point, analytically, is that these coefficients confirm the findings of our breakdown analysis.

METHODOLOGICAL APPENDIX

The following description of the methodology used in collecting and analysing the data for this project is provided to give the reader a general idea of the steps involved in arriving at the tables and text we have presented.

Data Collection

1. Sources. Our previous studies of Alaskan felony and misdemeanor sentences suggested three potential sources of information that had to be consulted thoroughly to understand misdemeanor sentencing patterns: court case files, police reports, and Department of Public Safety records of prior criminal histories. Court case files alone were not sufficient because they generally do not include information about hypothetically important factors such as alcohol use, race, age, prior offenses, and a detailed account of what actually occurred at the time of the offense. On the other hand, the two other sources usually do not contain reliable information about the precise offense of conviction, mode of disposition (plea or trial), the sentence imposed, or conditions of that sentence.

Public Safety Department records of prior offenses are used by prosecutors and police and are reported to court officials as the primary source of information about a defendant's previous contacts with the criminal justice system. Similarly, our other sources of information were also the primary records available to criminal justice personnel. The records for individual defendants tended to vary from one another in completeness; some included many pages of information while others consisted of nothing more than one or two forms that had been sketchily

prepared. In order to maintain the maximum consistency in our information about each defendant we attempted to include only those items of pertinent information recorded for the majority of defendants. We also chose to take our information from specific sources: for example, we coded information about alcohol intoxication only from the police report since this was the record in which it was most consistently recorded. The lack of presentence reports for misdemeanants limited the kinds of socio-economic data which could be included in the study. Prior criminal histories, however, could be (and were) coded in great detail.

2. Coders and Coding. Our coding staff came from various backgrounds. Most had a year or more of college education. Several were graduate students with research experience, and others had worked with the Judicial Council as coders on earlier studies. The coding supervisor had two years of research experience beyond her college degree, and was closely supervised in turn by more experienced Judicial Council staff.

The coding form was designed by Judicial Council staff to meet several needs: it had to be easy for coders to use and understand, structured to maximize efficiency in key-punching, and had to reduce the possibilities for either unwarranted exercise of coder discretion or errors at every step. The entire flow of the data from original records through coders, checkers, key-punchers, and computer programming to final analysis was taken into account during the design of the form. Besides the coding forms themselves, coders were given a detailed instruction manual and supplementary materials such as lists of codes for each offense. The coding supervisor kept a notebook of questions which arose during training and

coding along with the clarifications and explanations given to coders so that neither lapses of memory nor hiring of new coders would change the interpretations of the coding manual or forms. This procedure promoted uniformity.

Two days of training using the actual coding forms and case files preceded work on the court files in Anchorage and Fairbanks. Judicial Council staff conducted the training given for all aspects of coding court files, police reports, and Public Safety records. Coders were given experience in coding, in checking each coding form, and in use of the manual and supplementary materials. To fit their work into context, Council staff also described the criminal justice system, meanings of various terms, and reasons for the study, in detail.

3. Checking. Accuracy, (validity) consistency and (reliability) are crucial in a study of this type. Acceptable error rates for coding data from records have been established through years of experience by scientists in various fields who have not only analysed the data collected in studies but coders and the coding process as well. A five percent error rate has been considered acceptable in many similar studies. Throughout our analysis, we attempted to reduce our error rates below the "acceptable" levels through a series of checking procedures.

Each case in our study was coded by one coder. It was then checked through completely by a second coder. Finally, the coding supervisor and Council staff spot-checked at least every fifth case to make sure that no systematic errors were occurring through coder misunderstanding of instructions. Any errors found during this process were corrected. A

random check of coding forms after coding had been completed suggested that the actual error rate was approximately two percent, well below the acceptable five percent level.

4. Keypunching. The second major step in collection and analysis of data is to transfer information from the coding forms to a tape which can be read by the computer. This process requires a person to read the coding form and type (key-punch) the codes recorded on the form onto either computer cards or magnetic tape. While paper cards have traditionally been used and have some advantages, the Council decided to turn to a more sophisticated approach in which the data is punched directly onto a magnetic tape which can be read immediately by the computer. Paper cards can be lost, damaged, or placed out of order. Each of these problems can be corrected, but all are eliminated with the use of a magnetic tape, thus reducing both cost and chance of errors.

Key-punched cards or tapes can be "verified", a technique for insuring accuracy at this stage of the process. Just as each of our cases was checked completely after having been coded, each record on the magnetic tape was re-done completely by a different operator after having been key-punched. Should the second punching disagree with the first, a signal alerts the key-punch operator to the discrepancy and the work is re-done. This verification procedure was guaranteed by the company employed to key-punch our data to give an error rate of three-quarters of one percent (.75%) or less. Superior Business Services of San Francisco, Inc. performed the work for the Council.

5. Computer Analysis. The computer analysis of the data involved two stages: a final checking for errors in the data, and the actual analysis.

Error checking was performed by printing out each variable in two different ways and looking for mistakes. The first procedure, frequency distributions, shows each bit of information coded and how many times it occurs. For example, race in our study could be coded as "1" (=Black defendant), "2" (=Native), or "3) (=Caucasian or other race). If the frequency distribution showed a code of "4" or "7", this indicated an error at some point. The error would then be corrected by printing out the defendant's number, checking his coding form (if necessary and possible, also checking the original source of information), and entering the correct information onto the computer tape. Frequency distributions served other purposes as well. For example, a frequency distribution of all sentences imposed showed that the most fell between 0 days and 21 days in length. In fact, only 11 sentences were of 150 days or more. Because there were so few of these cases with long sentences (they constituted .6% of the entire sample), their inclusion in the study would have skewed or distorted the more typical sentences given to misdemeanor defendants. After a careful analysis of their effects on the other data, we eliminated them from consideration.[1/]

1/ The 11 cases also tend to balance each other out in terms of their effects on our findings of racial disparity. The 11 sentences include the following defendants:

a) 4 sentences were 360 days (1 year), imposed on 1 Black, 1 Native, and 2 Caucasian defendants;
b) 4 were 180 days (6 months), again 1 Black, 1 Native, and 2 Whites;
c) 1 was 176 days (a Native defendant); and
d) 2 were 150 days (5 months), one Native and one White.

The mean sentences among these 11 were 270 days for Blacks, 221.5 days for Natives, and 246 days for whites. Because these means are so close, their exclusion from the study was further justified.

A second procedure for checking the accuracy of our data on the computer was to cross tabulate different variables, for example, type of offense by use of alcohol. Thus, if no defendants convicted of drunken driving had been coded as "intoxicated at arrest", this would have led us to check our key-punching and coding for accuracy. (No cross-tabulations of our variables, however, suggested any such systematic errors). Cross-tabulations also help to describe the defendant population and show relationships among the different variables.

6. Statistical Analysis. We chose to utilize SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences), an integrated system of computer programs designed for the analysis of social science data. (SPSS was also used in our analysis of the felony plea bargaining data.) SPSS programs are considered to be among the most useful and powerful procedures available for analysis of large aggregations of data. The package provides the researcher with a full range of statistical routines for description and analysis.

The primary purpose of using statistics to analyze information is to identify relationships or associations among different factors (e.g., the relationship between race and trial rates, alcohol use and petty larceny, sentence length and prior record, and so forth). Having identified a certain relationship between or among variables, the researcher must also determine the likelihood that the observed relationship is likely to occur by chance. This second aspect of the analysis, statistical significance, is discussed in b), below.

a) Statistical Methods. We used contingency tables, breakdowns, and multiple regression techniques in order to arrive at the findings of our report. Contingency tables are simply two- or three-way cross-tabulations

of variables (see Table VIII, page 12). Breakdowns allow the researcher to compare the mean sentences imposed for various groups of defendants. Tables constructed from this analysis (such as Table XVII, page 23) can show differences among groups of defendants with regard to one or several variables. Each of these two techniques allows the researcher to look closely at the effects of one or several variables simultaneously while controlling the effects of other variables. Multiple regression however, allows more variables to be considered simultaneously, and gives the independent contribution of each variable to the final outcome (in this case, sentence) while controling for each other variable. (See Table XXVI, page 31 for an example). Multiple regression has different limitations on its usefulness than the other two techniques, but can be considered the most rigorous tests of associations among variables.

b) Statistical Significance. Having established certain relationships between variables and outcomes, it is still necessary to know whether the observed differences are "real" or whether they occurred by chance. We relied upon T-tests, Chi Squares, and analysis of variance tests to measure the significance of observed differences presented in this report. We used the traditional level of .05 significance as our criterion for statistical significance. The .05 level measures that the observed differences could be due to chance in only 5 out of 100 cases. Conversely, the researcher can be confident that the relationship or association noted would be the same in 95 out of 100 samplings. Should the test result in a number greater than .05 (such as .08 or .10), the result is not considered to be statistically significant. Significance levels for the tables included in this report are noted on each table. They range from .001 (1 chance in 1000) to .05 (5 chances in 100), which indicates that there is very little

likelihood that any of the results could have occurred by chance. Where the level of significance is greater than the .05 level "NO" appears for the significance level.

Alaska State Legislature

House of Representatives

Committee on Judiciary

Official Business

Pouch V
State Capitol
Juneau, Alaska 99811

MEMORANDUM

TO: Charlie Parr

FROM: Rocky Plotnick

DATE: September 17, 1979

Over the weekend I read the report, Women Offenders in the Alaska Criminal Justice System. It is easily read so I have enclosed a copy for you. Also, I found an article on F.O.I. and am sending that. Happy reading.

In case you don't have any, I have enclosed a per diem claim sheet. Terry Martin came by the office this morning to fill out his and I am sending the other members that participated theirs.

Do you want me to send any of the packets I prepared to members or should I hang on to them? In the meantime I am going to write up what I already have (that wasn't done last week) and concentrate on the Committee's interests. From my notes I made this tentative list:

1) domestic violence - concentrate on HB 392 - what does it do? - is there a need for change in the law? - (Does this mean I shouldn't go to the conference on domestic violence in Seattle?)

2) citizen dispute centers - send for information in San Francisco - success rates - does the court system need legislation to establish?

3) corrections - write up summary of Master Plan - how are prisoners currently classified, including outside the state - is there a breakdown on the classification of minorities? - who or how are the locations of correction facilities determined? - is there a category for race in job applications for corrections? - what about the funds for education at Ridgeview/Eagle River?

4) judges - get the travel time for Supreme Court Judges in the past year (fiscal or calendar) - how much was spent on travel and where did they go? - confirm the number of complaints the Judicial Qualifications Committee receives and the action taken - how are they planning to "advertise" or let the public know they exist?

5) parole board - find out exactly what technical violations are with specific examples - are there any statistics on minorities in terms of paroles granted, denied, or revoked? - how does the board determine character witnesses? - what specific factors are taken into account to determine granting of parole? - what is "good time" and how does it play a part in parole? - get some past board members to testify at invitational hearing - follow-up on Nel's question about parole being granted before 1/3 of the sentence - obtain copies of audit's report and mail to members

District Court
State of Alaska

FOURTH JUDICIAL DISTRICT
604 BARNETTE STREET
FAIRBANKS, ALASKA
99701

CHAMBERS OF
MARY ALICE MILLER, JUDGE

November 8, 1979

Honorable Jay Rabinowitz
Chief Justice
604 Barnette Street
Fairbanks, Alaska 99701

Dear Mr. Chief Justice:

The Michael Rubinstein study which has led to charges by the Judicial Council and the Advisory Committee on Minority Judicial Sentencing Practices of racial bias on the part of District Court judges has defects of such magnitude as to cast extreme doubt on the validity of the study.

Specifically, Rubinstein found no evidence of discrimination in assault cases, but in other kinds of cases he did. He made no attempt to analyze the cases to learn what differences there were among the different types of cases to learn why judges who are unbiased in one type of cases appear to be biased in others.

Second, by directing his staff to ignore all indications of liquor involvement other than the police report, he guaranteed a study which minimized and distorted the effect of alcohol on sentencing patterns. As an example, a defendant charged with shoplifting who testified to the consumption of a fifth of whiskey on the day of the arrest who was not entirely sober during the trial, and whose sentence was, by my order, served in major part at the Community Alcohol Program's live-in facility will be shown by the study to have committed a non-alcohol related offense. The police report does not mention liquor. This example is a real case, not a suggestion of what could have happened.

Ms. White, Rubinstein's assistant, explained to me on the telephone that the reason for this was that it was easy and consistent to look only at the police report. She did not explain the direct order to ignore all other indications of alcohol involvement in the file. Persons inexperienced in misdemeanor cases and police reports may not know that it is an extremely rare police report which mentions alcohol unless it is an essential element of the case--as it is in drunk driving, or minor consuming alcohol cases, for instance. But Rubinstein is an attorney who was a public defender for about two years, not one ignorant of police reports.

Rubinstein made no effort to find out from the case file what a defendant's prior criminal record was. Instead, he obtained from Juneau the record kept by the Department of Public Safety of the State of Alaska, of which the sentencing judge might or might not have been aware. (Actually, most of my case files do contain a twix from this Juneau office.) Rubinstein claims not to have known that the Juneau record is woefully incomplete and is useful only in giving Fairbanks judges a knowledge of some offenses committed outside the Fairbanks area. Our own clerk's index is vastly superior for crimes committed locally, and we rely on it.

In one case, for example, the Juneau record showed eleven prior offenses, primarily drunk in public and disorderly conduct, five of which did not occur in Fairbanks, but it failed to show twelve offenses, largely of the same sort, committed in Fairbanks. At the end of the study period, this defendant was 33 years old, and the shoplifting case involved in the report was his fifth shoplifting case in less than a year, all committed when he was drunk or close to it. (The Juneau record shows only one of these four earlier shoplifting convictions.) But Rubinstein says the defendant's prior record is unrelated to the severity of his sentence. This defendant had been sent to at least two live-in alcohol treatment facilities previously by a judge This is another case in which the police report will not mention alcohol, and so the relatively more severe sentence this defendant received is unrelated to either alcohol or his prior record according to Rubinstein. Nonsense.

Rubinstein's method of analyzing prior records is strange. The report uses five categories of prior criminal record: (1) no prior convictions; (2) one to three misdemeanors; (3) four to nine misdemeanors; (4) ten or more misdemeanors; and (5) two or more felonies. Often these categories do not make sense. For instance, the worst OMVI offender is not the offender who has two felony convictions in which liquor is not involved; it is the defendant who has prior OMVI convictions; the more such convictions, the more serious the offender. However, the importance of two felony theft convictions in a subsequent shoplifting ca. is obvious, but neither of the felony cases appears on the Juneau record. This again is a real case, not what might have been.

The study did not include information on prior alcoholic treatment programs given the defendant in other cases. After two or three such treatment programs have been unsuccessful, sobering-up-time in jail seems the only answer, unless we are to encourage the defendant to go die in a snowbank. After a heavy drinking period of weeks or months, delirium tremens and convulsions can occur a week or more after withdrawal from alcohol. No effort was made to determine the number of cases in which the long sentence was essential to the defendant's physical recovery from a drinking bout.

The assignment of people to racial categories is odd. Oriental people are categorized as white. If we are prejudiced, would not the prejudice against natives extend to Orientals with their similar skin color and eye formation?

My analysis of my own cases is far from complete because Rubinstein stalled for two months before giving me a list of the cases I heard which were involved in the study, and he is continuing to stall about other information I have requested. On October 29 I asked for a list of what he considered to be alcohol related cases. On November 8 I received his letter dated November 5 but postmarked November 6, saying it will take another week or two to retrieve this information. He could have sent it the day he received my request--all it takes is to push the button on the computer, and the computer will print it out.

I have examined my OMVI (operating a motor vehicle under the influence of intoxicants) cases fairly carefully. It is true that the average sentence given natives is longer than that given whites. However, of my eight cases involving natives, three had Breathalyzer readings ranging from .28% to .35%. Most people are passed out at that level, and the capacity to function when that drunk indicates serious alcoholism. These three natives received sentences of ten to twenty days' imprisonment. Only two of the 28 whites convicted of OMVI had a Breathalyzer reading of over .25%. One white defendant received a 30-day sentence, and the other was not imprisoned because imprisonment would have meant loss of his job. He is still in the community and has not driven drunkenly since that time. The natives whose blood alcohol levels were in the range of most whites received the same sentences as the whites. The one black defendant on my list received the same treatment as the mid-range whites. But Rubinstein says alcohol involvement resulted in less severe sentences and that natives were unfairly discriminated against. Again, nonsense.

Something of the same sort is shown by my property crime cases, which involved fourteen whites, sixteen natives, and one black. All the natives had prior liquor related offenses (five of them had 20 or more prior convictions) and all the property offenses committed by natives involved some degree of intoxication. Of the whites, five of the fourteen cases involved some degree of intoxication, and only three had any prior record at all. The one black among my property cases received a fifteen-day sentence, and was actually guilty of a felony theft. He received a break before he reached my court, and was not unfairly treated.

It is not newsworthy to say that many Alaska natives have a liquor problem of major proportions. It is not newsworthy to say that one effect of alcohol abuse is involvement with the criminal justice system, regardless of race. It is, however, newsworthy to say that judges are racially prejudiced.

This report is terribly important to me. If my analysis showed that I am a bigot, however unwittingly, I must learn how to recognize that trait in myself and how to rid myself of it.

So far, I find no such indication, but I do find strong evidence that Rubinstein owes the taxpayers who financed his study a refund. He should also be thinking very carefully of his duty as a lawyer to avoid deceptive practices before a tribunal or legislative body, and of his ethical duty to be certain of the merit of his complaints about the judges of this state.

Yours very truly,

Mary Alice Miller

Mary Alice Miller
District Court Judge

MAM/ek

cc: Members, Judicial Council
Members, Advisory Committee
Fairbanks Daily News-Miner

ALASKA 1979

Abused Women's Aid in Crisis, Inc.

November 21, 1979

Hello!

Enclosed is a copy of the Violence in the Home Conference Report, held by Abused Women's Aid in Crisis last June. We have chosen to send this report to you as the most concise way of continuing to keep you informed on the issues of domestic violence in Alaska.

The conferees worked very hard and you will find in Section III a list of recommendations for your consideration.

Sincerely,

Kit Evans

Kit Evans
Executive Director

Community Office
417 W. 8th Avenue
Anchorage, AK 99501
(907) 279-9581

Women's Shelter
POB 4-819
Anchorage, AK 99509
(907) 274-4561

Male Awareness
417 W. 8th Avenue
Anchorage, AK 99501
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ALASKA STATEWIDE CONFERENCE

ON

VIOLENCE IN THE HOME

JUNE, 1979

Abused Women's Aid in Crisis, Inc.

Kit Evans, Executive Director

TABLE OF CONTENTS

VIOLENCE IN THE HOME CONFERENCE, 1979

On May 15, 1979, Governor Jay S. Hammond issued the following proclamation.

> Alaska, as a national leader in the effort to secure dignity and equality for women, has engaged in legal reform, established a commission on the status of women, and provided funding for five shelters for battered women and their children.
>
> As a means of continuing this effort to ensure the liberty and safety of the women of our Sate, I, Jay S. Hammond, Governor of the State of Alaska, do hereby proclaim May 28 through June 3, 1979, as
>
> HALT VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN WEEK
>
> in Alaska, and encourage all citizens to join in building a society in which women can be freed from terror and violent assault.

It was for this purpose that on Sunday, June 3rd, women and men began gathering from around the state to look at the issues of domestic violence, and to become more educated and more skilled in halting those cycles of violence in the home. Others arrived from Washington, D.C., Wisconsin, Massachusetts and Washington state to share their expertise and experience and to learn from us.

I. CONFERENCE DESCRIPTION

Conference activities were divided into two sections beginning on Monday and going through late Friday afternoon. The first two days focused on training specifically for clergy and lay leaders while the following three days were broad based, open to the public and focused upon expertise sharing rather than training.

The Seminar was arranged and coordinated with AWAIC, Inc, by the office of the Alaska Family Violence Program utilizing LEAA funds, which it administers. Without the efforts of Sema Lederman and her assistant, Jean Faulkner, the seminar could not have happened. For an agenda describing topics covered, see Attachment B.

The workshops were arranged by AWAIC staff and board of directors, residents and ex-residents, utilizing state funds. All speakers, facilitators and panelists donated their time.

CLERGY SEMINAR

On Monday morning the first pre-conference sessions began at St. John's Methodist Church. Twenty clergy from throughout Alaska met with Reverend Marie Fortune and Denise Horman, MSW, from the Prevention of Sexual Violence Project which is based in Seattle and sponsored by the Church Council of Greater Seattle. They provided a two-day session, titled Counseling Issues: Family Violence; a Seminar for Professionals in Ministry, which covered rape, sexual abuse of children and spouse battering within a pastoral counseling framework.

The sessions were perceived by participants as being extremely intense, as well as both troubling and enlightening. Various clergy shared that it could be very difficult to face or even admit to the presence of rape, incest and spouse battering within their congregations. Others mentioned problems with their own feelings when confronted with such things as a member confessing to having sexual intimacies with a daughter, or a pillar of the church finance committee admitting having beaten his wife unconscious. It was a specific intent of this seminar to assist clergy by providing accurate information and counseling tools that could blend effectively with pastoral guidance.

When the clergy joined the statewide conference they commented repeatedly on possessing a new awareness, and feeling they could begin to confront and assist their congregations in facing and dealing with family violence. An immediate result was that several seminar participants returned to their congregations and gave sermons addressing the issue of battering and sexual abuse.

VIOLENCE IN THE HOME WORKSHOPS

The purposes of this second statewide conference on domestic violence were to promote public dialogue examining three major areas of interpersonal violence, the adult female victim, the adult male batterer and the sexually assaulted child, and to provide information and expertise to those professionally and/or personally involved.

These goals were approached by using a variety of compo..ents which included providing written, verbal and audio/visual information and using a participatory model for workshops.

The workshops followed a uniform format -- a general session with a speaker or a panel, followed by small group sessions which explored specific areas of concern. Wednesday opened with an overview on the battered woman, Wednesday afternoons session began with a panel discussing the batterer and Thursday mornings presentation focused on the sexually abused child.

Individuals with expertise were recruited from the community, statewide and nationally to lead and facilitate the workshop sessions as well as to provide introductory panels or speakers in each of the three areas.

These individuals included representatives from such organizations as the Center for Children and Parents, Alaska Legal Services, Municipal Prosecutors office, Pre-Trial Intervention, Providence Hospital, Shelter and Resource Center staffs, state Division of Social Services, Elmendorf AFB and the U.S. Coast Guard.