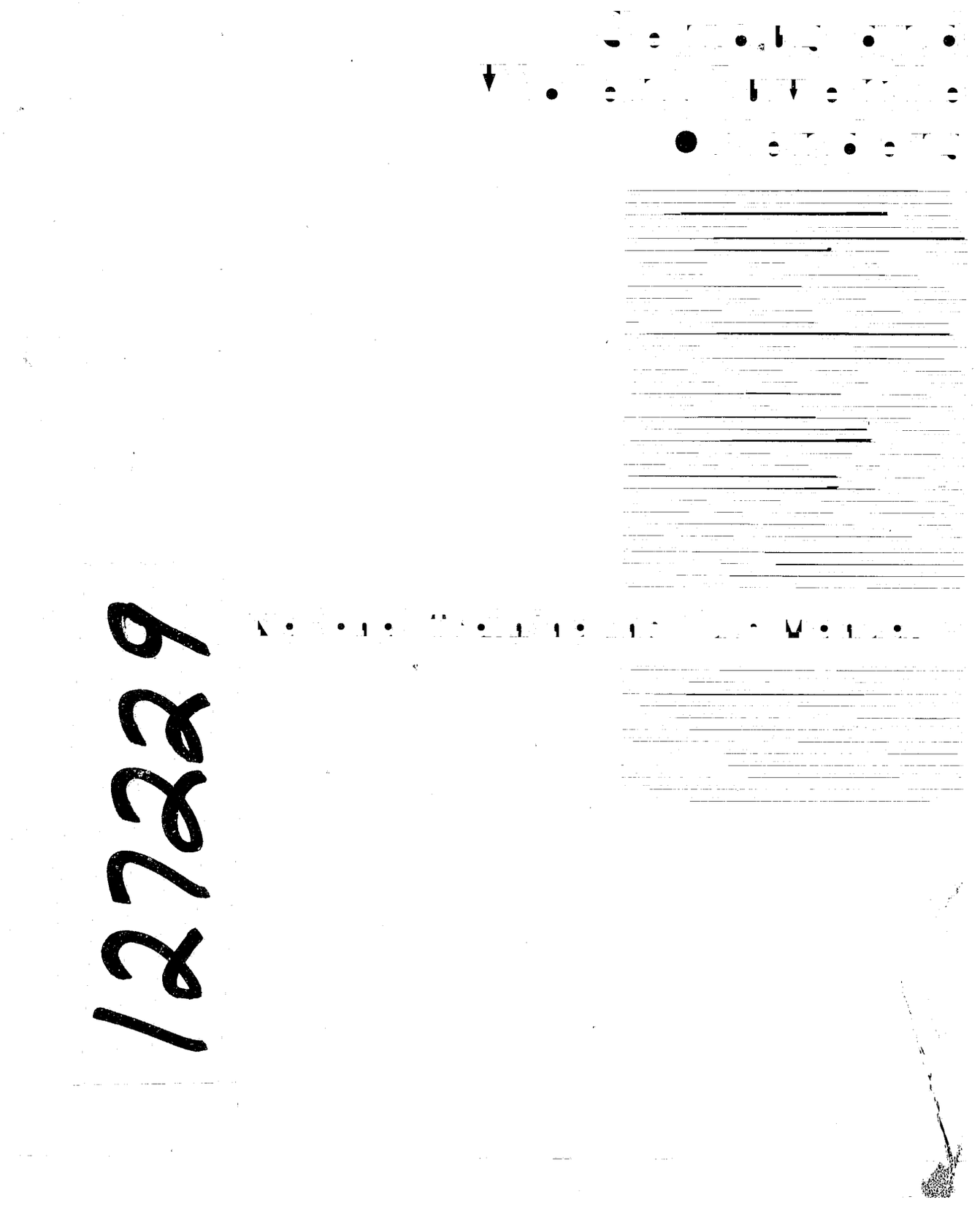

NATIONAL TRAINING INSTITUTE ON SERIOUS AND VIOLENT JUVENILE OFFENDERS

Manual II

This volume is one of two training manuals of the National Training Institute on Serious and Violent Juvenile Offenders, published by the National Youth Work Alliance. Inquiries on obtaining additional copies should be addressed to:

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We extend our sincere appreciation to the many people who contributed to the publication of this volume. Each of the authors (project consultants) must be thanked for his or her contribution to the total concept as well as for each of their specific articles which make up this volume. Separately, the chapters provide insight to the issues most certainly raised when designing programs for serious offenders. Together, they compliment each others thoughts and ideas. It was not our intent to provide the reader with all the answers, nor to have the authors answer all the questions in the same manner. Rather, our approach was to present this volume as a complimentary one with Volume I, which is the Training Manual. Taken together, these two volumes raise issues and provide a number of answers, as well as questions, around policy and programming for serious juvenile offenders.

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Chapter I

Planning, Developing and Implementing Programs for the Serious and Violent Offender

PLANNING, DEVELOPING AND IMPLEMENTING PROGRAMS

This Chapter will deal with functional issues involved in the planning, development and implementation of programs for serious offenders. It will emphasize the necessity of a three stage approach to move a program from being an idea to becoming a reality: planning, developing and implementing.

There are issues, steps and processes common to all forms of youth programming. This commonality permits this section of the manual to be relevant to all types of programs for the serious offender. Additionally, a generalist approach has been utilized to maximize this adaptability.

PLANNING

The planning stage of successful program development for serious offenders is essentially the idea stage. It begins with the conception of a basic idea: providing appropriate community-based programming to effectively respond to the needs of the serious offender. It ends with the development of a cohesive set of operational definitions which provide the basis for program development.

The planning stage may first appear to be a simple, even automatic process involving only conceptualization. Rest assured it is, in fact, a task-oriented and time consuming process. As it is the foundation upon which the future program will be built, the planning stage necessarily merits as much time, energy and commitment as the development and implementation stages are given.

At this point you may be wondering what issues are involved in the planning stage. Primarily it focuses on answering a set of basic questions:

- For whom am I trying to develop a program?
- What type(s) of program(s) will best respond to their needs?
- Who can help me/hinder me in my efforts?
- How can I pay for the program?

If you have been involved in providing services to youth you may feel that you can easily answer each of those questions. It must be emphasized, however, that the planning stage is <u>not</u> where vague, idealized answers provide a solid ground work for building a successful program. Additionally, this is <u>not</u> the time to rely on one person's or agency's conception of the problem or solution.

To build a successful program for serious offenders one must first acknowledge the volatile nature of the issue as a whole. Community-based care for the serious offender has not in the past nor will be in the foreseeable future an idea welcomed with open arms by a large mass of the population. It conjures up images of criminals running loose, burglars living next door, and other emotionally charged scenarios. Successful programs for the serious offender must acknowledge the existence of these images and fully prepare to respond to them in an effective manner. These initial responses, both program and process in origin, must begin their development in the planning stage.

The planning stage should take approximately three (3) months to complete. It is the place in program development to "get the lay of the land." There are four (4) major goals for the planning stage:

- To determine the feasibility of the concept
- To focus activity to bring the idea to fruition
- To determine actual needs that require a programmatic response
- To identify the most effective programmatic response to those needs.

The primary tasks of the planning stage are to identify, obtain, and analyze data and information; and translate that data and information into programmatic and procedural responses. In other words, to develop operational definitions to key words in the original idea--words such as appropriate, programming, effectively, respond, needs, and serious offender.

Perhaps the best way to assist you in focusing the planning stage for your program is to refer back to the four (4) basic questions raised earlier in this section, and identify the activities associated with each task.

FOR WHOM AM I TRYING TO DEVELOP A PROGRAM?
AKA: Target Population

- o Define your geographic catchment area. What county(s), city(s), neighborhood(s) are you going to include in your service area? This may be pre-determined by your current service area, or you may wish to reduce or expand the service area for this particular program. Leave some room for adaptability in response to funding or community demands.
- o Obtain relevant statistics for the target population within the geographic catchment area. This data needs to include the following:

1) Total number of youth in the geographic catchment area

2) Police arrest statistics for the previous year - categorized by offense, sex, age, police disposition

3) Current Probation/Court Services caseloads and previous years' statistics - categorized by offense, sex, age, service type provided

4) Juvenile Court statistics for the previous year - categorized by month, offense, sex, age, disposition of case

o Develop a matrix of these statistics to facilitate the identification of the target population. Example:

Total # of Youth ____
% of Youth in Targeted Sections ____ %

	Offense	Age 13	14	15	16	17	18
	Disposition						
	POLICE						
	Station Adj.						
	Detention-To Court						TARGET
	Non-Detain-To Court						
	COURT						
M	Warning						
A	Refer to Soc. Serv.						
L	Probation						
E	Detention						TARGET
	Institution						
	PROBATION						
	Check-in only						
	Counseling						
	Non-Secure Placement						
	Secure Placement						TARGET
(Female)							
	POLICE						
	Station Adj.						
	Detain-To Court						TARGET
	Non Detain-To Court						

		Age					
		13	14	15	16	17	18
F E M A L E	COURT						
	Warning						
	Refer to Soc. Serv.						
	Probation						
	Detention						TARGET
	Institution						
	PROBATION						
	Check in only						
	Counseling						
	Non-Secure Place						
	Secure Placement						TARGET

This matrix serves a multiplicity of purposes. A matrix needs to be developed for each offense category you are considering in defining serious and violent. Obviously, status and minor property offenses are excluded from consideration. Other offenses, such as index crimes, need to be examined more closely. As official perceptions of what constitutes a serious offense varies from community to community, one must be cautious of making pre-judgments. The official response to behavior is the most objective method of defining your target population. How does the matrix define the target population?

1) It can identify offense categories that are currently treated as serious by the local juvenile justice system. Offenses where 75% of the total number of youth apprehended on a specific offense category fall into the target sections of the matrix should be considered serious offenses. The 30%-69% range should be considered marginal for inclusion into the program's target population.

2) Conversely it can identify offense categories that are not currently treated as serious by the local juvenile justice system. The matrix can help minimize the danger of "widening the net" by including offense categories that are not treated as serious, as so often occurs when a new program arrives in a community. Where 29% or less of the youth apprehended for a specific offense fall into the targeted sections, the offense should be excluded from the functional definition of violent offense.

3) The age and sex categories of the matrix provide data to support target population decisions regarding these important programmatic factors. By identifying the numbers of males and females separately, you can better determine whether to develop a program for males,

females, or a coed facility, and have the justification for that decision based on statistics.

The matrix is a useful tool to analyze the statistics garnered from the police, courts, and probation/court services. This information will be necessary in demonstrating the need for your program to funding resources and the community. It will also be useful in developing a program that responds appropriately to the target population. It is very hard to assess a target population's needs and design an effective program without a clear definition of who the target population is.

- o Develop a profile of youth currently identified as serious offenders.

  1) Several factors contribute to attributing the label of serious offender to a youth. The matrix system above assists in identifying specific offenses which almost automatically label a youth as serious. Another major factor in the official labeling process is recidivism. A youth may commit a relatively non-serious offense (the 29% or less category on the matrix) and still be considered a serious offender by the juvenile justice system because of a recidivism factor. The recidivism factor involves the number of offenses committed by the youth combined with the time between offenses. A youth committing two auto theft offenses within a three year time period will not generally be considered a serious offender. However two auto thefts in one month could result in a serious offender label. The recidivism factor will vary from community to community. Since recidivism statistics are often times hard to obtain, conversations with juvenile justice authorities can help define the point at which recidivism becomes a factor in the labeling process (i.e. 3 delinquency adjudications in 1 year). This recidivism factor needs to be reflected in your program's intake criteria, along with the identification of specific offense behavior.

  2) Interviews with juvenile justice system personnel need to be conducted to ascertain common perceptions of who is the serious offender. Additionally, these interviews will provide you with some indication of what barriers and assistance may face a program serving this population. Your interview process needs to include:

     - police; juvenile division officers

     - courts; judges, attorneys, court service workers

- probation; juvenile case workers; and

- service providers; private and public child care personnel, school counselors, alternative education personnel

3) Some attention to the perceptions of the community-at-large should also begin at this stage. A survey of past media stories on juvenile crime will be helpful in this initial assessment.

WHAT TYPE(S) OF PROGRAM(S) WILL BEST RESPOND TO THEIR NEEDS?
AKA: Program Types

Once the basic parameters for your target population have been developed consideration must be given to the types of service/programmatic responses that will most effectively meet the needs of those youth. There are three primary program categories to provide community based care for the serious offender: residential, non-residential, and combined services. Each of these categories consist of a variety of specific program models.

In determining which basic category will best serve your target population, several factors need to be considered:

1) present structure of your agency

2) existing services or programs currently serving target population or readily adaptable to provide service

3) defined needs of target population by juvenile justice personnel and local service providers

4) fiscal resources available per program type

Residential

In most cases, where a residential facility is not available for serious offenders this is the most logical choice for program development. It is the perception of the majority of juvenile justice and social service personnel that residential placement is a necessity for community based care for the serious offender.

Within the residential care category there are several program models. The following is a brief description of each model within the residential care category.

o Group Homes - General considered a group living situation consisting of 5-20 youth, professionally trained houseparents, professional support personnel, with a clearly defined internal structure. Occasionally, group

homes will operate with teams of professional staff working rotating shifts to provide 24-hour coverage, in lieu of houseparents and support staff.

There are two types of group homes: 1) therapeutic which includes the responsibility for all counseling and assistance in addition to the basic maintenance responsibilities (food, shelter, home management, basic support for youth). Therapeutic group homes generally incorporate behavior modification, group therapy, or other therapeutic milieu into the internal operating structure of the home. Often a therapeutic group home will include an educational component. Therapeutic group homes require a high level of staffing, with a low staff-youth ratio. Additionally, the level of staff expertise and training is necessarily high. The home's internal structure must be fairly rigid, and well integrated throughout the program, lessening the program's adaptability for the specialized needs of some youth needing placement. 2) non-therapeutic generally utilizes houseparents with moderate professional staff support. There is no therapeutic component to the in-house structure. Staff is concerned with meeting the basic life needs of youth placed in the home; i.e. food, shelter, clothing, general supervision, daily maintenance tasks, and everyday interaction with youth. All counseling, educational, and specialized assistance needs of youth are provided by either the group home's administrative agency or other service providers in the community.

- o Specialized Foster Care - These are small residential placements designed for the care of one (1) to six (6) youth. Foster parenting can be provided by a variety of individuals in their own home. Foster parents are usually required to attend training sessions which primarily delineate their roles and responsibilities, and general child care information. As a rule, foster parents are not classified as professional staff by an agency. Casework is provided by the agency licensing and utilizing the foster home. Often specialized services such as group counseling, tutoring, health assistance, and job training are provided by other social service agencies in the community. Specialized foster care can be provided by either small, one or two parent homes serving one (1) to three (3) youth; or in more structured environments of two parent homes caring for three (3) to six (6) youth.

Non-Residential

The use of non-residential programming for serious offenders is relatively recent. The success of day treatment programs for the mentally ill has led to the acceptance of

non-residential treatment alternatives for other people exhibiting disruptive behavior. Depending upon the assessed resource needs of your target population, and the potential for acceptance by the juvenile justice/social service community, non-residential programming may be feasible for your area.

There are three primary types of non-residential programs for the serious offender: day treatment facilities, networking service system, and home detention. These programs are not exclusive and can easily be combined to create an expanded range of services.

- Day Treatment - A day treatment program provides supervised care and treatment for youth during the daytime hours. Youth reside either in their own homes, or in foster care while enrolled in a day treatment program. The program generally includes: close staff supervision, a therapeutic component, education and/or vocational training, life skills assistance, and some degree of planned recreational activity. The therapeutic component can consist of one or more treatment milieus: individual therapy, group therapy, behavior modification, rational behavior therapy, etc. Staff training and experience should reflect the treatment modalities utilized in the facility. By providing a variety of treatment milieus, the program will be better equipped to handle the individualized needs of the participating youth.

- Networking - The development of a networking service system is contingent upon the existence and accessibility of a broad range of services in the community. It consists of a casework managing system to evaluate the needs of the youth, identify the programs to best meet those needs, facilitate and coordinate the service delivery, and monitor and track the youth's progress within the service network. Youth utilizing a networking service system reside at their natural homes or in residential placements. The networking service system maximizes the use of community services and is contingent upon the existence and accessibility of a broad range of support services. To operate a networking service system the following support services are necessary:

  - counseling/therapy; individual, group, family
  - education; tutorial, public, alternative
  - vocational/job training
  - health
  - recreation; organized, informal

- residential placement; crisis intervention, short-term, long-term

- 24-hour client response system

Combination

As mentioned in the above section on non-residential programming, it is often desirable to provide a combination of residential and non-residential programming for the serious offender. Non-residential programs necessitate the existence of a supportive natural family or a residential placement for the youth. A major role of non-residential programs can be to provide after-care and supportive services to a residential program. In this capacity the non-residential program establishes a linkage between the residential program and return to the natural family or independent living for the youth. The supportive nature of non-residential programs supplies necessary elements to ensure a successful transition from placement to home. Conversely, residential programs provide an emergency/interim resource for non-residential youth experiencing a short-term crisis.

This brief descriptive section on service/programmatic types is designed to provide a glance at several options available to you. There are certainly many variations of each of the program types listed. After making a preliminary decision regarding the type or types of program(s) best suited for your target population, you will need to research that program model in more depth. This research will enable you to explore the many variations of each model, and facilitate the development of a successful, responsive program for the serious offender.

WHO CAN HELP ME/HINDER ME IN MY EFFORTS?
AKA: Inter-Agency Cooperation

It is necessary to begin addressing the issue of inter-agency cooperation during the planning stage of program development. Through these initial contacts, you can begin to assess important information affecting the proposed program's viability.

Initial resistance to the concept can be utilized to identify potential barriers. These barriers can include community resistance to locating a residential program in a particular neighborhood; reluctance of some social service agencies to provide necessary supplementary services, zoning difficulties, territorial issues with other agencies and/or refusal of juvenile justice personnel to sanction and utilize your program. As these barriers are identified, strategies for overcoming them can be devised. It is best to begin this effort at the beginning of the program development effort so that you can better prepare for any "battles" that lie ahead.

The initial efforts at inter-agency cooperation can also be the source of future service linkages and support for the program. It provides you with a rationale for exploring the resources of the community--something many of us neglect because of our other agency responsibilities. A program for the serious offender may provide the basis for new alliances within the community.

The following is a suggested list of groups and agencies that should be included in your inter-agency efforts:

- Probation/court services
- Courts: judges, attorneys
- Police
- Detention officials
- Service Providers: state child care agencies, traditional child care agencies, private child care agencies, mental health agencies, community service agencies (YMCA, Boys Club)
- Educational Resources: schools, GED programs, alternative educational programs
- Vocational/Job Training Programs
- Health Care Facilities

In fostering inter-agency cooperation, care must be given to providing a role for other agencies without losing control of the planning and development of the proposed program. This is a particularly vulnerable issue in the planning stage. Prior to beginning your inter-agency efforts establish basic parameters for the program. This should include boundaries for the target population, service area, and program type. Once you begin meeting with the various agencies, their notions about these programmatic issues will be communicated to you. Unless there are clear boundaries previously established, the myriad of notions and ideas that will be presented may derail the program planning and development processes.

If it can be avoided do not address a group of agencies or agency representatives together. Many times the group process, and group role structure can acquire such a large personna, that the group itself will assume control of the program processes. Additionally, the group structure may become the focal point of the meeting (dissonance, posturing, etc.), and inhibit the information sharing process.

When communicating to other groups or agencies about the program ideas that you are exploring, inform them in a general way. At the planning stage of program development provide only basic, general information--exploring the possibility of developing a program for serious offenders. As you are meeting with these various agencies:

- o listen closely to their responses;
- o attempt to guage their interest-positive or negative;
- o begin to identify potential barriers and support;
- o gear your initial "game plan" from the responses; and
- o begin to prepare responses to identified barriers.

HOW CAN I PAY FOR THE PROGRAM?
AKA: Funding Resources

An obvious consideration in program planning is the issue of funding. As the federal government is continuing its efforts to get out of the youth service field, the mainstay of many youth service programs is being eliminated. Most human service agencies are now seeking alternative funding approaches; and almost all are accepting the inevitability of multi-source funding. This is indeed a time of tight budgets and scarce resources.

The following is a list of funding resource categories, with notes on how to locate available funds within each:

- o Federal Government - (difficult, but not impossible) Check the Federal Register and Commerce Business Daily on a regular basis (bi-monthly, at least) for notice of requests for proposals (RFP's). Available at most public libraries.
- o State Government - (build ongoing contacts in social service departments) Contact program development personnel of various social/human service departments; get on state departmental mailing list for contracts and bidding; check major metropolitan and state capital city newspapers on Sunday, Monday, and Friday (every day, if possible) for bid notices; See if there is a state equivalent to the Federal Register and review on a regular basis.
- o Local Government - Obtain a copy of the current city/county budget, including a line-item budget for human/social services; meet with local department heads and government officials to discuss your interests/qualifications/ideas; research the method of budget allocation used by your local government.

- Foundations - See if there is a foundation resource center in your area, if so plan to spend several days researching potential private funding sources; check with local public libraries or university libraries for foundation directories; identify potential foundation resources, and write to obtain application procedures and forms.

- Corporations - Identify major corporations operating in your community and geographical catchment area; contact the identified corporations by phone to obtain the name of their Public Relations Department Head; write a letter, including a brief description of your agency, then call to arrange a casual meeting with the P.R. person to discuss your agency and generally, the proposed program.

- Contracting/Sub-contracting - Identify other community agencies that may be willing to purchase the services of your program, such as mental health, court services and local state departments. Also explore the possibility of an agency which may be interested in funding your program as a sub-contract (in whole or part), this should include large traditional social/human services such as private child care institutions, and religion-affiliated social service agencies.

- Fee For Services - Seek legal advice regarding the necessity and advisability of altering your agency's tax status; obtain any existing fee schedule information from other social/human service agencies in your community; look into insurance coverage qualifications for potential clients.

- Co-operative Projects - Similar to the contracting/sub-contracting section; explore the possibility of merging with one or two other community agencies to develop and operate a joint program, a merger can provide the proposed program with an expanded set of resources, networks, and influence that can improve its chance for development and success.

DEVELOPING

Once you have gathered and analyzed all of the information necessary in the planning stage you are ready to move on to Stage 2--Development. In the development stage you will make use the myriad of data you have collected to create a program.

In the development stage the goal is to refine the programmatic concepts that you have identified in the planning stage. This stage is primarily focused on activities to be accomplished. To facilitate this process, the same four categories

delineated in the planning section will be used in this section. In each category a list of activities, tasks and deliverables will be presented. The development stage determines whether the program will move from an idea to a reality.

Because of the task-oriented nature of this stage, and the necessary dependence on others (funding sources, support groups) to accomplish their part of the activity, a specific timeframe for the development stage is difficult to define. Generally, you should count on six (6) to nine (9) months for program development.

Now, on to the hard work that lies before you.

Target Population

Defining your target population, using the information generated by the planning stage, serves several overall purposes. It demonstrates existing needs and gaps in the current service delivery system for serious offenders. This, in turn, provides your program rationale and assists in the development of an appropriate program structure. It also serves to operationalize the proposed program's service function.

The time has now arrived to develop the basic intake criteria for your program. This criteria must specify the following:

1) specific geographic catchment area

2) characteristics of youth such as age range, sex, offense patterns, presenting problems

3) behavior categories including educational level, ability to exercise minimal control over behavior, acting out behaviors, self destructive tendencies, overt violent behavior towards others, running away, drug/alcohol abuse, sexual behaviors, and other behavior characteristics reflecting the youth's ability to successfully deal with your program.

In developing this criteria be sure that you do not, by defining these points, exclude a majority of the youth currently identified as serious. Conversely, use the criteria to eliminate those youth who are not currently regarded as serious. This may be accomplished by developing a list of offenses and/or behaviors which alternately are an appropriate basis for referral and are inappropriate for referral. The classification list for appropriate referral needs to include offenses/behaviors which you consider borderline. This enables you to include these youth in the initial referral process, and provides leeway for the acceptance of these youth, with supporting evidence that he/she is appropriate for the program.

Some flexibility should be left in the intake criteria. Funding sources, local juvenile justice system personnel, and supporting groups may request alterations in the intake criteria. If you build some adaptability into the criteria at the beginning, and define specific boundaries of change, the problem of making changes will be substantially decreased.

Tasks and Deliverables

1) Define specific target population.

2) Develop lists of behaviors and offense categories which are appropriate and inappropriate for initial referral to the program.

3) Define the parameters of the intake criteria with regard to modifications.

4) Develop a written intake criteria sheet, delineating specific characteristics of youth.

Program Structure

Use the identified target population to define your program structure. The data gathered in the planning stage should provide an indication of what type of program structure is indicated to meet the current needs of serious offenders in your community.

The primary consideration addresses the issue of residential vs. non-residential programming. If non-secure residential services are currently available and accessible for serious offenders it may be a duplication of services to develop a residential program. You would need to determine if your program would provide a service that was 1) substantially different from, 2) a necessary supplement to, or 3) a needed complement to the existing residential service. If residential services are not currently available or accessible for your defined target population, strong consideration should be given to a residential program structure. A majority of practitioners view residential programs as the primary source of services for the serious offender. Secondary issues to be considered include:

1) supplemental services and programs;
2) potential service linkages;
3) community attitudes; and
4) juvenile justice system attitudes.

The decision to opt for a residential program is followed by the issue of 'what type of residential program.' As noted in the section on planning there are several choices: therapeutic or non-therapeutic group homes, and individualized or

small group specialized foster care. To facilitate the decision regarding the residential model you wish to utilize, you must become familiar with each option. Research on existing residential programs may require a little digging on your part. Two places to start are the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, and National Council on Crime and Delinquency Reference Service. Other national organizations or agencies such as the National Youth Work Alliance, Act Together, the Child Care Association, the National Center on Institutions and Alternatives, the National Child Welfare League, and the National Office of Social Responsibility may be of assistance in identifying successful programs and models.

If you decide to opt for a non-residential program model you must be certain that the program will be accessible to the youth it purports to serve. Youth who are residing in detention, other agency group homes, or child care institutions may be prevented from participating in your program. This issue must be resolved prior to committing yourself to a non-residential program model.

Upon arriving at a decision to develop a non-residential program you face the issue of what type of program: day care, networking, home detention or one of the many variations of each. Again, research into program models will assist you in this process. Be sure to take into consideration the present service gaps and the various service delivery systems presently accessible to the target population. Care must be taken to avoid service duplication and overlap.

After you make the decision about the program's structure, it is time to clarify and refine the program. Prepare a program description including the following:

1) target population
2) intake criteria
3) type of program--basic model
4) services to be offered
5) methodology or treatment milieu
6) program goals for participants.

This program description provides you with an opportunity to clarify the program's structure. It can be used as an instrument to determine the supplementary services you may need to provide for program participants. Additionally, it will provide the basis for determining the budget and projected costs of the program.

Perhaps more importantly this detailed preliminary program description will be necessary in communicating program needs and goals with resources, funding sources and other interested parties. It can be utilized to garner community support and to address barriers to the program.

Interagency Cooperation

Once you have defined your target population and determined your program structure it is time to move out into the community with your ideas. In the planning stage you provided people with the basic concept of providing services for the serious offender. It is now time to let others know what services you propose to provide and how you plan to provide them. Armed with information from the planning stage regarding who the serious offender is, and your program description you are ready to face the world.

The first step is to identify resources in the community. The following is a list of resource categories, with suggested contacts within each category:

I. Potential Service Contractors
   - A. Courts
   - B. Probation/court services
   - C. State social service agencies
   - D. Traditional social service agencies

II. Potential Service Linkages
   - A. Educational
   - B. Medical
   - C. Recreational
   - D. Specific Problem Counseling (alcohol, drug abuse, etc.)
   - E. Tutorial
   - F. Employment/employment training
   - G. Legal

III. Community Support
   - A. Political figures
   - B. Local officials
   - C. Business leaders
   - D. Churches
   - E. Volunteer organizations
   - F. Social service community
   - G. Juvenile justice community
   - H. Media representatives

The first two categories, potential service contractors and potential service linkages will need to be approached first. These are the agencies and people that it will be necessary with which to interface. The potential service contractors may provide a substantial financial base for your program. This fiscal support can be vital to securing general operating and/or start-up funds from other sources. The potential service linkages provide you with a range of supplemental services for the program, permitting a comprehensive approach to the care and treatment of serious offenders. One program cannot hope to meet all of the needs of its target population. If

there are existing community services that are or can be made accessible to these youth, there is no rationale to devote your program's resources and energy to providing the same services. It is through this linkage system that comprehensive, adaptable services can be provided, maximizing the existing resources in your community. An additional factor in the creation of linkages is that it will promote the program support and minimize the opposition of these agencies, by providing the agencies and groups a vested interest in the success of the program.

The third category, community support should be approached with some caution. Utilize a quiet but honest approach. Don't provide too much time and/or information that may facilitate efforts to oppose or blockade the program. Consider the formation of a program advisory board with representatives from the identified groups. Don't ask people who oppose the program or the concept to be on this advisory group, with the hope that their participation will alter their opposition. In many cases not only will their opposition not diminish, they may erode the support of others on the committee. The role of a community advisory committee during the development stage consists primarily of providing support for the program. This can take the form of approaching potential funding sources, devising strategies for dealing with opposing community groups/members, testifying at zoning hearings, and other efforts to promote community acceptance for the program.

Another community related issue which must be addressed in the development stage concerns the legality of the proposed program. Check to see what the state laws and local ordinances are regarding program licensing. This is particularly relevant if the program is to include a residential or day care component. Licensing issues include the process, timeframe, restrictions and requirements of the proposed program structure. If necessary, explore alternative child care licensing options such as court approval for residential facilities and/or subcontract licensing by a larger entity such as Catholic Social Services, etc. The other legal issue concerns program location. This includes local zoning ordinances and the role of community governing and planning boards. When choosing potential program sites be realistic regarding location. Explore a variety of options such as transitional neighborhoods, mixed commercial-residential areas and newly developing areas. Consider access to public transportation and proximity to service linkages in your decision.

When approaching the community-at-large, anticipate your opposition. In your preliminary talks with juvenile justice personnel, community support groups, and potential service contractors/providers listen to any comments which could be perceived as barriers to the program. Note each issue that is raised. Prior to re-approaching community members or groups prepare well researched, documented responses to those issues.

To prepare yourself for the most commonly raised issues you should:

1) research studies to support community-based care for serious offenders

2) identify studies to refute claims regarding the impact of your program type on neighborhoods (i.e., lower property values, damage to residences, harm to residents)

3) establish good media relations prior to your approach to the community, to facilitate rapid media access when opposition occurs.

Funding Resources

The last, and perhaps most crucial task in the development stage concerns funding the program. As we all know, money for social service programs of all types is scarce. Many agencies who were thriving two years ago, are now struggling for survival. Because of the current financial crunch, there is heavy competition for every available dollar.

Multi-source funding has become a fact of life for most private human service programs. Although federal funding has greatly diminished there are other resources. In the planning section of this chapter a listing of funding resource categories was listed. Utilize that list as a guide to help identify potential sources of funding.

The task is now to use the list of potential resources to obtain program funding. The ten sequential steps for pursuing program funding are:

1) Develop a 6-8 page concept paper containing:

   a) rationale for program - derived from your analysis of the statistical data collected in the planning stage

   b) description of target population - a brief description of who you will serve

   c) program structure - what services will you provide and how; include any program linkages, specific methodology, treatment milieu

   d) basic budget - prepare a line-item budget for the program; if you can break it down into components, or by timeframes do so in a separate space.

e) corporate capabilities statement - your agency's track record, structure, and fiscal management procedures, include your tax status, EOE policy and other relevant documents in the appendix.

It will be hard to get all this into a 6-8 page statement, but remember this is a concept paper, not a full proposal.

Suggested page breakdowns are:

- o rationale - 1/2 to 1 page
- o target population - 1/2 to 3/4 page
- o program structure - 2-1/2 to 3 pages
- o budget - 1 to 1-1/2 pages
- o corporate capabilities - 1 to 1-3/4 pages

2) Identify potential funding sources, researched from the previously noted list.

3) Prioritize list of resources according to:

   a) accessibility
   b) funding track record (grant amounts, timeframes, area of interest)
   c) funding process

4) Develop three (3) to four (4) groupings of resources according to either probability of funding or area of funding. Prioritize within each grouping. Example:

Service Delivery	Administrative Costs	Education Component	Building Renovations	General Operating Funds
State Agency	Y Corporation	Dept. of Ed.	T Foundation	Elks
Mental Health	Q Foundation	Local Schools	Local Union	VFW
X Foundation	United Way	County Gov't	Z Corporation	City Counci
Service Contracts		Service Contracts		R Foundatio

5) Send a copy of the concept paper, with a cover letter to prioritized resources. The cover letter should be exploratory in nature. If being sent to a corporation or foundation request information and any forms necessary for grant applications. Unless you have a good personal relationship with a person in the federal agency you are applying to, it is best to not send unsolicited concept papers. This may also apply to the state level of government, dependent upon the structure of the state agency. In these cases it is best to set up a face-to-face meeting with a division head, or high

level staff member to discuss the potential for funding, and the most acceptable process for approaching the agency.

6) Follow up your letters with phone calls within two weeks. Use these calls to set up discussion meetings with the funding source, confirm the receipt of your application, and stimulate interest in your program.

7) Be accessible for questions, to provide additional information and clarifications, and to promote your program to others connected with the funding source.

8) Be adaptable, within delineated boundaries, regarding target population, program structure, budget, linkages, etc.

9) Prepare formal proposals upon acceptance of concept paper. Be sure to:

   a) follow defined guidelines and procedures
   b) use the prescribed format
   c) write clearly and concisely
   d) use charts, graphics to demonstrate program ideas
   e) write a 1-2 page program summary to accompany the proposal; include the amount of funds you are requesting from that source.

   If there is no prescribed format, the following is suggested:

   table of contents
   statement of purpose (rationale)
   corporate capabilities statement (brief)
   program narrative
   timelines/task delineation (pert chart)
   budget
   budget narrative
   management structure
   appendix - agency legal forms (tax, EOE)
              resumes of program personnel
              supporting statistical data

10) Revise proposals as requested by the funding source. The most common target of revisions is the budget. Establish a minimum level of funding and do not go below it. If necessary divide the funding up into smaller pieces and request that the funding source pay for a smaller piece. Then go in search of supplemental funding for the remainder. Exercise caution in requests to revise your program structure. Be clear regarding your basic services and methodology, and set limits on your negotiations.

IMPLEMENTING

By now you have expended a large amount of time, energy, and hard work in planning and developing your program. The third stage, implementation is where the idea you had the year before, becomes a reality. Some people who work with serious offenders would say that here is where the real work begins. [Maybe they have never had to plan or develop a program!] Realistically, the entire process demands hard work and dedication. The implementation stage changes the nature of that work. It is the point where the concepts, structure and ideas, that you set down on paper must be operationalized in the real world. You must use the "theoretical" proposal to produce real services, for real people, in an everchanging community . . . and make it work.

The timeframe for this stage will vary depending on 1) funding availability; 2) facility readiness; 3) staff hiring and training; and 4) youth referral to the program. Realistically, this stage can range from one (1) month to three (3), in terms of program start-up time. There are six functional areas of tasks to be accomplished in the implementation stage.

Funding

The first functional area is funding. Prior to accepting youth into your program, at least one year of funding must be secured. Obtaining supplemental and future funding for the program should be included in your ongoing program activities. Develop a funding calendar, denoting potential funding sources, foundation/corporate board meeting dates written on a year long calendar, with timeframes for proposal preparation and submittal included. Contract renewals should also be written on the calendar. One person should have the responsibility for tracking and monitoring the funding activities for the program. Continue to regularly check the Federal Register, Commerce Business Daily and other publications for funding opportunities.

Formalized Service Linkages

Prior to program start-up any contracts or subcontracts to provide services should be established and signed. These formalized service linkages are used for the provision of your programs services by other agencies/organizations; and your program's use of supplemental services provided by outside agencies/organizations. The agreements need to be legally binding and contractual in nature. They should minimally include:

1) process for referral/accessing services
2) price per unit
3) response time for service provision

4) intake criteria
5) billing procedure
6) tracking mechanism/accountability measures
7) client information exchange process
8) termination procedures
9) renewal information

Management

There are two areas of program management which must be established--fiscal and programmatic. Some agencies will divide the responsibility for these two areas between a Director and an Assistant Director; others may place all management responsibility with one person.

Fiscal management for your program may already be set by your agency as a whole. Nevertheless a method for monitoring and tracking the serious offender program must be developed. This is of particular importance when multiple funding sources are used. There are three major issues to be addressed in program fiscal management:

1) Establish a commonly utilized bookkeeping system;

2) Develop a method to track expenses, including staff time, supplies, travel, and facility usage for each functional area and funding source;

3) Obtain written approval for specific fiscal procedures from each funding source prior to program start-up.

Programmatic management includes the entire area of staff support and supervision. To facilitate a smooth program, from a management perspective, staff roles and responsibilities must be clearly delineated. This includes specific position descriptions and clear lines of supervision. The development of a program and agency personnel chart will assist this process. You should also develop a personnel procedures manual that includes:

1) sick/vacation time policies and procedures
2) unauthorized leave
3) reporting requirement (i.e., timesheets, travel vouchers, supply requisitions)
4) travel regulations (authorization, travel advance, per diem, mileage)
5) complaint procedure/process
6) training requirements
7) attendance at work and scheduled staff meetings
8) salary adjustments
9) pay periods/salary advancements
10) internal forms
11) performance evaluations

12) probationary periods
13) benefits (insurance, pensions)

Supervision and service accountability are the joint responsibility of line staff and supervisory staff. Staff meetings for all program staff, together and individually should be scheduled on a regular basis. Setting these supervisory meetings for the same time every week or every month (dependent upon your staff needs) will minimize the risk of conflicting schedules. Methods of reporting program activities should be included in the ongoing staff activities. This can be accomplished through monthly reports, regular entries into files, individual staff schedules, and/or weekly activity briefs. By developing a specific reporting format to be utilized by all staff the process can be streamlined.

Staff training should also be included as an integral part of program management. This training must include orientation to the agency and program, personnel policy and procedures, skill building, and internal office procedures. Ongoing training in the skill building area will help your staff grow into increasingly competent professionals. Many times each staff member will have a level of expertise in a particular area or with a methodology. Utilizing the expertise available within your staff should provide a great start in providing an ongoing training program.

Youth Referrals

The process of referring youth can be critical to the ultimate success of the program. It is through the development of clearly defined intake criteria that appropriate youth are screened into the program. Intake criteria will also clarify and define your program's services, for outside referral sources. It must be clear, objective, and written with room for adaptability within set boundaries. Included with the specific criteria should be information concerning the data necessary and the formalized procedures for referral to the program. The procedures need to specify both the standard process and an emergency process. The following is a list of characteristics to be defined in a program's intake criteria, and a suggested list of information to include in the program's referral process. [From "Specialized Foster Care for 'Hard-to-Place' Juvenile Offenders," Kimberly L. Barnes, for the National Center on Institutions and Alternatives, May 9, 1980.]

Minimally your intake criteria should include the following:

1) Age Range - Both minimum and maximum ages of youth should be specified.

2) Geographic catchment area - This is usually determined by the geographic catchment area of the program. Some agencies may want to develop a pilot program in two or three existing service areas.

3) Organizational type of youth served - Is the program designed to serve any or all of the following types of youth:

   a. recently adjudicated youth

   b. youth in danger of institutionalization

   c. youth currently institutionalized

   d. youth recently released, or scheduled for release from an institutional setting

   e. youth referred specifically to the program by the courts

   f. youth referred to the program as a condition of probation

4) General placement goal orientation of youth referred - The precipitating factor for requesting placement in the program. What are the general placement treatment expectations for youth placed in the program? Examples include:

   a. return to natural home within one year
   b. self-sufficiency of the youth
   c. community based alternative to institutional care
   d. institutional aftercare
   e. specific treatment (medical, psychological, physical)

5) General behavioral expectations - What types of behavior are acceptable and unacceptable? What types of minimal personal maintenance standards exist for youth in the program? Issues to be dealt with here include:

   a. mental retardation
   b. capacity of attending to basic personal needs
   c. participation in school or training program
   d. history of violent behaviors
   e. history of severe self destructive behaviors
   f. severe emotional problems

The following list is information suggested for youth referrals to a serious/violent offenders program:

I. 1. Referral agency name, address, phone number and case contact person

2. Date of referral

II. Written social history of youth including:

a. youth's name
b. youth's social security number
c. agency identification number (if appropriate)
d. youth's age/race/sex/date of birth
e. agency's legal responsibility
f. financial status of youth - i.e., social security, medical assistance, public assistance

III. 1. Reason for referral

2. Statement of initial placement goals and projected timetable

IV. 1. Legal status of youth

2. Legal history of youth - include any juvenile court interventions, and dates

3. Pending legal action regarding youth

V. 1. Medical history of youth

2. Brief description of the youth's physical, emotional, mental, educational and social development and current status

3. Identification of any notable physical or mental abilities/disabilities of the youth

4. Dates and results of any psychological or developmental tests and the recommendations of the test(s)

5. Describe the youth - in terms of his/her personality, character, and behaviors

6. Presenting problem areas of youth

7. Youth's school record

8. Youth's previous placement history

9. Family background - parental descriptions and current situation; sibling description(s) and current situation(s)

10. Youth's relationship with his/her family

Program Staffing

Obviously a program must have a model, funding, facilities, and a structure. But a program's staff can turn a good project into a great one . . . and conversely a great one into a failure. Always search for the best possible program staff within fiscal and programmatic constraints. There are two basic types of staff in a program--administrative and progammatic. Administrative staff includes the program manager, secretarial, clerical, bookkeeping and accounting personnel. Although these people may not be directly involved in direct service provision, they must feel like an integral part of the "team". Encourage their participation and interest in all program activities. When at all possible, include them in staff meetings and staff retreats.

Programmatic staff includes all line staff and their supervisors. These are the people with direct responsibility for service provision. A supervisors' primary role is staff support and assistance. Line staff need to be provided information and training regarding serious offenders, with attention given to specific behavioral problems such as drug abuse, sexual abuse, child exploitation, mental illness, and aggressive behaviors. Additionally, they should be familiar with local resources, key actors in the community, the juvenile justice system, as well as program methodology, techniques and goals. If the program is to be geared towards any particular ideology it is important for the direct service staff to understand and support these "guiding principles".

A program dealing with the serious offender requires a low staff-youth ratio. These youth will be multi-problem and will require substantial assistance. Arrangements for the 24-hour availability of direct service staff need to be made. Be sure that your 24-hour coverage arrangements do not unduly burden one or two staff members, but distributes the on-call work evenly among the staff. Supervisory and line staff must be provided significant input into modifications in the program structure. The program's structure can be altered to maximize staff strengths and minimize staff weaknesses. That is the role of a good program administrator and the mark of a great program.

Volunteers

As resources become more and more scarce and program funds are being cut back to basic maintenance, the role of volunteers has become increasingly important to youth services. Volunteers can provide a myriad of auxiliary services for your program. They can provide transportation, recreational activities, tutorial services, clerical assistance, and youth training for your program. In order to get and keep good, reliable volunteers a program must be willing to provide training,

support and meaningful work for those volunteers. The volunteers must be made to feel an integral part of the program. They must feel that their time and energy is well spent and personally fulfilling. That task is the job of the entire program staff. A good volunteer program needs to include:

1) recruitment activities
2) screening/application procedures
3) training
4) set scheduling of work times
5) defined roles and responsibilities
6) methods for feedback to volunteers
7) integration into program as a whole

One way that volunteers can be useful for a serious offender program is through the development of a mini-workshop series for program youth. This program provides skill training for youth, maximizes the existing skills of the volunteers, promotes good community relations and costs little or no money. Almost sounds too good to be true, doesn't it? The mini-workshop series consists of volunteers working with from three (3) to five (5) youth in a mutual area of interest. The best way to explain this program is through example. Locate a volunteer who has a hobby of working on automobiles. Identify three to five youth who are interested in learning about auto mechanics. Schedule a four (4) to six (6) week mini-workshop on a Saturday morning (or any convenient time). The youth will go to the volunteer's garage at the scheduled time. The role of the volunteer is to teach the youth basic tasks in auto mechanics and to provide activities with which the youth can assist him/her. These types of mini-workshops can cover a variety of skill building areas. Some examples are:

1) cooking
2) personal appearance (make-up and hair styling)
3) auto repair
4) woodworking
5) carpentry
6) gardening
7) sewing
8) handicrafts
9) painting

The workshops can be held in the volunteers' homes, local churches, or in the program's facilities. The small group interaction that develops in the workshops provides role models for the youth, and promotes a better understanding of the problems facing these youth, for the volunteers. Because the workshops only last 4-6 weeks at a time, the volunteer is able to make a short term commitment, or feel free to take "time off" throughout the year. To facilitate the teaching/learning aspect of the workshops the volunteer and program staff must develop some type of evaluation tool for the youth and for the

instructor. This can be a simple one page closed question form, an individual demonstration type of evaluation (such as cooking a dinner for the program staff and youth, making a shirt or dress, etc.) or completing a team project such as a garden. Youth must be allowed to provide feedback to the instructor and the program staff. This will help insure that the workshops are providing training, and reduce the chance of the youth being used as free labor with no payback. As the mini-workshop series progresses, you will find that you have created a cadre of training areas and program volunteers.

This technical assistance manual is basically theoretical in nature. It incorporates the current "state of the art" with regard to programs for serious and violent offenders. It provides tips, cues and suggestions garnered through experience and academic work of many professionals in the field. Due to its inherent nature as a technical assistance manual it cannot insure that the program you devise, with its help, will succeed. Only you and your staff can do that. It is up to you to take the information contained in this manual and utilize it, adapt it, and when necessary disregard it as best suits the needs of your agency, community and the youth you are serving. In other words, it's up to you to make it work.

Chapter II

Selected Intervention Strategies

SELECTED INTERVENTION STRATEGIES

Therapy has relevance and meaning only if it is understood and applied to a specific context of human growth and development. A framework is needed to guide the process, evaluate its impact, and provide a rationale for its use. Each therapist must develop his or her own theoretical viewpoint in order to be truly effective. This development of a personal approach is necessary for a therapist to make the best use of the resources available within the residential framework. Once the therapist has an understanding of the process and at least a partial commitment to a theory that is congruent with individual personality and once the therapist has learned the techniques relevant to that theory, decisions can be made as to a functional approach.

The basic supposition of this approach is that each person has certain human needs that are met through social interactions with other human beings. The extent to which our needs are met is dependent on the type and quality of interpersonal relationships we have with others. Our environment and heredity provide one with opportunities we can utilize in meeting our needs, but we basically depend on our interpersonal relationships to determine how.

Abraham Maslow (1943, 1954, and 1962) developed the hierarchical conceptualization of human needs that is used as the basis for our discussion. Maslow contended that people have certain basic needs that serve to motivate them to behave in a manner to satisfy those needs. Our needs are differentiated and have prepotent qualities that influence what need is going to be called into play as predominant and what needs will emerge upon satisfaction of a prior need. Maslow postulated five basic needs including (in order of priority): physical needs, safety, love and belonging, esteem, and self-actualization. He stressed, however, that the individual should be viewed as a total person and that any motivated behavior can satisfy many needs at the same time. His main thrust was that man is dominated by wants and not by satisfactions because once a need is satisfied, other needs emerge that must be dealt with.

Besides the priority aspect of our need, Maslow noted an important distinction between our lowest-order physiological needs (food, clothing, and so on) and the progressively higher needs of safety, love and belonging, esteem, and self-actualization. Physiological needs are meant to be gratified and not deprived so that the higher-order needs and their goal-directed behaviors can emerge. These higher needs are social needs, and an individual's drive to satisfy them is much more critical in human motivation than is physical-need-gratification. This is particularly true in our society, where for all practical purposes most people have access to the means of satisfying their physiological needs.

The needs hierarchy and the physical-social need distinction have direct application to counseling. If our clients are experiencing deprivation in any of these areas, that area most likely will be the focus of the counseling process. An overall goal of group counseling is to help clients meet their lower-order needs in a consistent manner, which will enable them to progress toward self-actualization. In addition, the social nature of the higher-order needs suggests that the group-counseling process is a plausible means of helping clients meet these needs.

In any relationship, as illustrated in Figure 1, there are two perspectives, that of self and that of others. By placing the self on the horizontal axis and others on the vertical axis and adding the dimension of knowing and not knowing to each, a window is formed with four quadrants depicting different aspects of relationships. By manipulating the size of the various quadrants we can graphically illustrate the nature of all relationships from initial contact and acquaintance (small open area) to deeply intimate associations (large open area). There is no intrinsic value orientation in the model stating that all our relationships should be characterized by a certain degree of openness. Rather the model is a tool for studying relationships, and it provides a basis for assessing their growth. Most of our relationships run the openness gamut, but there is no human relationship that can be characterized as being completely open.

Quadrant I is the open area representing information held in common by the self and others in the relationship. As relationships develop, the open quadrant increases in size according to the mutual sharing of the persons involved. Quadrant II is the hidden area and represents information known to the self but not shared with others. This quadrant encompasses all the self-knowledge accrued through personal experience and learning. The mechanism of sharing what we know about ourselves is called self-disclosure. Through the process of self-disclosure we move information from the hidden area into the open quadrant. Quadrant III is the blind area. This area contains knowledge and perceptions others know about us but have not shared with us. The mechanism for sharing material from the blind area is called feedback and entails the sharing of our perceptions about others that they are not aware of. Quadrant IV is called the unknown area and represents the potential for growth that is a part of all relationships. Information from this quadrant materializes as a relationship progresses through its various stages of development. Information seldom moves directly from the unknown to the open; it usually follows a route through either the hidden or blind quadrants into the open area.

The factor governing the amount of self-disclosure and feedback that occurs in relationships is risk. There is little

risk in disclosing something about yourself that is already obvious or in giving feedback that a person is familiar with already. As the material shared becomes more personal in nature, the element of risk increases. Risk is taking the chance that others will reject us or that we will experience some form of reprisal as a result of what we share. For this reason we tend to guard against letting others know us or sharing our perceptions of others until we are reasonably sure that such action will be received in a nonthreatening manner or will accomplish a desired result.

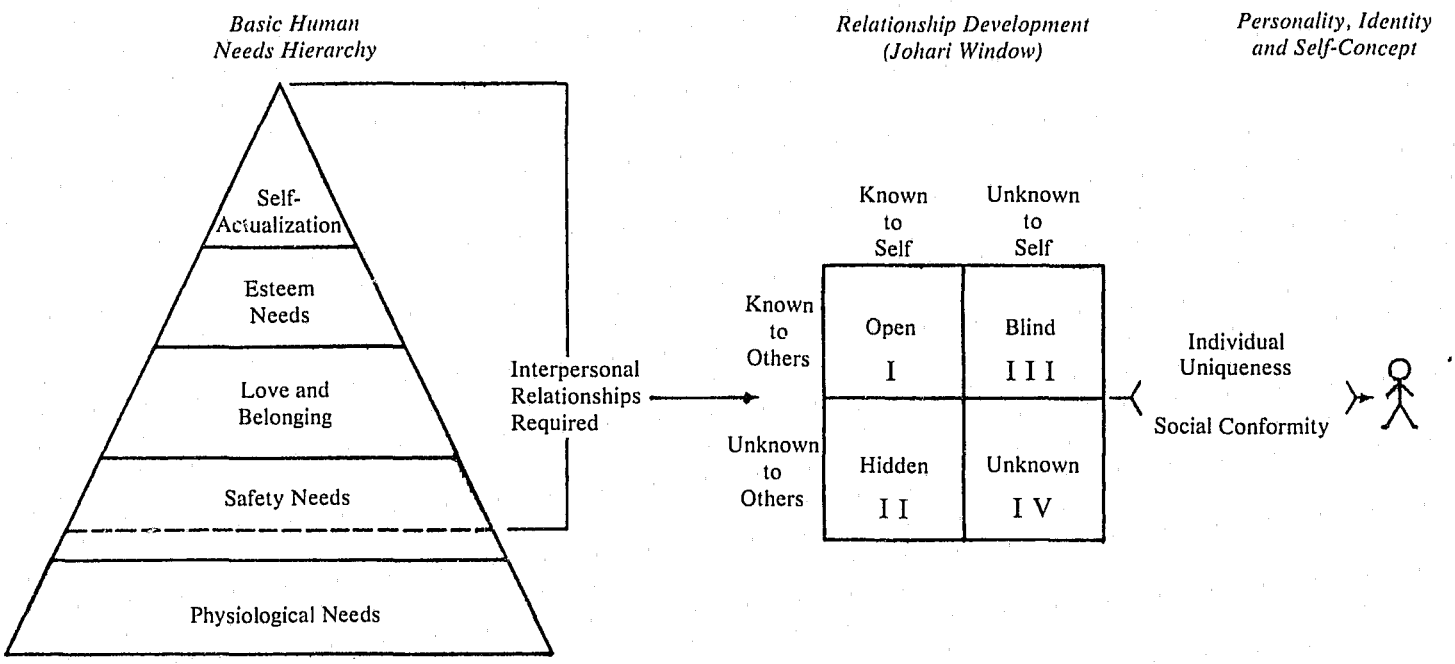
In everyday relationships and in group counseling, risk is reduced when trust, acceptance, respect, communication, and understanding characterize our interpersonal contacts. Self-disclosure and feedback can then operate freely, generating more opportunities for personal learning and growth. In addition, there is a reciprocal effect: as conditions suitable for personal sharing improve the quantity and quality of self-disclosure and feedback increase, and as more self-disclosing and feedback occur the conditions for doing so improve. In one sense this situation is like the argument about the chicken and the egg. The difference is that in interpersonal relationships there is always going to be risk involved. In fact, without risk there is little opportunity for growing as is pointed out in the old adage "nothing ventured, nothing gained." In group counseling then the leader must help develop a climate where members can take risks, thereby enabling the mechanisms of self-disclosure and feedback to function in a constructive manner.

Figure 1 illustrates the development of personality, identity, and self-concept based on the interactions between basic human needs and relationships with others. William Glasser, Reality Therapy (1965), points out that our needs can only be met through involvement with other human beings. Relationships with others help us develop our individual uniqueness and adapt to societal standards. One primary growth trend is that of developing better interpersonal relationships to improve our lives. In this case our needs motivate us to form relationships that will help us achieve our potential and in that manner improve our lives. It must be noted that this illustration is one-directional in the figure, whereas in reality the process is an ongoing interaction between needs and relationships out of which the person emerges.

In behavior therapy, conditioning and learning are the basic avenues on which we become socialized. Behavior is essentially learned through the process of imitation and reinforcement. Symptoms derive from inadequate or faulty learning. Most problems of living are due to learning. Maladaptive behavior is extinguished by learning new and more adaptive behaviors. Emphasis is on the present behavior as it occurs

Figure 1

Needs, Relationships, and Personal Development



and is measured. What is important is the direct, observable behaviors and actions of the individual. The behavioral viewpoint is essentially the historical development of the objective descriptive philosophical view. This particular theory stresses objectification, quantification, classification, and all the various trappings of what makes it scientific, and relates more to sound scientific investigation.

An important area of intervention strategies in behavioral therapy is operant conditioning. According to B.F. Skinner, this is an application of lawful relationships. Skinner considered operant behavior to be the result of scientific principles. He proposed a formulation of behavior that resulted from observations of animal performance and bar-pressing activity. Operant conditioning is a procedure for altering the probability of a chosen response.

The following thirteen principles are based on operant conditioning:

A. To strengthen new behavior:

1. Positive reinforcement principle: To improve or increase a child's performance of a certain activity, arrange for an immediate reward after each correct performance.

B. To develop new behavior:

2. Successive approximations principle: To teach a child to act in a manner which he has seldom or never before behaved, reward successive steps to the final behavior.

3. Modeling principle: To teach a child a new way of behaving, allow him to observe a prestigious person performing the desired behavior.

4. Cueing principle: To teach a child to remember to act at a specific time, arrange for him to receive a cue for the correct performance just before the action is expected rather than after he has performed incorrectly.

5. Discrimination principle: To teach a child to act in a particular way under one set of circumstances but not another, help him to identify the cues that differentiate the circumstances and reward him only when his action is appropriate to the cue.

C. To maintain new behavior:

6. Substitution principle: To reinforce a child with a previously ineffective reward, present it just before (or as soon as possible to) the time you present the more effective reward.

7. Intermittent reinforcement principle: To encourage a child to continue performing an established behavior with few or no rewards, gradually and intermittently decrease the frequency with which the correct behavior is rewarded.

D. To stop inappropriate behavior you may choose from four alternative principles:

8. Satiation principle: To stop a child from acting in a particular way, you may allow him to continue (or insist that he continue) performing the undesired act until he tires of it.

9. Extinction principle: To stop a child from acting in a particular way, you may arrange conditions so that he receives no reward following the undesired act.

10. Incompatible alternative principle: To stop a child from acting in a particular way, you may reward an alternative action that is inconsistent with or cannot be performed at the same time as the undesired act.

11. Negative reinforcement principle: To stop a child from acting in a particular way, you may arrange for him to terminate a mild aversive situation immediately by improving his behavior.

E. To modify emotional behavior:

12. Avoidance principle: To teach a child to avoid a certain type of situation, simultaneously present to the child the situation to be avoided (or some representation of it) and some aversive condition (or its representation).

13. Fear reduction principle: To help a child overcome his fear of a particular situation, gradually increase his exposure to the feared situation while he is otherwise comfortable, relaxed, secure, or rewarded.

A second therapy, heavily used by therapists working with youth offenders is Reality Therapy. One of several basic principles underlying Reality Therapy (William Glasser) is that a person can only change his present (and future) behavior. Therefore Reality Therapy sessions are concerned with only present behavior.

Another principle of Reality Therapy is that it deals only with reality, in other words, circumstances and events as they really exist--not as they were, should have been, or ideally ought to be. The person is responsible for his own behavior and must accept the consequences of that behavior. Whether or not the consequences are fair, justified, or reasonable is not a matter of concern. The reality is that certain consequences

result from certain behavior. It follows, then, that if a person desires different consequences, he must change his behavior accordingly.

The next two steps of Reality Therapy are: causing the person to identify the consequences of his action and causing the person to make a value judgment concerning the action. Once the person has identified his behavior, the therapist may choose either of the two alternatives.

When the client has identified his unacceptable behavior and has made a value judgment about it (or about the consequences which result from it), the fourth step is to make a plan for changing his behavior. It is important to note here that the therapist must be subjective and personal throughout the Reality Therapy process. The client must be able to see that the therapist really does consider him worthy and sincerely wants to help him.

Before deciding on a specific plan for change, the client should be encouraged to suggest some possible alternatives to be considered. From the plans suggested, the client should be asked to select one or more which he feels is best and which he will follow. He and the therapist will then decide on the details of how he will follow the plan. If the client cannot think of any possible plans, the therapist may suggest some possibilities.

Glasser maintains, "People do not act irresponsibly because they are 'ill' they are 'ill' because they act irresponsibly." Since responsible behavior is the goal of Reality Therapy, the following explanations of responsibility are presented:

1. Responsibility is the ability to fulfill one's needs, and to do so in such a way that one does not deprive others of the opportunity of fulfilling their needs.

2. A responsible person does that which gives him a feeling that he is worthwhile to himself and to others.

3. Acquiring responsibility is a very complicated, life-long process. THIS ABILITY MUST BE LEARNED.

4. If a person is not involved with others who care enough about him to give love and discipline, he will not learn responsibility.

5. People "test" with irresponsible behavior. Through discipline tempered with love, the person learns that someone cares.

6. Before an irresponsible person can accept discipline, he must feel certain that the counselor cares enough to show him the responsible way to behave.

7. The counselor often must suffer the pain of the person's intense anger by firmly holding the person to the responsible course of action. If firmness is not constant, the person will repeat his patterns of irresponsiblity.

8. A person gains self-respect through discipline and closeness to others through love. Discipline must contain the element of love which says: "I care enough about you to force you be behave in a more responsible manner."

In summary, responsibility is learned through involvement with responsible fellow human beings. This concept is well represented by Figure II, The Basic Concepts of Reality Therapy.

In Milieu Therapy the resident is given the opportunity to participate in the decision making functions of the community and a sense of trust and respect is transmitted to him by the staff. The community-based programs for offenders typically contains two elements, assisting the offender develop proper community roles and responsibilities and a change in attitude. The common goal is intended to achieve behavioral changes in the offenders.

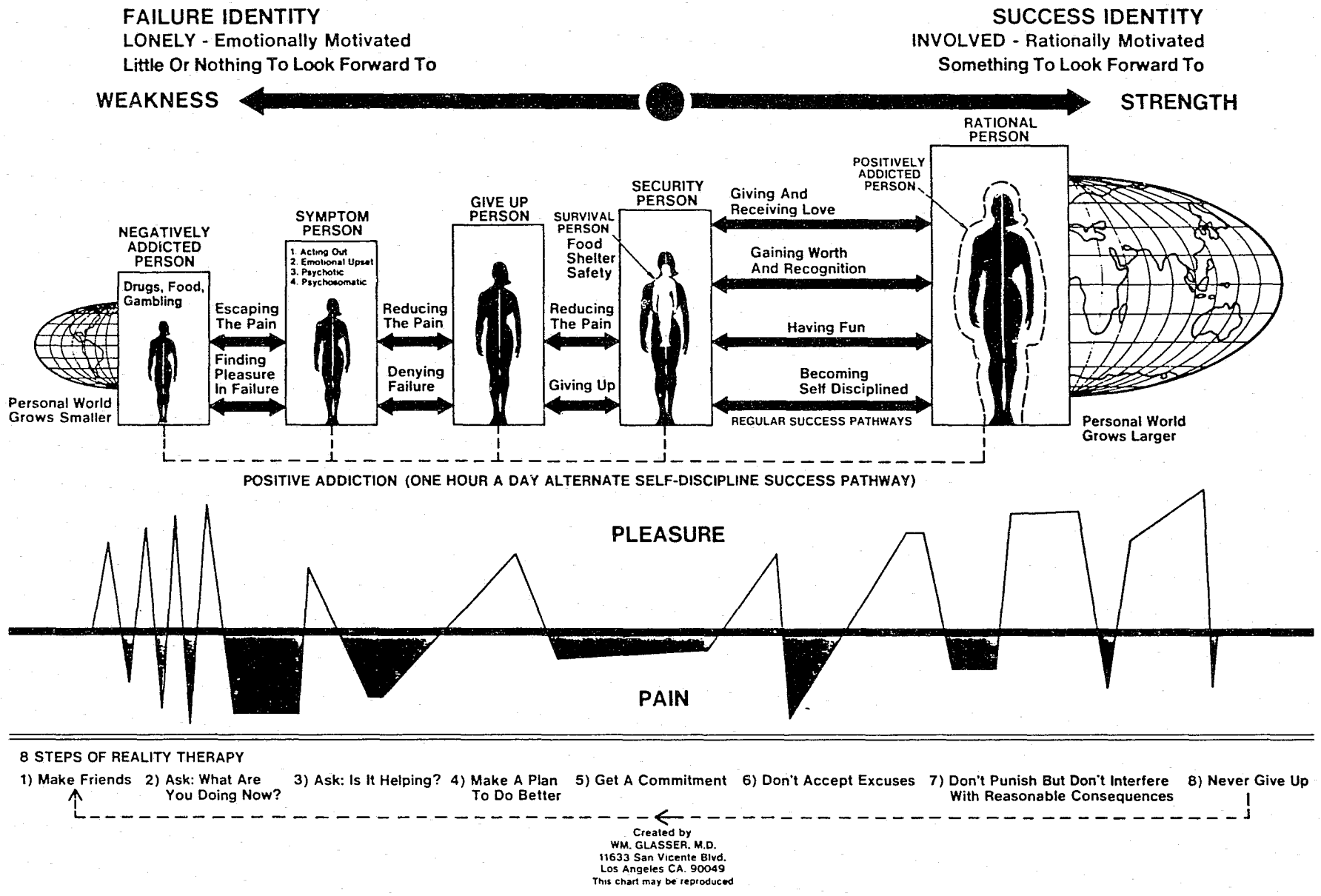
In these residential communities such privileges as shopping trips, outings, special assignments and recreational activities are made available to those who complete the assigned tasks and meet their responsibilities. With activities as a reinforcer, satiation is less of a problem for it is available for a specific time and the target behavior must occur again before its next presentation.

When given complete responsibility for determining the consequences of rule violations, individuals participate more in the discussion of consequences and report more of the rule violations than when others determine the consequences.

Goals are crucial in the development of a group. The goals should be determined by the group and some form of commitment must be made by each member. In time, goals should be formulated for each member including behaviors that should occur in and out of the group. Tentative agreements between the group member and the therapist should be made and revolve around: attempts to cease engaging in behaviors that lead to law violations, efforts to work on increasing or developing new forms of productive behaviors and assuming responsibility for assisting other group members.

Through group discussions, one method of working on individual and group goals, it is important to create an atmosphere that involves sharing, frankness and trust. Group cohesion is built on these elements but cannot be achieved without increasing the motivation with the group. Motivation is facilitated

THE BASIC CONCEPTS OF REALITY THERAPY



8 STEPS OF REALITY THERAPY

1) Make Friends 2) Ask: What Are You Doing Now? 3) Ask: Is It Helping? 4) Make A Plan To Do Better 5) Get A Commitment 6) Don't Accept Excuses 7) Don't Punish But Don't Interfere With Reasonable Consequences 8) Never Give Up

Created by
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Figure II

by insuring some successful experiences in problem solving. "Contracting" with each member their goals, procedures and responsibilities promotes additional commitment and support on the part of the individual, the group and the therapist--a building together for a personal support group.

In these support groups members must share social concerns; be close friends in order to provide intimacy and prevent isolation; respect each other's competence; be dependable in a crisis; act as referral agents; and provide mutual challenges.

Richard Pearson of Syracuse University has done research of the kinds of help people get from their support groups. He defines a personal support system as that "network of people whose presence, whether actual or psychological ... provides support, confirmation, encouragement and assistance ... The common element among all the persons in what may be called our personal support system is that our relationship to them, whether actual or psychological, contributes to our positive feelings about our life situation and ourselves. They are not just friends or relatives or persons whom we admire (though these, of course, may be a part of the personal support system); rather, they are those special people whose presence or recollection we seek out because experiencing ourselves in relationship to them is a positive personally-enhancing force in our lives."

In order to identify the essential elements of support groups, Pearson asked students to indicate the kinds of support they got from people they considered a part of their network. He then classified their responses into the following categories:

Types of Support

1. admiration - praise, attention, interest
2. satisfaction - pleasure at my contribution to them
3. love - caring, emotional sharing, affection, warmth
4. physical intimacy - intimate physical contact, pleasure, sexual satisfaction
5. companionship - sharing activities, belonging, togetherness
6. encouragement - emotional support, reinforcement, expression of confidence, affirmation
7. acceptance - respect, empathy, understanding, trust, a listener
8. comfort - reassurance, forgiveness, someone to lean on

9. example - a model of how to be

10. guidance - advice, direction, spiritual assistance

11. help - material assistance, does things for me

12. knowledge - intellectual stimulation, expertise, information, instruction

13. honesty - honest feedback, sounding-board, perspective on self

One example of support group for all, should be the family.

Psychotherapy is one of the best techniques now available for rectifying maladaptive behavior. Group psychotherapy is an excellent method for making treatment available to a large number of people. This technique involves relating to others, expressing pent up feelings and understanding one's behavior. Through involvement with another individual of similar circumstances, it also provides insight into one's self.

This therapeutic community-milieu operates on the principle that all aspect of institutional and residential living and all transactions are potentially therapeutic so that everything that goes on within an institution or residence involving all of the social interpersonal processes are important and relevant to the treatment of the individual. In other words, every facet of the life of the resident in the social milieu is considered as representing opportunities for living-learning experiences, and the role of the staff is to use their instincts and skills to realize and actualize these opportunities to the fullest. In milieu therapy the patient is given the opportunity to participate in the decision making function of the community and has transmitted to him by the staff a sense of trust and respect.

These types of intervention strategies are geared toward realistically helping the individual serious offender assess his strengths, become aware of his assets, and help reduce a distorted self-image.

Chapter III

Supervision in a Non-Secure Setting

ESTABLISHING EFFECTIVE METHODS OF CONTROL AND SUPERVISION IN COMMUNITY-BASED PROGRAMS

The aspect of community-based programs for juvenile offenders most generally criticized by both the public at large and proponents of tougher sanctioning is the assumed lack of adequate security. They argue that in contrast to institutional facilities control and supervision cannot be maintained at a very high level in community-based settings. This argument assumes even greater proportions when the suggestion is made that certain categories of severely delinquent youngsters would benefit from placement in community-based settings. The sense of the need for limitations on the use of community-based interventions extends further, to the perception that if community treatment is to be used in any way with serious juvenile offenders, programming must be confined to fortress-like group homes. Such views serve to dampen greatly any initiative toward the use of nonresidential programs in the community for these kinds of young offenders.

In looking nationwide for jurisdictions where programs, either residential or nonresidential, for this difficult population have been developed, it was found that these fears have made their mark in various ways. With rare exception, none of the efforts to develop community-based programs for serious juvenile offenders was initiated early in the widespread move to develop alternatives for youngsters who were either being removed from correctional institutions or being diverted from further penetration into the system. This fact suggests an early, broadly based reluctance by most program planners and administrators to allow this kind of delinquent population to be placed in community-based settings. Early, alternative programming was designed primarily to provide services for so-called "light-weight" youngsters, who were generally thought to be more manageable. Not until later in the "alternative movement" did programs for serious juvenile offenders begin to come into existence.

The tendency to stay away from specifically nonresidential programs was reflected in the even later dates at which they were designed and implemented. In the sample of residential and nonresidential programs examined, the indication was that the nonresidential programs, as a group, were launched several years after the residential programs had already been established. Most of these programs were not begun until the late 1970s; a pattern suggesting the belief that close supervision and a rather intense level of control could best be achieved in residential settings. Only quite recently has it been decided that certain such offenders can be retained in their own family settings and be placed in day treatment programs with the assurance that a satisfactory level of control and supervision could be maintained.

Systems for Supervision and Control

Central to the arguments posed by opponents of community-based treatment for serious juvenile offenders is the notion that adequate control and supervision cannot be exerted in these settings. This supposed failing is not necessarily the case. Perhaps, in certain alternative or diversionary programming efforts, especially those designed for "light-weight" juvenile offenders where control and supervision were not thought to be a critical issue, laxity in security measures has existed. But, in programs for severely delinquent youngsters where the behavioral profile of the client population naturally heightens concern over the possibility of serious misconduct, the management of potentially dangerous clients tends to be carefully thought through.

Laxity in client control and supervision was not generally borne out in the community-based programs visited. In these programs staff were able to transmit to clients a very clear sense that serious consequences can follow from both criminal transgressions and continued inappropriate social behavior. In those instances where the nature of the client population indicated a need for much tighter or even constant supervision, programs did provide these higher degrees of surveillance and supervision.

The required level of control was achieved in distinctly different ways depending upon the overall organizing framework of the particular program. In some programs it is accomplished through the intensive use of staff who are numerous enough to work closely with the clients at any point in time, while in other programs control is facilitated by keeping clients busy and focused at all times during the hours they are participating. In other instances, especially involving nonresidential programs, supervision requires intensive tracking of clients while they are away from the program facility. In addition, there is a considerable range in how secure these programs will be. Some programs are highly secure for clients throughout their participation while in others control and tight supervision will be stressed for all new clients and will be gradually relaxed as they progress through various stages. In these cases security is consciously related to the way in which progression is tied to how youngsters handle and react to (1) newly acquired privileges, (2) greater degrees of freedom in movement, and (3) increasing levels of earned responsibility.

Most of the community-based programs attempted to make use of graduated systems of control and supervision in order to place greater degrees of responsibility on youths as they move toward reintegration in the community. Rarely, if ever are participants in these kinds of programs kept totally isolated only to then dramatically be thrust back into their own communities.

Another crucial dimension to the control and supervision debate concerns the everpresent possibility of the excesses and abuses which can arise from overcontrolling and regimenting human behavior. In community-based programs this recognition translates into developing appropriate approaches and techniques necessary to insure the level of required security without losing sight of equally important issues such as humane treatment, the inculcation of responsibility and self-control, and the general preparation for reintegration and normal living. The manner and methods used to guarantee proper control in these kinds of programs must avoid any tendency toward promoting an impersonal, isolating, and potentially alienating relationship between staff and clients and must, instead, provide a careful monitoring of the offender while minimizing maladaptive responses.

At the heart of this problem lies the key question of whether or not it is possible to promote positive change while simultaneously exercising control over behavior. Agee, in a discussion of the Closed Adolescent Treatment Center found in Treatment of the Violent Incorrigible Adolescent (1979), has lent important insight to answering this question. She rejects the view that the presence of limits, structure, and control requires the absence of individual respect or caring. The two concepts, control and support, are not distinct entities, each occupying opposite ends of the disciplinary technique continuum. In fact, they are readily merged into a single treatment approach. The objective is to apply "concerned" controls and not "impersonal" controls. Given a decision on the part of the staff of a particular program to impose a specified level of security felt to be necessary, the critical determination is the manner and method by which this level of security is reached. In line with this argument, the Massachusetts Department of Youth Services has observed that the most desirable and effective method of maintaining security is through program size, adequate staffing, and program content, rather than dependence on high level mechanical and physical constraints (e.g., brick, mortar, locks, and bars).

The actual mechanisms of control and supervision seem to revolve around a set of activities falling along two principal dimensions, 1) physically and mechanically oriented procedures, and 2) social and psychological procedures. Collectively, these procedures are directed toward controlling and supervising client behavior in three principal areas: movement into and out of the facility, movement outside the facility, and movement inside the facility.

Entry and Exit from Program Facilities

Concern with matters relating to client movement into and out of the facility seems to arise mainly in residential programs where an acknowledged sense of confinement seems to

prevail. In contrast, youngsters who are participating in nonresidential programs are coming and going on a daily basis, and little significance is attached to the act of entering or exiting from the premise although there may be explicit rules against leaving during program hours without staff permission.

Among the residential programs visited were a range of physical and mechanical procedures to monitor the movement of clients in and out of the facility. At one program housed on an abandoned naval base, a high fence surrounds the outer perimeter of the base. A guard stationed at the single entrance to the base controls access to and from the program on a 24 hour-per-day basis. Youths participating in the program must have authorized approval to pass this checkpoint. Another program controls movement into and out of the facility by requiring clients to sign in and out at the only entryway in the building. A third program relies upon 24 hour-per-day eyeball supervision and close all-night monitoring of the single exit out of the sleeping quarters to control movement in and out of the facility. Most residential programs locate sleeping quarters on the second and third floors of their buildings to further discourage unauthorized absences; and there was generally little reliance upon locks and bars on windows to prevent clients from leaving.

Consequences which result from violation of rules regarding entrance into and exit from facilities include loss of privileges, demotion to a lower stage or level in progression through programs, subjection to negative peer pressure, assignment to compulsory work such as chores and writing exercises, and threat or actual removal from program participation. One program utilized a rather novel approach, stigmatizing garb, to penalize youngsters who ran from the facility. Returned runners were forced to wear bathrobes instead of street clothes for specified periods of time. Functionally, this step served to reduce the likelihood of running or at least makes it more difficult.

Out-of-Program Mobility

Monitoring client movement outside program settings is an issue of major importance in both residential and nonresidential programs. In the case of residential programs considerable attention is directed toward the physical movement and behavior of clients when they are outside the facility. This attitude reflects the fact that these programs have assumed total responsibility for the actions of these severely delinquent youngsters and, consequently, are very sensitive to the possibility of serious misconduct occurring in the community. Likewise, a number of nonresidential programs we visited were also quite interested in monitoring client activities once they had left the confines of the program each day. Clearly, if a youth enrolled in a nonresidential program gets into trouble in

the community, this occurrence will reflect negatively upon the program's ability to successfully change the client.

In residential programs several procedural areas constitute the focus of staff activity in monitoring and controlling client movement and behavior outside the facility. First, clients are usually highly restricted in their access to the community during the early stages of their participation in a program. Only after demonstrating some sense of responsibility and exhibiting positive behavioral change do clients become eligible for extended community contact. Most programs have developed an explicit set of rules stating under what conditions clients may be considered for various degrees of independent movement in the community. Frequently, this requires having progressed to a more advanced stage in the program. Second, home visits for varying lengths of time are viewed as rewards which are granted in response to positive behavior and progression through program requirements. Given the restrictiveness which characterizes participation in residential programs of this type, home visits are extremely significant events for most clients. The ways in which home visits are structured as elements in the treatment process and are monitored to ensure a minimum of problems varies from program to program.

In one program, youngsters maintain little contact with the community during the first several months of residence. During this early phase of participation, they will, however, occasionally go out into the community in groups for recreation or shopping. They are always accompanied on these ventures by a number of staff who closely supervise all their activities. After residing at the program for two months youths are allowed to take home visits. These visits are begun only if the client is not on any form of program restriction. The first of these visits lasts only one day and requires prior approval from the probation department, consent of the family, and the establishment of a behavioral contract specifying call-in times, curfews, etc. If no new restrictions have been imposed following the initial home visit, students are granted two full weekends at home per month. The home visits continue in this manner until the prerelease phase of the program begins at about eight months.

Clients at another program are also restricted in their movement outside the facility during participation in the initial phases of the program. Although many new residents are quickly enrolled in nearby schools, they are given only a limited amount of free time in the community and must meet stringent curfew requirements if they are outside the facility in the evenings. The general surveillance of clients in the area immediately surrounding the facility is carried out by other program residents and staff who are conspicuously present in the neighborhood. Gradually, as clients progress through

the three formal stages in programming, they are given greater mobility including later curfew hours and more supervised, free time. In the final stage of program participation, "advanced-advanced," clients are allowed to visit their own homes whenever they want and can sign out of the facility for entire weekends.

When monitoring the outside behavior and activities of clients, nonresidential programs tend to develop some form of tracking. In our sample of six nonresidential programs, three made use of tracking while three did not make any concerted attempt to monitor clients outside the program setting. When tracking is utilized, procedures range from occasional, nominal contact to frequent, intense monitoring.

A highly elaborated version of community tracking had been developed by one of the programs. Here, tracking was designed to operate on a 24 hour-a-day basis with the understanding that contact could be made by "trackers" with clients at any time. Tracking was initiated at the point of transition from the first program phase, "residential intake," which consisted of a highly restrictive and intensely structured residential confinement, lasting from one week to one month. While still in the first phase of the program each client is assigned an outreach worker who will later assume primary responsibility for providing intensive community tracking. As part of a formal community tracking contract, clients agree to be "tracking accountable." This entails attending school, and attending job training and/or working. In addition, they agree to participate in weekly group counseling sessions, to attend program-sponsored recreational and cultural activities, and to comply with curfew rules.

In handling tracking responsibilities, outreach workers at the program operate in teams. Each team is comprised of three members, and each member must be familiar with the caseload of the rest of the team. In this way, all nights and weekends are covered. Tracking accountability is based upon multiple, daily telephone calls to the program regarding the client's whereabouts, as well as prior scheduling for each 24 hour period, seven days a week. Clients are sometimes seen by outreach workers three or four times a day. Although these contacts may be quite brief, they can also lead to more in-depth counseling.

The broader aim of the tracking process is to develop an intense, supportive, one-to-one caseworker/client relationship. This goal can be achieved through role modeling; collectively analyzing, understanding, and solving problems; sharing experiences; working closely with parents and siblings; knowing the peer network; developing, encouraging, and monitoring educational, vocational, and/or job placement; and establishing community linkages for aid, recreation, training, and enrichment.

A somewhat less complex though interesting system of tracking had been developed by another program we visited where trackers were responsible for having at least one outside program contact per day with clients. While the contact could occur over the phone, one personal activity per week involving tracker and client was required. On the basis of this regular contact, the hope was that a continuing, personal relationship would develop between the tracker and all their clients. Designed both for monitoring and support purposes, tracking included intervening in crisis situations on a 24 hour-a-day basis, overseeing all phases of the treatment contract, maintaining contact with families and other involved agencies, performing as a member of the program's treatment team, assisting youth in locating and utilizing valuable resources, and maintaining records for treatment contracts and evaluations.

Maintaining In-Program Control

The control and supervision of physical movement and behavior of clients within a program setting must be examined on at least two levels. First, there are those practices and procedures involved in responding to acts of disruptive behavior. Various approaches have been developed for managing these matters; most involve the imposition of negative sanctions for misconduct and acting-out behavior. Second, there are those practices and procedures which operate more subtly to influence and shape client behavior as part of the treatment process itself. Here, the use of incentive systems, the acquisition of privileges, and the staging of client progression or advancement through a program are all methods to exert control over behavior, just as much as is the imposition of negative sanctions for overt acts of misconduct.

As a group, residential programs tend to impose considerably higher levels of control over the movement and behavior of clients within the facility. For example, a program which maintained more constant surveillance than any other we visited employed 24 hour-a-day eyeball supervision. Although little use was made of locks or other mechanical constraints, clients were rarely out of the sight of staff. In order to achieve this effect a very high staff-to-client ratio was maintained. As one might suspect, this is an expensive practice when translated into the per diem costs for clients. Yet, it does not cost nearly as much as maintaining the same clients in a secure, correctional facility in the same jurisdiction.

In another residential setting where eyeball supervision was also utilized, a client must obtain permission simply to move from one room to another. The reasons offered for maintaining supervision at this high level were: the safety of the residents could be ensured; general house control could be maintained; and accountability by the residents could be promoted.

Short of these kinds of extreme security measures are a variety of other supervisory procedures which were utilized in other residential programs in our sample. For example, in some programs staff made unannounced spot checks on clients at various times. Another approach to discouraging the potential for disruptive behavior was to keep clients exceedingly busy so that they had virtually no spare time to get into trouble.

Responses to disruptive behavior in residential programs covered a wide range of sanctioning measures. In one program, punishment included writing assignments, work hours, talk hours with counselors and/or the program director, curtailment of in-house mobility, loss of smoking or phone privileges, and loss of home visitation privileges. If a major problem involving a number of residents arose, an extended group session lasting anywhere from several hours to several days could be called. All other activities ceased, and clients and staff members assembled for the session. This ended only when the particular difficulty had been thoroughly analyzed and a common understanding was reached about how to resolve the issue.

Perhaps the most drastic response to disruptive behavior we encountered in our sample of residential programs occurred in a program where "boxing therapy" was employed as a sanctioning mechanism. This approach to imposing control was used as an adjunct to regular counseling when a client resorted to aggressive, acting-out behavior, had committed other flagrant violations of house rules, or wanted to resolve a major disagreement with another client when the problem could not be handled through standard counseling procedures. Under this third circumstance boxing required the mutual consent of both participating parties. In the first two situations the violator was required to box a series of one-minute rounds with other youths of approximately the same age and size from the program. Although immersed in constant controversy, boxing was regarded by staff at the program as a strong deterrent which was not punitive, dangerous, or questionable as a therapeutic technique. Short of resorting to boxing, the program employed a set of sanctions which increased in severity according to type and degree of misbehavior. Clients could be given writing assignments, placed on work details in the facility, restricted to the building, restricted to their rooms, and denied home visits.

As suggested, physical movement and behavior were generally much less closely monitored and controlled in nonresidential programs than they were in residential programs. For example, in one program a wide range of acting-out behaviors were allowed to occur on the premises without any negative sanctions being imposed by staff members. Physical contact between clients (horseplay), cursing, and presenting a sloppy appearance were tolerated as part of the normal routine at the program. In contrast, acts such as threats of serious intent against other clients or staff members, physically assaulting

others, refusing to complete school or cleanup assignments, and unexcused absences were grounds for formal sanctioning.

When such acts of misconduct did occur, a graduated system of sanctioning was employed. At the most lenient level staff members would talk with the violator about his misconduct. At a more serious level, the problem could be brought to a group meeting for consideration by clients and staff. If a quite severe violation of rules occurred, a formal behavioral contract would be drawn up listing restrictions on activities.

The next step in severity was suspension from the program with reentrance not possible without a group meeting involving staff members and the entire client population. At the end of the continuum of sanctioning was termination from the program. A youth could appeal this step to a review committee composed of three staff members and three program peers. A majority vote decided the final outcome.

In another nonresidential program overt misconduct and violation of rules on the premise were handled by staff working in teams which responded immediately to any outbursts or developing problems. The general strategy was to: (1) divert the youth's attention to more positive behavior, (2) move the youth elsewhere to calm down, and (3) avoid intensifying the situation. Once order was restored, the youth would be involved in a conversation about what had happened, why, and what could be done about it. If repeated disruptions occurred and/or no satisfactory solution to the problem could be found, placement in detention and referral to court were resorted to as last gap sanctioning measures.

Perhaps the most novel sanctioning procedure occurring in any of the nonresidential programs involved the use of residential backup whenever staff felt that the client was either on the verge of or had already gotten into serious difficulties. The youth was brought back into the facility where his stay, usually lasting only several days, was highly restricted and structured. During this period activities included early morning awakening, chores, breakfast, cleanup, in-house school in the morning, and an afternoon filled with intensive one-to-one contact with the residential caseworker. Residential backup was ordinarily used several times during a client's participation in the program. Short of this drastic step, consequences for misbehavior or rule infraction included writing assignments, separation from other program participants, withdrawal of privileges and curtailment of activities (e.g., smoking, recreation, outings), doing extra chores, grounding at home, lowering curfew hours, monetary restitution, and remaining with the tracker for a specified period of time as he or she made daily rounds.

With regard to the use of points for shaping or controlling client behavior, three of the five residential programs in our sample made some use of this system within the larger treatment framework. In only one case were points used negatively, serving as demerits for various rule infractions and misbehavior. These points accumulate over a week's time and are then used as a basis for determining preferences among a variety of chores. In the other two programs the point systems provided an objective measure by which residents could progress through discrete program stages. As a mechanism for shaping and/or monitoring behavior, they served to measure progress, to reward responsible behavior, and to spur advancement.

In only two of the six nonresidential programs were point systems of any sort utilized. In one case points were employed as part of a token economy system, but their use was confined solely to the educational component of the program (See discussion under "In-House School Programs"). The basic aim was to award points to students for exhibiting positive behavior in school-related activities. In the other nonresidential program where a point system was utilized, they were assigned only once a week in a group meeting. This meeting was used to rate each student on a five-point scale based on possible improvement in five categories: counseling, recreation, school, tracking, and responsibility (referring to a student's regard for others and self). A staff vote was taken at the end of each discussion of individual client performance, and points were assigned. Once accumulated, these points could be exchanged for various items such as soft drinks, candy, etc. In this program points could not be used for advancing oneself from one stage or level to another.

As suggested earlier in our discussion, reintegration is, ironically, a process which has received more attention and has been more fully elaborated by proponents of community based programming than by those individuals operating or responsible for secure, correctional facilities. In this sense, the control and supervision of behavior as clients prepare to reenter the community on a full-time basis is an area of programming which is inherently a critical issue for community-based programs. In these settings, clients can gradually be weaned from a more structured and restrictive environment to one of increasing responsibility, independence, and freedom.

Given the basic philosophical underpinnings of this approach as a non-institutional intervention with delinquent youngsters, the constant probing and testing of community linkages provides a natural context for developing sophisticated and reliable systems for facilitating reintegration. The only analogue to this within traditional, correctional programs are the juvenile halfway houses and pre-release programs which are designed primarily to ease the reentry process for youthful offenders. Yet, these efforts are few in number and generally

have not developed the diversity of strategies and practices found in the types of programs contained in our sample.

Although the nature of procedures and techniques devised by community-based programs for facilitating reintegration are mostly supportive and not punitive in orientation, they are nonetheless critical elements for controlling and shaping the behavior of clients as they start to explore various levels of independence and freedom.

Undoubtedly, the most intriguing example we found of a system for directing and monitoring clients as they begin to embark on the process of returning to normal life was contained within one of the residential programs. Here, preparation for reintegration begins during the first month of the client's participation. At an initial orientation meeting, the outreach counselor whose sole responsibility is supervising the reentry process meets with the client to discuss the nature and purpose of reintegrative planning. After this meeting not much contact occurs between these two parties until approximately the third month, when the outreach counselor checks on the client's progress. After a total of six months, a staff meeting (the individual counselor, outreach counselor, teacher, and client) is convened to discuss prerelease plans, i.e., to discover whether the client's major interests lie in seeking employment opportunities, training programs, enlistment in the armed services, or continuing education. At about the eight-month point, the individual counselor will recommend a prerelease hearing. At that point, the client appears before the entire staff and presents an outline of progress thus far and argues why the prerelease phase should begin.

Once the prerelease phase begins, the outreach coordinator begins to deal intensely with the client in working through a special prerelease curriculum and also begins to interact with the client's family on a weekly basis. Also, at that time the outreach counselor sends a letter to the probation department informing them of the client's reentry planning. From this point on, the outreach counselor assumes the role of primary counselor for the youth.

Once formally on prerelease status, the client returns to the program on weekends, completes the prerelease curriculum, and discusses with the outreach counselor the experiences and problems of the preceding week. The coordinator maintains regular contact with employers, teachers, parents, and probation staff. Employers and teachers are asked to fill out and submit status reports to the outreach coordinator. If all goes well, this process continues for four or five weeks, and the client is then given a prerelease test covering many of the topics from the special curriculum. Provided the youngster passes the test, he is no longer required to return to the facility. Instead, the coordinator meets with the youth and

his family twice a week for two weeks. If all continues to go smoothly, graduation is scheduled. Such an elaborate system for supervising reintegrative activities and for monitoring and influencing the daily behavior of the client during that stage in programming demonstrates the high level of control which can characterize the reentry process in community-based programs.

Summary

This discussion has focused on an examination of strategies and practices employed for ensuring the adequate supervision and control of serious juvenile offenders in community-based programs. Various approaches for managing security in both residential and nonresidential programs have been described and analyzed within the framework of the three principal areas of client activity where surveillance and control measures tend to be exercised: entry and exit from program facilities, out-of-program mobility and behavior, and in-program mobility and behavior. In addition, we have documented in considerable detail the kinds of sanctioning procedures which were utilized in these programs in response to various kinds of rule violations and acts of misconduct.

Chapter IV

Program Components: Educational and Leisure Activities

EDUCATION COMPONENT

Use of the In-House School Programs vs. Community Schools

In a recently completed study of community-based program interventions for the serious juvenile offender, the overall organizing frameworks and intervention strategies of eleven programs were analyzed. The following discussion of school programs is based upon that larger effort.

Education, as used here, refers to the imparting of basic skills in such areas as reading, writing, and mathematics as well as other subjects and classes typically found in many conventional school programs, e.g., social studies, health and science, art, and language skills. Other enrichment and cultural activities, recreational and physical education components, as well as vocational training will, of course, often blend into and can be considered a natural part of an overall educational curriculum. This discussion, however, will stress the structures, methods, and processes used by various programs to raise students above the level of illiteracy or to a higher achievement range than was exhibited upon entry into the programs.

A. Working With Community Schools

Among numerous aspects of programming, the research explored the different ways in which programs seek to facilitate and achieve client linkages with sources of support from youths' own social networks and various community resources. A prominent social institution included in this latter category is, of course, the community school.

The research identified three distinct ways in which important individuals, groups, and social institutions can be reached and involved:

1. They may be targeted as the designated recipients, direct or indirect, of some kind of service.

2. Community resources may be utilized as principal and auxiliary providers of service.

3. Interaction by clients with members of their social networks and with various community resources provide the means for more "normalized" contacts to take place with nonprogram peers and service providers not beholden to the program. This permits personal, socially integrative interaction to take place.

Several examples make clear how these functions can be facilitated through the use of community schools. Three of the five residential programs and two of the six nonresidential

programs in the sample utilized community schools. These include regular public schools, adult education programs, alternative schools, special education facilities, and vocational/technical high schools. While such a range of community schools are used for serious offender populations, a critical responsibility is placed on program staff to operate a very close and highly visible system of monitoring or tracking.

In regard to the first of the three functions, the school receives assistance and substantial support from program staff who actively hold youths accountable for managing their responsibilities. The act of finding appropriate community schools, reassuring the schools that program staff are available to assist with problems and special needs, and preparing clients for the school experience may very well make the difference between a school agreeing or refusing to take young offenders into their student population.

In the case of schools which may be required to accept a local program's clients, the critical issue is convincing teachers and other school staff to treat clients as they do other students and not in a negative or fearful fashion. Two programs in the sample, one residential and the other nonresidential, devised systems specifically to overcome this potential problem.

A residential program, located in an inner city, uses a local high school within walking distance for many of its clients and provides achievement test results and grade placement information for all clients sent there. Upon entering the program all of the clients are required to take an achievement test. If they score seventh grade or higher, the local high school is used; if the score is at a fifth or sixth grade level, the client is placed in a General Equivalency Diploma (GED) program in the public school system; if at fourth grade or below, the client is placed either in a remedial program consisting of adult basic educational classes in the public school or in the program's own "minilab." The minilab is run by a remedial teaching specialist drawn from and paid for by the public school's adult educational department.

Students in the public school are required by the program to obtain the signatures of their teachers at the conclusion of each class period and return the slips to their program counselor. This procedure allows the school to keep closer track of the program's clients. The program also relies upon a recreational specialist who is an assistant coach at the high school, and other students from the program (advanced clients in staff roles) to serve as the "eyes and ears" of the program in the school.

Another example of providing services to the schools can be found in one of the nonresidential programs. This program is

an excellent example of an intensive tracking program incorporating a very brief initial period of highly restrictive residential confinement. During the "residential intake" phase, each youth spends three hours a day in the program school. The school is operated by a special education teacher who, after testing for achievement level, works remedially with the youngsters. The achievement test is used to determine what kind of school placement is best for the clients. A small number of the academically most backward students remain in the in-house school, but whenever possible clients are returned to the public schools.

Once in community schools, students are held "tracking accountable" by the program according to terms set in a signed community tracking contract. Tracking accountability is based upon multiple, daily telephone calls by clients to the program regarding whereabouts; the required contact may include calls from the client when deviations in regular scheduling occur. Intermittent, unannounced spot checks by outreach counselors provide a powerful incentive to stay honest. In addition, teachers are informed that they can call the program at any time to report problems or concerns. Developing, requiring, and intensively monitoring educational activities play a central role in the program's strategy for keeping the clients in the community as much as possible.

The general point being made by the two preceding illustrations is that schools must be provided with sufficient support, assistance, and reassurance to allay any anxieties or fears they may have about clients participating in the school. If school staff can be made to feel they are receiving added services in the form of testing, screening, monitoring, and discipline, chances are greater they will feel more positive and at ease in dealing with the program's clients.

By having school staff understand they are being actively assisted in managing and overseeing the clients, they can more confidently and capably fulfill the second function of having a community school provide education to program clients. Falling under the general category, "providers of service," the schools allow clients to increasingly receive service or partake in activities outside the program setting.

The thrust toward maximum involvement with community schools highlights the "normalization" principle which is increasingly seen as vital to the reintegration process. Normalization stresses the idea of minimizing overdependence on a particular program in which everything is done to and for clients by a narrow set of actors. Whether the locus of contact is initially in or outside the program facility, providing such contact can be viewed as a way of promoting planned and selective use of community actors for the purpose of maximizing reintegrative potential of the client. Institution-like

patterns can be minimized, more customary modes of interaction experienced, and other segments of the community not typically involved in corrections can be brought into the process.

By making use of existing community resources, the program is freed from having to establish and finance a full-fledged educational component. At the same time, youths can spend part of each day in more natural settings where behaviors can be practiced and tested. Yet, a critical element in the use of community schools is keeping continuous and careful track of the clients; otherwise, misconduct can quickly get out of control. Problems typically require immediate attention and intervention.

Finally, the third category, socially integrative interaction, is most critically concerned with whether or not clients can establish meaningful ties with nonprogram peers from school and other individuals such as teachers and tutors. The idea is to provide clients with an opportunity for making new acquaintances and hopefully developing other constructive relationships. The objective is to take school friends, teachers, or whomever out of a strictly educational role and extend it to other modes of interaction. In this way, clients are shown that free time, extracurricular activity, and various leisure pursuits can be spent with many different types of people.

B. In-House School Programs

Two of the five residential programs and four of the six nonresidential programs utilized in-house schools. There are many advantages to this arrangement: most clients were years behind in school, many had not even been to school in years, some who had been expelled were not eligible for enrollment in the public schools, some could not handle behaviorally a group learning situation, some possessed attention spans not adaptable to regular school periods, and many were totally alienated from conventional school techniques and experiences due to years of repeated failure. In short, as a consequence of clients not being suited for regular school attendance and also being stigmatized with the label of delinquent, six programs designed in-house school components.

Since it was not practical to prepare many of these clients, particularly the older ones, for entry into regular community schools, the acquisition of GEDs or high school diploma in alternative educational settings represented a preferable course. The various strategies for structuring learning situations in order to achieve the educational objectives is illustrated by the following examples of techniques and methods utilized in in-house schools.

It was quite common for programs with in-house schools to individually tailor curricula. Typically, this process followed extensive testing to determine at what achievement level

to begin. At one program, a new school contract is negotiated between the client and the teacher at the beginning of every week. Each client is expected to progress at a speed commensurate with ability and none is grade-placed. For the educationally most backward students remedial training is provided in reading, writing, and arithmetic. More advanced students work either on a GED curriculum or on regular high school credits they can earn at the program.

Having students work individually and without reference to grade placement is the modus operandi for four of the six programs using in-house schools. Two of these programs make extensive use of teaching machines. Staff in both cases believe that the machines are especially valuable as a means to lessen the competitive edge often found in group educational experiences. Further, staff feel that the variety the machines add to the day's activities is helpful in dealing with short attention spans.

One of the programs using the machines employs a head teacher and three aides, all of whom supervise students in use of the machines and test the students regularly to monitor individual progress. An educational contract is individually formulated for each student who works initially with the machines in spelling, reading, arithmetic, science, history, and language arts. Gradually, there is a transition to textbooks. Use of the machines at the early stages of instruction is believed to be a useful means for arousing curiosity, principally through its similarity to television. Staff feel the method provides a nonthreatening and highly positive learning experience. Group classes are held to teach some subjects.

The other program using machines provides instruction for three categories of achievement: basic education up to eighth grade, intermediate (pre-GED), and GED preparation. Although much of the schooling is oriented toward individual learning modules, some group instruction is provided, specifically in consumer education, and in black history and culture. The in-house school component is also used by students participating in other programs operated at the same multi-service facility. The school is considered an official part of the local school system. As a consequence, students receive regular credit for the subjects they take. Records specifying completed work along with recommendations for grade placement accompany those students who reenter the regular public schools. In addition, a regular school diploma can be obtained if the final requirements are met at the alternative school.

Another interesting aspect of the program is that a point-award system is used by the teachers. Single points are awarded in eight categories: on time to class, on time from break, respect for staff, respect for peers, working before 10:00 a.m., working after 10:00 a.m., group involvement, and

bonus. The points are totaled each day and summed over the entire week. Points are then used in an auction which involved bidding for goods donated by local department stores and businesses (e.g., sporting goods, tee shirts, albums, and concert tickets).

The card used for awarding points is made to look like a checkbook which requires balancing as points are awarded by teachers or subtracted in making purchases. When items are purchased at the auction, students write out their own checks for the designated amount of points bid. Other programs we visited also incorporated point systems, but none of them applied points solely in the educational component. Interestingly, when this program first began using the point system as a means to encourage cooperation and to develop control in the school component, accrued points were used to earn the privilege of leaving school early. Later, the staff decided this practice reinforced the negative idea that school was a burden rather than a valuable activity which should be enjoyed. The practice was quickly dropped.

One way to reward achievement or success in school work is to use points which can later be exchanged for material rewards. In another program, short-term courses involving one to several classes were designed to provide rapid successes for the students, many of whom are accustomed to school failure. While these classes were not exclusively educational as narrowly defined above, the notion of using course completion cards and achievement awards which are introduced early to engender positive reinforcement seems a constructive way to break the cycle of failure frequently experienced by many of the young offenders. This practice occurred in a maritime oriented program where practically every job or task that had to be done at the facility (e.g., carpentry, cooking, and boat repair) was used as a learning experience with course credit available for the activity. A number of elective subjects supplement the purely academic instruction which is handled by three teachers who take responsibility for remedial, intermediate, and GED preparation respectively. Exposure to all aspects of the marine environment is believed a way to instill self-confidence, to establish respect for working with others, and to develop a repetoire of potentially valuable vocational skills and avocational interests.

A final illustration of some of the techniques and strategies adapted for in-house school components is supplied by a program which only accepted offenders who were diagnosed as learning disabled or emotionally disturbed. In addition to the in-house school, this program like many of the others also provided a wide range of counseling, vocational-life skills training, cultural enrichment, and organized recreation. The program, however, utilized a reality therapy team approach which incorporated monthly case reviews requiring client

involvement and feedback. Behavioral problems are responded to by staff working in teams. Outbursts, misbehavior, and explosive situations in the classroom are addressed on the spot by teaming up counselors with teachers. In addition, interns are assigned to assist the different teachers. The goal is to staff each classroom with two teachers, two aides, and available volunteers. In these intensively staffed classrooms, specific problem behaviors can be tackled right away.

Summary

This discussion has elaborated some of the structures, processes, and methods utilized to provide educational opportunities for serious juvenile offenders in community-based programs. These efforts relied upon both in-house and community schools to achieve this goal. While the illustrations and issues presented are by no means exhaustive of all the possible strategies and organizing frameworks, they represent some of the most important considerations drawn to our attention by directors, staff and young people in the programs.

RECREATION AND LEISURE SERVICES COMPONENT

Traditionally recreation programs or activities for youthful offenders have been viewed as "time fillers." Authorities often feel that if a youth is actively engaged in some form of activity then at least during that time he/she is not committing a violent or deviant act. With the advent of recent research and successful model programs, the whole concept of recreation and its proper role in changing abhorrent or deviant behavior is being re-evaluated.

In beginning our discussion of recreation as a part of the total therapeutic model, it would be well to determine the difference between recreation and leisure. Recreation is defined as those activities one chooses during a portion of his/her free or discretionary time. Activities of this nature often include sports, reading, music, creative activities, attendance at movies, jogging, social events and even deviant acts. Leisure, on the other hand, is a time concept. Leisure is a period of unstructured time that all human beings have and hopefully learn to use wisely. Perhaps the best way to understand the magnitude of leisure is to analyze a 24 hour time period. One-third or approximately eight hours will be devoted to personal maintenance: eating, sleeping, bathing and taking care of his/her physical needs. Another third or approximately eight hours will be spent working to provide for basic material needs or in the case of youth the attendance in academic or vocational education. The remaining third or approximately eight hours is leisure time or unstructured time for the individual to use any way he/she chooses. On weekends, holidays and during periods of unemployment, an individual's leisure

block of time doubles since it now includes the time one would normally spend working or going to school.

The current literature is filled with the characterization of delinquent youth as being school drop-outs, unemployed or underemployed. This lack of productive work time is known as "enforced leisure." The serious or violent youthful offenders usually find themselves dealing with two-thirds of their lives unstructured. If we investigate the time concept one step further, we find that few crimes or destructive behaviors are committed in either the work or school time period or the personal maintenance time period; but rather the commission of crime and destructive behavior usually occurs during the individual's leisure or enforced leisure time.

Let us draw an analogy between money and leisure. If you were to give a youthful offender a large sum of money with no structure or strings attached--simply money to spend as he/she wished--and then follow the expenditure of that money, you would probably find that most expenditures were made with little or no planning or thought. The same is true of unstructured time (leisure). The youthful offender usually has more leisure time than his/her non-delinquent counterpart, yet when you look at accomplishments during leisure you will find that the youthful offender has accomplished very little during his/her leisure. The end result of this largely misused leisure is often boredom, disappointment, restlessness and anger.

It is an unfortunate fact of life that those who can best structure their life (business people, professionals, etc.) have the least amount of leisure, and those who have the most leisure typically do the poorest job of structuring this valuable block of time. There is nothing natural or instinctive concerning the ability to wisely use free or leisure time. If one is to benefit from leisure and add positive dimensions to one's life through leisure, then teaching how leisure can enhance the quality of life becomes very necessary particularly for those who have an abundance of leisure and who characteristically misuse it.

A. Leisure Education/Counseling

Leisure education is a systems approach with five basic components. [1] These five components are: Leisure awareness, self-awareness, decision-making, social interaction and leisure skill acquisition. Leisure education is a clarification process related to one's own attitudes, values and behaviors as identified by the individual him/herself. Leisure education is not a curriculum or specific program model that is predicated on society's moralistic or value judgments. It is a process that can assist the violent offender in determining what his/her own attitudes, values and behaviors are; show him/her a

myriad of ways (decision-making process) to satisfy needs and improve the overall quality of life. These methodologies then become his/her "tools of life" and may be carried from the residential living environment into the community-at-large.

Leisure education does not dictate parameters that are confined to leisure activity but rather teaches decision-making related to need satisfaction that leads to freedom of choices that are confined only by responsible behavior. The process of leisure education becomes cognitive rather than moralistically imposed. Behavior that is self-determined and internalized is far more effective and long lasting than behavior constraints that are imposed by society.

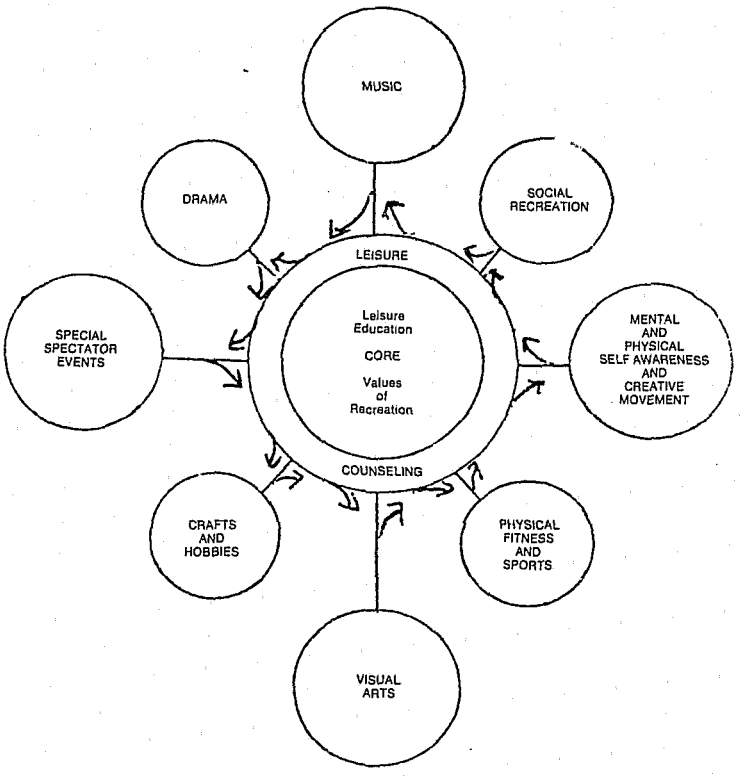
The model shown in Figure 1 illustrates a method for introducing leisure education and leisure counseling into a community based residential facility for youthful offenders. The core of the program, leisure education, discusses at length value clarification related to the five previously mentioned components: leisure awareness, self-awareness, decision-making, social interaction and the importance of leisure skill acquisition (the actual skill acquisition comes after the needs assessment and leisure counseling). According to Davis [2] "recreation and leisure may well suffer from more value confusion than any other area of man's life...many (people) have unclear sets of leisure values. They do not know what kinds of gratification are and are not available during leisure, what they are seeking in leisure, and why they are seeking it; therefore, they lack criteria for selecting leisure activities."

Leisure education clarifies the value of recreation as an integral part of daily living. It also assists the individual in self-exploration of personal needs such as acceptance, recognition, prestige and pride. Further, leisure education helps the individual identify his/her feelings of self-esteem, self-worth, self-image, and self-concept and demonstrates how accomplishments during leisure can help fulfill and satisfy these important needs.

Leisure education classes should be no longer than 45 minutes to an hour in length and taught one to two times weekly for approximately four to eight weeks. As individuals complete the leisure education core, then leisure counseling should begin. As the leisure counseling procedure begins, a "needs assessment inventory" should be administered to each individual to attempt to ascertain past, present and future leisure patterns. Several tests may be used, among them McKechnie's "Leisure Activities Blank" [3] and McCall's "Leisure Interest Inventory." [4] A caution should be noted here. These tests or inventories should not be administered prior to the leisure education and value clarification component of the program. If the tests or inventories are administered first, the youthful

Figure 1

Leisure Education Model



offender will make choices based on perceived likes and dislikes rather than on activities having a potential for satisfying a need or value.

The needs assessment should reveal two separate areas of the individual's leisure. First, it should reveal "recreation pursuits," activities and frequency of participation prior to involvement in the youthful offender program (how he/she actually used "free time" in the past). Second, the assessment should reflect the individual's "leisure interests," activities the individual would like but for some reason has never engaged in. There are many reasons an individual may not have attempted a leisure activity in the past. Facilities may not have been available or the individual may have lacked the necessary skills; the cost of the activity may have been prohibitive. Once the assessment has been completed, trained leisure services personnel should carefully evaluate the stated recreation pursuits and leisure interests helping the individual to balance his leisure activities previously pursued with new activities to help the youthful offender develop new leisure perspectives.

Leisure counseling and opportunities for skill acquisition are two areas which go hand-in-hand. As the individual becomes involved in the leisure service program, a trained leisure counselor should help the youthful offender discuss his/her satisfactions or dissatisfactions with current activities. The individual should be encouraged to discontinue participation in an unsuitable activity and pursue another with greater benefit. If a second selected pursuit results in a poor choice or results in little satisfaction for the youthful offender, then the individual should be encouraged to drop that pursuit and select another. Once a satisfactory choice has been established, the individual should be encouraged to spend as much of his/her leisure time as possible pursuing the activity and honing his/her skills to perfection.

As this new activity becomes a well established pattern with the youthful offender and he/she continues participation by his/her own self-motivation, the individual should be encouraged to go back into leisure counseling to select still another activity that will complement the previous selection. An example of the above mentioned choice selection might be a person who selects photography. After several weeks or months or when the individual becomes accomplished in photography--taking pictures, developing prints, etc. He/she then goes back into leisure counseling and decides on jogging as an additional recreation pursuit. The second pursuit complements the first in that when he/she is frustrated or tense he/she might choose to jog and when he/she is physically tired or needs to be alone, he/she may choose something more sedentary such as photography.

Leisure counseling is an ongoing process to help each individual select the activities which will best suit his/her interests and will lead him/her to greater self-direction in future leisure choices.

An essay written by a 27 year old male in an adult forensic mental health facility and who had a long history of both juvenile and adult deviant behaviors recorded his impressions of the values of leisure education and counseling: [5]

> Through the (Leisure Education) program I learned the importance of the wise use of my leisure time to be a more emotionally healthy person. . . In Leisure Education I learned how to break down each day into three eight hour time periods to get a more realistic view of how days are spent. . . Leisure time increases when not working on the weekends or when a person does not have a job. Most crimes, and other self-destructive behaviors, do not take place when we are working or while we are sleeping. . . That shows me that we all need to take a closer look at the things we do with our leisure time. Leisure time can be enjoyable and fulfilling, or boring and depressing, so our choices have a tremendous impact on the way we feel about ourselves and life in general. . . The unresolved problems often turn into distorted thoughts, and ideas, which lead to crime and other self-destructive behaviors. . . Feelings of anxiety set in because I did not know enough about myself to work out the problems. How was I suppose to know? I was not born knowing how to resolve my own problems, and I never learned how to until age 27. . . If people were taught these obviously necessary skills of managing their leisure time, at an early age, maybe, just maybe, it would prevent someone from going through (several juvenile programs) prison three times and ending up in the fourth mental hospital, before becoming aware of these things, as I have done.

B. Leisure Restructuring

Leisure restructuring is a very new concept that is being introduced into selected leisure programs for special populations. The restructuring concept has been utilized in selected leisure therapy programs in forensic mental health programs, correctional institutions, community based juvenile diversion programs and programs for the developmentally disabled.

Leisure restructuring does not deal solely or exclusively with the leisure needs of the individual but more broadly addresses the individual as a multi-faceted member of society. Each human life is the totality of all experiences and values that he/she holds. These experiences and the development of values begin almost at the beginning of life itself. The individual desires and strives for love, acceptance, praise and belonging and the drive to satisfy these needs is the basis for most human action. Most youthful offenders have had difficulty in finding successful means for satisfying these needs.

The term "restructuring" means to start over. Each youthful offender must re-assess his/her needs, values, behaviors and future goals. Trained staff, in all adjunctive therapies, must work closely together if success is to be achieved in this fragile and delicate task. The leisure services personnel must become active team members with academic and vocational educators, psychological and sociological counselors, group living personnel and administrators to determine all possible approaches to each individual's needs and problems.

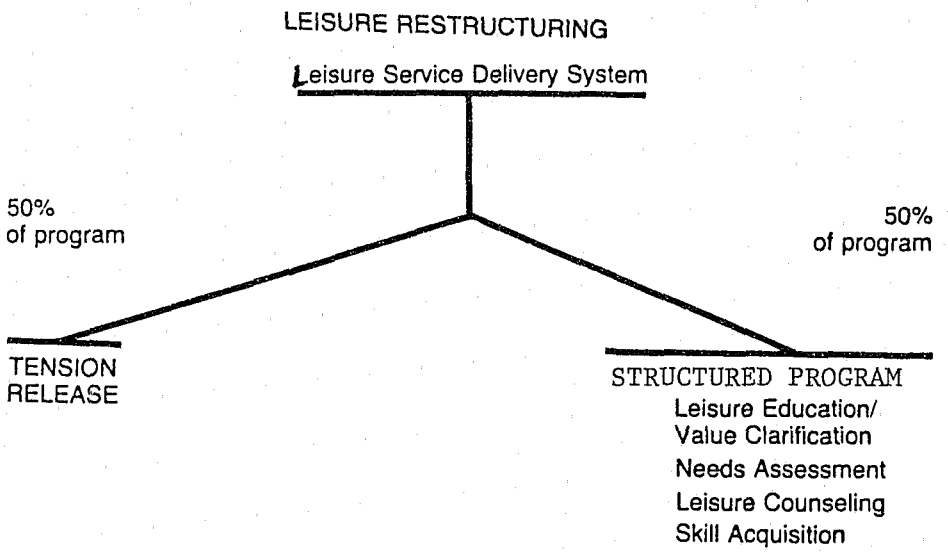
Leisure restructuring is based on the premise that the delivery of leisure services should have a two-fold purpose: (1) to relieve the daily tensions that are a result of and created by daily living, and (2) through leisure education the development of both existing and new leisure skills that have personal benefit to the youthful offender and carryover value into the community and adult life (see Figure 2.)

The first part of the two-pronged approach is the release of tension. In taking its place as a viable and integral part of the therapeutic model, recreation and leisure services must contribute to the overall system for relieving the tensions that exist within the violent youthful offender. A specific part of the program must develop opportunities to vent pent-up energies, frustrations, and anger in a healthy and acceptable manner. One effective method for dealing with excess energy and hostility is to divert attention from these daily tensions through physical activity. Jogging, walking, weight lifting, softball, basketball, football, volleyball, and many other physical activities allow the youthful offender to release anxiety and stress on a daily basis.

Another successful method for the release of tensions is mental diversion. Movies, drama, reading, etc., provide additional tension release by allowing the individual, however briefly, to become mentally involved with any of these diversions. A planned concerted effort, on a daily basis, to relieve pent-up feelings and emotions must be attempted by all humans in order to achieve a balance in life--a chance to start new and refreshed. This planned daily release of tension is a must if progress is to be made with the youthful offender in dealing constructively with his/her problems.

Figure 2

Two-Pronged Approach for Delivering Leisure Services



The second aspect of the two-pronged approach to the delivery of leisure services is leisure restructuring through leisure education. The concepts of leisure education have been discussed at length earlier in this chapter; however, one aspect of leisure education has been reserved for discussion at this time. After the principles and concepts of leisure education have been thoroughly covered and the individual is actively involved in leisure counseling, the leisure services personnel should introduce the concept of "balancing one's life through leisure." This concept involves the identification of daily frustrations and appropriate methods of dealing with these problems. Examples of balancing one's life through leisure might be a person who has spent the majority of his/her day addressing people, the frustrations of pleasing the boss and co-workers and understanding personalities and the problems of others. This person might choose a leisure activity that is solitary in nature where one can remove him or herself from the expectations of others and simply unwind; or he/she might go to a movie where one's thoughts can be lost in the plot or the characters. If one's day has been dull and sedentary then one might choose an active social event.

The basic concept behind balancing one's life through leisure is the need in today's society to bring about a quality of life that is becoming more and more void in the working world and in the personal lives of most Americans. Nowhere is the void in the quality of life more apparent than in the lives of most violent youthful offenders.

Summary

The leisure services program and the therapeutic recreation staff must work closely with all other adjunctive therapies in the residential treatment facility. The recreation program must be multi-faceted in order to blend with and enhance the other programs designed to deal effectively with the violent youthful offender.

The administrators of the residential treatment facility must have a keen understanding of the values and methods of the leisure service delivery system and be able to recruit and hire highly trained therapists to carry out this vitally important program.

As we look at the high inflation/low employment picture of American society today, the outlook for the serious and/or violent youthful offender is bleak. Productive, meaningful employment is almost an impossibility for this portion of our population. Since one-third to one-half of their lives will be spent in leisure, it would seem imperative that treatment programs do everything possible to adequately prepare the serious and violent youth to deal effectively with leisure time and to use this time block to bring quality into their lives rather

than complicate their lives by using leisure or uncommitted time to commit crimes.

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Chapter V

Community Relations

Developing Community Relations

Many program administrators go to great lengths to assure that a few programs are well staffed, will deliver quality services, will be housed in a decent facility and will be well funded. The one critical piece of program development that is often overlooked is community relations. Many times when developing a program the cart gets placed before the horse. All the program components are developed, well thought out and planned. But when it comes time to begin developing linkages with other community agencies and the community at large, administrators are at a loss when barriers arise.

Barriers begin to arise towards integrating the offender into the community: the schools will not take them; other service deliverers will not provide service; the neighborhood tries to zone you out; local businesses will not hire your clients; the list is sometimes endless. If the ultimate goal of a community based program is to integrate the offender into the community, the program does a disservice to the client if it tries to be autonomous. Reaching the goal as well as delivering effective services can only be attained through successful, strong community linkages.

Any discussion on how to successfully develop those linkages must begin by defining the unique community in which you work.

What is a community?

Webster defines a community in the following manner:

Community[1]

(a) a unified body of individuals

(b) the people with common interests living in a particular area

(c) an interacting population of various kinds of individuals in a common location

(d) a group of people with a common characteristic or interest living together within a larger society

(e) a group linked by a common policy

(f) a body of persons or nations having a history of social, economic, and political interests in common

A community may be described then as a body of interacting individuals, groups of people (organizations) and/or nations linked by common locations, interests (social, economic, political, etc.) and policies.

When a program emerges within an existing community, the program--both clients and staff--become a functioning part of that community and therefore are called upon to interact with it. Most programs do interact within their communities but find themselves in a negative or reactive position as opposed to a positive, active position. This happens most commonly because the interaction has begun after the program is operational.

Community relations must be seen as an integral part of the program planning process. Beginning the process of community education and linkages as the program is in the planning stage will help to ensure a smoother operation once the doors open. There are also several sub-communities within the overall community: the business community, the legal community, the academic community, etc. The first task of the community developer is to identify those sub-communities and to prioritize which are the most important to your program. A second-tier of that prioritization should be which are the most likely (easiest to approach) to support your program.

Defining community development is as difficult as is defining the parameters of a community.

There are, however, several general statements that can be made about community development that should be considered as you begin to define your role in building community relations:

- Community development is an effort to create the conditions that promote the welfare and best interests of youth;
- Community development is issue-oriented;
- Community development focuses on the community, the system, the institution and on the decision making process;
- Roles appropriate to community development are: consultant, planner, trainer, community organizer, development specialist and public information specialist;
- Relationships that are generated through community development can be described as collaborative;
- In community development people are seen as resources;

- o In community development there is generally in the community a fear of and a resistance to change being sought. Therefore, community development is a 'high risk' approach; and

- o Community development tends to foster participation and positive labeling.

Successful community development that generates community linkages serves four beneficial functions:

- o to meet funding guidelines;

- o to provide "credible" community recognition;

- o to provide access to the client population; and

- o to draw on external resources.

It is important to remember that "traditional" services need the help of emerging service agencies to provide "comprehensive" services to youth.

There are at least three basic assumptions to be made around community development:

- o An individual or organization will become involved in and contribute resources to cooperative activities that will directly enhance the interest of that specific individual or agency.

- o An individual or organization will become involved in and contribute resources to cooperative activities that will directly enhance the interest of a broader community of interests, of which that specific individual or organization is a part.

- o An individual or organization will insist on becoming involved in cooperative activities that are perceived as serving the actual or potential good of the whole community of interest as well as each individual organization that is a member.

It becomes clear that individuals or organizations in the community must be induced into support of your program and into providing resources based on these assumptions. Another task of the community developer is to get people to contribute their efforts by helping them discern the positive advantages as against the disadvantages which are entailed. This must be done through their perception of how the community is defined and what is helpful to them, not through your perceptions. What you may perceive as a benefit to the target population and the community at large, may not in fact be perceived as such.

Understand the community you are involved with and whose support you are trying to gain. That will provide you the context in which to frame their benefits, not your own.

Getting Them Invested

Once you have identified the sub-communities and their key actors there are several formal ways to begin getting them involved with your program. This can be done through:

- o active public education
- o utilization of volunteers
- o appointment to the Board of Directors
- o appointment to an Advisory Board

Media

The media is one of the most effective ways to educate a community and the most often overlooked. The efficient use of media gives the community ample opportunity to obtain accurate information about your target population and your program. The choice lies with each individual to accept or reject the facts presented to them. When the information is backed by substantive examples it becomes virtually indisputable. The threat to a neighborhood is only when we fail to demonstrate high quality, well-supervised services.

- o Send out press releases to local newspapers
- o Invite the press to your program
- o Call a local interview show and get invited
- o Offer yourself to a local radio talk show

Remember, community development is active!

Volunteers

This is a good way to get the community-at-large, the local citizens, involved and supportive of your program. When utilizing volunteers, the program must be willing to make commitments to them, otherwise this form of developing good relations will not work. Volunteers and potential volunteers can be a great source of public relations, if you use them effectively.

Volunteers must feel as if they are an integral part of the agency, not as if no one knows what to do with them. Volunteers appreciate and want responsibility as well as they appreciate your selectivity. Do not feel as if you must accept

everyone who volunteers! Some potential volunteers may not be the kind of people who should be with your clients.

Commitments the program needs to make:

- o Adequate staff support in terms of training, supervision, and establishment of mutually acceptable goals for volunteers.

- o Avenues of communication between volunteers and paid staff will be kept open.

- o Financial resources will be provided. This means that the program budget will have sufficient funds available for volunteer projects. Volunteers should have their own desk and supplies. Out-of-pocket expenses should be reimbursed if possible.

- o A volunteer component, fully defined, includes:

  - a recruitment plan

  - application and intake plan interviews and the subsequent screening and matching skills with openings

  - development of any necessary forms

  - orientation and training schedule

  - development of policies and procedures for volunteers

Boards of Directors or Advisory Boards

Boards (or councils) establish access to basic sources of power and influence in the local area that routinely affect the welfare of young people. Boards are a general resource providing and policy-recommending body that provides for the execution of the program's objectives. Representatives who serve on these Boards should be influential representatives of their segments of the community. Once you have sold them on the value and benefits of your program, they will insure access to extensive support in the community. With the right representation, Boards can become a continuing source of community development.

Typical members might include:

- o a media representative
- o a sheriff
- o corporate head
- o board of supervisors member
- o youth
- o superintendent of schools

- statutory agency heads
- community college president
- local labor union leader
- directors of other CBO's
- a juvenile court judge
- an employment and training representative
- a local citizen

Summary

Thinking about community relations is more difficult than doing it. We all have our own networks that have developed in some informal fashion. But for an agency to become integrated into a community, more than bits and pieces of networks must be developed. Think global and develop a community relations plan for your agency. Include:

- your goals for community development
- who the sub-communities are
- who are the key actors
- time-line for contact
- specific things you want from each individual or group
- what they will get out of it
- how can they become invested

Effective Means of Championing Your Position

Take some time and think seriously about the following question. Would you like to have a community based program for serious and/or violent offenders next door to your house? Your mother's house?

Honestly now, what was your answer? If after much thought you responded yes then you are probably in disagreement with 95% of the United States population. For the most part a natural fear is involved, however unfounded. Failure to recognize this legitimate feeling of fear will kill any chances you have of winning people over to your position that serious and/or violent juvenile offenders can be handled in the community.

Before attempting to champion your position you need to know exactly what it is that you want. What are you selling and why? Is your goal to win people over to your belief that serious and violent offenders can be effectively handled in the community? If so, do you have enough facts and emotional arguments to win over a few key people. Regardless of your facts you most likely would not be able to win over a large gathering by yourself. Your first step is gaining strong support from a select small group of influential local people. But, wait a minute, we are getting ahead of ourselves. Let's back up and start with the basics.

What we are interested in doing is bringing about change. As we sit back in our offices and homes we know it is possible and can work. Why then the resistance? The resistance to any change may come from:

- o those interested in protecting the status quo who feel they might lose power, prestige, and possibly votes.
- o genuine fear of the unknown.
- o contentment with the old ways, especially when change shows no visible positive to their lives.
- o differing goals, values, and priorities.
- o resignation that nothing positive can be done about this or any other problem of this nature.
- o apathy and indifference.
- o lack of energy.
- o implication of officials and practitioners that they have not been doing a good job.

Resistance to change is a part of human nature. Resistance to the type of change you are proposing is even more a part of human nature. As the pendulum swings in juvenile justice more and more citizens are saying "lock them up and throw away the key." Many of these same citizens however are also saying that we need to better utilize our resources and not foolishly throw money at problems. What better way to begin winning over a fiscally conservative politician than by clearly establishing the cost savings in community based programs?

Where Do You Start?

You naturally will begin locally because in terms of resistance to your idea there is an old adage "The closer you are to the oven the hotter the heat." Ultimately you may go to the State House for help but ideally the State House is used to accept an already accepted idea.

In any effective local strategy there are certain guidelines that should be followed. You must remember that this is not as simple as winning a lawsuit and going home with a $100,000 settlement in your favor. In this effort you need the community after you win. It only takes one angry voter in the community to fire bomb your community based program.

Okay, back to the guidelines.

1. Know what you want and know what it means to the local area. Just having "divine right," on your side is not enough. The easiest way to win people over to your idea is to show them successful examples of it in action. What is your major goal? At this stage it is gaining acceptance of the concept of treating serious and violent offenders in the community.

2. Avoid all unnecessary battles and conflicts. If you can win someone over through flexibility use it.

3. Maximally utilize every new convert or friend of your idea.

4. If there is already an accepted and a respected community based group of organizations join in with them. Let the reputation they have earned help gain acceptance for your idea.

Who Are Your Natural Allies?

This depends entirely on the area. You must do your homework in determining allies. When considering allies there are two basic types--powerful individuals (politicians, civic leaders, etc.) and powerful organizations. A word of caution is due here. When approaching potential allies you must be careful not to simply alert potential opponents.

When approaching powerful individuals you must know who may have a reason to support you or at least want to listen. If they are political figures, key supporters can help you get to them. Together you must convince them that ideally supporting your idea will help them get more votes. At worse it should show them that it will not cost them votes.

When approaching organizations, you need to first approach individuals within the organization. A full blown presentation too early to a large meeting can effectively kill an idea. Your homework with an organization should include:

- Who are the recognized leaders?
- Who are the real leaders that influence the direction of decisions?
- Would any of these leaders have a reason to support you?
- Who is most likely to actively shoot holes in your idea? Can you neutralize this person (or persons) early before they are locked into opposition.

Once you have done your homework with an organization or group proceed to gain their organized support. This active

support could convince the zoning boards, city councils, mayor's office or whomever you need to convince.

Where Are Some of Your Natural Allies?

Probably right underneath your nose. If your state is participating in the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act you have a State Advisory Group (SAG) appointed by your Governor. Your SAG has members from all over the state and most likely from your local area. If so recruit this person early to help locally and then statewide.

Other natural allies could include local churches, civic clubs, League of Women Voters, Junior Leagues, etc. Decide which groups are powerful and respected locally. An example of innovative civic club ideas are the Jaycees. In Maryland they recently established a chapter in an adult detention center.

Your natural allies are all around you. You just need to have your facts, do your homework, and recruit that core group of them.

Zoning

Zoning is a major obstacle you should contend with before you begin to actually establish a program. Review your local zoning laws before you even select a site for a program. Simply gaining community acceptance is discussed elsewhere in this chapter. Zoning could kill you even though you have community acceptance.

A former New York Supreme Court Justice A. Franklin Mahoney agrees with us on our local strategy and what it may mean to zoning decisions. In rendering an opinion on the matter he wrote:

> The sovereign must act reasonably and rationally under the circumstances so that governmental purpose may be achieved with the least amount of invasion or diminution of private rights. The State, in co-operation with the local community is not absolutely free to locate any governmental use in any location without a showing that less objectionable means are not available.

If after a thorough review of existing ordinances you find that changes are necessary, what can you do? Again, if possible stay local. Many people with great ideas have gone to the state legislature and watched those ideas die of benign neglect or old age. State legislation action is totally unnecessary when spending a fraction of the time would amend a local zoning ordinance. With the right allies zoning changes can be made.

If allies cannot help you bring about changes to local zoning ordinances you may want to consider litigation. This is only advisable when everything else is failing.

Litigative methods to directly attack exclusionary zoning provisions entail substantial legal research and writing. Since a favorable decision would necessarily be a rebuke to a local zoning board your chances of success might only be favorable at an appellate level. Because of this problem and the typically overcrowded court calendars, this time would have been better spent doing homework and recruiting allies.

A final word on zoning. After a careful evaluation of the local ordinance, would a little flexibility in your program idea make it more acceptable to the local community? Does your program have to be surrounded on all sides by single family homes with a mother, father and two kids? Is there another home that is close to stores and warehouses that is just as nice but zoned ever so slightly more in your favor.

Flexibility may be the key to success in local zoning efforts.

What if All of This Fails?

You may have to turn to a longer term strategy of bringing about legislative change. To do this you must:

- know your legislative process
- meet legislators and staff early
- coordinate your efforts
- focus in on your issue but pay close attention to issues in a similar area
- know your facts
- know the biases of key committee leaders
- utilize your allies to win over key committee leaders
- draft language that is suitable for your idea and this is realistically passable
- utilize coalitions that can support your idea
- maintain a realistic perspective
- do not expect (or heaven forbid) demand miracles

You can win in the state legislature but it takes time.

What Do You Do with Opponents?

In any process local, state, zoning, or legislature there will be opponents. What is the best way to handle them? Ideally you "head it off at the pass" and prevent it before it surfaces.

History tells us that we will have opposition. The key now is to neutralize it. Neutralizing opposition does not necessarily mean winning them over. At least you can hope to keep them from working against you.

- Through all of the homework mentioned earlier you should have some idea of who is the opposition. You may want to approach them early as you gather allies. Recognizing their position and power let them know you want them in early to help with the decision making process. They may not join but they often will not tangle quite so hard when the issue comes back up.

- Designating someone an opponent too early could backfire. "Natural" opponents may really be allies. Be careful with your own pre-conceived notions of opposition.

- Don't present absolutes. Keeping open options and maintaining a proper degree of flexibility can help mute opposition.

- Utilize effective, knowledgeable spokespersons to counter opposition spokespersons. If the opposition brings a clergyman to oppose you recruit a like-minded clergyman to counter.

- Avoid attacks.

- Be reasonable.

- Remain calm even in the face of unreasonableness.

- Know your facts.

- And finally, remember, there will be opposition and setbacks but keep up your energy and motivation and you will win. Programs will be established to meet the needs of the community.

Marketing a Program

Successful marketing of a program requires deciding three questions: why?, who?, and how?

Why market a program? A program usually needs to sell itself or to make some other groups aware of its existence. Fundraising, recruiting volunteers, forming linkages or securing cooperation, and preventing or circumventing opposition are some possible motives for beginning a marketing effort.

Selection of a purpose or purposes will dictate to whom the effort will be directed. Some communities to be reached include law enforcement personnel, business, other youth service agencies and social services, local and state governments, appropriate departments of local colleges and universities, residents of neighborhoods where the program is located, and the general public (city-wide, state-wide, and nation-wide).

The tone and specific approach of a marketing effort will be determined by the considerations of purpose and audience; however, the key to successful marketing of a program is contacting the right group with the right message. "Contact," therefore, is the key to "how?". Depending upon the objectives and the audience, personal contact (meetings, speeches, letters, etc.), print or electronic media, benefit drives or events, or direct mail may be chosen. In many cases, the director will need to initiate a visit. Having an angle will make contact easier. While those directly involved with a program (e.g. the contract monitor, the juvenile court referral person) will be accustomed to such visits, an excuse may be needed to make a sales call on business operators, schools, employers, etc.

Some possible reasons for such a visit might include:

1. A new executive director might stop by to introduce himself or herself and acquaint or reacquaint the agency, business or official with the program.

2. A new staff person has just been hired, and the director can introduce them. This tactic only works if the director has previously met the person and the new employee might have a reason (however broadly defined) to contact the person in the future. This creates the opportunity to "refresh" the person's memory about the entire program.

3. New board members can introduce the director to their contacts (business, political, etc.). Since they are new, they can do it under the guise of making their contacts aware of their new activity.

4. A new program component has been established or designed. The director can discuss new services it could or can provide, or what assistance is needed.

5. Comments (formal or informal) can be made on new legislation or policy (to government policymakers), or the director may be seeking to enlist support or opposition (form other services, businesses, etc.).

6. Help is needed for funding services, etc. It is usually better to publicize what a program can do, rather that what it cannot, but asking for something is usually expected. However, it is important to ask for something the person has the power to grant. A good marketing effort should make people enthusiastic about the program, so much so that they want to do something for it. It is important to have a variety of needs in mind, so that a request can be made for something the person might enjoy providing, whether political support, volunteers, equipment or facilities, or funds. It is also often useful to have something to leave behind after the meeting in order to keep the event before the individual: a brochure, poster, newsletter, button, bumper sticker.

Personal visits are best used for targeting decision-makers with specific requests, or setting the stage for future such requests. While such personal contact may secure specific things for the individual agency, some needs can only be met through the cooperative activities of several programs. Put another way, the need or issue may need to be marketed, rather than one specific program. Thus, it is beneficial to consider being an active member of groups that take action on common concerns. Collective action to influence policymakers can accomplish much more change and improvement than one program acting alone. Many states have coalitions which are appropriate to the concerns of the operator of serious offender programs, coalitions of youth workers, group home operators, etc. Active membership in such groups usually aids in keeping abreast of news, and establishes a reputation for a program both among peers and among policymakers. It may also be easier to get media attention for a coalition than for an individual program (see below).

Besides influencing decision-making, membership in a coalition is often important in forming linkages for services. Interaction with other social services groups can lead to referrals for such needs as medical screening, alternative education programs, intensive psychotherapeutic services, and employment programs. It may not be necessary to provide such services within an individual program if cooperative agreements can be secured.

Similarly, program directors and staff may want to become active in local community associations in areas where their programs are located. Community residents are often fearful about non-residential as well as residential programs being

located in their neighborhoods. Having representatives at a meeting allows issues to be aired on a regular basis, reassures residents of staff competence, and if staff is active, may create "credits" which can be redeemed by the director at a later date, for example with local business operators or police youth officers, who often participate in neighborhood groups. The opportunity to speak before local church, fraternal or business groups can also be important in developing good will and future cooperation and assistance. Such groups can often be an excellent source of volunteers.

While many program operators think of volunteers as relegated to answering the phone, stuffing envelopes, etc., volunteers can form a resource for fundraising and the donation of professional services such as legal advice, accounting and bookkeeping assistance in planning and conducting recreational activities. When given an explanation of a program's purpose and needs, people are often moved to donate their time and assistance.

Sometimes the needs of a program cannot be met by selective contact and an appeal for funds or services must be made to the general public. Generally, such a wide net can be cast by media coverage. Media coverage can be either editorial coverage or advertising.

Editorial coverage is useful for establishing the reputation and credibility of a program. A news or feature story on a program reaches far more people than a director is ever likely to reach. Typically, policymakers will read such an article. Curiously, a positive newspaper article is often viewed as a comprehensive positive evaluation of program success, and can be very influential with policymakers and potential funders. Therefore, editorial coverage should be cultivated.

To begin with the simplist, the ubiquitous press release should be mailed any time the program hires new staff, lands a new grant or contact, or completes a reliable positive evaluation. Local media (particularly newspapers, but also radio and television) should be monitored to determine which reporters generally cover youth or social issues. These reporters should be invited to visit the program, sent a continual stream of news items, etc. An attempt might be made to see if any future series on youth are planned, and whether the program could be part of that series. If the program cannot be the central subject, perhaps it could serve as a "sidebar story" to articles focusing on crime, unemployment, education or the like. There is a particular advantage if the program is "good news" and provides a counter to an otherwise bleak picture. The larger the community, the more difficult it may be to secure such coverage. Besides maintaining a constant flow of information to reporters in larger communities it may help to

try to speak at media-related meetings of such groups as press clubs, women broadcasters associations, etc. Some large local stations and newspapers have community relations desks that could be contacted. The opportunity may also arise to present an editorial or editorial counterpoint. Many cities have daytime talk shows on which a director could indicate a desire to appear. Such an inquiry should bear in mind the media's need for news, and focus on issues and expertise, rather than strictly advertising a specific program.

The purpose in seeking such media attention is to keep the program and the issue in front of the public, so that future specific request can be supported by a solid reputation.

Many television and radio stations are willing to make public service announcements for special events. It is more difficult, however, to conduct general fundraising appeals through such advertising since putting together a "spot," particularly for television, requires specific technical and artistic expertise. If marketing is to be conducted in this manner, perhaps an ad agency can donate professional services to develop the advertisement. Such an ad would typically be used either to recruit volunteers or solicit funds. An appeal from a local celebrity will usually increase the attractiveness of the spot to the media and the public.

People and organizations which have aided the program should receive thanks and recognition. If such recognition is made through a presentation, luncheon or other event, there may also be spin-off media value and reporters may cover such an event in a news article.

Summary

The discussions in this chapter have focused on developing community relations, championing your position, and marketing. The goal of the chapter has been to provide the reader with an organized presentation of activities most program operators do daily. For community-based programs dealing with serious offenders, it is important to note that this chapter is an overview, a starting point, for an organized well thought out community development plan that will be critical to the survival and success of the program.

Appendix

AGENDA

NATIONAL YOUTH WORK ALLIANCE INSTITUTE

ON SERIOUS JUVENILE OFFENDERS

REGIONAL TRAINING WORKSHOPS

Jackson, Tennessee
September 21-24, 1982

Dallas, Texas
November 9-12, 1982

Reno, Nevada
February 8-11, 1983

Chicago, Illinois
March 8-11, 1983

* *

DAY I

11:00 a.m. - 12 noon	REGISTRATION
12 noon - 1:30 p.m.	LUNCH
1:30 p.m. - 4:30 p.m.	TRAINING ORIENTATION

- o Welcome and National Overview

  Lori Strumpf, Project Manager,
  National Youth Work Alliance,
  Washington, D.C.

- o Why Are We Training Community Based Organizations (CBO's)

  Lori Strumpf, Project Manager,
  National Youth Work Alliance,
  Washington, D.C.

- o Training Overview

  Lori Strumpf, Project Manager,
  National Youth Work Alliance,
  Washington, D.C.

- Discussion of Client-Types, The "Payoffs" and The Risks

  Lori Strumpf, Project Manager, National Youth Work Alliance, Washington, D.C.

6:00 p.m. — RECEPTION/DINNER

DAY II

8:15 a.m. - 9:15 a.m. — BREAKFAST ROUNDTABLE

9:15 a.m. - 12 noon — DEFINITIONS AND PARAMETERS

Dr. Charles Frazier, Professor, Sociology Department, University of Florida

Presentation will include:

- Analysis of Uniform Crime Report
- Sellin-Wolfgang Scale
- Chronicity
- Community standards
- Group discussion on the relativity and seriousness of offenses

10:15 a.m. - 10:30 a.m. Coffee Break

12 noon - 1:00 p.m. — LUNCH

1:00 - 4:30 p.m. — DETERMINING SERVICE NEEDS AND SELECTING CLIENTS

Andrew Vachss, Attorney, New York, New York

To include video tape exercise on "The Serious and Violent Juvenile Offender: The Intake Decision"

3:30 p.m. - 3:45 p.m. Coffee Break — BREAK

6:00 p.m. — DINNER

DAY III

8:15 a.m. - 9:15 a.m. BREAKFAST

9:15 a.m. - 12 noon MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES

Leslie Haines, Coordinator, Tri-County Youth Services Consortium, Portland, Oregon

- o The Brokering Function
- o Uses of MIS
- o Client Tracking
- o Using the Total Community
- o Group exercise

10:30 a.m. - 10:45 a.m. Coffee Break

12 noon - 1:30 p.m. LUNCH

1:30 p.m. - 3:30 p.m. PROGRAMMATIC EVALUATION

Dr. Charles Frazier, Professor, Sociology Department, University of Florida

- o Community Measures of Success

3:30 p.m. - 3:45 p.m. BREAK

3:45 p.m. - 5:30 p.m. BUILDING AN EMPLOYMENT COMPONENT

Betsy Friedlander, Consultant, Washington, D.C.

- o Is it different for this population?
- o Model Building

6:00 p.m. DINNER

DAY IV

8:15 a.m. - 9:30 a.m. BREAKFAST

9:30 a.m. - 12 noon RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT

Lori Strumpf, Project Manager,
National Youth Work Alliance,
Washington, D.C.

Dick Geldof, Program Specialist,
National Youth Work Alliance,
Washington, D.C.

11:00 a.m. - 11:15 a.m.
Coffee Break

- o OJJDP
- o Creative fundraising strategies
- o Final decision making

The National Youth Work Alliance is a tax-exempt, non-profit training, resource and advocacy organization, which provides services to over 1,000 locally controlled member agencies serving youth and their families. The staff of these independent agencies work in nearly every area affecting young people, including: juvenile justice, employment, education, alcohol and drug abuse, runaways, adolescent pregnancy, residential care and many others. Founded in 1973, the Alliance has been dedicated to providing quality services to youth and their families.