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THE ORGANIZATIONAL PROPERTIES OF SEVEN PROGRAMS

FOR THE

DEINSTITUTIONALIZATION OF STATUS OFFENDERS

JON MILLER
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1. INTRODUCTION

This report covers the organizational evaluation of the LEAA-funded programs for the deinstitutionalization of status offenders (DSO) in seven localities: Clark County, Washington; Spokane, Washington; Alameda County, California; Pima County, Arizona; Illinois; Delaware; and South Carolina. The complete questionnaire upon which the survey was based appears in Appendix A.

Although the seven programs were charged with similar responsibilities, they differed in the ways they defined their tasks and problems and in terms of their structural outlines. For purposes of preparing this report, however, the analysis was guided by two key assumptions concerning the mandate under which the national DSO effort proceeded: first, that all the programs were expected to pull a variety of agencies and treatment resources into a coordinated network or system of youth service delivery; and second, that the organizational success of the programs was to be defined in large part in terms of their community-basedness. Consistent with the first assumption, close attention has been given to the location of practitioners in the system of inter-agency ties in each locality that bound the separate components of the program together. In keeping with the second assumption, scales were developed to measure the volume of interaction between the participants in each program and a variety of institutions and agencies in the surrounding community, as well as the frequency of active attempts by program participants to influence the community in ways likely to benefit status offenders.

These three variables, then, the positions of practitioners in the networks of professional exchange and the measures of community contact and

community activism, form the outstanding core of this report, although a great deal of other descriptive information on the programs and the attitudes of their participants is also provided. Take note that no mention has been made of performance measures based on DSO <u>client</u> outcomes. This report deals only with the characteristics of practitioners, the organizational settings in which they performed their duties, and their relationships to the surrounding community.

ORGANIZATION OF THE REPORT

Section I of the report, by far the longest, will be largely descriptive, concentrating on comparisons of the programs with respect to each of the following sets of characteristics:

1. <u>Demographic and occupational composition</u>, including break-downs by race, gender, education and experience, and occupation;

2. <u>Treatment philosophies and strategies</u>, based on opinions about the roles of psychogenic and sociogenic factors in the problems of juveniles and the utility of punishment in solving these problems;

3. <u>Decision making arrangements</u>, specifically, styles of supervision and quality of the contacts between supervisors and their subordinates;

4. <u>Internal networks of interaction and communication</u>, based on a sociometric analysis of work contacts and patterns of consultation and mutual support among co-workers.

5. <u>Elements of work strain</u>, including expressions of concern over professional autonomy, the work load, the availability of information and other aspects of the overall work setting.

After these background comparisons among the programs have been made, Section II will concentrate on the documentation and explanation of three sets of performance variables:

1. Interorganizational contacts by DSO participants with other agencies and institutions in the community, including the police, schools, religious organizations, courts and both public and private social service agencies not directly involved in the DSO program;

2. Community activism, based on participants' reports of the amount of effort they have given to increasing the level of community support and improving the community resource base for programs that deal with the problems of youth; and

3. Subjective estimates by participants of the effectiveness of their own efforts and of the program as a whole.

The descriptive material in Section I is essentially preliminary to the analysis of these outcomes, which will concentrate on questions such as these: What variable or combination of organizational variables shows the most direct relationship to members' community involvement or interorganizational contact? Are patterns of decision making more or less important than the patterns of interaction, consultation and mutual support that have developed among the program members? Are the variables that account for subjective estimates of effectiveness the same ones that are related to objective measures of community basedness? The greatest payoff in useful information for future youth service delivery efforts is likely to come from the attempts to answer these questions.

2. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This evaluation was intended to be a quasi-longitudinal (two-phase) survey of all the participants in all of the programs involved in the national DSO effort. The first wave of questionnaires was to have been sent to program participants in June, 1976, followed after a one-year interval by a second wave during the Summer of 1977. This two-step design was expected to register changes over the life of each program and thus enable the evaluators to comment on the organizational strategies best suited for both initial and relatively long-term success. The final research design that was actually employed was considerably less ambitious than this and in some areas was only a pale reflection of the original. This final working plan was the result of decisions, redefinitions and compromises at several levels. The major steps in the evolution (devolution) of the final design will be briefly recounted because many of them reflect chronic problems in the evaluation of large scale, federally funded programs that should be documented. The intention in recounting these problems is to signal important points of caution both for future researchers and for future program organizers.

Changes in the Scope of the Evaluation.

A series of decisions reduced the comprehensiveness of the evaluation. First, the DSO program in Arkansas was dropped entirely on the grounds that it was sufficiently different from the other programs that it could not meaningfully be evaluated in the same terms. It does not appear in this report.

Second, the national evaluation staff agreed that only parts of the programs in South Carolina and Illinois would be included in the evaluation and,

as a consequence, the organizational evaluation of each of these programs was drastically truncated. The interpretation of the findings for these two programs was much more difficult as a result. In South Carolina federal funds were added to state and local financing to support the processing of DSO clients through the existing youth service delivery machinery. It was not possible to specify with any confidence which agencies, treatment modalities or practitioners were DSO-funded and which were not and the opinion expressed by the South Carolina director and supported by the evaluation team was that an analysis encompassing the entire state-wide service delivery system was inappropriate. Accordingly, personnel rosters were provided for the organizational analysis that included only certain personnel from selected, and no doubt unrepresentative, parts of the system. In short, since large parts of the program were exempted from the evaluation, and since it was not possible to separate DSO effort from non-DSO effort, the data presented here should be taken as a tentative examination of the organizational effectiveness of a part of South Carolina's youth service delivery system (through which DSO clients were processed) and not as an evaluation of a program put together for the national DSO program, per se.

A similar but more complicated problem was encountered in Illinois. Here again the program drew upon funding from a variety of sources, and activities relevant to the DSO program were diffused throughout a large number of agencies spread over a wide area. More critically, multiple evaluations were being conducted simultaneously by different funding agencies and the saturation point in the respondents' tolerance was quickly reached. Again, the decision was made to confine the organizational survey to a reduced and unrepresentative number of sites and there is no way to determine to what extent the results from this truncated survey would be typical of the Illinois DSO effort overall. In the final accounting the research design in Illinois

became quite distorted and the response rate was very low (43%), in part because a large number of foster parents were listed on the organizational roster and most of them, even after several follow-up requests, declined to participate in the evaluation.

Finally, the start-up of the DSO program in Connecticut was delayed until well after this organizational evaluation began and a personnel list was not available until September, 1977. The survey could not be initiated until that time, several months after the coding and processing of the data from the other programs had been started. The data from Connecticut will be analyzed separately and presented in a supplemental report to be completed at a later time.

Personnel Rosters.

Next to the shrinking of the population of organizations to be studied, securing accurate and comprehensive personnel rosters for the DSO programs was the most serious problem encountered. Though the research was scheduled to begin in June of 1976, the first reasonably complete roster was not available until July and the last one not until December of that year. As a consequence, the entire evaluation had to be delayed by six months in order to attempt to handle all the programs within the same time frame.

Part of the delay was a simple function of postponements in the staffing and starting of the different programs and could not be avoided. Much more troublesome difficulties were caused by a lack of clarity in the way the organizational features of the programs were defined, a lack of understanding by program personnel of what the LEAA and national evaluation requirements were, and a lack of willingness in some instances to see the organizational evaluation take place at all. Problems such as these recur with some regularity

in evaluation research but they should be recounted in some detail here because
they have a direct bearing on the evaluability of ambitious, large-scale demon-
stration projects such as DSO.

Defining the organizational boundaries of the DSO program was a difficult
task in most cases. There was disagreement over whether the term "DSO program"
referred only to the staff of individuals directly responsible for the adminis-
tration of the DSO grant or whether the boundaries should not also include all
the practitioners involved with status offenders, including subcontracting
agencies contributing to the program in various ways, foster parents, consult-
ants, and so on. The latter, more comprehensive definition was insisted upon
by the national evaluation team, on the assumption that anyone whose involve-
ment with status offenders was subject to scrutiny by the coordinating DSO
staff should be considered a part of the program. Accordingly, all program
directors were asked to furnish personnel rosters that included everyone with-
in these boundaries. As it turned out, it was difficult for some projects to
fulfill this request and the final rosters that were used in the evaluation
contained some known and undoubtedly some unknown sources of error. For ex-
ample, except for Illinois, hardly any foster parents were included on the
personnel lists, and consultants were generally considered to be outside the
organizational boundaries.

From these and other problems we encountered, it became clear that the
DSO projects for the most part had vaguely defined and shifting memberships
and obscure boundaries. Very often the participants, i.e., the actual prac-
titioners, had little understanding of their organizational position in the
DSO effort and still less understanding of why they were being called upon to
participate in the evaluation of it. Some examples should make this point
clear. In several cases all the members of a cooperating agency were listed

as participants in the program when only one or two individuals were actually
expected to be involved in DSO-related activities. Just as often, individuals
appeared on a roster who had delegated their DSO duties to people not on the
roster, or who had been reassigned to non-DSO activities between the time the
roster was prepared and the questionnaires mailed out. In a small number of
cases individuals were contacted who had never heard of the DSO program and in
other cases important individuals were overlooked altogether even though they
had important DSO functions to perform.

Staff turnover on some projects also presented a problem for the analysis.
In one case about 20% of an agency's members were replaced in the weeks that
passed between the preparation of the roster and the administration of the
survey, and in one other instance the members declined to reply to the ques-
tionnaire because they had heard that the funds for their share of the DSO
effort were being withdrawn. A unique problem arose in one locality when two
community agencies which were fully involved in the program were excluded
entirely from the organizational roster that was provided by the project di-
rector. When they learned of the evaluation they asked to be added to the
mailing list so that their reactions to the program would not be overlooked.
The converse also occurred, that is, agencies appeared in the rosters that
were never in fact involved in the DSO effort. Finally, in one program sev-
eral agencies never responded to the request for rosters or did so only with
great reluctance because they had been assured that if they agreed to partici-
pate in the DSO program, they would not be asked to submit to any LEAA evalua-
tion.

Problems such as these made it difficult to determine the organizational
outlines of the DSO programs with accuracy and the evaluation was made more
difficult as a result. Usually the difficulties arose, we believe, because no

allowances were made for an extensive organizational evaluation such as this one and consequently there had been little concern given to defining the precise organizational features of the programs as they were being assembled. In most cases the rosters had to be extended and amended several times and in their final forms most of them provided at least a workable framework upon which to base the investigation. However, the delays caused by the attempts to complete the rosters stretched from weeks into months, consumed an inordinate amount of the staff time and research funds of the national evaluation team, and were a substantial factor in the decision to shelve the longitudinal dimension of the evaluation for all but those two programs, Spokane and Delaware, which had provided comprehensive rosters and high response rates much earlier than the other programs.

At this point we are primarily concerned with the problems which this delay caused for the evaluation of the DSO programs and not with the difficulties it might have caused for the actual implementation of the programs. It is clear that if the organizational features of such programs are to be properly evaluated in the future a clear statement must be made at the outset (preferably at the RFP stage) describing the nature of the evaluation and the extent of the detail about their projects that program directors are to be asked to provide. The resulting savings in time, effort and money and the improvement in the quality of the evaluation from having these expectations up front will more than offset the added effort required of the program directors at the time when they are involved in establishing the organizational structures of their programs.

Response Rates.

Questionnaires were mailed to program participants during December, 1976 and January, 1977. The initial returns were for the most part very slow and two mailed follow-ups and a series of telephone contacts with project directors and agency heads were used over a five month period to improve the response rates. As the list shows, the final returns were quite variable:

Alameda County, California	66%	(96/145)
Clark County, Washington	80%	(20/25)
Delaware	79%	(37/47)
Illinois	43%	(60/139)
Pima County, Arizona	56%	(78/139)
South Carolina	65%	(37/57)
Spokane, Washington	91%	(39/43)

In general the returns were best for the personnel directly employed by the DSO grants and those directly charged with program administration, and worst for the paticipants who were involved at the periphery of the programs, such as foster parents and consultants. The overall response rate of 62% (367/595) would appear quite good compared to most mailed surveys but is lower than expected given that there was a strong mandate for the study and most of the subjects were aware, at least in general terms, of the necessity for the evaluation.

As we pointed out above, personnel turnover was a problem in some sites and could account for some of the failures to respond. Whenever we were aware that respondents had left the program the response rates for their programs were adjusted upward because the non-responses were not actually refusals to respond. However, in all likelihood there was more turnover that we were

not aware of but we were unable to document this in any detail at the time of the survey.

A different problem affected the response rate for the program in Alameda County, California. Project participants reacted negatively to Section V of the questionnaire, which contained sociometric items designed to provide an index of the program's structure, specifically, its patterns of inter-agency communication, influence and mutual support. It was not possible to convince the respondents that LEAA would respect the confidentiality of these items and the result was an extremely low response rate from the community based agencies in the program. A compromise was reached by replacing the offending items with an alternative series of questions (see Appendix B) and the response rate improved considerably. However, because the sociometric items were dropped, the measurement of the internal connectedness of this program will not be directly comparable with that of the other programs in the study.

The length of the evaluation instrument (8 pages) and the fact that it came on the heels of many other DSO-related paperwork obligations also caused some reluctance to respond. We will report later that paperwork was the most frequent source of work strain in many of the programs. In one program, in fact, several respondents complained that DSO paperwork had expanded to the point where it required more time than was spent actually dealing with the problems of clients.

Finally, a small but vocal handful of program participants in almost every program objected in principle to having their professional activities evaluated by a distant research team that had no first-hand experience with the circumstances that they, the practitioners, had to face.

Changes in the Longitudinal Design.

In order to conduct a Time 1-Time 2 comparison we needed to have a high response rate for each program so that the two waves of the analysis would be based on the replies of essentially the same personnel. Because of the short life of the programs, it was also necessary to have a quick response to the first wave so that an appropriate interval could elapse between the two waves. As we have already pointed out there was approximately a six-months delay in the administration of the first wave of questionnaires, and only the programs in Spokane, Washington and Delaware responded quickly enough and with a high enough response rate that the second wave of the analysis remained feasible. In the other programs the process of collecting the questionnaires took almost six months before it was decided that the response rate was acceptable (or as high as it would ever be), and because of this it was not possible to allow an appropriate interval to elapse before the second wave would have had to be administered. The second wave was sent to the Spokane and Delaware programs in September, 1977 and the analysis comparing the two waves for these sites will be presented in a separate report.

3. SUMMARY

The overall research design for this evaluation was altered in some major and minor ways and as a consequence is less comprehensive than originally intended. With a few exceptions the representatives of the different programs cooperated as much as could be expected given the uncertainty of the situations they faced. Many of the problems that were encountered can be traced to the fact that most of the programs were funded and implemented with only indistinctly drawn organizational features. New projects were combined with or superimposed upon ongoing ones and formerly independent agencies were tied into networks of service delivery with other agencies, both public and private. Methods of coordination, spheres of responsibility and the division of labor among the parts of these complicated systems were not always apparent. An argument could certainly be made that a flexibly structured approach to the delivery of human services is preferable to one that requires precisely defined organizational features, on the grounds that such flexibility will have a payoff in performance that a more bureaucratic approach would sacrifice. However, indistinctly defined boundaries and responsibilities are not synonymous with the flexibility this argument has in mind. The lack of clarity encountered in the DSO programs meant that their activity often took place in an atmosphere of turbulence and uncertainty, a fact that should definitely influence the way the findings are read. The idea of conducting an _organizational_ evaluation was sometimes conceptually out of phase with the somewhat unorganized state of the programs.

SECTION I
DESCRIPTIVE INFORMATION ON THE PROGRAMS

1. DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILES

The background characteristics of the seven programs are given in Tables 1A to 1E. They show considerable variation, both within and between programs, in terms of occupational composition, gender ratios, age, race, education and experience.

Occupationally, not all respondents provided easily recognizable or clearly defined labels for themselves (Table 1A). Counselors and social workers were the most numerous, followed by the category "supervisor/coordinator/administrator," and then probation officers. Together these groups accounted for over two thirds of all participants. The remainder were spread over a wide range of skills, including psychologist, recreation specialist, consultant and support staff, such as secretary, accountant, and so forth.

Looking at the individual programs, Arizona, Alameda County and Clark County had relatively high proportions of counselors and of probation officers, whereas in the remaining four programs far greater reliance was placed on social workers and, interestingly, on administrators.

Most of the participants had academic credentials, about evenly divided between bachelor's and master's degrees (Table 1B). By this criterion, the Illinois program relied least on degree holders (35% had no degree) and Spokane represented the other end of the range (55% had master's degrees or better). Arizona ranked lowest in average number of years of professional experience (4.2 years) and Clark County ranked highest (7.2 years). When the three sets of information in Table 1B are taken together, the seven programs fall into two fairly distinct categories. Arizona, Illinois, and South Carolina practitioners were somewhat less educated (in terms of years of schooling and degrees held)

and less experienced than the members of the programs in Alameda, Clark County, Delaware, and Spokane. Though the variations were not great, Arizona, Illinois, and South Carolina also employed proportionally fewer whites (Table 1C) and substantially larger numbers of practitioners 30 years of age or less (Table 1D).

Different strategies concerning professionalism seem to be indicated by this, with Arizona, Illinois, and South Carolina representing a less traditional (younger, less educated, more likely to be non-white) alternative than the other programs. It is outside the range of this organizational evaluation, but other parts of the investigation should examine whether these distinctions bear any relationship to client characteristics and client outcomes.

Finally, gender breakdowns are given in Table 1E. Women outnumbered men in all the programs except Alameda County, with the greatest disproportion (70%) appearing in Delaware. Overall, the ratio of women to men was roughly 6:4.

TABLE 1A.
OCCUPATIONAL COMPOSITION (%) OF SEVEN DSO PROGRAMS

TREATMENT	ALAMEDA	ARIZONA	CLARK COUNTY	DELAWARE	ILLINOIS	SOUTH CAROLINA	SPOKANE	ALL PROGRAMS
Counselor	30.3	26.3	20.0	13.5	7.0	8.6	13.9	19.5
Houseparent	-	3.9	-	-	-	-	2.8	1.1
Social Worker	11.2	19.7	15.0	51.4	33.3	34.3	42.2	27.2
Volunteer	2.2	3.9	-	-	-	-	-	1.4
Psychologist	11.2	-	5.0	2.7	5.3	2.9	2.8	4.9
Therapist	12.4	1.3	-	2.7	-	-	8.3	4.3
Recreation	-	1.3	-	-	-	-	-	.3
COURT-RELATED								
Unspecified	-	-	-	-	-	-	2.8	.3
Probation Officer	12.4	11.8	15.0	-	3.5	-	-	7.2
Court Liaison Officer	-	1.3	-	-	-	-	-	.3
ADMINISTRATION								
Administrator*	6.7	7.9	15.0	18.9	21.1	31.5	16.7	14.5
Community Worker/ Program Development	-	1.3	-	-	5.3	8.6	2.8	1.4
TECHNICAL STAFF								
Consultant	-	-	5.0	-	-	-	-	.3
Researcher	-	1.3	-	-	-	-	-	.3
Planner	-	-	-	-	1.8	-	-	.3
Attorney	1.0	-	-	5.4	-	-	-	.9
SUPPORT STAFF								
Accountant	-	1.3	-	-	-	-	-	.3
Business Manager	1.1	-	-	-	-	-	-	.3
Statistician	-	-	-	-	-	2.9	-	.3
Secretary	1.1	3.9	-	-	1.8	14.3	2.8	3.2
Other Clerical	3.4	-	5.0	2.7	-	-	2.8	1.7
Public Relations	-	1.3	-	-	-	-	-	.3
OTHER**	4.5	9.2	10.0	-	5.3	-	-	4.6

* Includes "Supervisors," "Coordinators" and "Administrators."
** Teacher, Nurse, Student, "Change Agent"

TABLE 1B.

EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUNDS OF PARTICIPANTS IN SEVEN DSO PROGRAMS

PROGRAM	MEAN YEARS EDUCATION	MEAN YEARS EXPERIENCE
ALAMEDA	17.3	6.0
ARIZONA	16.1	4.2
CLARK COUNTY	17.3	7.2
DELAWARE	16.9	6.8
ILLINOIS	16.1	5.5
SOUTH CAROLINA	16.3	5.4
SPOKANE	17.3	6.5
ALL PROGRAMS	16.7	5.7

ACADEMIC DEGREE HELD

PROGRAM	PERCENT NO DEGREE	PERCENT 2-YEAR DEGREES	PERCENT BACHELOR'S	PERCENT MASTER'S AND ABOVE
ALAMEDA	10.1%	2.2%	41.6%	46.1%
ARIZONA	27.6	3.9	43.4	24.9
CLARK COUNTY	15.0	0.0	45.0	40.0
DELAWARE	8.1	5.4	40.5	45.9
ILLINOIS	35.1	1.8	35.1	28.1
SOUTH CAROLINA	17.1	2.9	45.7	34.3
SPOKANE	8.3	2.8	33.3	55.5
ALL PROGRAMS	18.6	2.9	40.7	37.9

TABLE 1C.

RACIAL BREAKDOWNS FOR THE PARTICIPANTS IN SEVEN DSO PROGRAMS

PROGRAM	PERCENT BLACK	PERCENT WHITE	PERCENT MEXICAN-AMERICAN	PERCENT OTHER	PERCENT NO ANSWER
ALAMEDA	13.5%	82.0%	1.1%	3.3%	0.0%
ARIZONA	6.6	72.4	18.4	2.6	0.0
CLARK COUNTY	0.0	90.0	0.0	0.0	10.0
DELAWARE	10.8	81.1	0.0	5.4	2.7
ILLINOIS	35.1	61.4	0.0	1.8	1.8
SOUTH CAROLINA	20.0	77.1	0.0	0.0	2.9
SPOKANE	2.8	94.4	0.0	2.8	0.0
ALL PROGRAMS	14.0	77.7	4.3	2.5	1.4

TABLE 1D.

AGE BREAKDOWNS FOR THE PARTICIPANTS IN SEVEN DSO PROGRAMS

| | PERCENT IN AGE CATEGORIES: | | | | | | | | |
	UNDER 20	21-25	26-30	31-35	36-40	41-45	46-50	51 OR OLDER	NO ANSWER
ALAMEDA	0.0	18.0	35.9	23.7	5.5	6.7	2.2	5.5	2.2
ARIZONA	5.2	31.6	33.0	14.3	9.1	1.3	1.3	3.9	0.0
CLARK COUNTY	0.0	15.0	15.0	35.0	10.0	5.0	10.0	10.0	0.0
DELAWARE	0.0	8.1	29.7	29.7	2.7	13.5	8.1	5.4	2.7
ILLINOIS	0.0	31.6	39.9	10.6	12.3	7.1	1.8	5.4	1.8
SOUTH CAROLINA	2.9	22.9	48.6	17.2	2.9	0.0	0.0	5.8	0.0
SPOKANE	0.0	11.2	33.5	30.6	2.8	5.6	5.6	11.2	0.0
ALL PROGRAMS	1.5	31.7	33.4	20.6	6.9	5.4	3.1	6.0	1.1

TABLE 1E.

GENDER BREAKDOWNS FOR THE PARTICIPANTS OF SEVEN DSO PROGRAMS

	PERCENT MALE	PERCENT FEMALE	NO ANSWER
ALAMEDA	51.7	48.3	0.0
ARIZONA	39.5	60.5	0.0
CLARK COUNTY	40.0	60.0	0.0
DELAWARE	27.0	70.3	2.7
ILLINOIS	42.1	56.1	1.8
SOUTH CAROLINA	31.4	68.6	0.0
SPOKANE	47.2	52.8	0.0
ALL PROGRAMS	41.8	57.6	0.6

2. TREATMENT PHILOSOPHIES AND STRATEGIES

Eight questions (items 3-10 in Section II of the questionnaire) were used to assess the DSO participants' opinions about the problems of juvenile offenders. Four of these items dealt with the etiology of juvenile problems and the other four dealt with their judgments as to the generally proper strategy to use in dealing with those problems. These two sets of opinions will be discussed in turn and then the results of a factor analysis based on all eight items will be reported. It was hoped that these items would reveal any important philosophical and strategic differences among the programs. As the discussion proceeds, it should be clear that profound differences of this sort were not in evidence.*

Etiology.

Respondents were asked to express, on a scale of 1-9, their degree of endorsement of the following four items dealing with etiology:

INDIVIDUAL RESPONSIBILITY:

Use the following scale to indicate the extent to which you think juveniles in trouble are responsible for their own problems:

The juvenile is   The juvenile is
usually to blame   1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9   usually not to blame
for his/her problems   for his/her problems

INSTITUTIONAL RESPONSIBILITY:

On the following scale indicate the effect of social institutions as a contributing factor causing juveniles to get into trouble:

Not usually a   Usually a major
major factor   1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9   factor

---

* A different set of items might have produced different results. The development of reliable scales for these orientations should have high priority in evaluation research.

PSYCHOLOGICAL ADJUSTMENT:

How important are problems of psychological adjustment as a contributing
factor causing juveniles to get into trouble?

Not usually a   Usually a major
major factor   1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 factor

SOCIAL SURROUNDINGS:

How important are the juvenile's immediate social surroundings as a con-
tributing factor causing him/her to get into trouble?

Not usually a   Usually a major
major factor   1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 factor

In each case, the higher the number circled, the more supportive or "liberal"
the response, in the sense of locating the source of problems outside the vo-
lition of the individual offender. It is important to note that, given the way
the first item was worded, to endorse it was to indicate that juveniles are not
responsible for their own troubles and not to endorse it implied that part of
the blame does rest with the offender.

The consensus from one program to another on these items was quite strong,
as Table 2A on the following page shows. When the average levels of endorse-
ment of the four items are ranked from high to low for all seven programs com-
bined, the following order obtains:

SOCIAL SURROUNDINGS	(mean = 7.6)
PSYCHOLOGICAL ADJUSTMENT	(7.0)
INSTITUTIONAL RESPONSIBILITY	(5.9)
INDIVIDUAL RESPONSIBILITY	(5.5)

The same order among these items appeared with minor deviations in each of the
separate programs, suggesting that the participants, on the whole, were in
basic agreement that a child's immediate social surroundings were most likely
to be a source of problems, followed by problems of a psychological nature and
problems involving the failure of community institutions. The responses to

TABLE 2A.

MEAN SCORES ON FOUR ITEMS DEALING WITH THE
ETIOLOGY OF JUVENILE PROBLEMS

ETIOLOGY ITEMS[a]

PROGRAM	INDIVIDUAL RESPONSIBILITY[b]	INSTITUTIONAL FACTORS	PSYCHOLOGICAL FACTORS	SOCIAL SURROUNDINGS
ALAMEDA	5.6	6.0	6.9	7.7
ARIZONA	5.3	5.8	6.8	7.5
CLARK COUNTY	5.6	5.0	7.1	7.4
DELAWARE	5.8	6.1	7.3	7.7
ILLINOIS	5.6	5.6	7.3	7.6
SOUTH CAROLINA	5.7	6.0	6.6	7.5
SPOKANE	5.4	6.1	6.8	7.9
ALL PROGRAMS	5.5	5.9	7.0	7.6

[a] Items 3, 5, 6 and 7 in Section II of the questionnaire

[b] Higher scores reflect endorsement of the idea that the individual is <u>not</u> responsible for his/her own problems

the item assessing personal responsibility were something of an anomaly. Given the relatively "liberal" endorsement of the idea that social conditions and adjustment problems figure strongly in juvenile troubles, it is a little surprising to encounter the noticeably less supportive pattern of replies to the question dealing with personal responsibility. The responses to this item serve as a caution against stereotyping DSO practitioners in terms of clearcut, predefined philosophical dichotomies. To believe that impersonal forces and psychological problems are important causal factors is no guarantee that the respondent will also absolve the offender of a measure of personal responsibility.

The detailed response frequency breakdown on this item assessing individual responsibility is instructive. Just about 40% of the respondents were neutral (scores of 5) and another 17% leaned decisively toward the idea of individual responsibility (adding together those with scores less than 5):

INDIVIDUAL RESPONSIBILITY

		Frequency	Relative Proportion	Cumulative Proportion
Juvenile is to blame	1	2	.6%	.6%
	2	10	2.9%	3.5%
	3	18	5.2%	8.7%
	4	28	8.1%	16.9%
	5	139	40.4%	57.3%
	6	60	17.4%	74.7%
	7	47	13.7%	88.4%
	8	33	9.6%	98.0%
Juvenile not to blame	9	7	2.0%	100.0%
		344	100.0%	

It is true that the largest single segment (a total of 43%) favored the support-ive or lenient pole of this scale (scores above 5); nevertheless, a sizeable proportion of the participants were apparently unwilling to rule out personal responsibility as one of the factors leading to problems for juveniles.

Treatment Strategies.

In addition to the questions on etiology, the following four items were used to record participants' conceptions of the appropriate strategy for deal-ing with the problems of juveniles:

PUNISHMENT:

In dealing with juveniles who are in trouble, what is the best strategy?

| Ordinarily, juve-niles in trouble should receive punishment | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 | Ordinarily, juve-niles in trouble should not receive punishment |

INSTITUTIONAL CHANGE:

How much effort should those who deal with the problems of juveniles make to change the social institutions of the surrounding community?

| Should be given very little effort | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 | Should be given a great deal of effort |

PSYCHOLOGICAL CHANGE:

How much effort should those who deal with the problems of juveniles make to improve a child's psychological adjustment?

| Should be given very little effort | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 | Should be given a great deal of effort |

CHANGE SURROUNDINGS:

In your opinion, how much effort should those who deal with the problems of juveniles make to change the immediate social surroundings the juve-niles have to live with?

| Should be given very little effort | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 | Should be given a great deal of effort |

Of these four strategies, attempting to improve the client's psychological adjustment was the most favorably rated one (see Table 2B, next page), followed by attempts to change institutions and social surroundings. Withholding punishment was the least favored strategy. As the following breakdown shows, the replies on this punishment item were concentrated toward the "should not be punished" option; nevertheless, it is significant that fully one third of all respondents were either neutral or tended to favor punishment to some degree, a pattern noticeably less "liberal" than that exhibited by the other three items:

PUNISHMENT AS A STRATEGY

		Frequency	Relative Proportion	Cumulative Proportion
Juvenile should be	1	5	1.5%	1.5%
	2	7	2.0%	3.5%
	3	7	2.0%	5.5%
	4	16	4.7%	10.2%
	5	77	22.4%	32.6%
	6	44	12.8%	45.3%
	7	75	21.8%	67.2%
	8	73	20.9%	88.4%
Juvenile should not be punished	9	40	11.6%	100.0%
		344	100.0%	

As with the etiology items, the consensus among the seven programs on these four strategy items was fairly strong. No one program stood out as dramatically more likely to endorse or reject any single approach. It is important to keep in mind that the strategy items were not presented to the respondents as mutually exclusive alternatives. They were asked to give their assessment of each approach separately and it is probable that most would have favored a technique that combined several reactions to clients' problems.

TABLE 2B.

MEAN SCORES ON FOUR ITEMS DEALING WITH
STRATEGIES FOR DEALING WITH JUVENILE PROBLEMS

STRATEGY ITEMS[a]

PROGRAM	PUNISHMENT[b]	INSTITUTIONAL CHANGE	PSYCHOLOGICAL CHANGE	CHANGE SOCIAL SURROUNDINGS
ALAMEDA	6.9	6.9	7.7	7.0
ARIZONA	6.5	7.2	7.6	7.3
CLARK COUNTY	6.7	6.6	7.4	6.3
DELAWARE	6.6	7.1	7.8	7.2
ILLINOIS	6.1	7.1	7.7	7.3
SOUTH CAROLINA	5.9	7.1	7.6	7.3
SPOKANE	6.1	7.3	6.7	7.0
ALL PROGRAMS	6.5	7.1	7.6	7.1

[a] Items 4, 8, 9 and 10 in Section II of the questionnaire

[b] Higher scores reflect endorsement of the idea that punishment is not appropriate as a strategy for dealing with the problems of juveniles

It was pointed out in the previous section that the seven DSO programs could be tentatively separated into two groups on the issue of professionalism (or, more precisely, differences in training and experience, age and race). From this, it might have been expected that Arizona, Illinois, and South Carolina, which we characterized as the three less "traditional" programs, would exhibit noticeably more liberal aggregate profiles on these eight etiology and strategy items, on the presumption that a conscious attempt had been made to select and recruit practitioners of a more or less common philosophical and professional persuasion. This was not the case. As we have seen the variations from program to program were small in general and bore no obvious relationship to the demographic compositions of the programs. Nor was there a clear indication that the demographic and professional characteristics of individuals bore any direct relationship to their orientations toward etiology and strategy. The correlations with education, experience, gender, and race were generally unremarkable (Table 2C).

A Factor Analysis.

In a final attempt to discover distinct patterns in these data, a routine factor analysis was performed. Originally, it was speculated that the replies to the set of etiology and strategy items would suggest scales that would divide the practitioners into clear-cut categories based on distinctive philosophical/practical positions. Several factors were thought possible. One would involve the emphasis on psychological and individual causes and solutions as opposed to structural, social or institutional causes and solutions and another would distinguish between punitive versus non-punitive approaches. The first of these distinctions would correspond to a division of opinion concerning psychogenic versus sociogenic causes and the second would roughly

TABLE 2C.

CORRELATIONS BETWEEN DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF DSO
PARTICIPANTS AND THEIR ATTITUDES TOWARD ETIOLOGY AND TREATMENT STRATEGY

	ETIOLOGY ITEMS				STRATEGY ITEMS			
	INDIV-IDUAL	INSTITU-TIONAL	PSYCHO-LOGICAL	SOCIAL	PUNISH-MENT	INSTITU-TIONAL CHANGE	PSYCHO-LOGICAL CHANGE	CHANGE SURROUNDINGS
ALAMEDA								
RACE	.04	-.13	-.09	-.04	.17*	-.12	-.17*	-.05
GENDER	-.04	-.04	-.07	-.05	-.06	-.20**	-.14*	-.21**
EDUCATION	.22**	.11	-.15*	-.07	.18**	.10	-.16*	.03
EXPERIENCE	.00	-.05	-.09	-.15*	.03	-.01	-.07	-.20**
ARIZONA								
RACE	-.14	.09	.08	.08	.07	-.02	-.08	-.10
GENDER	.01	.14	.01	-.20**	.09	.09	.01	-.01
EDUCATION	.03	.12	-.18*	.17*	.00	.14	-.15*	.01
EXPERIENCE	-.12	.16*	-.01	.04	.04	.23**	-.04	.12
CLARK COUNTY								
RACE	--[a]	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
GENDER	.08	.00	-.24	-.02	.27	-.23	-.38**	-.12
EDUCATION	-.24	.28	.01	-.01	-.14	-.33	.01	-.17
EXPERIENCE	-.16	.09	.16	.01	.45**	-.11	.28	.15
DELAWARE								
RACE	-.15	.03	.04	.23*	.21	.17	.22*	.19
GENDER	.24*	.06	.17	-.08	.05	.15	-.06	-.00
EDUCATION	.01	.10	-.08	.04	.10	-.06	-.10	.07
EXPERIENCE	-.01	-.11	.15	.19	-.01	-.15	.39***	.11
ILLINOIS								
RACE	-.16	.05	-.24**	-.20*	.05	-.12	-.37***	-.27**
GENDER	-.00	.20*	-.10	-.15	.06	.06	-.17	-.01
EDUCATION	-.10	.03	-.10	-.20*	.24**	-.04	-.20*	-.15
EXPERIENCE	.06	.06	-.06	-.05	-.07	-.05	.13	.12
SOUTH CAROLINA								
RACE	-.30**	-.09	-.49***	-.07	.03	-.08	-.17	-.20
GENDER	.27*	.23*	.02	.04	.44***	.43***	-.25*	.17
EDUCATION	.06	.20	.18	-.14	.44***	.10	-.16	-.06
EXPERIENCE	-.20	.03	-.12	-.00	.04	.05	-.22	-.23*
SPOKANE								
RACE	.15	-.25*	-.17	-.18	.42***	-.22*	-.25*	-.16
GENDER	-.01	-.24*	-.07	-.15	-.03	-.13	-.22*	.01
EDUCATION	-.10	-.25*	-.17	.24*	.45***	.03	-.10	-.03
EXPERIENCE	.06	.11	.02	-.23*	-.11	.02	-.07	-.28**
ALL PROGRAMS								
RACE	-.09*	.00	-.10**	-.02	.12***	-.08*	-.17***	-.10**
GENDER	.04	.06	-.04	-.10**	.08*	-.02	-.14***	-.06
EDUCATION	.03	.09*	-.10**	-.01	.19***	.00	-.15***	-.05
EXPERIENCE	-.03	.04	-.01	-.02	.02	.01	.02	-.04

[a] All respondents were white
One asterisk represents p < .10, two represent p < .05, and three represent p < .01.

parallel the conservative-liberal split over whether juvenile misdeeds are acts of will or reactions to circumstances largely beyond the control of the individual.

When the responses were factor analyzed, a solution was produced which indicated that individual practitioners can be arrayed on three dimensions, one comprised largely of attitudes toward blame and punishment, a second based on opinions about the role of structural factors, such as social and institutional variables, and the third composed of assessments of psychological factors.* Given that the rotation was orthogonal, an individual's score on one of the three bore little or no relationship to their score on either of the other two. Thus, a person could score consistently high, or low, or medium on all three dimensions. As an example of what this means, it would be possible to separate those practitioners who took a punitive view from those who did not, and the resulting dichotomy would not permit a prediction of the extent to which the two groups stress, or fail to stress, structural factors or psychological factors.

Factor scores representing individuals' positions on each of these three composite dimensions were calculated and the means computed for each of the programs in the hope that this would bring the small differences that were reported in Tables 2A and 2B into a little sharper focus. Factor scores are constructed in such a way that the grand mean for all the respondents combined is zero. Departures from zero within a given DSO program provides an idea of how different that program is, in the aggregate, from the others. Scores above the grand mean are more "liberal" and those below the mean are less "liberal" than the average. Table 2D below displays the results on this analysis.

* Principal components analysis, varimax rotation. Three factors had eigenvalues above 1.0. Analyses performed separately for the seven programs produced basically similar results.

TABLE 2D.

COMPARISONS (MEAN FACTOR SCORES) AMONG
PROGRAMS ON THREE COMPOSITE DIMENSIONS REPRESENTING
THE STRESS ON PSYCHOLOGICAL, STRUCTURAL AND
PUNITIVE CAUSES AND SOLUTIONS

PROGRAM AND DOMINANT DIVERSION STRATEGY	Psychological Dimension	Structural Dimension	Punitive Dimension[a]
Alameda (Family Counseling)	.00	-.04	.18
Arizona (Advocacy)	-.08	.10	-.11
Clark County (Family Counseling)	.01	-.58	.12
Delaware (Eclectic)	.17	.03	.16
Illinois (Advocacy)	.18	-.03	-.05
South Carolina (Eclectic)	-.12	.09	-.13
Spokane (Eclectic)	-.22	.18	-.24

[a] Positive scores represent non-punitive responses

FACTOR LOADINGS

QUESTIONNAIRE ITEMS	Psychological Dimension	Structural Dimension	Punitive Dimension
1. Individual Responsibility	.16	.01	.78
2. Punishment as a Strategy	-.09	.18	.76
3. Institutional Factors	-.23	.60	.30
4. Psychological Factors	.79	-.03	.06
5. Social Surroundings	.55	.36	-.01
6. Change Social Surroundings	.34	.72	-.11
7. Psychological Change	.81	.02	.02
8. Institutional Change	.08	.79	.15

Individuals in the Delaware and Illinois programs placed more than the
average and the participants in South Carolina and Spokane less than the aver-
age emphasis on psychological factors. The latter two programs were also, on
the average, a little more punitive in their orientations (that is, less likely
to endorse the position that juveniles are not to blame and/or not to be pun-
ished), while Alameda, Clark County, and Delaware were relatively less punitive
than the average. The sharpest departure from the norm, however, is apparent
on the structural dimension. Clark County participants were clearly less like-
ly than those in other programs to think in terms of these structural and insti-
tutional causes and solutions.

It is interesting to compare these results with what is known about the
actual approaches to treatment that the different programs adopted. Program
organizers in Clark County and Alameda described their programs as emphasizing
family crisis counseling, Arizona and Illinois stressed a youth advocacy ap-
proach and Spokane, Delaware and South Carolina reported using an eclectic
approach. These distinctions bear only a very tenuous relationship to the
three dimensions in Table 2D. The clearest difference is that the participants
in the two family counseling-oriented programs, Clark County and Alameda, tended
to be a little less punitive than the average, a distinction they shared with
one "eclectic" program, Delaware. The participants in one of the family coun-
seling programs, Clark County, were also noticeably less likely to emphasize
structural causes and solutions, though they were no more likely than the aver-
age to stress psychological problems and solutions. Two of the three eclectic
programs, South Carolina and Spokane, were distinctive, in two ways. The par-
ticipants of each on the average placed less emphasis on psychological factors
and were more likely to adopt a punitive stance toward juveniles. The advocacy

programs resembled the eclectic programs on the punitive dimension but fell into no clear pattern on the other two dimensions.

These untidy comparisons are inconclusive at best and should be regarded with caution. Remember that these relative differences exist in a context that, overall, was generally liberal (Tables 2A and 2B). Note also that while those in charge of organizing the different DSO efforts generally leaned in favor of one service delivery mode or another, the reality in most cases was no doubt more mixed than the simple classification into "advocacy," "family counseling" and "eclectic" types implies. Additionally, in at least one instance, Alameda County, a family counseling diversion strategy was imposed on some participating agencies that were themselves committed to an advocacy approach, and there were other examples of philosophical differences between program organizers and participating agencies. This would no doubt produce a more mixed program and one internally more diverse philosophically than would be expected given just the statement of preferred diversion strategy from the policy makers in the different programs.

Summary.

In short, from this analysis no very profound philosophical differences among the programs should be assumed. Rather, what appears to be the case is noticeable but for the most part moderate differences in emphasis from one program to another that seem to bear very little relationship either to the programs' demographic and professional profiles or, perhaps more crucially, to the stated treatment preferences offered by program organizers. In one sense these findings are quite remarkable. The seven programs surveyed were geographically dispersed, were assembled in widely varying circumstances, expressed different objectives and relied differentially on public and private agencies

to achieve their goals. Not to discover greater philosophical polarities is something of a surprise, for it implies that such concerns were subsidiary to (and perhaps subordinated to) other considerations in the assembling of the programs.*

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* A multiple regression analysis (not shown) also revealed that these philosophy and strategy items bore no significant relationship to community basedness after the effects of individuals' demographic and organizational characteristics were controlled.

3. DECISION-MAKING ARRANGEMENTS

Relationships between the DSO decision makers and their subordinates were assessed by a series of questions in Section IV of the questionnaire. Note that parallel questions were asked of rank and file participants and supervisors so that the view of decision making as seen from above could be compared with the view from below.

The major distinction to be drawn involves the comparison of three different styles of supervision, participative (decisions are mutual), directive (supervisor makes most decisions) and laissez faire (subordinates make most of the decisions). It is generally assumed that professional and semi-professional practitioners working in organizations (rather than privately) both expect and demand to share in the decisions concerning the actual performance of their jobs and to have a fair amount of influence over the determination of general policy in the organization that employs them. The prediction, then, was that the DSO programs would be structured along participative lines and, as Table 3A shows, from the point of view of the rank and file, a decision making style that allowed their participation was by far the most commonly reported arrangement. In every program except the one in Delaware more than three-fourths of the responses fell into the two categories specifying participation. Delaware was an exception because about a third of the participants there reported a laissez faire pattern. In no instance was the directive style reported by more than a very small minority. In fact, if the "participative" and "laissez faire" responses are combined, the proportion of practitioners making either some or nearly all of the decisions about their work jumps to 90% overall and ranges

TABLE 3A.

STYLES OF DECISION-MAKING AS
REPORTED BY SUBORDINATES

| | DECISION-MAKING PATTERNS | | | | | |
| | MUCH DISCUSSION | | | LITTLE DISCUSSION | | |
PROGRAM	PERCENT MUTUAL DECISIONS	PERCENT SUPERVISOR'S DECISIONS	PERCENT RESPONDENT'S DECISIONS	PERCENT MUTUAL DECISIONS	PERCENT SUPERVISOR'S DECISIONS	PERCENT RESPONDENT'S DECISIONS
ALAMEDA	52.1%	4.2%	7.0%	23.9%	9.9%	2.8%
ARIZONA	73.1	1.5	6.0	14.9	1.5	3.0
CLARK COUNTY	64.7	0.0	5.9	11.8	5.9	11.8
DELAWARE	51.7	3.4	13.8	6.9	3.4	20.7
ILLINOIS	50.0	5.3	5.3	28.9	7.9	2.6
SOUTH CAROLINA	63.3	6.7	3.3	16.7	6.7	3.3
SPOKANE	60.0	4.0	0.0	20.0	4.0	12.0
ALL PROGRAMS	59.6	3.6	6.1	18.8	5.8	6.1

from 86.6% in South Carolina to 97% in Arizona. Viewed in this way, professional autonomy was a reality for almost all of the DSO participants.

Looking at the data in Table 3A another way, a great deal of discussion about decisions was also frequently reported, ranging from a high of about 81% in Arizona to lows of 69% in Delaware and 61% in Illinois. Not surprisingly, most people also approved of the style of decision making in their program, judging from the results in Table 3B. More than 70% in all programs indicated that they would not change the arrangement in which they were then involved and, of the remainder, far more expressed a preference for more participation than for less.

For supervisors, the result was essentially the same (see Table 3C). Mutuality was reported by from 70% to 100% of the supervisors responding and a great deal of discussion was indicated by more than 80% in all seven programs. Delaware again stands out as the only program in which a laissez faire style was at all common. Equally important was the fact that a directive style of supervision was in evidence with any frequency in only one program, South Carolina (18.2%).

Like the rank and file, supervisors also seemed comfortable with their decision-making styles (Table 3D). Overall, more than three-fourths of them indicated a preference for the status quo in their relationships with subordinates. There was, however, one significant exception. In South Carolina, a substantial majority (73%) of the supervisors expressed a preference for greater participation by subordinates. Since the supervisors in this program also reported the greatest frequency of directive leadership, it is possible that supervisor-subordinate relations were somewhat strained, though the numbers are far from conclusive. Another suggestive piece of evidence from the survey points in the same direction. In Table 3E data are presented on the average frequency

TABLE 3B.

PREFERENCES EXPRESSED BY SUBORDINATES IN
DECISION-MAKING WITH THEIR SUPERVISORS

| | PERCENT WHO PREFER: | | |
PROGRAM	LESS PARTICIPATION	SAME PARTICIPATION	MORE PARTICIPATION
ALAMEDA	4.1%	81.1%	14.9%
ARIZONA	1.5	83.8	14.7
CLARK COUNTY	0.0	82.4	17.6
DELAWARE	10.3	79.3	10.3
ILLINOIS	0.0	71.4	28.6
SOUTH CAROLINA	0.0	83.9	16.1
SPOKANE	4.0	76.0	20.0
ALL PROGRAMS	2.8	80.1	17.1

TABLE 3C.

STYLES OF DECISION-MAKING AS REPORTED BY SUPERVISORS

| | DECISION-MAKING PATTERNS | | | | | |
| | MUCH DISCUSSION | | | | LITTLE DISCUSSION | |
PROGRAM	PERCENT MUTUAL DECISIONS	PERCENT SUPERVISOR'S DECISIONS	PERCENT RESPONDENT'S DECISIONS	PERCENT MUTUAL DECISIONS	PERCENT SUPERVISOR'S DECISIONS	PERCENT RESPONDENT'S DECISIONS
ALAMEDA	75.9%	6.9%	0.0%	17.2%	0.0%	0.0%
ARIZONA	75.9	0.0	10.3	10.3	3.4	0.0
CLARK COUNTY	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
DELAWARE	53.8	7.7	23.1	15.4	0.0	0.0
ILLINOIS	83.3	0.0	0.0	16.7	0.0	0.0
SOUTH CAROLINA	63.6	18.2	0.0	9.1	0.0	9.1
SPOKANE	90.0	0.0	0.0	10.0	0.0	0.0
ALL PROGRAMS	75.0	4.5	5.4	13.4	0.9	0.9

TABLE 3D.

SUPERVISORS' PREFERENCES FOR PARTICIPATION BY
THEIR SUBORDINATES IN DECISION-MAKING

| | PERCENT WHO PREFER: | | |
PROGRAM	LESS PARTICIPATION BY SUBORDINATES	SAME PARTICIPATION BY SUBORDINATES	MORE PARTICIPATION BY SUBORDINATES
ALAMEDA	0.0%	80.0%	20.0%
ARIZONA	3.3	80.0	16.7
CLARK COUNTY	0.0	100.0	0.0
DELAWARE	7.1	78.6	14.3
ILLINOIS	5.0	85.0	10.0
SOUTH CAROLINA	0.0	27.3	72.7
SPOKANE	0.0	90.0	10.0
ALL PROGRAMS	2.6	76.9	20.5

TABLE 3E.

FREQUENCY AND QUALITY OF SUPERVISOR-SUBORDINATE CONTACTS

	REPORTED BY SUBORDINATES		REPORTED BY SUPERVISORS	
	MEAN FREQUENCY[a]	MEAN QUALITY[b]	MEAN FREQUENCY[a]	MEAN QUALITY[b]
ALAMEDA	3.5	6.9	3.4	7.6
ARIZONA	4.3	7.4	4.3	7.4
CLARK COUNTY	2.4	7.2	3.0	8.5
DELAWARE	4.0	6.6	4.1	6.6
ILLINOIS	2.7	6.5	3.3	7.4
SOUTH CAROLINA	4.1	7.4	4.7	6.7
SPOKANE	3.7	6.8	4.1	6.9
ALL PROGRAMS	3.6	7.0	3.9	7.3

[a]Response Categories:

1	2	3	4	5	6
Less Than Once A Week	About Once A Week	Several Times A Week	Once Or Twice A Day	Several Times A Day	Almost Constantly

[b]Response Categories:

The time is almost never helpful to me — 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 — The time is almost always helpful to me

of contact between supervisors and subordinates and the perceived helpfulness of this contact. Based on the responses of supervisors, South Carolina ranked below average on the quality of the contacts compared to the other six programs. The relationship is not simple, however, because paradoxically, based on the replies of subordinates reported in the same table, the quality of the contacts was rated quite favorably. In short, the strain over matters of leadership suggested in this program was largely confined to the perceptions of supervisors, who apparently had some reservations about the behavior of their subordinates. Keep in mind also that the overall impression from the South Carolina data was favorable.

In general, it is clear that the service delivery systems established for the DSO effort relied heavily on a democratic style of decision making. This is not surprising given the nature of the work in which most of the practitioners were engaged, a kind of work that would respond poorly to routinization, close supervision, or directive decision making. What is a little surprising is the overall degree of consensus between supervisors and their subordinates on this topic. In some work settings what is seen as democratic participation by the rank and file can mean an erosion of influence for the supervisor and for this reason a disparity in the way participation is evaluated by the two groups is not uncommon. Such a disparity had not evolved in the DSO programs at the time of the survey, and in fact, in the one instance in which disagreement was apparent, South Carolina, the preference among supervisors was for more rather than less participation by subordinates.

4. NETWORK STRUCTURES OF THE PROGRAMS

In response to their mandates, the DSO programs represented attempts to create inter-agency networks of service delivery. Despite their expressed philosophical differences and differences in their strategies of implementation, all the programs were established with a relatively small administrative core at the center of an expected network of participants. The primary work sites of these participants were typically in different agencies or offices dispersed over geographical areas ranging considerably in extensiveness, from a single city to entire counties and multi-county areas. The programs in Delaware, South Carolina, and Illinois were state-wide but in the latter two only selected components were included in this evaluation. Although in the preceding analyses we have treated the entire DSO program as a single unit of analysis for purposes of reporting, it is necessary to emphasize here that, in reality, each program was intended to be an inter-organizational system. The manner in which the activities of the members of the discrete agencies in the programs were in fact coordinated is the issue that will now be addressed.

In every program the expectation was that the separate agencies in the system would be coordinated by the center and, therefore, they would cohere functionally, that is, they would cooperate and exchange resources among themselves in ways that would create the conditions for a lasting network of service delivery for problem juveniles. This was an ambitious goal, because community helping agencies, particularly private ones, almost always run short-staffed and under-funded and, more often than not, stand in an at least partially competitive relationship to each other. It is true that there are compelling

reasons for inter-agency contact, and the language of inter-agency coordination and shared objectives is often quite refined.* But this rhetoric may sometimes be disjunctive with reality because of counterpressures that work against inter-agency cooperation. To justify its existence and to compete successfully for limited resources, an agency must lay claim to a distinctive approach to a problem area. It clearly undermines its own self-interest to some extent if it concedes that its objectives and its techniques are just like those of other agencies or even just compatible with them, and it also compromises its interests if it changes its methods of operation to accommodate a funding source. For this reason inter-agency ties and agency-funding source ties are always likely to be somewhat tentative and perhaps fragile, and there were several examples in the DSO programs that could be used to illustrate this. Philosophical disputes and disagreements over contractual obligations and treatment strategies were often mentioned in conversations with program participants.

Sarason, et. al.,** take this argument even further by insisting that stable inter-agency networks are likely to survive only when money is not the keystone of the relationship, in fact when it is explicitly excluded from the relationship. Unless the network is based on the free exchange of resources and services other than money, they argue, the centrifugal forces will overcome the centripetal ones and a fragmentation of the network back into its individual constituent parts will result. This is an unduly pessimistic view, but it does highlight the problems that connections based on money can cause.

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* For a persuasive discussion of the necessity of inter-agency contact in "people processing" (i.e., service delivery) agencies, see Hasenfeld, Yeheskel, "People processing organizations: an exchange approach," American Sociological Review 37 (June, 1972): 256-263.

** Sarason, Seymour, Charles Carol, Kenneth Maton, Saul Cohen and Elizabeth Lorentz.
1977 Human Services and Resource Networks. San Francisco: Jossey Bass.

A dilemma, then, is always potentially present: on one hand, an arrange-
ment characterized by unique agencies with distinctive approaches and vigor-
ously defended principles competing destructively and separately for the same
limited resources and the same pool of potential clients is likely to be self-
defeating. It is just this experience that has made the network alternative
look more attractive. On the other hand, it could be argued that tightly
linked agencies offering services that differ only superficially because they
have compromised their objectives in the interest of a stable exchange with
other agencies and with the funding source is not apt to be much of an improve-
ment. For purposes of evaluation, the possibility of such a dilemma creates
serious problems of interpretation. If we have not overstated the case, it
is possible that a tight-knit and closely coordinated system can also be
counterproductive and, if so, the DSO mandate may have lead to the creation of
"systems" that by their nature would be ineffective and unable to survive,
qua systems, once the DSO funding being channeled through the administrative
core was removed.

But what of a third possibility, namely, collections of agencies only
loosely connected, if at all, and not clearly coordinated by the administrative
center? When are such "non-systems" to be considered successful, and when do
they in fact only indicate that the administrative core is not doing its job
and that no coordinated service-delivery program exists? What is involved in
this discussion is the question of the definition of program success. The fact
is that very disparate outcomes can be seen from different perspectives as both
favorable and unfavorable.

To address this complicated issue for the DSO programs, we have examined
the intra- and inter-agency ties and exchanges that were reported by the par-
ticipants in response to the five sociometric questions in Section V of the

questionnaire (see Appendix A). The first item is the central one. It asked participants to record their three closest work contacts among the other personnel throughout the overall DSO program. This item permitted a direct assessment of the volume of contact among the members of different components of the programs. The four other questions asked members to indicate the individuals with the greatest influence over the program, those most deserving of professional respect, those most likely to offer support in difficult situations, and those most likely to be a reliable source of advice and counsel. (In Alameda County the sociometric analysis was replaced by an alternative method of assessing the agency-center and agency-agency linkages. Participants were asked to think of specific individuals who were their closest work contacts and whom they considered worthy of professional respect, and capable of providing advice and support, but then, in the interest of anonymity, to enter on the questionnaire only the names of the agencies in which these individuals worked. These replies were not comparable to the sociometric data reported for the other six programs, but they do permit an assessment of the amount of centralization and the volume of inter-agency contact.)

The data provided by these items will be used here in two ways. First, the replies will be used to record the sheer volume of contact that took place among the agencies and between the agencies and the administrative center in each program. Second, the results of a smallest space analysis of the sociometric work contacts will be presented to convey a graphic or visual impression of the relationships that existed among the various parts of each program. (Because a sociometric analysis was not conducted in Alameda County, it will not appear in this second part of the analysis.)

Agency-Administration and Agency-Agency Linkages.

Tables 4A and 4B present the statistical breakdowns for the ties among the different subparts of the DSO programs.* To preview those findings, the data suggested two rather distinct interorganizational strategies. First, Spokane and Clark County displayed tightly interconnected systems with comparatively frequent work contacts between the members of the program components and the administrative center (Table 4A) and frequent agency-agency contacts as well (Table 4B). Second, Delaware and Arizona represented just the opposite: relatively infrequent agency-center and agency-agency contacts. South Carolina and Alameda County were mixed; they displayed fairly frequent agency-center ties but were more like Arizona and Delaware in the sparseness of direct agency-agency linkages. However, because of the way the program in South Carolina was structured and the way the data were collected in Alameda County, it is unfortunately not clear whether they can be considered to represent a third distinct network type. Finally, Illinois was intermediate in terms of both agency-center and agency-agency ties, and thus did not fit neatly into any of the patterns, though it was closer in type to Spokane and Clark County than to Arizona and Delaware. The detailed data that suggested these distinctions will now be discussed.

Centralization. In terms of reliance on the administrative center, the Clark County program stands out as a special case. In this small program only 10 of the 20 responding practitioners occupied positions outside the administrative center. Among these respondents the reliance on the center was quite clear. Twenty-five of the 30 work contacts that they reported involved

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* The comparisons in these Tables are sometimes based on small numbers, particularly for Clark County. In Spokane the response rate on the sociometric items was under 50% (compared to over 90% for the rest of the questionnaire). As a result the data should be considered suggestive, not conclusive, and read accordingly.

TABLE 4A.

AGENCY-CENTER CONTACTS:
PROPORTION OF ALL SOCIOMETRIC CHOICES DIRECTED BY PARTICIPANTS TOWARD MEMBERS OF
THE CENTRAL ADMINISTRATIVE STAFF IN THEIR DSO PROGRAM

PROGRAM	WORK CONTACTS			INFLUENCE NOMINATIONS			PROFESSIONAL RESPECT NOMINATIONS			PROFESSIONAL SUPPORT NOMINATIONS			PROFESSIONAL ADVICE NOMINATIONS			ALL FIVE SOCIOMETRIC QUESTIONS		
	Total Exercised	To Center No. (%)	Rank	Total Exercised	To Center No. (%)	Rank	Total Exercised	To Center No. (%)	Rank	Total Exercised	To Center No. (%)	Rank	Total Exercised	To Center No. (%)	Rank	Total Exercised	To Center No. (%)	Rank
ALAMEDA*	163	56 (34)	3	140	56 (40)	3	143	42 (29)	5	135	55 (41)	3.5	132	37 (28)	5	713	246(35)	5
ARIZONA	158	25 (16)	6	144	21 (15)	7	151	32 (21)	6.5	145	40 (28)	7	143	20 (14)	6	741	139(19)	6
CLARK CO.	30	25 (83)	1	27	22 (81)	1	24	21 (87)	1	25	24 (96)	1	27	22 (81)	1	133	114(86)	1
DELAWARE	90	9 (10)	7	78	16 (21)	6	77	16 (21)	6.5	66	23 (35)	5	71	5 (7)	7	382	69(18)	7
ILLINOIS	101	32 (32)	4	85	33 (39)	4	89	34 (38)	3	74	35 (47)	2	84	27 (32)	3	433	161(37)	2.5
SO. CAROLINA	68	15 (22)	5	44	20 (45)	2	62	25 (40)	2	58	24 (41)	3.5	56	20 (36)	2	288	104(36)	4
SPOKANE	44	24 (55)	2	37	12 (32)	5	33	11 (33)	4	38	11 (29)	6	32	10 (31)	4	184	68(37)	2.5
MEAN %		(36%)			(39%)			(38.4%)			(45.3%)			(32.7%)			(38%)	

* Based on a non-sociometric question that asked for agency membership, not names, of closest associates.

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TABLE 4B.

AGENCY-AGENCY CONTACTS:
PROPORTION OF SOCIOMETRIC CHOICES (EXCLUDING THOSE DIRECTED TOWARD THE CENTER) THAT WERE
DIRECTED TO MEMBERS OF AGENCIES OUTSIDE THAT OF THE RESPONDENT

PROGRAM	WORK CONTACTS			INFLUENCE NOMINATIONS			PROFESSIONAL RESPECT NOMINATIONS			PROFESSIONAL SUPPORT NOMINATIONS			PROFESSIONAL ADVICE NOMINATIONS			ALL FIVE SOCIOMETRIC QUESTIONS		
	Total	Inter-Agency No. (%)	Rank	Total	Inter-Agency No. (%)	Rank	Total	Inter-Agency No. (%)	Rank	Total	Inter-Agency No. (%)	Rank	Total	Inter-Agency No. (%)	Rank	Total	Inter-Agency No. (%)	Rank
ALAMEDA*	107	34 (32)	6	83	18 (22)	7	101	21 (21)	7	80	22 (27)	7	95	24 (25)	6	466	119 (25)	7
ARIZONA	133	35 (26)	7	123	35 (28)	6	119	43 (36)	5	105	40 (38)	5.5	123	48 (39)	5	603	201 (33)	5
CLARK CO.	5	3 (60)	2	5	3 (60)	2	3	3 (100)	1	1	1 (100)	1	5	3 (60)	3	19	13 (68)	2
DELAWARE	81	37 (46)	4	62	31 (50)	4	61	29 (48)	4	43	20 (47)	4	66	35 (53)	4	313	152 (49)	4
ILLINOIS	69	38 (55)	3	52	29 (56)	3	55	34 (62)	3	39	27 (69)	3	57	37 (65)	2	272	165 (61)	3
SO. CAROLINA	53	20 (38)	5	24	8 (33)	5	37	11 (30)	6	34	13 (38)	5.5	36	4 (11)	7	184	56 (30)	6
SPOKANE	20	14 (70)	1	25	21 (89)	1	22	18 (82)	2	27	23 (85)	2	22	17 (77)	1	116	93 (80)	1
MEAN %	(46.8%)			(47.6%)			(54.1%)			(57.7%)			(47.1%)			(44.4%)		

* Based on a non-sociometric question that asked for agency membership, not names, of closest associates.

members of the administrative center, a proportion that was far higher than for any of the other programs. This pronounced pattern in the work contacts was repeated on all four of the other sociometric dimensions. Members of the central core received better than 80% of the nominations as influential members of the program, and they were just as frequently seen as worthy of professional respect and as sources of useful work-related assistance and advice. Clearly this was a tightly knit program, a feature that was no doubt accentuated by its small size and the fact that no autonomous private subcontracting agencies were involved. All of the respondents to the survey were public employees and the distinction between "Central" and "non-Central" members was difficult to draw and somewhat artificial as a result. It is probable that problems of coordination and conflict were minimal in this program and for this reason it is in many ways not directly comparable to the other programs in the organizational survey.

Spokane also appeared to be a fairly centralized program. More than half of the reported work contacts were with members of Spokane Youth Alternatives, the agency in charge of the overall DSO effort in that county. On the other four sociometric dimensions centralization was less pronounced; still, roughly a third of all the ties were with the members of this central coordinating agency. A similar result was apparent in Illinois. In this program, where the respondents were much more widely dispersed geographically than in Clark County or Spokane, still a third of all work contacts reported were with the coordinating staff and from a third to nearly half of all the ties on the other dimensions followed the same trend.* The degree of centralization of work contacts and choices in the Alameda County program was also moderately

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* In Illinois, an agency coordinator was assigned to each geographic area in which the program operated.

pronounced. Its profile in Table 4A is generally similar to that of Illinois: much less centralized than Clark County but clearly more centralized than Arizona or Delaware.

In contrast to these relatively more centralized programs, Delaware and Arizona displayed a pattern that suggests comparatively low reliance on the center. In both of these programs, fewer than 20% of all reported work contacts were with those in the administrative unit, a pattern that was also apparent on the other four sociometric dimensions.

Finally, in terms of the pattern it displayed on several of the sociometric dimensions, South Carolina was among the more centralized group of programs; however, because of its unique features it must be treated separately. In this program most of the practitioners who responded to the evaluation were public employees of Youth Service Bureaus in the counties of Greenville, Spartanburg and Lexington, agencies whose activities were part of the ongoing state system of youth service delivery. Not all of the private agencies involved in DSO were included on the personnel roster for this program and the members of those that were included comprised only a small part of the total responding personnel. While the frequency of work contacts between members of this program and the central administrative unit (i.e., the state office in Columbia) was not high (22%), their responses on the other four sociometric items suggested that they were nevertheless dependent on the administrative center in other respects. Generally, around 40% of their nominations on the criteria of influence, professional respect, support and advice were directed toward the center. Unfortunately, this fact may have limited significance for this evaluation because, as was pointed out earlier, the system of service delivery that existed in South Carolina had not been established specifically

for the DSO program. The processing of DSO clients was simply added to the other duties of this state-run system and the presence or absence of DSO funds probably had very little to do with whether the system as we found it was likely to alter its pattern or persist beyond the period of the DSO contract.

Agency-to-Agency Ties. The data in Table 4B provide an index of the amount of agency-agency interaction that took place among the components of each DSO program. In this table, the ties directed toward the administrative center have been excluded altogether. Thus, it was based only on a comparison between the ties that were confined to the respondent's own agency and those that were directed toward practitioners in other agencies in the DSO network.

It is significant that Clark County and Spokane, the two programs whose participants showed the greatest frequency of working contact with the center, also showed the greatest frequency of interchange among the non-administrative subparts of the DSO program.* Thus, it would be inappropriate to refer to these two programs as "dependent" upon the center because their greater frequency of contact with the administration (Table 4A) was paralleled by greater contact among the practitioners dispersed throughout the program · (Table 4B). What is indicated in these two programs is a greater density of ties in general pulling together the different parts of the system, including the administrative core, into an integrated network of activity.**

The other programs did not convey the same impression. Arizona, for example, was seen in Table 4A to be a program in which the components were relatively independent of the center, and in Table 4B it appears as one in which

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* To be precise, in Clark County, the vast majority of all choices were directed toward the center. Of the small number that were not, most were inter-agency rather than intra-agency. Combining all five sociometric items, 13 of 19 nominations were inter-agency, that is, exchanged between members of different sub-parts of the program.

**In Spokane, this interpretation assumes that the low response rate did not produce a fundamentally distorted view of the program's internal linkages.

there was also comparatively little direct contact among the agencies and units that comprised it. Taken together, this suggests that, of all the programs surveyed, it may be the one most aptly characterized as made up of comparatively isolated components. The density of ties based on work contacts, influence, mutual respect and mutual assistance was very thin compared to what was observed in the Clark County and Spokane programs. Delaware was basically similar to Arizona, though less extreme. Like Arizona, its reliance on the center was also generally low and in Table 4B it can be seen that better than half of the remaining ties were directed by respondents to the members of their own specific workplaces. It ranked well below Clark County and Spokane in this regard.

Alameda County presented a mixed picture. As we saw earlier, the focusing of ties on the center was not distinctive; in fact, it was just about average in this respect. However, in terms of inter-agency ties it did display an extreme pattern: on three of the five dimensions it ranks at the very bottom among all programs.

Illinois represented a midway category in terms of inter-agency contact. It ranked third of seven on four of the five sociometric dimensions, a fact that was consistent with its middling ranking on the extent of contact with and reliance upon the center, reported above.

Finally, South Carolina must again be regarded in a category separate from the other programs. We pointed out above that, in terms of reliance upon (though not contact with) the administrative component, it was comparable to Spokane and Clark County. However, in Table 4B it is seen to share with Arizona and Alameda County the characteristic of insularity of its components from each other. What this represents is a program for juvenile offenders that was apparently highly centralized in terms of influence and expertise, but with comparatively little direct working interaction among its separate divisions. At

least this description fits the fragment of the overall program that we were enabled to survey.

The relative sparseness of inter-agency work ties (compared to Clark County and Spokane) in Delaware, South Carolina and, to a lesser extent, Illinois can perhaps be partially explained by their spatial dispersion. In each case, components of the program were spread across different cities and counties. The Arizona and Alameda County programs were both confined to a single county, however, and therefore spatial dispersion is clearly not the only factor influencing the density of inter-agency ties.

Disregarding for the moment the variations in the completeness of our information, the foregoing data do suggest some tentative conclusions. Clark County and Spokane stand out in each of the comparisons as programs with frequent linkages among all their parts. Illinois would fall into the same category but with a somewhat lower frequency of contacts making the connections. The remaining four programs are more variable in the patterns they display but, compared to the first three, are generally less tightly bound together in terms of the linkages among their parts.

If we put aside the findings for Alameda County (because the data took a different form) and Illinois and South Carolina (because only fragments of the programs were surveyed), the remaining programs indicate somewhat more clearly that two distinct coordinating strategies were used, the one in Spokane and Clark County based on a great deal of interaction and the other in Arizona and Delaware based on relatively infrequent interaction among the participating agencies in the program. It is tempting to give a direct interpretation to these differences, because common sense suggests that programs in which the parts of the system are closely linked with the administrative core and at the same time tightly bound to each other are clearly more "coordinated" or

"integrated" or "cooperative" (in the sense in which these terms are applied to service delivery systems) than programs in which the agency-center and agency-agency linkages are less dense. However, the data which are presented next and in the concluding section of this report indicate that such a conclusion would be premature; that, in fact, alternative but perhaps equally effective modes of coordination are suggested by the differences among these four programs.

A Graphic Display of Inter-Agency Work Contacts.

By use of a technique called smallest space analysis (a form of multi-dimensional scaling), sociometric data based on work contacts can be made to yield a geometric, visual representation of the communication linkages tying the members of a network to each other. This can be a useful supplement to the statistical analyses of choice patterns offered above.

This technique requires first that a measure called "path distance" be computed which specifies the number of choice links in the chains that connect each individual in the network to all of the others. In this process the pair, or dyadic relationship, is the unit of analysis. If A directly names D as a work contact, for example, the path distance (A→D) separating them is 1. If A has no direct work tie to D but does have contact with B who has a link to C who in turn interacts with D, then the path distance between A and D is 3 (A→B→C→D). Once the path distances separating all the possible pairs in a given program were computed, these measures were subjected to the Guttman-Lingoes Smallest Space Solution to produce the two-dimensional displays that appear in Figures 4A to 4F.* It will be helpful to think of these figures in

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*The measure of path distance comes from graph theory, which is developed in detail in Harary, Frank, et al., Structural Models: An Introduction to Directed Graphs. New York: Wiley, 1965. Smallest Space Analysis is ably explained and demonstrated in Laumann, Edward O. and Franz U. Pappi, Networks of Collective Action: A Perspective on Community Influence. New York: Academic Press, 1976.

the following way. Suppose that all the responding program participants were brought together in a very large room and each was asked to locate him/herself with respect to each other member in a way that reflects the direct and indirect accessibility of that other member at work. Individuals who work directly together would stand quite near each other and individuals who can reach each other only through a complicated series of indirect ties would be spatially distant from each other. Such a sorting process would produce a great deal of milling about as individuals tried to locate themselves properly, simultaneously, with respect to everyone else in the program, but eventually, given enough time and enough knowledge on the part of the participants (that is, assuming that everyone had good knowledge of the total pattern of individual-individual linkages), the process would come to rest. If at this point a photograph could be taken from a birds-eye view, the result would be a spatial distribution that reflects the actual working relationships among all the program participants. With smallest space analysis the computer is able to produce and process the total pattern of direct and indirect linkages that this spatial representation requires and then plot the results in figures such as those that are reproduced below.

These visual plots are useful but must be interpreted with some caution. An SSA plot gives a good idea of where different individuals and functional subunits stand relative to all others but does not convey an accurate impression of the overall density of ties. Moreover, the result of a smallest space analysis is quite sensitive to the rate of response and this fact created a problem in three of the programs. In Spokane the response rate overall was quite high (over 90%) but for reasons that are not clear, the response rates for just the sociometric items were unusually low (under 50%). There is no way to be sure that the non-responses represented accurately an actual absence

of ties or a reluctance to respond. Interviews with knowledgeable partici-
pants suggested the former interpretation and we proceeded as if that were the
case. However, the results should be read cautiously, keeping in mind that
the visual representation of the network of work ties for that program is de-
rived from the data provided by a minority of respondents. In Illinois and
South Carolina a similar problem arose for a different reason. In each of
these two cases, only part of the overall DSO program was selected for examina-
tion by the national evaluation and, therefore, the visual representations
reflect the inter-connections among the evaluated parts. Moreover, in Illinois,
unlike the other programs, a large number of foster parents were included on the
DSO personnel roster provided by the administration. The response rate for
these individuals was extremely low, and consequently, for the most part their
impressions had no effect on the characterization of this program. Finally,
in South Carolina it will also be recalled that DSO clients were being processed
through the existing youth service delivery apparatus. No DSO network, per se,
had been created. As a result, our sociometric analysis can give an accurate
impression of the type of organizational structure to which DSO clients were
exposed but it says nothing about this program's success in creating and main-
taining a new service delivery system.

With these cautions in mind, Figures 4A to 4F collected at the end of this
section deserve a close look. In each case membership in a common agency or
administrative unit has been indicated by circling, and the area occupied by
the administrative core has been shaded.* This immediately reveals one

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* In every program individuals were named who did not appear on the "official"
  rosters provided by program directors. It was not possible to determine in
  many cases whether they represented actual DSO participants who were over-
  looked in the enumeration process or individuals who had contact with the pro-
  gram without actually being part of it. They were retained in the SSA plots
  because they provided a reminder that the programs were constructed with
  indistinctly defined boundaries of considerable permeability.

similarity among all the programs, that is, that the official administrative unit in each program occupies a region near the center of network activity. This is true in different degrees for all the programs, including those in which, as shown earlier, direct contact between practitioners and the administrative staff was relatively infrequent.

The smallest space "map" for Arizona is in many ways the most interesting of the six (Figure 4A). The central coordinating staff, in this case primarily court personnel, occupied an amoeba-shaped area near the center of network activity, with extensions out into the surrounding space. Arrayed in radial fashion around this center were the different agencies which comprised the service delivery system. More often than not the different agencies were relatively separate from each other,* but many of them had one or two individuals who were drawn toward the central core and, therefore, represented liaison individuals, or "boundary spanners." By probing, we were able to learn that the members of the central staff who occupied the positions most proximate to the surrounding agencies (that is, those located in the "fingers" of the amoeba) were actually supervisors to whom responsibility was delegated for overseeing the broad areas of program activity expected of different agencies. Consistent with what we reported earlier, then, what is suggested is an interorganizational strategy of coordination that involved relatively little direct agency-to-agency interaction. Most of the practitioner-practitioner contacts were within-agency contacts and the coherence of the system of discrete agencies seems to have been maintained by administrative "brokers" through whom indirect agency-agency linkages were funnelled. Incidentally, one of the unique features of this program was the use of a "Mobile Diversion Unit" which was free to move

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* Individuals in agency 'k,' for example, would have virtually no direct contact with those in 'P' or 'B'.

about physically to respond to juvenile problems as they occurred. This
unit, labelled 'B' on the map, was among the more isolated components of
the program and appeared to have no very close tie=in to the administrative
center. Mobility in this case seemed to convey a certain autonomy and
separation that did not characterize the other agencies in the program.
The agency labelled 'G' on the map is also of interest. Philosophically,
there were suggestions that it was in conflict with much of the rest of the
program and its relationship to the system was sometimes abrasive.* The map
suggests that most of its members functioned with little contact with the rest
of the DSO network, but its director occupied a position very near the center
of program activity, a fact which probably reflects that person's efforts to
advance the interests of the agency vis-a-vis the administrative center.
Finally, it is interesting to note that individuals '82' and '84' in site 'U'
were program evaluators and individual '6' was a liaison person assigned to
facilitate their work with the program.

In varying degrees the maps for Delaware (Figure 4C), Illinois (Figure
4D), and South Carolina (Figure 4E) showed a radial pattern of network rela-
tions similar to that of Arizona. Delaware is distinctive in that employees of
the Division of Social Services (sites 'C,' 'D,' 'E,' and 'F') occupied the
upper half of the network space and other affiliated components of the program
occupied the lower half. The staff office of the statewide Division of Social
Services ('F') was most centrally located, and there was at least one individual
in each of the program's components who was drawn more toward the center than
others in the same unit, suggesting a pattern of liaison coordination similar
to that observed in Arizona.

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* Based on impressions of program monitors who were in frequent contact
  with the agencies in this network.

Spokane (Figure 4F) is unique among these six programs in that members
of the grantee agency (Spokane Youth Alternatives, site 'A') by no means
dominated the center of the network space. Its members were fairly dispersed,
especially when they are compared to the dense cluster of participants in the
area of the network to the right in the figure. These latter individuals were
members of six separate agencies who were linked together by a very dense mini-
network of direct and indirect ties that were clearly not mediated by the
central administrative unit. Thus, the earlier finding for this program of
relatively dense agency-center and agency-agency ties is directly reflected
here in a system in which administrators appear to have rather high accessi-
bility to most of the people in the program, but do not apparently function as
"brokers" for the agency-agency ties that had developed. In fact, the map
strongly suggests the presence of two nucleii, one centered on the grantee
agency and the other separate from and somewhat independent of it. This may
represent a situation in which activities of a purely administrative nature
were focused on the official administrative center, while affairs directly in-
volving client-related problems were mediated by direct professional-to-
professional, between-agency ties. In the absence of confirming evidence, and
given the low sociometric response rate for this program, this is only specula-
tion, however.

Finally, the network map for the Clark County program (Figure 4B) has two
major points of interest. The first is the pattern of delegation of authority
suggested by the fact that the nominal head of the program, number '4' in site
'D,' occupied a position clearly removed from the other personnel who functioned
as program administrators. Individuals '1,' '2,' and '3,' who occupied the
intervening space closer to the centroid, were members of agencies ('A,' 'B,'
and 'C') which, though they were not the grantee, had a hand in the running of
the program.

The second point of interest is the fact that the different sub-parts of the program did not cohere as distinct "groups" on the map. This is quite apparent in the case of the members of sites 'E' and 'F.' These are "multiple impact therapy" teams, and it is clear from their dispersed patterns that between-team and team-administration ties were just as frequent as ties confined within a team itself, again corroborating the data in Tables 4A and 4B.

It is risky, but nevertheless interesting, to speculate again about what is meant by the different inter-organizational strategies suggested by these network data. To concentrate again on just the two relatively clear-cut types, those represented by Arizona and Delaware, on one hand and, on the other, Spokane and Clark County, it would appear that the first two represent inter-agency exchanges that followed a rather formal pattern: relatively isolated units linked indirectly to each other by their common ties, through clearly visible (and probably formally designated) boundary spanners, to the administrative center. The Delaware program was comprised primarily of public agencies and, therefore, a highly rationalized system of contacts is not surprising. The Arizona program, in contrast, relied on a large number of private agencies, and a highly rationalized (even "bureaucratized") system of relationships is somewhat surprising.

In Spokane and Clark County the patterns of ties that emerged do not suggest such clear "channels" of interchange. To the contrary, a more personalistic system is indicated, that is, the binding together of the different agencies in the program by way of a much larger number of direct (i.e., unmediated) person-person ties. Here again, it is significant that one program, Clark County, relied almost entirely on public employees and agencies and the other, Spokane, pulled together a diverse aggregation of private agencies. The fact

that the public-private distinction does not entirely predict the type of
system that appeared indicates that the pattern that we observed was at least
to some extent a matter of strategic choice on the part of the program devel-
opers.

Summary.

An important expectation for the DSO programs was that they function as
networks. It was not considered sufficient that they be multi-agency systems;
they were expected to encourage the development of enduring, cooperative
inter-agency interaction. As a reflection of this, a major question for this
evaluation was the extent to which networks were in evidence and the forms
that they took. What comes through clearly in this chapter is the fact that
no program failed to create a network of interchange, though the forms and
densities of the frameworks varied both quantitatively and qualitatively. The
placements and functions of the administrative centers also varied but none
appeared to be disinvolved. And finally, only a very few of the individuals
in the different programs were true isolates.* With the exception of Spokane,
where the data were unaccountably sparse, almost all the practitioners could
have had access, at least potentially, to all the others in their program
through a (longer or shorter) chain of linkages.**

The tabulating and mapping of the structure of these programs is useful
descriptively, but the crucial test of such material is whether it enhances
our understanding of program success. Are some types of network structure more
successful than others in creating a favorable work environment? How does an
individual's location in an inter-agency system of exchange relate to his or

* No more than one or two in any program. An isolate is a practitioner com-
pletely outside the network, i.e., one who has no direct or indirect ties
at all with other practitioners.

**In Spokane there were groups isolated from other groups, but almost no truly
isolated individuals.

her effectiveness as a practitioner? How do the network measures that we have developed compare with other variables covered by this survey as predictors of effectiveness? Attempts to answer these questions form the basis for the last section of this report. Before we turn to that analysis, however, the descriptive part of the survey will be concluded with a brief account of how the work environments of the programs were judged by the participants.

VISUAL DISPLAY OF THE NETWORK FEATURES OF THE ARIZONA DSO PROGRAM

Guttman-Lingoes Two-Dimensional Smallest Space Solution
Centroid ,C, is +.846, -5.939

UNENCIRCLED POINTS are members of agencies outside the
official/DSO network
SHADED AREA encloses the administrative core of the program
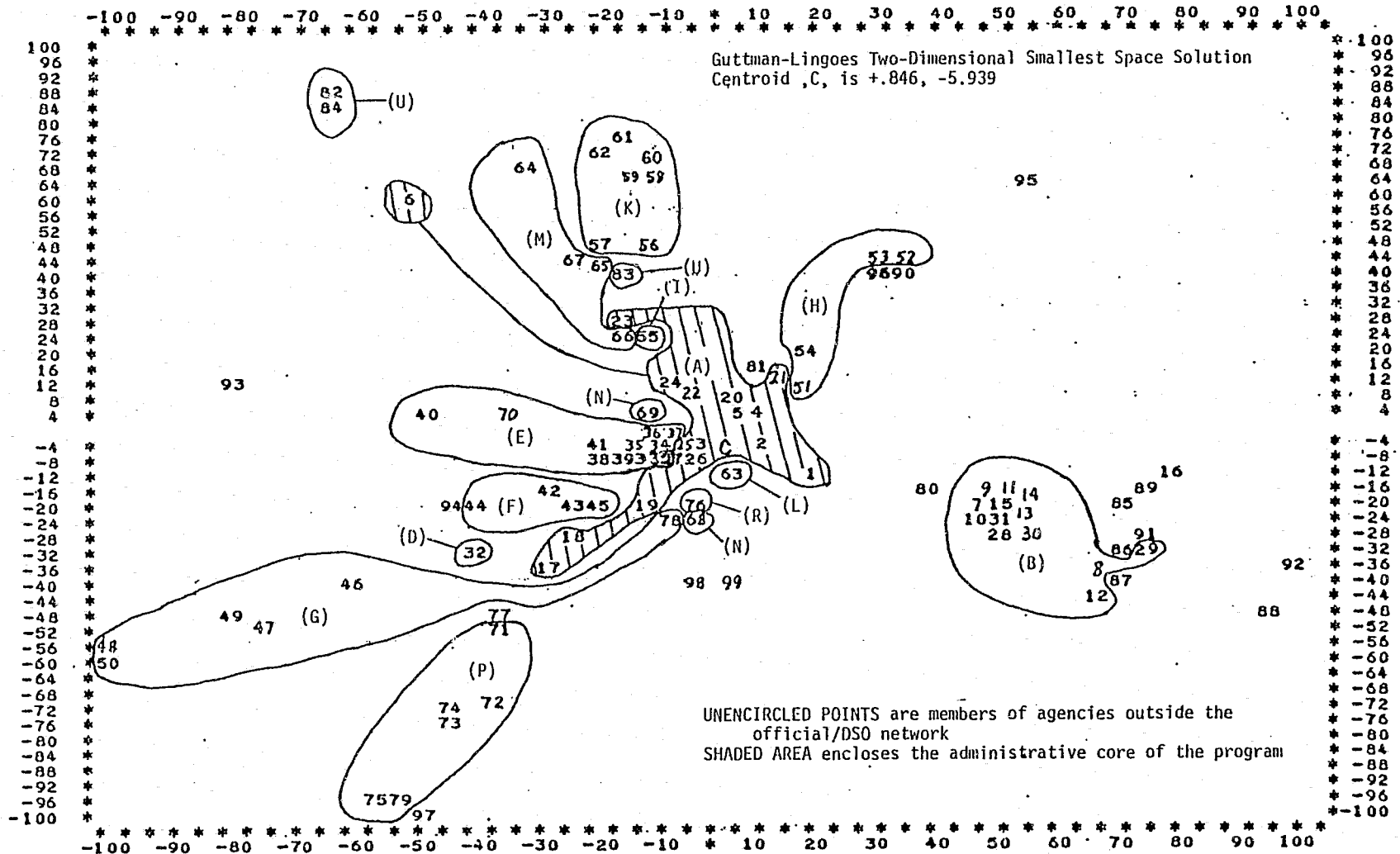
FIGURE 4A, Continued,

AGENCY CODES FOR ARIZONA

AGENCY	CODE
Pima County Juvenile Court	A
Mobile Diversion Unit	B
Associations for Youth Development, Inc.	C
Free Clinic of Tuscon	D
Autumn House	E
Catholic Social Services	F
New Directions for Young Women	G
Project PPEP	H
Profiles of Me	I
Suicide Prevention Crisis Center	J
Teen Challenge of Arizona, Inc.--Springboard	K
Traditional Indian Alliance	L
Center for Family and Individual Counseling	M
Mosenthal Alternative School	N
Congress Street School	O
Open-Inn, Inc.	P
Invisible Theater	Q
Sunnyside Junior High School	R
Tuscon YMCA--NYPUM Project	S
Shining Star Learning Center	T
Local Evaluation Staff	U

FIGURE 4B

VISUAL DISPLAY OF THE NETWORK FEATURES OF THE CLARK COUNTY DSO PROGRAM

Guttman-Lingoes Two-Dimensional Smallest Space Solution
Centroid ,C, is -15.606, -32.278

UNENCIRCLED POINTS are members of agencies outside the
        official/DSO network
SHADED AREA encloses the administrative core of the program
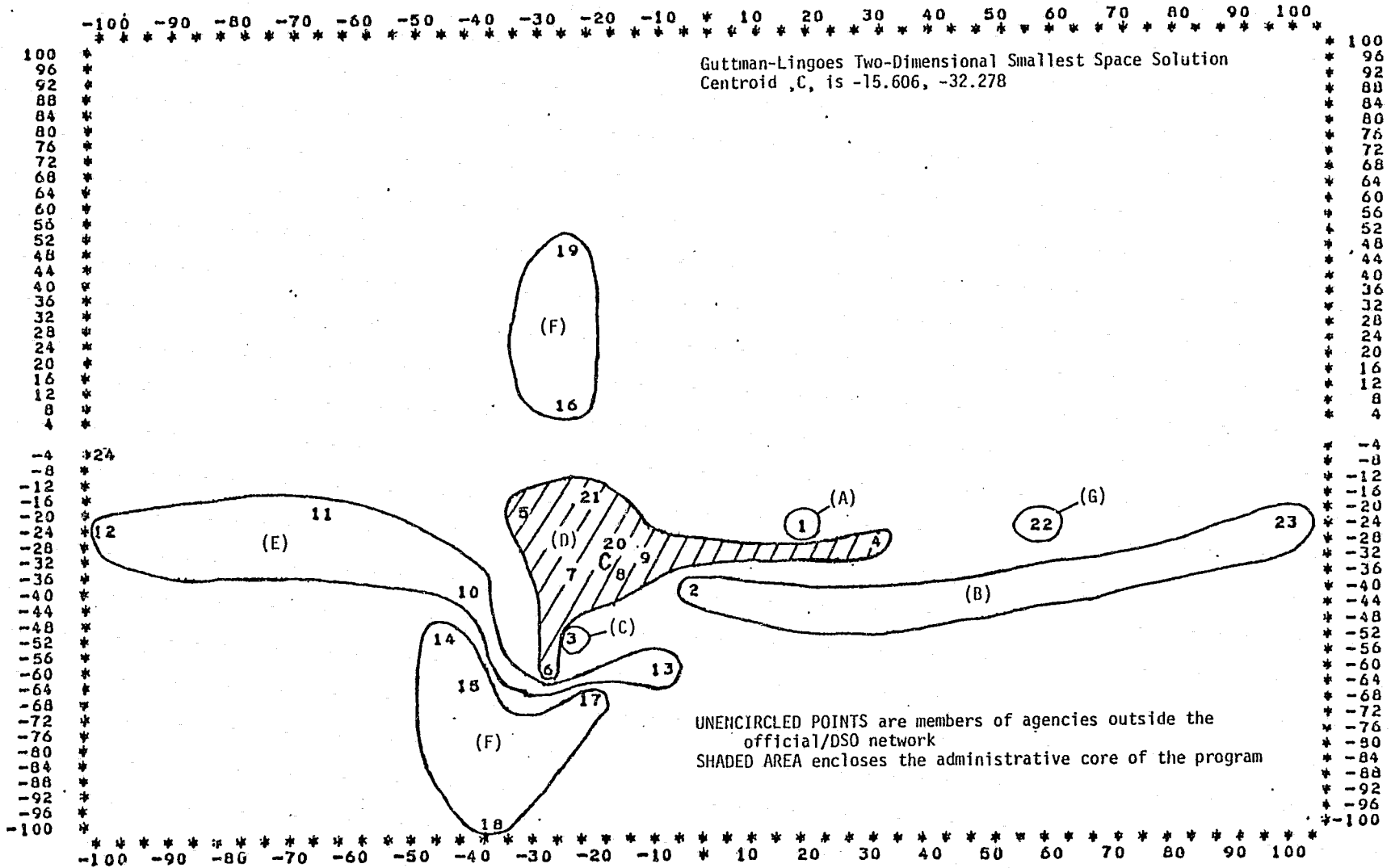
FIGURE 4B, Continued,

AGENCY CODES FOR CLARK COUNTY

AGENCY	CODE
Health and Welfare Planning Council	A
Department of Social and Health Services	B
Albertino Kerr Center for Children	C
Clark County Juvenile Court	D
Multiple Impact Therapy Team #1	E
Multiple Impact Therapy Team #2	F
Youth Outreach	G

FIGURE 4C

VISUAL DISPLAY OF THE NETWORK FEATURES OF THE DELAWARE DSO PROGRAM

Guttman-Lingoes Two-Dimensional Smallest Space Solution
Centroid ,C, is -1.500, -14.047

UNENCIRCLED POINTS are members of agencies outside the
official/DSO network
SHADED AREA encloses the administrative core of the program
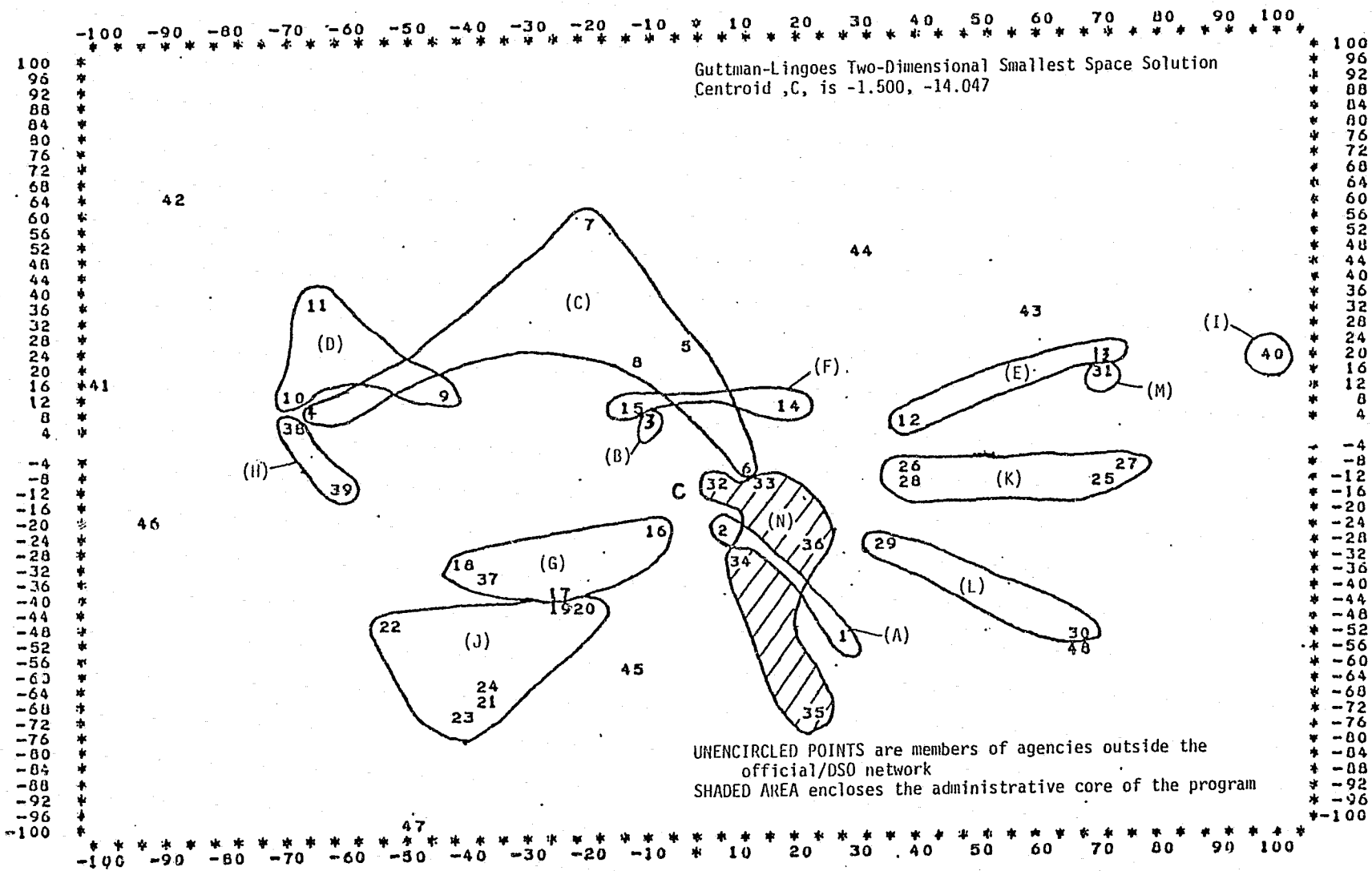
FIGURE 4C, Continued,

AGENCY CODES FOR DELAWARE

AGENCY	CODE
Community Legal Aid Society, Inc: New Castle County	A
Kent and Sussex Counties	B
Division of Social Services: New Castle County	C
Kent County	D
Sussex County	E
Statewide	F
Family Court: New Castle County	G
Kent County	H
Sussex County	I
Family Services of Northern Delaware	J
Peoples' Place II	K
Delaware Curative Workshop	L
Turn About Counseling Center	M
Division of Services to Children and Youth	N

FIGURE 4D

VISUAL DISPLAY OF THE NETWORK FEATURES OF THE ILLINOIS DSO PROGRAM

Guttman-Lingoes Two-Dimensional Smallest Space Solution
Centroid ,C, is -8.092, -14.719

AGENCY   MEMBERS
L   includes   34 and 78
N   includes   38, 39, 40, and 41
V   includes   59 and 61

UNENCIRCLED POINTS are members of agencies outside the
       official/DSO network
SHADED AREA encloses the administrative core of the program

- 71 -
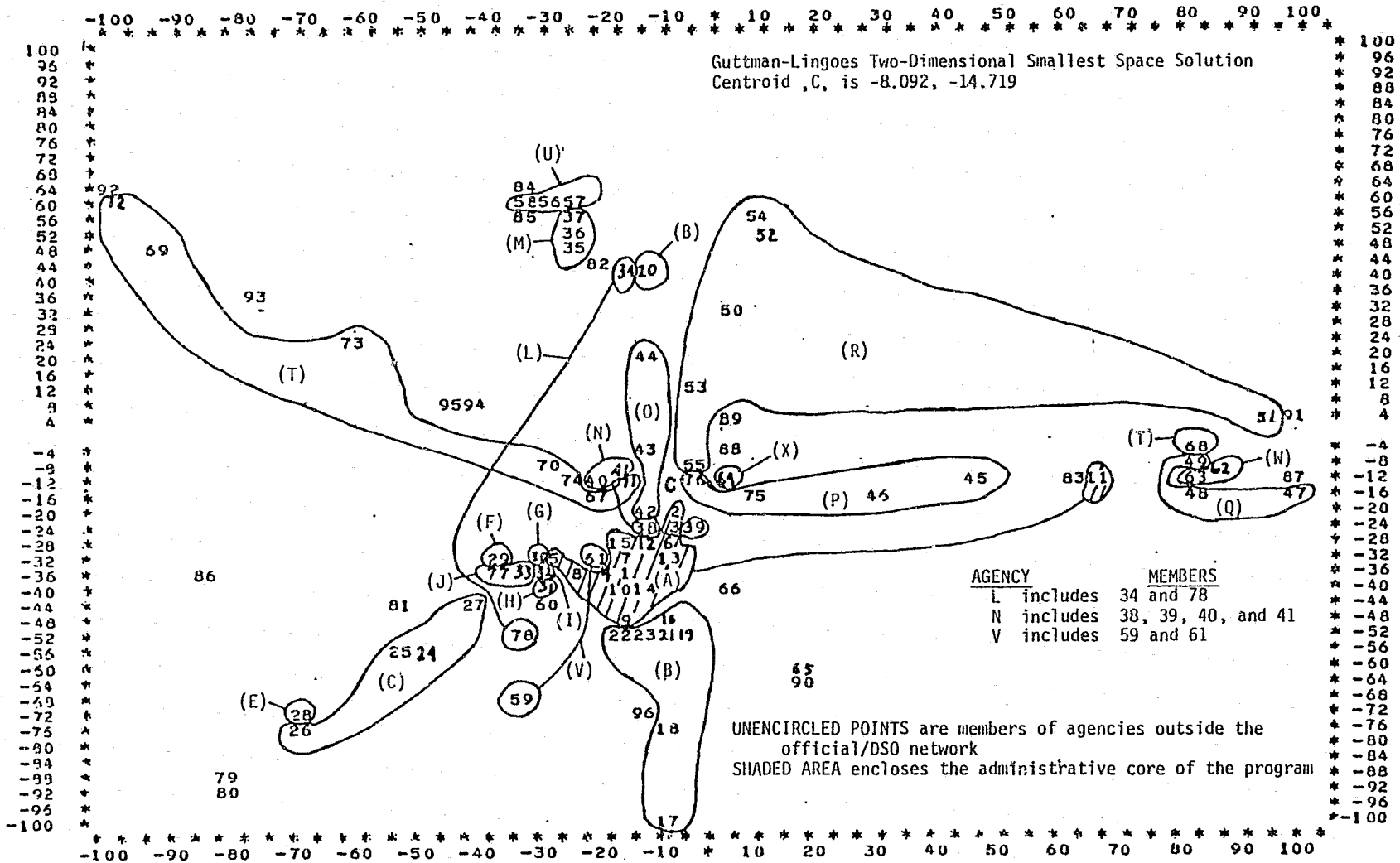
FIGURE 4D, Continued,

AGENCY CODES FOR ILLINOIS

AGENCY	CODE
Illinois Status Offender Services Staff	A
LaSalle Youth Service Bureau	B
Macon County: Youth Advocate Program	C
Foster Homes	D
Piatt, Shelby, Moultrie Counties: Youth Advocate Program	E
Piatt County Probation and Court Services	F
DeWitt Court Probation Department	G
McLean County: Project OZ	H
Mental Health Center, Inc.	I
Foster Homes	J
Livingston County: Institute for Human Resources	K
Foster Homes	L
The Woodlawn Organization	M
Thornton Township Youth Committee Program, Inc.	N
Southwest YWCA	O
Chicago Youth Centers	P
Better Boys Foundation	Q
Firman House	R
BUILD	S
MEB, Inc.	T
Little People	U
Community Advancement Program	V
Methodist Youth Services	W
Youth Enrichment Services, Inc.	X
New Life House	Y

VISUAL DISPLAY OF THE NETWORK FEATURES OF THE SOUTH CAROLINA DSO PROGRAM

Guttman-Lingoes Two-Dimensional Smallest Space Solution
Centroid ,C, is -6.774, -20.671

UNENCIRCLED POINTS are members of agencies
     outside the official/DSO network .
SHADED AREA encloses the administrative core of the program

- 73 -
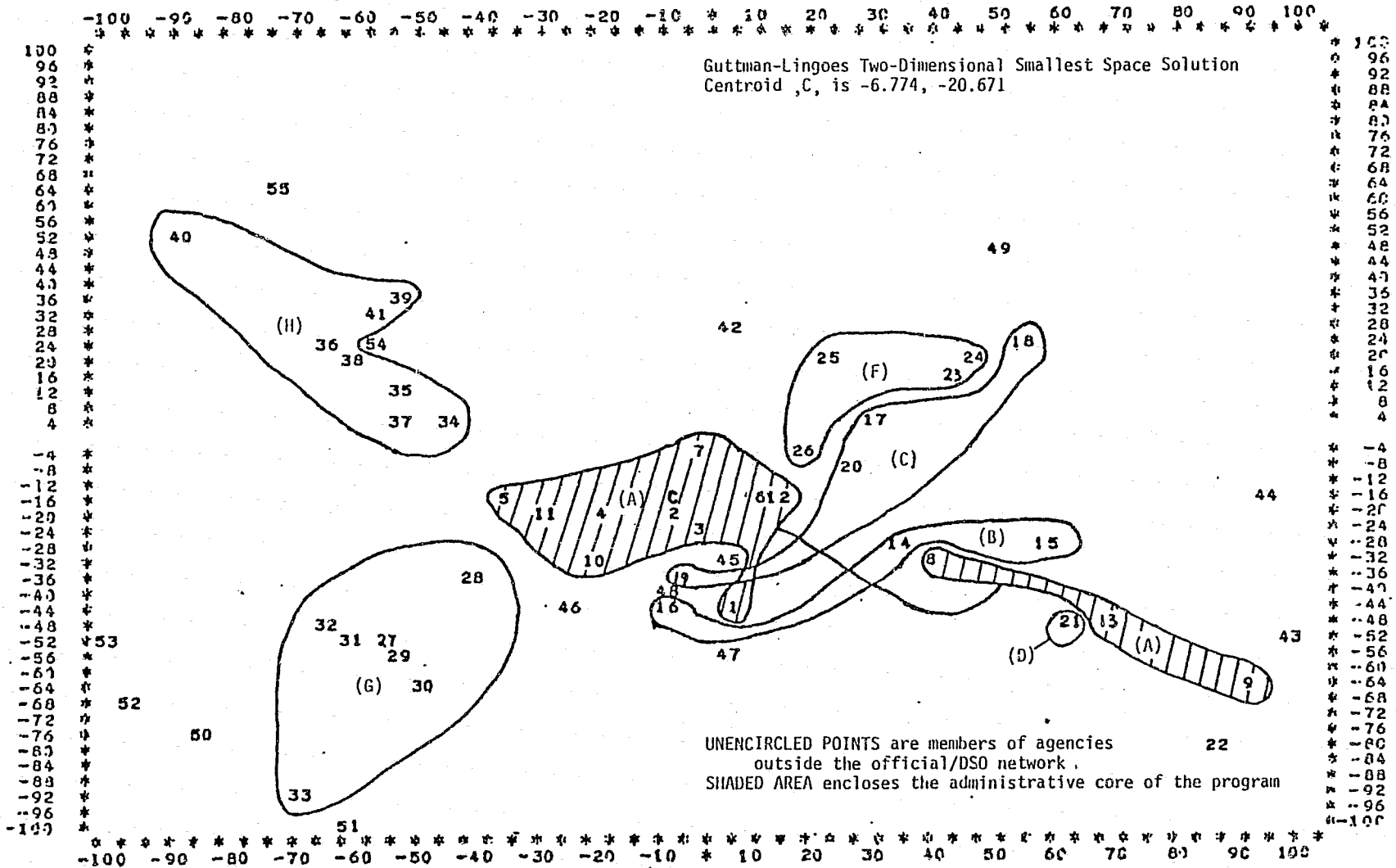
FIGURE 4E, Continued,

AGENCY CODES FOR SOUTH CAROLINA

AGENCY	CODE
Department of Youth Services	A
Alston Wilkes	B
Columbia Youth Bureau	C
Shannondora (Caroselle)	D
St. Luke's Center	E
Lexington Youth Bureau	F
Greenville Youth Bureau	G
Spartanburg Youth Bureau	H

FIGURE 4F

VISUAL DISPLAY OF THE NETWORK FEATURES OF THE SPOKANE DSO PROGRAM

Guttman-Lingoes Two-Dimensional Smallest Space Solution
Centroid ,C, is -9.947, -29.021

AGENCY		MEMBERS
B	includes	11 and 12
C	includes	13 and 14
E	includes	16, 17, and 18
F	includes	19 and 20
G	includes	21, 22, 23, and 24
H	includes	25, 26, and 27

UNENCIRCLED POINTS are members of
agencies outside the official/DSO network
SHADED AREA encloses the administrative core of the program

FIGURE 4F, Continued,

AGENCY CODES FOR SPOKANE

AGENCY	CODE
Spokane Youth Alternatives, Inc.	A
Salvation Army Spokane Booth Care Center	B
Phase II Group Home	C
Catholic Family Services	D
Children's Home Society of Washington	E
Lutheran Family and Child Services	F
Department of Social and Health Services	G
Spokane Community Mental Health Center	H
YWCA Youth Resource Center	I
Youth Help Association	J
Spokane Center for Youth Services	K
YMCA	L
Consultant	M

5. ELEMENTS OF JOB STRAIN

Surveys of work settings routinely include measures of job satisfaction, alienation and work strain, but the reasons for including them are not always clear. For a long time it was assumed that there must be a direct connection between these subjective states and productivity, and thus their linkage to considerations of efficiency and effectiveness. This is no longer an assumption that is likely to be taken uncritically (and we make no such assumption here) because the research findings on this connection have ranged from inconclusive to negative. But there are other reasons to continue to be interested in these subjective variables. The success of any social enterprise can be judged in two ways, first, by the extent to which it accomplishes its stated program goals and second, by its success in creating a meaningful and rewarding work atmosphere for its members. In this brief analysis, it is primarily in this second meaning of success that we are interested in measures of work strain, although we are also sensitive to the likelihood that individuals or agencies characterized by subjectively unrewarding work circumstances would probably be less willing to continue their ties to the overall service delivery system after the grant-supported DSO program, per se, is phased out. In other words, the measures of work strain used here are meant to be reasonable indicators of each program's ability to create a satisfying work atmosphere and as a useful suggestion about the level of continuing motivation to continue with the service delivery methods developed during the life of the program, but it is not expected that they will be particularly useful in explaining differences in objective program outcomes.

Section III of the questionnaire contained thirty Likert-type items
asking the respondents to record the frequency with which they were troubled
about different aspects of the work-environment, where 1 = "never troubled"
and 5 = "constantly troubled." These items are reproduced here in Figure
5A. The average responses for each item in each of the seven programs
are given in Table 5A. The results are generally favorable. Only six of
the thirty items (4, 5, 6, 7, 9, 12) have overall averages above 2.5, the
point above which replies are predominantly unfavorable. The single item with
the least favorable pattern of replies was item 9, which deals with the amount
of paper work generated by DSO. Of the remaining predominantly unfavorable
items, two deal with the availability of work-related information (5, 6), two
with the individual's judgment of his/her own skills and the ability to use
them (7, 12) and one with the pressures of the work load (4).

When the programs are compared to each other, Clark County stands out as
the one least characterized by strain. It had the lowest average score on no
fewer than twenty-five of the thirty items. No single program represents the
opposite, unfavorable, pole, though Illinois and Spokane each recorded the
greatest strain on thirteen of the thirty items.

These results are presented in a different, abbreviated form in Table 5B.
In order to reduce the complexity of the analysis, the thirty job strain items
were factor analyzed and the six factors which emerged, with approximate la-
bels, are as follows (numbers in parentheses refer to the items which had their
strongest loadings on that factor):*

    1. AUTHORITY: Concern over patterns of decision-making and responsi-
       bility in the program (1, 2, 8, 10, 12, 14, 15, 30);

---

* Principal components, varimax rotation. Six factors had eigenvalues greater
than 1.0. Factor loadings not shown.

FIGURE 5A.

ITEMS MEASURING JOB STRAIN

BELOW IS A LIST OF ITEMS THAT SOMETIMES TROUBLE PEOPLE IN THEIR
WORK. USING THE CODE LETTERS PROVIDED, INDICATE HOW FREQUENTLY
YOU FEEL TROUBLED BY EACH ITEM IN YOUR WORK FOR THE DSO PROGRAM.

A	B	C	D	E
NEVER	RARELY	SOMETIMES	OFTEN	CONSTANTLY

1. ___ Feeling that you have too little authority to carry out the responsibilities assigned to you in the program.
2. ___ Being unclear on just what the scope and responsibilities of your job in the program are.
3. ___ Not knowing what opportunities for promotion or advancement exist for you in the program.
4. ___ Feeling that you have too heavy a workload, one that you can't finish in a normal day.
5. ___ Feeling that the information you need in your DSO work comes too late to be of much use.
6. ___ Feeling that DSO organization is unable to keep you informed about changing conditions and problems that may affect your work.
7. ___ Feeling that you need more training to do your job properly.
8. ___ Being convinced that the DSO organization is unable to create a meaningful and rewarding work atmosphere for its personnel.
9. ___ Thinking the meetings and paper work required by the DSO program take up too much of your time.
10. ___ Thinking that you'll not be able to satisfy the conflicting demands of various people who rank above you in the DSO program.
11. ___ Feeling that you are not fully qualified to handle your job because you need more experience in working with juveniles.
12. ___ Not having enough opportunity to do the things you feel you are best at doing.
13. ___ Thinking you cannot get the information about the problems and needs of juveniles that is necessary to do your job properly.
14. ___ Not being able to try out your own ideas on the job.
15. ___ Feeling that your progress on the job so far has not been what it should be.
16. ___ Having to make decisions that affect other people working for the DSO program before you fully understand their problems.
17. ___ Thinking that you are unable to influence the decisions and actions of those who evaluate your work in the DSO program.
18. ___ Not knowing what those who judge your work in the DSO program think of your work or how they evaluate your performance.
19. ___ Thinking that the amount of work you have to do for the DSO program interferes with how well it gets done.
20. ___ Feeling that you have to do things for the DSO program that are against your better judgement.
21. ___ Not knowing what resources are available to meet the needs of juveniles in the program.
22. ___ Feeling that the DSO organization does not show enough concern for the welfare and satisfaction of those who work in the program.
23. ___ Not knowing what the people you normally work with in the DSO program think of you.
24. ___ Thinking that your future progress on your job in the DSO program is not likely to be what it should be.
25. ___ Thinking that you have too much responsibility delegated to you by your superiors in the DSO program.
26. ___ Believing that others in the DSO organization get ahead by making less of a contribution to the program than you do.
27. ___ Thinking that your DSO work does not give you enough freedom to choose your co-workers.
28. ___ Believing that there are too many rules and regulations to restrict you in your DSO work.
29. ___ Feeling that those above you in the DOS program don't pay enough attention to your own opinions about your work in the program.
30. ___ Feeling that your skills and qualifications don't count enough in determining your progress in the DSO program.

TABLE 5A.

MEAN SCORES ON THIRTY ITEMS MEASURING
CONCERN OVER VARIOUS SOURCES OF JOB STRAIN

ITEM	ARIZONA	ALAMEDA	CLARK CO.	DELAWARE	ILLINOIS	SOUTH CAROLINA	SPOKANE	TOTAL
1	2.2	2.1	(1.8)	2.4	2.6	2.6	2.2	2.3
2	2.2	2.1	(1.8)	2.2	2.3	2.2	2.3	2.2
3	2.0	2.0	(1.8)	(1.8)	2.2	2.1	2.0	2.0
4	(2.4)	2.6	2.8	2.8	2.8	2.9	2.8	2.7
5	2.7	2.5	(1.9)	2.6	2.9	2.4	2.7	2.6
6	2.6	2.6	(1.9)	2.5	2.8	2.4	2.5	2.6
7	2.7	2.7	(2.2)	2.3	2.6	2.3	2.8	2.6
8	1.9	2.1	(1.6)	2.1	2.2	2.0	2.2	2.1
9	2.9	3.1	(2.5)	(2.5)	2.6	2.8	2.7	2.8
10	2.0	2.2	(1.7)	1.9	2.1	2.2	2.2	2.1
11	2.0	2.6	(2.2)	2.8	2.7	2.6	2.6	2.6
12	2.2	2.2	(2.0)	2.3	2.7	2.2	2.4	2.3
13	2.2	2.2	(2.0)	2.3	2.7	2.2	2.4	2.3
14	1.8	1.8	(1.6)	2.0	2.1	2.0	2.1	1.9
15	2.3	(2.0)	2.2	2.5	2.5	2.3	2.6	2.3
16	2.1	1.9	(1.7)	2.1	2.1	2.0	2.2	2.0
17	2.1	2.5	(1.9)	(1.9)	2.3	2.2	2.2	2.2
18	2.2	2.4	2.3	(2.0)	2.6	2.1	2.4	2.3
19	2.2	2.4	(2.1)	2.3	2.2	2.3	2.4	2.3
20	2.0	2.5	(1.4)	2.0	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2
21	2.2	2.3	2.3	(1.9)	2.5	(1.9)	2.3	2.2
22	2.2	2.3	(1.5)	1.8	2.8	2.1	2.2	2.2
23	1.8	2.0	(1.5)	1.8	2.1	1.9	2.2	1.9
24	2.1	1.9	(1.6)	2.2	2.3	1.8	2.1	2.0
25	1.6	1.6	(1.3)	1.7	1.8	1.7	1.9	1.7
26	1.7	1.6	(1.2)	1.4	1.8	1.8	1.9	1.6
27	1.4	1.7	(1.2)	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.5
28	2.0	2.3	(1.9)	1.9	2.1	2.1	2.2	2.1
29	1.9	2.0	(1.7)	1.7	2.2	2.0	1.9	2.0
30	1.7	1.8	(1.5)	1.8	1.7	1.8	1.9	1.8

( ) represents the lowest average item scores among sites

===== represents the highest average item scores among sites

TABLE 5B.

COMPARISONS AMONG PROGRAMS (MEAN FACTOR SCORES)
ON SIX COMPOSITE DIMENSIONS REPRESENTING CONCERN OVER
DIFFERENT SOURCES OF WORK STRAIN

	ARIZONA	ALAMEDA	CLARK CO.	DELAWARE	ILLINOIS	SOUTH CAROLINA	SPOKANE
AUTHORITY	-.02	-.18	-.32	.27	.10	.14	.09
WORK LOAD	-.09	.01	-.09	.12	-.11	.11	.15
INFORMATION	.05	-.03	-.56	-.22	.48	-.18	-.10
PROGRESS	-.03	-.01	-.33	-.14	.14	-.01	.20
BUREAUCRACY	-.17	.34	-.23	-.27	-.05	.01	.00
PROFESSIONAL UNCERTAINTY	.05	.00	-.09	-.09	.12	-.44	.23

2. WORK LOAD: Concern over the amount of work required and the ability to do it properly (4, 19, 25);

3. INFORMATION: Concern over the availability and timing of work-related information (5, 6, 13, 22);

4. PROGRESS: Concern over the opportunities for career advancement (3, 23, 24, 26);

5. BUREAUCRACY: Concern over personal restrictions, rules and regulations (9, 14, 18, 20, 27, 28, 29); and

6. PROFESSIONAL UNCERTAINTY: Concern over the indequacy of own skills (7, 11, 21).

Standardized scores (factor scores) were constructed for each respondent on each of these scales and a comparison of the seven programs appears in Table 5B. The means for the separate programs have _negative_ values if the responses are _more favorable_ than the overall average and _positive_ values if work strain is _more pronounced_ than the average.

Again, Clark County is distinctive on the positive side because its responses were consistently more favorable than the average on all six dimensions. It is very possible that the small size of this program, together with the cohesive patterns revealed in its network structure, goes far toward explaining the unusually low levels of job strain it exhibited. Among the remaining six programs, however, neither size nor network properties appeared to bear any systematic relationship to overall levels of strain. As a case in point, the Spokane program was also relatively small and cohesive but showed comparatively high levels of job strain, while the Arizona program was comparatively large but with generally only average or below average levels of strain. However, while the data failed to reveal obvious patterns, they are not without interest.

On the negative side, Spokane's participants clearly had a wide range of concerns but were most likely to express discomfort over professional considerations, particularly those involving career development and the application of professional skills. Earlier, the demographic analysis indicated that this

program's participants were well above the average in professional training (Table 1B) and somewhat more experienced than the norm. This takes on significance in the context of a complaint expressed by several participants to members of the evaluation staff to the effect that a typical career pattern in the Spokane area was to shift from one agency to another without any perceptible upward career progress. Their discontent, then, may have been as much a reflection of the labor market for practitioners as it was a response to the DSO program, per se. Nevertheless, an inter-agency service delivery program that did succeed in creating new avenues of professional expression and career development would probably command more of the loyalty of the participants from different agencies than a program that left such considerations completely in the hands of individual agencies. The formal designation by program organizers of liaison positions charged with facilitating inter-agency relations is one example of the kind of avenue to personal progress that could be created in multi-agency programs.

As in Spokane, the participants in Illinois also expressed some concern over career progress and professional uncertainty but clearly their primary concern was related to the availability of important work-related information. This is apparent in Table 5B and can be seen in more detail in Table 5A. All four of the items dealing with this problem (5, 6, 13, and 22) showed unusual levels of concern. Note that these are items that have directly to do with the way the DSO program functioned and cannot easily be attributed to extraneous factors in the surrounding community environment. The same is true of the items that comprise the factor dealing with problems involving authority in the program, which also was a source of above average concern in Illinois.

Concern about authority relations was also apparent in the Delaware program,* as was somewhat above average concern over the volume of work required. Otherwise, this program recorded below average levels of strain on most dimensions. The Alameda County program was characterized by problems that we have labeled "bureaucratization" and which involved concern over rules and regulations, paper work and limitations on the use of personal judgment in matters concerning the work.

In summary, the findings on job strain revealed no single source of overriding concern that cut across all seven programs. To the contrary, different sources of work strain were characteristic of different programs. It is important to keep in mind that the comments offered here have referred to relative differences among the programs. The fact that some were comparatively more stressful than others on selected items or dimensions should not be allowed to obscure the conclusion that was stated at the outset, namely, that the overall pattern of replies to this part of the questionnaire was a favorable one, on balance, in all seven programs. To state this another way, the DSO setting was at least tolerable and at best positively rewarding for most of the participants on most of the important dimensions of their work.

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* The elevated concern over authority in Illinois and Delaware echoes some findings that were apparent in the earlier discussion of decision making patterns. See in particular Tables 3A, 3B, and 3E. The respondents in these two programs generally expressed less satisfaction with decision-making arrangements than those in other programs.

SECTION II

ASSESSMENTS OF PERFORMANCE:
COMMUNITY CONTACT AND COMMUNITY ACTIVISM

The performance of the practitioners in the DSO programs was measured in two ways: first, by the amount of contact they reported with persons in law enforcement, in the schools, in the courts, in local religious organizations and in public and private social service delivery agencies--all outside the DSO network; and second, by the amount of activity they spent in efforts to change the community climate for dealing with status offenders. Both of these are used as measures of "community-basedness" and were suggested by the discussion of this concept by Coates.* From the beginning, it was clear that the DSO programs selected for funding were expected to establish methods of dealing with status offenders that would be firmly grounded in the communities in which they were to operate. As Coates summarizes this strategy, it is usually based on the assumptions that community-based programs are more cost-effective, more humane, and less stigmatizing than other approaches and that, properly employed, community-basedness can contribute significantly to both rehabilitation and reintegration of the offender. As he defines it, community-basedness has two dimensions, one dealing with a program's facility in gaining access to and cooperation from a wide range of institutions and organizations in the community, and the other having to do with direct efforts by a program's participants to improve the local resource base and community climate in which it must perform.

In this evaluation we have treated these dimensions of community-basedness as program objectives and have asked two questions concerning them. The first

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* Coates, Robert.B. "Community-based Corrections: Concept, Historical Development, Impact, and Potential Dangers.". Paper presented at the Massachusetts Standards and Goals Conference, November, 1974. (mimeo.)

addresses the frequency with which community-based activities took place, calling for data that are essentially descriptive. Programs whose members showed greater involvement with the community can be considered more successful in achieving this element of the DSO mandate.

The second question is more analytic. It concerns the relationship between the network properties of the programs which were described in detail earlier and the two measures of community-basedness. The DSO programs were expected to utilize a network of services and to be community-based, with the clear implication that the former strategy would facilitate the accomplishment of the latter objective. What we have asked here is whether an individual who was well-placed, i.e., centrally located, in the overall network of professional exchanges in his/her program was also one with extensive contacts with important agencies outside the immediate DSO network and one who was more likely to be involved in active efforts to improve the local resource base and community climate as far as status offenders were concerned. With this approach to the problem of DSO performance, it is possible to characterize the network strategies developed by the programs as more or less effective depending on the extent to which these correlations were in evidence.

The measures of community-basedness, which we have labeled community contact and community activism, were taken from Section VI in the organizational questionnaire. For purposes of comparison the analysis was expanded to include also a measure of the practitioners' subjective assessments of program success. The items comprising this measure appear as numbers 1 and 2 in Section II of the questionnaire.

1. PERFORMANCE MEASURES: STATISTICAL SUMMARIES

Contact with Community Organizations.

From the contact measures in Table 1A on the following page, some dif-
ferences among the programs are apparent. In Arizona, Clark County, Delaware,
Illinois, and South Carolina, the most frequent contact was with court per-
sonnel. In each case respondents reported that such interaction took place,
on the average, between once a week and several times a week.* In Alameda
County, by way of contrast, contact with courts was relatively infrequent;
here, the most frequent contacts were with law enforcement and schools, then
public and private non-DSO agencies. Contact with courts was fifth in order
of magnitude. The participants in Spokane were the only ones to report most
frequent contact with non-DSO private service delivery agencies, followed very
closely by contact with non-DSO public service delivery agencies, then contact
with courts. In all seven programs the least frequent outside contact was with
local religious groups.

These data on contact patterns can be interpreted in more than one way.
On the one hand, the average amount of contact with any single category of
outside agency was not high. With scattered exceptions the means were near or
slightly below the once a week level. On the other hand, keep in mind that
each respondent reported his or her contacts with six different types of groups in
the community. Extrapolating from this, it is reasonable to assume that the aver-
age participant was in fact maintaining fairly extensive contacts with community
agencies outside the DSO network, an effort that in all likelihood would consume

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* In Delaware an equal frequency was reported with non-DSO public social
  service agencies.

TABLE 1A.

MEAN SCORES ON SIX ITEMS MEASURING CONTACT WITH
AGENCIES OUTSIDE THE DSO NETWORK

CONTACT WITH:

	LAW ENFORCEMENT	SCHOOLS	RELIGIOUS GROUPS	PRIVATE AGENCIES	COURTS	PUBLIC AGENCIES
ALAMEDA	2.8	2.8	1.3	2.5	2.0	2.6
ARIZONA	2.2	2.8	1.9	2.4	3.7	2.8
CLARK COUNTY	2.0	2.2	1.5	2.1	3.4	3.1
DELAWARE	2.6	2.7	1.7	1.9	4.0	4.0
ILLINOIS	3.0	2.4	1.6	2.7	3.1	2.7
SOUTH CAROLINA	2.5	2.6	1.9	2.5	3.1	2.9
SPOKANE	2.6	2.9	1.7	3.5	3.1	3.3
ALL PROGRAMS	2.6	2.7	1.6	2.5	3.1	2.9

Based on questions 1-6 in Section VI of the questionnaire

SCALE:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Never	Less Than Once A Week	About Once A Week	Several Times A Week	Once Or Twice A Day	Several Times A Day	Almost Constantly

a part of each working day. To the extent that this accurately gauges "community-basedness," it would appear that the latter was a well established part of each program. Incidentally, it is important to note that no single program stands out as being the most involved in these outside contacts. Law enforcement contact was most frequent in Illinois; contact with schools and private agencies in Spokane; with religious groups in Arizona and South Carolina; and with courts and other public agencies in Delaware.

In judging the quality of these contacts outside the DSO networks, there was remarkable similarity from one program to another. In fact, the data were so uniform they need not be presented in tabular form here. Nine-point scales were used to register the organizational level at which the contacts usually took place, the amount of cooperation the contacts involved, and the benefit they produced for DSO clients. The replies generally ranged between six and eight on these scales, which is clearly toward the positive, or favorable, end. Contacts were generally with persons in authoritative positions, were seen as cooperative, and were thought to produce significant benefits for DSO clients. Only the evaluation by Arizona participants of their law enforcement contacts suggested a partial exception to this pattern (replies there averaged below 6 for each of these evaluations).

Table 1B presents the reasons given for different kinds of contacts, aggregated across all seven programs.* The indication is that contact with schools and agencies of the justice system took place primarily for providing information about the needs of clients, whereas contact with religious groups and public and private service delivery agencies was aimed toward gaining

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* With only minor exceptions, breakdowns for each separate program follow the basic pattern in Table 1B.

TABLE 1B.

REASONS GIVEN FOR CONTACTS WITH AGENCIES OUTSIDE THE
DSO NETWORK, AGGREGATED ACROSS ALL SEVEN PROGRAMS

	PRIMARY REASONS FOR CONTACTS			
CONTACTS WITH	Clarify Needs of DSO Clients	Encourage Change in Treatment of Juveniles	To Get Resources For Clients	Encourage Respect For Clients
LAW ENFORCEMENT	50.5%	31.4%	17.7%	.5%
SCHOOLS	47.7%	18.8%	32.2%	1.3%
RELIGIOUS ORGANIZATIONS	33.3%	6.7%	56.3%	3.7%
PRIVATE NON-DSO AGENCIES	19.1%	12.6%	67.1%	1.2%
COURTS	52.9%	20.5%	25.4%	1.2%
PUBLIC NON-DSO AGENCIES	33.5%	7.4%	57.6%	1.6%

resources to aid in dealing with clients. Actively trying to change the operation of any of these outside organizations was generally infrequent, but law enforcement was an exception. Almost a third of these contacts represented what Coates would call an "advocacy" approach (encouraging a change in procedures). Finally, attempting to influence the way people in these outside agencies think about offenders was almost negligible.

Community Activism.

Activism in this survey refers to attempts by program participants to influence the community by increasing the economic assistance and community support for programs for status offenders, by attempting to change local policies toward offenders, and by attempting to improve the treatment resources available for dealing with the problems of youth. Participants were asked to indicate the frequency of their efforts along these lines, using a scale that ranged from 1 (never) to 9 (almost constantly). The results appear in Table 1C.

Overall, attempting to improve treatment resources was the most frequently reported activity, followed closely by encouraging community support and attempting to influence local policy. All of these took place close to once a week on the average. The least frequent activity was attempting to find sources of economic support (averaging around the "less than once a week" level). None of the separate programs departed radically from this profile, although Arizona and Illinois did show noticeably higher levels of action than the other programs on all four types of activity.

It is fairly apparent from these data that community activism was not an effort that consumed a large amount of time in any of the DSO programs. But the same interpretation applies here as in the case of community contact:

TABLE 1C.

MEAN SCORES ON FOUR MEASURES OF
COMMUNITY ACTIVISM

	TYPE OF ACTIVITY			
PROGRAM	GETTING RESOURCES FOR JUVENILE PROGRAMS	GETTING SUPPORT OF COMMUNITY ORGANIZATIONS	INFLUENCING LOCAL POLICIES FOR JUVENILES	IMPROVING TREATMENT RESOURCES
ALAMEDA	2.1	2.4	2.7	2.7
ARIZONA	2.5	3.3	2.8	3.3
CLARK COUNTY	1.9	2.6	2.4	2.7
DELAWARE	1.8	2.5	2.6	3.2
ILLINOIS	2.5	3.3	3.4	3.8
SOUTH CAROLINA	1.9	2.7	2.6	2.8
SPOKANE	2.0	2.5	2.4	2.7
ALL PROGRAMS	2.2	2.8	2.8	3.1

Based on question 7 in Section VI of the questionnaire

SCALE:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Never	Less Than Once A Week	About Once A Week	Several Times A Week	Once Or Twice A Day	Several Times A Day	Almost Constantly

most participants reported some effort in all four areas of community activism. Placing this effort alongside all the other activities that their DSO positions required (including client contact, contact with other community agencies, and ordinary bureaucratic activities such as meetings and record-maintenance), it seems fair to say that community activism was a significant part of each program.

Subjective Measures of Effectiveness.

In addition to the measures of community contact and activism, respondents in the programs were given a nine-point scale to record their impression of the effectiveness of the program of which they were a part and to judge the productivity of their own efforts. On both counts the replies were quite favorable and the variation between programs was small. On the average, the participants confined their judgments to a very small, approximately one point range (from about 6 to about 7 on the scale of nine). These results appear in Table 1D.

TABLE 1D.

SUBJECTIVE ASSESSMENTS OF OWN PERFORMANCE AND
OVERALL DSO PROGRAM EFFECTIVENESS

	EFFECTIVENESS OF OWN EFFORTS	EFFECTIVENESS OF OVERALL DSO PROGRAM
ALAMEDA	7.0	6.6
ARIZONA	6.9	6.9
CLARK COUNTY	6.7	6.8
DELAWARE	6.7	5.7
ILLINOIS	6.6	6.1
SOUTH CAROLINA	7.1	6.8
SPOKANE	5.8	6.1
ALL PROGRAMS	6.8	6.5

Based on questions 1 and 2 in Section II of the questionnaire

1 = "not at all effective"
9 = "extremely effective"

2.   ASSESSING THE DETERMINANTS OF INDIVIDUAL PRODUCTIVITY

.Dimensions of the Analysis.

The final question to which this report is addressed is in many ways the most important one. It has to do with the variables or sets of variables that account for differences in the ways the DSO goals were accomplished by the participants. For our purposes the most critical assumption that guided the establishment of the programs was that coherent inter-agency networks would be better able to sustain community based programs than separate agencies or individual practitioners working in isolation from each other. As we showed earlier, each of the programs* had in fact created an inter-agency network of professional exchange, though the forms of these networks varied considerably from one program to another. If these networks were functioning as intended, then the individuals who were strategically placed within them should have been in a better position to carry out program objectives than those who were relatively isolated. Stated more concretely, the hypothesis to be tested is that the frequency of participants' community-based activities, specifically, community contact and activism, will be a direct correlate of how well-placed they were in the inter-agency systems of professional exchange that characterized their program. To disconfirm this hypothesis for any of the programs would mean that the inter-agency network, whatever other advantages it may have offered, did not produce a professional environment for individuals that was an advantage to them in making their contribution to the program's community-based objectives.

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*That is, each of the six for which network data were available.

To test this hypothesis a multiple regression analysis was performed in which community contact and activism were the dependent variables. Rather than treating each of the several measures of these variables separately, the investigation was simplified by combining the six contact measures into a single index called CONTACT, and the four community activism measures into a summed index called ACTIVISM. The two items dealing with subjective evaluations of performance were again included, this time combined into a single index called PERFORMANCE. The reliabilities of these three indices (alpha) were respectively, .74, .88, and .63.

In addition to measures of network placement, two other sets of independent variables were entered, including measures of individuals' personal resources and their organizational positions. Each of these will be discussed briefly.

Personal resources refers to those attributes and qualifications that individuals carry with them and that might be expected to have an effect on the way they perform their DSO activities. They include education and number of years of professional experience, gender, and ethnicity. As we reported earlier in Section I of this report, there was considerable variation from one program to another on each of these variables. In most organizational settings an easy prediction could be made that advanced education, long professional experience, male gender, and white race will convey access to important organizational resources and advantages, both formal and informal, and, for this reason they are likely to be linked to higher levels of performance. However, the DSO programs cannot be considered typical work settings. They represented specially created organizational mechanisms for dealing with special juvenile problems and it was by no means self-evident how these personal resources would affect program outcomes. It was important to gauge their impact, even without clear-cut hypotheses about the direction of their effects.

Organizational position refers to two indicators of the participant's location in the hierarchy of authority and decision-making within his/her specific place of employment (not in the DSO program overall). STATUS is a dichotomy indicating whether the respondent had supervisory responsibilities or not.* PARTICIPATION (also a dichotomy) refers to whether or not the respondent was allowed to participate in the decisions that affected his/her work (based on Section III, question 3 in the questionnaire). Some arguments in the inter-organizational literature stress that boundary spanning ties to other organizations and interaction with the community-at-large are tasks usually carried out by higher ranking personnel acting as "representatives" for their own organization. However, in the DSO programs virtually all practitioners were encouraged or required to be involved with people in agencies outside the immediate DSO network and for this reason high organizational rank is less likely to be a determining factor. In fact, if supervisors were caught up in administrative duties they may have had less time and opportunity to be involved outside the program and the impact of status on contact and activism could be negative as a result. As for rank and file participation in decision-making, it was shown earlier that this was the accepted strategy in all the DSO programs. It is important to know whether being allowed to participate in this process was linked in any systematic way to performance. Unfortunately, because the variation on this variable was limited no conclusive assessment of its effect is likely to be forthcoming.

Network location is the key variable of interest here. It refers to how strategically placed the individual was with respect to the patterns of professional exchange among the different subparts of the DSO programs. For each of

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*Social service agencies are typically "flat," that is, they function without an elaborate bureaucratic hierarchy. Therefore, finer distinctions than this simple dichotomy are difficult to determine.

the five sociometric dimensions of contact, influence, professional respect, support, and assistance, a score called "centrality" was computed for each participant based on the number of direct ($A \longrightarrow C$) and indirect ($A \longrightarrow B \longrightarrow C$) links, and their lengths, that they were involved in. An individual with a high centrality score on the work contact dimension, for example, is one who had high access to others and was at the same time potentially highly accessible to them. The other four dimensions provided similar measures of where an individual stood in the inter-agency networks of influence, respect, support, and professional assistance. In the six programs for which these network measures were available,* these five centrality scores were highly intercorrelated (see Appendix C). To deal with this problem of multicollinearity the five measures of centrality were "blocked" in the regression analysis and a single beta, called a "sheaf coefficient," was computed to record their combined impact on the three dependent variables.**

For purposes of program evaluation, the usefulness of this network construct is of crucial importance. The properties of the systems of inter-agency exchange that had been established in the different programs were described in Section I and it was suggested that two major interorganizational strategies were in evidence. In Arizona and Delaware the volume of inter-agency and agency-center ties and the visual displays in the smallest space maps suggested formalized patterns of coordination in which the central administrative core functioned to mediate the linkages among the parts of the program. Spokane and Clark County, by contrast, displayed less formalized patterns that suggested linkages formed through very numerous person-to-person exchanges. The administrative centers of these two programs were by no means excluded from these exchanges but neither

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*Recall that the sociometric analysis was dropped in Alameda County.

**This technique is described in detail in David R. Heise, "Employing nominal variables, induced variables, and block variables in path analysis," Sociological Methods and Research 1 (November, 1972): 147-173.

did they appear to mediate or "broker" the agency-to-agency linkages. Illinois and South Carolina did not fall clearly into either of these two patterns, and in South Carolina in particular it was pointed out that the network that was apparent was part of the pre-established state system of youth service delivery and not a network assembled expressly to deal with the problems of status offenders.

With this brief summary in mind, what can we expect the measures of NETWORK CENTRALITY to show with respect to individual performance as we have measured it in each of these programs? If, after all the other variables describing the individual's place in a program (that is, the measures of personal resources and organizational position listed above) are taken into account, CENTRALITY still shows a clear positive relationship to the individual performance measures, we will take this to be evidence for the viability of the inter-agency strategy adopted by that program. That is, we will take it as evidence that the network represents to individuals a resource that is of benefit to them in their relations with the community. To observe no relationship between CENTRALITY and performance would provide evidence for a contrary argument, that is, that individuals functioning with only their own and their agency's resources perform as well as those who have access to the complicated system of inter-agency exchanges. And finally, a negative relationship would indicate that strategic placement in the inter-agency network is actually counterproductive as far as individual practitioners are concerned.

Before proceeding with the discussion of the findings a methodological comment is in order. The analytic strategy described above

concentrates on the explanation of the contributions <u>by</u> <u>individuals</u> to the community-basedness of their programs. It employed separate replications for each of the seven programs and it permits only essentially qualitative comparisons to be made among the programs, based on a discussion of differences in the overall configuration of findings from one program to another. A more complete analysis would supplement this by addressing more directly the effects of the "global" properties of the programs on their aggregate levels of community-basedness while adjusting for individual-level effects. For purposes of this report this macro-level analysis was excluded for two reasons.* The first was the limited range of variability in aggregate levels of community-basedness (the dependent variable). In terms of average contact with outside organizations and community activism the seven programs were performing at very similar levels. The second was a reservation about the use of aggregate measures based on the sociometric data (the primary independent variable of interest) to capture the overall structural properties of the programs. In Alameda County these data were missing altogether, in Illinois and South Carolina they were based on program fragments and in Spokane the sociometric response rate was low. Thus, while the sociometric data could reasonably be used to compare the connectedness (centrality) of one individual on a roster to another, there was a serious question in four of the seven programs concerning the aggregation of these data to reflect overall program characteristics.

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*It will be pursued separately in an exploratory manner and reported at a later time. For the latest in a long series of discussions of the problems of multi-level analysis and cross-level inference, see Glenn Firebaugh, " A Rule for Inferring Individual-Level Relationships from Aggregate Data," <u>American Sociological Review</u> 43 (August 1978): 557-572.

In short, the reader should be aware that any speculation offered below concerning differences among the programs is based on qualitative inferences from the intra-program analyses and not on a direct statistical assessment of program effects, _per se_.

Results.

Separate multiple regression analyses were performed for each of the three measures of performance. In Table 2 the findings are displayed for all seven DSO programs. Note that RACE was dropped from the analysis for Clark County because all those responding were white and that CENTRALITY was missing for Alameda County.

The most important finding concerns the location of the individual practitioner in the systems of inter-agency exchange. In Arizona and Delaware CENTRALITY was the best single predictor of both CONTACT and ACTIVISM. Clearly, the types of networks that were apparent in those two programs functioned well for facilitating the work of individual practitioners vis-a-vis the community. In Arizona, EDUCATION also had a positive (but non-significant) impact on CONTACT and STATUS was inversely (but again not significantly) related to ACTIVISM (non-supervisory personnel were more active than supervisors). In Delaware RACE (being non-white), GENDER (being male), and PARTICIPATION rivaled CENTRALITY as explanations for ACTIVISM. Overall, however, none of the measures of personal resources or organizational position had an effect that was as pronounced or as consistent as CENTRALITY.

A basically similar pattern of findings was apparent in Spokane and Clark County. The personalistic networks that were observed in these two programs also functioned to facilitate CONTACT and, in Spokane, ACTIVISM as well. In Clark County there was little relationship between CENTRALITY

TABLE 2. REGRESSION OF COMMUNITY CONTACT, COMMUNITY ACTIVISM AND SUBJECTIVE PERFORMANCE ON INDIVIDUAL RESOURCES, ORGANIZATIONAL POSITION AND NETWORK LOCATION, FOR SEVEN INTER-AGENCY PROGRAMS INVOLVED IN THE DEINSTITUTIONALIZATION OF STATUS OFFENDERS (DSO).

	Arizona (N=76)			Delaware (N=37)			Spokane (N=36)			Clark County (N=20)			Illinois (N=57)			South Carolina (N=35)			Alameda County (N=89)		
	Con-tact	Act-ivism	Subj. Perf.	Con-tact	Act-ivism	Subj. Perf.	Con-tact	Act-ivism	Subj. Perf.	Con-tact	Act-ivism	Subj. Perf.	Con-tact	Act-ivism	Subj. Perf.	Con-tact	Act-ivism	Subj. Perf.	Con-tact	Act-ivism	Subj. Perf.
INDIVIDUAL RESOURCES:																					
Gender	.03	.08	.04	-.10	-.36*	.07	-.09	-.02	-.08	.06	-.06	-.27	.02	.07	.01	-.04	.29	.26	.03	.10	.21*
Race	-.10	-.05	-.14	-.22	-.39*	-.14	-.36	-.30	-.12	---a	---	---	-.06	-.21	.14	-.003	.30	-.19	.11	-.12	.01
Experience	.03	.09	.20	-.26	-.19	-.03	.63*	.94	.003	-.10	-.51	-.13	-.08	.05	-.13	-.55	-.42	-.18	.12	.01	.08
Education	.20	-.01	.06	-.17	.05	-.01	.20	.22	-.12	.13	.07	.39	.17	.18	-.004	.36	.50*	-.52	-.02	.19*	.08
ORGANIZATIONAL EXPERIENCE:																					
Status	-.10	-.20	-.36*	-.10	-.07	-.06	.24	.07	.07	-.42	.09	-.07	-.19	-.40*	-.02	-.08	-.08	.38	-.15	-.27*	-.05
Participation	.02	.02	-.10	.21	.35*	-.11	.34	.50*	.12	-.13	.19	.13	-.20	.11	.31	-.06	.28	-.25	.13	.03	.08
NETWORK CENTRALITY (Sheaf Coefficient)	.36*	.37*	.21	.49	.68***	.29	.87***	.63**	.69	.83*	.28	.67	-.45	.42	.34	-.47	-.54	.55	---b	---	---
R^2 WITHOUT NETWORK SHEAF COEFFICIENT	.17	.17	.13	.16	.31	.04	.08	.27	.11	.17	.24	.22	.13	.32	.13	.23	.38	.13	.08	.17	.08
R^2 WITH NETWORK BLOCK INCLUDED:	.27	.28	.17	.37	.64	.11	.54	.56	.53	.76	.28	.49	.18	.34	.23	.38	.56	.33	---	---	---

Cell entries are standardized regression coefficients.

One asterisk represents $p<.10$, two represent $p<.05$, and three represent $p<.01$.

[a] All respondents were white.

[b] Network measures not available.

and ACTIVISM. In fact, both of these programs differed from Arizona and Delaware in that EXPERIENCE appeared to be a more important factor in explaining levels of ACTIVISM. Curiously, however, this variable had a positive effect in Spokane (more experienced personnel were more active) but an inverse effect in Clark County (less experienced participants were more active).

One other interesting difference between these two sets of programs is apparent. In Arizona and Delaware network location showed little relationship to the practitioners' subjective estimates of their own effectiveness and that of the overall program, but in Spokane and Clark County the effect was clearly positive.

To summarize, in these four programs the evidence for the viability of what we have characterized as two quite different inter-agency network strategies was clear. Whether the network was structured along formalistic or personalistic lines, being favorably located within it was a consistently effective predictor of the level of involvement with community agencies outside the network, and was useful in three of the four programs for accounting for the level of effort devoted to influencing the community climate for dealing with the problems of status offenders. An indirect idea of just how important these network variables were can be gained by comparing the total variance in CONTACT and ACTIVISM explained in these four programs (from 27% to as much as 76%) with that in Alameda County, where the information required for constructing the measure of network location was not available (8% for CONTACT and 17% for ACTIVISM).

When Illinois is considered, a strikingly different picture emerges. In this case, the information on the network locations of program practitioners was of very limited utility in accounting for the variance in CONTACT and

ACTIVISM. The betas (one negative, one positive) were comparatively large, though non-significant, but the contribution to explained variation was quite small (5% for CONTACT; 2% for ACTIVISM). As we pointed out earlier, only selected parts of this state-wide DSO effort were subjected to evaluation; nevertheless, the discussion of agency-center and inter-agency ties and the smallest space analysis suggested that there were network linkages among these parts. Whatever the functions of this network were, however, for practitioners, facilitating interaction with non-DSO agencies and with the community at large were not among them. What is doubly curious for the measure of CONTACT is that none of the other variables in the regression analysis contributed sig ificantly to the explanation either. With seven variables in the equation only 18% of the variance was accounted for. In the case of ACTIVISM substantially more of the variance, about 34%, was explained. Of this, almost half (14%) was attributable to EDUCATION, another 10% to STATUS (non-supervisory personnel were more active), and about 5% to GENDER (males were more active than females). In weighing these results, it is important to keep in mind that Illinois did not register unusually low on any of the three effectiveness measures (see Tables 1A, 1C, and 1D in this section). It is, therefore, not the intention here to characterize it as an unproductive program, but rather simply to point out that centrality in the network of professional exchanges in the program was not a significant contributor to the effectiveness of its individual participants.

For the South Carolina program it can be said that the network of exchanges among the evaluated parts of the system was actually counterproductive with respect to the participants' ties to the community outside the program. CENTRALITY was negatively related to both CONTACT and ACTIVISM, though the relationships fall just short of statistical significance. It is important to note that EXPERIENCE was also strongly and inversely related to CONTACT, but

that EDUCATION had a positive effect. The same pattern was true for ACTIVISM, but in this case GENDER, RACE, and PARTICIPATION made additional (positive) contributions. Interesting profiles emerge from this analysis. Contact with agencies outside this program were maintained largely by those participants who were better educated, but who were relatively inexperienced and relatively isolated from the channels of professional exchange within the program. Activities aimed at influencing the community climate for the treatment of status offenders also involved educated but relatively inexperienced and isolated personnel, but with the added distinction that they were somewhat dispropor-tionately likely to be male and white and be able to participate in the decision-making process within the DSO program. On the third effectiveness measure, subjective PERFORMANCE, a significant reversal occurred: network location had a strong positive effect on this variable. Clearly, perceptions of effectiveness followed a different logic of causation from that which seemed to apply to the objective effectiveness measures.*

A Note on Gender, Race, and Decision-Making.

Most of the discussion of the regression analysis has concentrated on the importance of the network variables as determinants of individual effectiveness. The effects of GENDER, RACE, and PARTICIPATION in the analysis also call for a brief additional comment. The effects of RACE were generally not at all large but were remarkably persistent. Non-whites were consistently a little more productive than whites, as measured by

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*This point is borne out by the absence of any relationships between subjective PERFORMANCE and CONTACT ($r=.01$) and ACTIVISM ($r=-.02$). In the other six programs, PERFORMANCE was related to CONTACT and ACTIVISM, respectively, as follows: Arizona (-.06, -.15); Delaware (.35, .21); Illinois (.12, .09); Spokane (.55, .35); Clark County (.13, .15); and Alameda County (-.13, .15).

CONTACT and ACTIVISM, and they generally rated their own and their program's efforts a little more favorably. There were only two real exceptions to this. In South Carolina it was whites who were more active in attempts to influence the community, and in Alameda County whites had slightly more contact with agencies outside the DSO program.

GENDER usually had very little impact on effectiveness and the effects were generally no more likely to favor men than women. Again, however, there were two exceptions. In South Carolina it was men who showed higher levels of ACTIVISM in the community, and in Alameda County it was men who were more likely to score high on the measure of subjective PERFORMANCE.

Finally, it should not escape attention that PARTICIPATION had scattered and inconsistent effects on effectiveness. It had a significant effect on ACTIVISM in Delaware and Spokane and had an effect on subjective PERFORMANCE in Illinois. On the whole, however, it was not a major factor in explaining effectiveness. It was argued earlier that professional practitioners expect and rely upon the ability to participate in the decision-making process and for this reason it seems odd that the measure was not more systematically related to their productivity. The conclusion that this suggests is that different internal administrative strategies, like different network arrangements, can be equally effective, even though a democratic style of decision-making is by far the preferred one among professional practitioners.

3. SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION

The participants in the seven DSO programs brought with them a repertoire of skills and attributes many of which would seem to have been relevant for their professional productivity. They were also assigned positions in the organizational structure of their employing agency and more often than not were allowed to participate with their supervisors in making work-related decisions. These organizational factors might also have been relevant to their effectiveness as practitioners. Yet, for the most part these personal and organizational factors had inconsistent, often trivial and sometimes negative effects on two objective and one subjective measures of effectiveness.

In direct contract to this, the four programs that had settled on distinctive strategies for pulling the scattered parts of the overall program together seem to have profited greatly from it. Two different inter-organizational coordinating strategies were apparent, one formalistic and one personalistic, but both appeared to function as important resource networks for the practitioners, judging from the fact that strategic placement in these networks contributed substantially to objective professional effectiveness. The two personalistic networks had an added advantage in that a favorable network location also contributed to a more favorable subjective assessment of program effectiveness.

In two other programs (in both of which the DSO effort was state-wide but for which we have only fragmentary information), the network relations that existed among the programs' sub-parts were not for individuals conducive to effectiveness. In one case neither the network variables nor any of the others seemed to have much impact, and in the other involvement in the network of professional ex-

changes had a distinctly negative impact on effectiveness.

It is significant that the four programs with what we have characterized as productive networks varied drastically in other ways, specifically in size and scope (from city-wide to state-wide), and in their emphasis on public and private agencies and resources (from predominantly public, to mixed, to predominantly private). It is also significant that they were assembled under conditions of uncertainty with, at best, ill-defined mandates to guide them. The fact that despite this diversity and uncertainty there was a clear pay-off from the strategies of coordination they developed offers strong testimony to the viability of the inter-organizational approach to service delivery.

The message from the two programs in which the networks did not seem to facilitate the practitioners' work is less clear. In one sense these programs serve as a useful caution against the uncritical acceptance of the inter-organizational strategy for social service delivery. On the other hand, it is unfortunate that the present data are unable to suggest conclusively just why involvement in the network was unproductive in one of these programs and actually counter-productive in the other. In Illinois the results for all the variables in the analysis were so thin that almost no clues for better understanding this program are suggested, except for the possibility that the quality of the data gathered for this program was insufficient to the task of evaluation. In the case of South Carolina, it may be that the network of internal linkages tying together the existing state youth service delivery sys- tem was simply not flexible enough to accomodate the goals of community contact and activism envisioned for DSO when they were superimposed upon the activities already going on there. This would not argue against the network approach per se, but would argue against expecting long-

established systems to be completely adaptable to a new mandate imposed
from the outside.

But this speculation about South Carolina, even if correct, is
incomplete because it says nothing about the fact that the aggregate
levels of community involvement were not lower than in the other programs.
In fact, the same can be said of Illinois. A division of labor must
have existed in these programs that delegated the maintenance of com-
munity ties to people who were not caught up in interaction with members
of other DSO agencies but the precise nature of this division of labor
and the reasons for it are beyond the capacity of the present data to
illuminate. The fact that only parts of these programs were available for
evaluation further obscures the problem. The problem posed by these two
troublesome cases suggests one other interesting line of inquiry, but one that
requires a different interpretation of the importance of community ties.
By simplifying the discussion even more than we have already done it is
possible to see four of the DSO programs (Arizona, Delaware, Spokane, and
Clark County) as representative of a strategy whereby extensive inter-agency
ties are for the most part maintained by the same individuals who are
involved in extensive program community ties and the other two (South
Carolina and Illinois) as representative of a strategy that separates
these two functions in that practitioners deeply involved in one activity
are likely to be freed from the other. The rationale for the first
strategy is basically the one that guided this entire investigation:
having extensive inter-agency alliances facilitates and is compatible with
the development of extensive ties to the community, and the conjunction
of the two represents a favorable program outcome. Is it possible that
another very different rationale guided the development of the DSO programs

in Illinois and South Carolina? By glossing over all the many
ambiguities in the data it is possible to surmise that these two programs
were structured on the assumption that the maintenance of agency-agency
ties and the maintenance of program-community ties are best separated and
that their conjunction would not represent a favorable outcome. What
is missing from this speculation and cannot be supplied here is a speci-
fication of which type of tie (to other agencies in the program or to the
larger community) is taken to be the one most vital to favorable client
outcomes, for the fact that they are functionally separated implies that
they are differentially evaluated.

This line of thinking takes us far beyond the available data and
it raises issues that cannot be dealt with here. Furthermore, it may
simply be wrong. An equally possible explanation for the Illinois and
South Carolina findings is that, rather than being expressions of dif-
ferent strategic assumptions, the networks that evolved there were
in fact simply ineffective in the sense that we have used the term,
and their levels of community- basedness were accomplished in spite
of their network deficiencies. There is no more direct evidence to
support this interpretation than the other one but it does have the
virtue of greater parsimony.

To conclude this report on a note of caution it needs to be pointed
out that the overall evaluation will be incomplete until the findings
related here can be tied in with data bearing directly on client outcomes.
On the whole, this organizational assessment has been favorable and cer-
tainly no information has appeared here to indicate that the DSO mandates
were not taken seriously. In the final accounting, however, all we have
shown is that inter-agency strategies are compatible with greater community

involvement and whether this eventuates in the delivery of higher quality services to clients is a question that will have to be answered elsewhere.

APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE

SURVEY OF THE NATIONAL DEMONSTRATION PROGRAM
FOR THE DEINSTITUTIONALIZATION OF STATUS OFFENDERS

Dear DSO Participant:

This questionnaire has been sent to all those who are participating in any way in the demonstration programs for the deinstitutionalization of status offenders. We rely on your responses to give us an accurate picture of the strong points of the program you participate in as well as its potential problem areas, if any exist. For purposes of answering the questions, please think of yourself just as a member of the DSO program.

In this survey we are not interested in analyzing or reporting the responses of any particular individual. Instead, we are interested in the average responses of all the members of each DSO program. For purposes of tabulating and reporting your answers will be coded and combined with the answers of the other respondents for computer processing. No one will be shown your individual responses and the confidentiality of your questionnaire is completely assured.

The accuracy and usefulness of this survey is dependent upon your cooperation. Please answer all the questions fully and return the form right away in the prepaid envelope we have provided.

Thank you very much for your time and your assistance.

Solomon Kobrin   Jon Miller

Principal Investigator   Consultant on
National Evaluation Staff   Organizational Evaluation

1. Name_____

_____Male   Age:_____years   _____Black

_____Female   _____White

_____Mexican American

_____American Indian

_____Puerto Rican

_____Oriental

_____Other

2. What is your relationship to the DSO program? Are you:

                  _____a full-time paid employee of the DSO project

                  _____a part-time paid employee of the DSO project

                  _____paid by another agency or organization but assigned to the DSO program

                  _____an unpaid volunteer

                  _____other (Specify_____)

3. <u>Place of employment</u>. Where do you report for work on the DSO program?

_____

      Street Address   City   State

4. What is the official title of your present job in the DSO program?

_____

Please give a brief description of your major tasks and responsibilities in the DSO program:

_____

_____

5. What do you consider to be your occupation? Please give as precise a title as you can (for example, social worker, clinical psychologist, vocational counselor and not "rehabilitation work," "youth work" or "administration").

_____

How many years of experience do you have in this occupation? _____years

6. When did you assume your present duties on the DSO program? _____Month _____Day _____Year

7. Please circle the highest level of education you have completed:

<u>Elementary School</u>   <u>High School</u>   <u>Undergraduate College</u>   <u>Graduate School</u>

  1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8   1 2 3 4   1 2 3 4 5   1 2 3 4 5 6 7+

What formal academic degree(s), if any, do you hold?

        1_____   2_____   3_____   4_____

SECTION II

THE QUESTIONS IN THIS SECTION ASK FOR YOUR OPINIONS ABOUT DIFFERENT ASPECTS
OF THE DSO PROGRAM AND THE TREATMENT OF JUVENILES. FOR EACH QUESTION CIRCLE
THE NUMBER THAT BEST EXPRESSES YOUR OPINION.

1. When you think about your own work in the DSO program, how effective do you think your
    efforts have been?

Not at all   Extremely
effective   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   effective

2. Based on the part of it you are familiar with, how effective would you say the DSO program
    has been in its treatment of juvenile clients?

Not at all   Extremely
effective   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   effective

3. Use the following scale to indicate the extent to which you think juveniles in trouble
    are responsible for their own problems.

The juvenile is   The juvenile is
usually to blame   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   usually not to blame
for his/her problems   for his/her problems

4. In dealing with juveniles who are in trouble, what is the best strategy?

Ordinarily, juve-   Ordinarily, juveniles
niles in trouble   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   in trouble should not
should receive punishment   receive punishment

5. On the following scale indicate the effect of social institutions as a contributing factor
    causing juveniles to get into trouble:

Not usually   Usually
a major factor   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   a major factor

6. How important are problems of psychological adjustment as a contributing factor causing
    juveniles to get into trouble?

Not usually   Usually
a major factor   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   a major factor

7. How important are the juvenile's immediate social surroundings as a contributing factor
    causing him/her to get into trouble?

Not usually   Usually
a major factor   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   a major factor

8. In your opinion, how much effort should those who deal with the problems of juveniles
    make to change the immediate social surroundings the juveniles have to live with?

Should be   Should be
given very   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   given a great
little effort   deal of effort

9. How much effort should those who deal with the problems of juveniles make to improve
    a child's psychological adjustment?

Should be   Should be
given very   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   given a great
little effort   deal of effort

10. How much effort should those who deal with the problems of juveniles make to change the
     social institutions of the surrounding community?

Should be   Should be
given very   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   given a great
little effort   deal of effort

SECTION III

BELOW IS A LIST OF ITEMS THAT SOMETIMES TROUBLE PEOPLE IN THEIR
WORK. USING THE CODE LETTERS PROVIDED, INDICATE HOW FREQUENTLY
YOU FEEL TROUBLED BY EACH ITEM IN YOUR WORK FOR THE DSO PROGRAM.

A	B	C	D	E
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Rather Often	Constantly

1. ____Feeling that you have too little authority to carry out the responsibilities assigned to you in the program.

2. ____Being unclear on just what the scope and responsibilities of your job in the program are.

3. ____Not knowing what opportunities for promotion or advancement exist for you in the program.

4. ____Feeling that you have too heavy a workload, one that you can't finish in a normal day.

5. ____Feeling that the information you need in your DSO work comes too late to be of much use.

6. ____Feeling that DSO organization is unable to keep you informed about changing conditions and problems that may affect your work.

7. ____Feeling that you need more training to do your job properly.

8. ____Being convinced that the DSO organization is unable to create a meaningful and rewarding work atmosphere for its personnel.

9. ____Thinking the meetings and paper work required by the DSO program take up too much of your time.

10. ____Thinking that you'll not be able to satisfy the conflicting demands of various people who rank above you in the DSO program.

11. ____Feeling that you are not fully qualified to handle your job because you need more experience in working with juveniles.

12. ____Not having enough opportunity to do the things you feel you are best at doing.

13. ____Thinking you cannot get the information about the problems and needs of juveniles that is necessary to do your job properly.

14. ____Not being able to try out your own ideas on the job.

15. ____Feeling that your progress on the job so far has not been what it should be.

16. ____Having to make decisions that affect other people working for the DSO program before you fully understand their problems.

17. ____Thinking that you are unable to influence the decisions and actions of those who evaluate your work in the DSO program.

18. ____Not knowing what those who judge your work in the DSO program think of your work or how they evaluate your performance.

19. ____Thinking that the amount of work you have to do for the DSO program interferes with how well it gets done.

20. ____Feeling that you have to do things for the DSO program that are against your better judgment.

21. ____Not knowing what resources are available to meet the needs of juveniles in the program.

22. ____Feeling that the DSO organization does not show enough concern for the welfare and satisfaction of those who work in the program.

23. ____Not knowing what the people you normally work with in the DSO program think of you.

24. ____Thinking that your future progress on your job in the DSO program is not likely to be what it should be.

25. ____Thinking that you have too much responsibility delegated to you by your superiors in the DSO program.

26. ____Believing that others in the DSO organization get ahead by making less of a contribution to the program than you do.

27. ____Thinking that your DSO work does not give you enough freedom to choose your co-workers.

28. ____Believing that there are too many rules and regulations to restrict you in your DSO work.

29. ____Feeling that those above you in the DSO program don't pay enough attention to your own opinions about your work in the program.

30. ____Feeling that your skills and qualifications don't count enough in determining your progress in the DSO program.

SECTION IV

A. THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS DESCRIBE YOUR RELATIONSHIP WITH THE
PERSON WHO SUPERVISES THE WORK YOU DO FOR THE DSO PROGRAM.
(IF YOU ARE A DSO PROGRAM DIRECTOR AND HAVE NO IMMEDIATE
SUPERVISOR IN THE PROGRAM, CHECK HERE____AND GO ON TO PART
B OF THIS SECTION ON THE NEXT PAGE.)

1. How often in the course of your work on the DSO program do you have contact with the
person who supervises the work you do for the program? Circle the appropriate letter:

A	B	C	D	E	F
Almost Constantly	Several times a day	Once or twice a day	Several times a week	About once a week	Less than once a week

2. How would you describe the time you spend with the person who supervises your work on the
DSO program? Circle the number that best represents your opinion:

The time is almost
never helpful to me   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   The time is almost
always helpful to me

3. Which of the following statements best describes your relationship with the person who
supervises the work you do for the DSO program?

_____We discuss things a great deal and come to a mutual decision about the task at hand.

_____We discuss things a great deal and the supervisor's decisions are usually adopted.

_____We discuss things a great deal and my decisions are usually adopted.

_____We don't discuss things very much but usually come to a mutual decision.

_____We don't discuss things very much and the supervisor's decisions are usually adopted.

_____We don't discuss things very much and my decisions are usually adopted.

4. If you could decide, how much would you prefer to participate with your DSO supervisor
in making the decisions that determine how you do your work in the program?

_____Less than at present

_____About the same as at present

_____More than at present

B. IF YOUR JOB INVOLVES SUPERVISING THE WORK OF OTHERS IN THE DSO PROGRAM, PLEASE ANSWER THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS. (IF YOU DO NOT SUPERVISE THE WORK OF ANYONE ELSE IN THE PROGRAM CHECK HERE____ AND GO ON TO THE NEXT SECTION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE.)

1. How many people working in the DSO program do you supervise, that is, how many must report directly to you in their work? _____

2. How often are you actually involved in directly supervising the work of others in the program? Circle the appropriate letter:

A	B	C	D	E	F
Almost Constantly	Several times a day	Once or twice a day	Several times a week	About once a week	Less than once a week

3. How would you describe the time you spend with those whose work on the DSO program you supervise? Circle the number on the scale that best describes your opinion:

The time is almost never helpful to me   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   The time is almost always helpful to me

4. Which of these statements best describes the relationship you have with those whose work in the DSO program you supervise?

_____We discuss things a great deal and come to a mutual decision about the task at hand.

_____We discuss things a great deal and my decision is usually adopted.

_____We discuss things a great deal and their decisions are usually adopted.

_____We don't discuss things very much but usually come to a mutual decision.

_____We don't discuss things very much and my decisions are usually adopted.

_____We don't discuss things very much and their decisions are usually adopted.

5. If you could decide, how much would you prefer to have those whose work you supervise participate with you in making the decisions that determine how they do their jobs?

_____Less than at present

_____About the same as at present

_____More than at present

THE QUESTIONS IN THIS SECTION ARE INTENDED TO GIVE US AN IDEA OF
THE RELATIONSHIPS AMONG THE PEOPLE WHO WORK ON THE DSO PROGRAMS.
ALL THE INFORMATION YOU GIVE US HERE WILL BE CODED AND ANALYZED
WITH COMPLETE CONFIDENTIALITY. IN ANSWERING THE QUESTIONS PLEASE
INCLUDE ONLY THE NAMES OF PEOPLE WHO YOU KNOW ARE DIRECTLY INVOLV-
ED IN THE WORK OF THE DSO PROGRAM.

1. In the spaces provided below, list the names of the three people in the DSO program with
   whom you have the most contact. Indicate by checking the primary reason for your contact
   with each person.

Primary reason for the contact
(Please check only the answer that best applies)

Names:	Sharing information and ideas about clients' problems	To find out about general DSO rules and procedures	Basically for reasons of friendship	Unavoidable; contact is required by the nature of the job
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

2. Please give the names of the three people on the DSO project who you feel actually
   have the greatest influence over how you do your work on the project.

   _____

   _____

   _____

3. If you wanted to have your own work on the DSO program evaluated, who are the three indivi-
   duals in the program whose opinion of your work you would respect the most?

   _____

   _____

   _____

4. If you had an opinion about the handling of juveniles that did not agree with official pol-
   icy, who are the three individuals in the DSO program you could count on to help you get a
   hearing for your point of view?

   _____

   _____

   _____

5. If you were working with a client who was an especially difficult case, who are the three
   people on the DSO project who could offer the most assistance in dealing with the problem?

   _____

   _____

   _____

THE QUESTIONS IN THIS SECTION ASK ABOUT YOUR CONTACTS WITH SOME OF THE ORGAN-
IZATIONS IN THE COMMUNITY THAT THE DSO PROGRAM MAY WORK WITH. IF YOU HAVE NO
CONTACT AT ALL WITH ANY ONE OF THE ORGANIZATIONS. LISTED, BE SURE TO INDICATE
THIS.

1. In the course of your work for the DSO program, how often do you come into contact with
   members of local police and/or sheriff's departments?

   ___NEVER (GO ON   ___Less   ___About   ___Several   ___Once or   ___Several   ___Almost
   TO QUESTION 2)   than   once   times a   twice a   times a   constantly
         once a week   a week   week   day   day

   Which of the following   ___To clarify the needs of individual DSO clients.
   best states the primary   ___To encourage a change in the way juveniles are handled.
   reason for these contacts?   ___To get the resources that clients need.
   (Check only one)   ___To encourage respect for the client as a person.

   On each of these scales circle the number that best describes the contacts you have with
   members of these local police and sheriff's departments:

Contacts never with people in positions of authority	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Contacts always with people in positions of authority
Contacts never produce benefits for DSO clients	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Contacts always produce benefits for DSO clients
Contacts never lead to closer coopera- tion with law enforcement	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Contacts always lead to closer cooperation with law enforcement

2. How often in the course of your work in the DSO program do you come into contact with
   representatives of local schools?

   ___NEVER(GO ON   ___Less   ___About   ___Several   ___Once or   ___Several   ___Almost
   TO QUESTION 3)   than   once   times a   twice a   times a   constantly
         once a week   a week   week   day   day

   Which of the following   ___To clarify the needs of individual DSO clients.
   best states the primary   ___To encourage a change in the way juveniles are handled.
   reason for these contacts?   ___To get the resources that clients need.
   (Check only one)   ___To encourage respect for the client as a person.

   On each of these scales circle the number that best describes the contacts you have with
   representatives of local schools:

Contacts never with people in positions of authority	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Contacts always with people in positions of authority
Contacts never produce benefits for DSO clients	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Contacts always produce benefits for DSO clients
Contacts never lead to closer coopera- tion with schools	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Contacts always lead to closer cooperation with schools

3. How often in the course of your work in the DSO program do you come into contact with representatives of local religious organizations?

NEVER (GO ON TO QUESTION 4)	Less than once a week	About once a week	Several times a week	Once or twice a day	Several times a day	Almost constantly

Which of the following best states the primary reason for these contacts? (Check only one)

___To clarify the needs of individual DSO clients.

___To encourage a change in the way juveniles are handled.

___To get the resources that clients need.

___To encourage respect for the client as a person.

On each of these scales circle the number that best describes the contacts you have with representatives of these local religious organizations:

Contacts never with people in positions of authority	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Contacts always with people in positions of authority

Contacts never produce benefits for DSO clients	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Contacts always produce benefits for DSO clients

Contacts never lead to closer cooperation with religious groups	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Contacts always lead to closer cooperation with religious groups

4. How often in the course of your work in the DSO program do you come into contact with representatives of private non-profit community organizations that deal with juveniles but are not actually part of the DSO program? (Examples might include organizations such as the YMCA and YWCA, Boys'Clubs, Big Brothers and other organizations of this type.)

NEVER (GO ON TO QUESTION 5)	Less than once a week	About once a week	Several times a week	Once or twice a day	Several times a day	Almost constantly

Which of the following best states the primary reason for these contacts? (Check only one)

___To clarify the needs of individual DSO clients.

___To encourage a change in the way juveniles are handled.

___To get the resources that clients need.

___To encourage respect for the client as a person

On each of these scales circle the number that best describes the contacts you have with representatives of these local private groups:

Contacts never with persons in positions of authority	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Contacts always with people in positions of authority

Contacts never produce benefits for DSO clients	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Contacts always produce benefits for DSO clients

Contacts never lead to closer coopera- tion with these local private groups	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Contacts always lead to closer cooperation with these local private groups

5. How often in the course of your work in the DSO program do you come into contact with representatives of the courts?

NEVER(GO ON TO QUESTION 6)	Less than once a week	About once a week	Several times a week	Once or twice a day	Several times a day	Almost constantly

Which of the following best states the primary reason for these contacts? (Check only one)

___To clarify the needs of individual DSO clients.
___To encourage a change in the way juveniles are handled.
___To get the resources that clients need.
___To encourage respect for the client as a person.

On each of these scales circle the number that best describes the contacts you have with representatives of the courts:

Contacts never with persons in positions of authority	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Contacts always with people in positions of authority

Contacts never produce benefits for DSO clients	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Contacts always produce benefits for DSO clients

Contacts never lead to closer cooperation with the courts	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Contacts always lead to closer cooperation with the courts

6. How often in the course of your work in the DSO program do you come into contact with representatives of local public social service agencies, such as welfare agencies, employment services, mental health agencies, public health agencies and the like?

NEVER (GO ON TO QUESTION 7)	Less than once a week	About once a week	Several times a week	Once or twice a day	Several times a day	Almost constantly

Which of the following best states the primary reason for these contacts? (Check only one)

___To clarify the needs of individual DSO clients.
___To encourage a change in the way juveniles are handled.
___To get the resources that clients need.
___To encourage respect for the client as a person

On each of these scales circle the number that best describes the contacts you have with representatives of local public service agencies:

Contacts never with persons in positions of authority	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Contacts always with persons in positions of authority

Contacts never produce benefits for DSO clients	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Contacts always produce benefits for DSO clients

Contacts never lead to closer cooperation with these local public service agencies	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Contacts always lead to closer cooperation with these local public service agencies

7. Finally, how often in the course of your work in the DSO program are you involved in each of the following kinds of community activity?

	Never	Less than once a week	About once a week	Several times a week	Once or twice a day	Several times a day	Almost constantly
How often are you involved in efforts to get more local economic support for programs for juveniles?	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
How often are you involved in efforts to get more community organizations involved in the problems of juveniles?	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
How often are you involved in attempting to influence local policies on the ways the problems of juveniles are handled?	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
How often are you involved in attempts to get better local treatment resources for the problems of juveniles?	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR PATIENCE IN FILLING OUT THIS QUESTIONNAIRE. PLEASE CHECK TO SEE THAT ALL QUESTIONS ARE ANSWERED FULLY BEFORE RETURNING THE FORM TO US.

APPENDIX B
ALAMEDA COUNTY
QUESTIONNAIRE MODIFICATION

THE LEAA FUNDED DSO PROGRAM IN ALAMEDA COUNTY INVOLVES A FAIRLY LARGE NUMBER OF
PEOPLE WHO WORK IN THE FAMILY CRISIS INTERVENTION UNITS OF THE PROBATION DEPART-
MENT AS WELL AS PEOPLE WHO WORK IN SEVERAL YOUTH SERVICE CENTERS AROUND THE COUNTY.
THE QUESTIONS IN THIS SECTION ARE DESIGNED TO GIVE US AN IDEA OF THE RELATIONSHIPS
AMONG THE PEOPLE WHO ARE PARTICIPATING IN THE PROGRAM. AS YOU ANSWER THE QUESTIONS
THINK OF THE DSO PROGRAM AS THE OVERALL COUNTY-WIDE EFFORT, NOT JUST IN TERMS OF
YOUR OWN SPECIFIC OFFICE OR AGENCY.

1. Please think of the three poeple in the overall Alameda County DSO program with
    whom you have the most contact in the course of the work you do for the program.
    In the spaces provided list the agency or specific office that each of these
    people works for. Indicate by checking the primary reason for your contact
    with each person.

Primary reason for the contact
(Please check only the answer that best applies)

Agency name (List a specific FCI unit or Youth Service Center)	Sharing information and ideas about clients' problems	To find out about general DSO rules and procedures	Basically for reasons of friendship	Unavoidable: contact is required by the nature of the task
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

2. List the agency or specific office of each of the three people who work for the
    DSO program in Alameda County who you feel actually have the greatest influence
    over how you do your work on the project.

                        _____
                        _____
                        _____

3. If you wanted to have your own work on the DSO program evaluated, who are the three
    individuals in the program whose opinion of your work you would respect the most?
    In the space provided list the agency or specific office in which each of these three
    people works.

                        _____
                        _____
                        _____

4. If you had an opinion about the handling of juveniles that did not agree with official
    policy, who are the three individuals in the overall DSO program you could count on
    to help you get a hearing for your point of view? In the spaces provided, list just
    the agency or office that each works for.

                        _____
                        _____
                        _____

5. If you were working with a client who was an especially difficult case, who are
    the three people in the overall County DSO program who could offer the most assist-
    ance in dealing with the problem? In the spaces provided, list the agency or office
    that each works for.

                        _____
                        _____
                        _____

APPENDIX C

CORRELATION MATRICES

TABLE C1.   CORRELATIONS AMONG INDIVIDUAL RESOURCES, ORGANIZATIONAL POSITION,
                   NETWORK LOCATION, COMMUNITY CONTACT, COMMUNITY ACTIVISM AND SUBJECTIVE PERFORMANCE.

ARIZONA

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1	Gender	---													
2	Race	-.22	---												
3	Experience	-.02	-.08	---											
4	Education	.02	.21	.05	---										
5	Status	-.04	.03	-.17	-.42	---									
6	Participation	.03	-.12	.11	-.10	.22	---								
7	Work Contact	.18	.04	.16	.23	-.35	-.01	---							
8	Influence	.26	.03	.72	.16	-.26	.01	.78	---						
9	Respect	.27	-.09	.18	.31	-.32	.02	.65	.66	---					
10	Support	.27	-.01	.16	.27	-.34	-.06	.69	.82	.84	---				
11	Assistance	.15	-.06	.08	.24	-.22	-.05	.48	.56	.68	.67	---			
12	Contact	.13	-.10	.11	.33	-.29	-.04	.22	.21	.40	.39	.37	---		
13	Activism	.18	-.11	.19	.19	-.34	-.01	.34	.29	.46	.41	.35	.56	---	
14	Performance	.04	-.12	.15	-.10	.26	.01	-.05	-.09	-.08	-.08	-.18	-.06	-.15	---

TABLE C2. CORRELATIONS AMONG INDIVIDUAL RESOURCES, ORGANIZATIONAL POSITION,
NETWORK LOCATION, COMMUNITY CONTACT, COMMUNITY ACTIVISM AND SUBJECTIVE PERFORMANCE.

DELAWARE

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1	Gender	---													
2	Race	-.06	---												
3	Experience	-.16	-.19	---											
4	Education	.28	.02	.11	---										
5	Status	.24	-.20	-.27	-.06	---									
6	Participation	.00	-.10	-.01	-.10	.18	---								
7	Work Contact	-.02	-.21	-.06	.12	.00	-.53	---							
8	Influence	-.16	.03	-.03	.19	-.31	-.31	.51	---						
9	Respect	-.16	.12	.04	.24	-.50	-.32	.40	.69	---					
10	Support	-.22	.04	-.04	.21	-.35	-.41	.54	.90	.78	---				
11	Assistance	.16	.08	-.03	.31	-.33	-.31	.32	.66	.78	.62	---			
12	Contact	-.03	-.18	-.21	-.16	-.03	.16	.11	.29	.12	.11	.24	---		
13	Activism	.18	-.40	-.16	.15	.03	.18	.29	.45	.19	.38	.15	.42	---	
14	Performance	.17	-.08	-.03	.06	.05	-.05	-.05	.07	.02	.02	.19	.35	.21	---

TABLE C3.   CORRELATIONS AMONG INDIVIDUAL RESOURCES, ORGANIZATIONAL POSITION,
                NETWORK LOCATION, COMMUNITY CONTACT, COMMUNITY ACTIVISM AND SUBJECTIVE PERFORMANCE.

ILLINOIS

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1	Gender	---													
2	Race	-.15	---												
3	Experience	.21	.02	---											
4	Education	.15	-.04	-.06	---										
5	Status	-.29	-.09	-.13	-.50										
6	Participation	-.17	-.18	-.07	-.07	.17	---								
7	Work Contact	-.04	.25	-.25	.06	-.02	-.03	---							
8	Influence	-.02	.27	-.25	.07	-.02	-.06	.99	---						
9	Respect	-.02	.27	-.25	.08	-.03	-.05	.97	.99	---					
10	Support	-.03	.27	-.26	.06	.01	-.07	.97	.99	.97	---				
11	Assistance	-.04	.28	-.26	.10	-.03	-.07	.97	.97	.98	.96	---			
12	Contact	.06	-.11	-.07	.27	-.22	.15	-.07	-.07	-.06	-.06	-.03	---		
13	Activism	.23	-.15	.07	.41	-.49	.03	.04	.05	.05	.02	.06	.57	---	
14	Performance	-.11	.03	-.10	-.02	.02	.34	-.12	-.15	-.14	-.18	-.12	.12	.09	---

TABLE C4.　　　　　　　CORRELATIONS AMONG INDIVIDUAL RESOURCES, ORGANIZATIONAL POSITION,
NETWORK LOCATION, COMMUNITY CONTACT, COMMUNITY ACTIVISM AND SUBJECTIVE PERFORMANCE.

SOUTH CAROLINA

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1 Gender	---													
2 Race	-.11	---												
3 Experience	.11	.26	---											
4 Education	.27	.06	.07	---										
5 Status	-.07	-.20	.11	-.55	---									
6 Participation	-.40	-.01	-.27	-.02	-.18	---								
7 Work Contact	-.05	.21	.02	.42	-.48	.29	---							
8 Influence	.00	.20	.04	.36	-.49	.23	.86	---						
9 Respect	-.04	.22	.00	.39	-.44	.22	.86	.81	---					
10 Support	-.19	.02	-.69	.00	-.36	.41	.48	.53	.52	---				
11 Assistance	-.27	.04	-.64	.05	-.29	.41	.59	.54	.57	.94	---			
12 Contact	.13	-.18	-.35	.23	-.15	-.05	-.22	-.24	-.25	.01	-.04	---		
13 Activism	.35	.12	-.16	.46	-.33	.08	-.08	-.06	-.12	-.03	-.11	.76	---	
14 Performance	.20	-.11	-.02	-.03	-.13	-.19	.26	.19	.19	.07	.13	.01	-.02	---

TABLE C5.   CORRELATIONS AMONG INDIVIDUAL RESOURCES, ORGANIZATIONAL POSITION, NETWORK LOCATION, COMMUNITY CONTACT, COMMUNITY ACTIVISM AND SUBJECTIVE PERFORMANCE.

SPOKANE

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1	Gender	---													
2	Race	.23	---												
3	Experience	.16	.13	---											
4	Education	.40	.39	-.15	---										
5	Status	-.22	-.14	-.45	-.06	---									
6	Participation	-.24	-.15	-.44	.10	.13	---								
7	Work Contact	-.09	.12	-.15	.05	-.15	.26	---							
8	Influence	-.09	.12	-.11	.04	-.17	.27	.99	---						
9	Respect	.00	.14	-.25	.10	-.06	.16	.84	.82	---					
10	Support	-.02	.12	-.17	.15	-.12	.28	.72	.71	.87	---				
11	Assistance	-.01	.13	-.13	.20	-.09	.25	.73	.70	.86	.98	---			
12	Contact	-.13	-.22	-.07	-.08	.11	.16	.38	.37	.46	.30	.29	---		
13	Activism	.07	-.13	.39	-.01	-.18	.07	.10	.12	.22	.16	.18	.60	---	
14	Performance	-.17	-.10	-.22	-.12	-.02	.20	.61	.60	.66	.49	.49	.55	.35	---

TABLE C6.   CORRELATIONS AMONG INDIVIDUAL RESOURCES, ORGANIZATIONAL POSITION, NETWORK LOCATION, COMMUNITY CONTACT, COMMUNITY ACTIVISM AND SUBJECTIVE PERFORMANCE.

CLARK COUNTY

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1 Gender	---													
2 Race*	---	---												
3 Experience	.25	---	---											
4 Education	.44	---	.11	---										
5 Status	.27	---	-.32	.22	---									
6 Participation	.12	---	-.18	.16	.23	---								
7 Work Contact	-.16	---	.05	-.02	-.29	.08	---							
8 Influence	-.14	---	.05	.09	-.22	.11	.93	---						
9 Respect	-.06	---	.16	-.17	-.56	-.12	.79	.76	---					
10 Support	-.19	---	-.17	-.19	-.08	-.18	.65	.66	.67	---				
11 Assistance	.04	---	-.04	-.03	-.31	.28	.70	.61	.68	.24	---			
12 Contact	-.23	---	-.12	-.12	-.24	-.27	.51	.33	.36	.61	.10	---		
13 Activism	-.13	---	-.45	-.01	.12	.24	.05	.00	-.07	.00	.09	.60	---	
14 Performance	-.05	---	.00	.28	-.23	.13	.29	.43	.40	.16	.32	.13	.15	---

* All respondents were white.

TABLE C7.   CORRELATIONS AMONG INDIVIDUAL RESOURCES, ORGANIZATIONAL POSITION,
    NETWORK LOCATION, COMMUNITY CONTACT, COMMUNITY ACTIVISM AND SUBJECTIVE PERFORMANCE.

ALAMEDA COUNTY*

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1	Gender	---								
2	Race	.07	---							
3	Experience	.09	-.05	---						
4	Education	.30	.11	.25	---					
5	Status	-.14	-.09	.35	.25	---				
6	Participation	-.16	-.03	.07	.11	.08	---			
7	Contact	.00	.08	.18	.08	.19	.14	---		
8	Activism	.10	.12	.17	.28	.32	.06	.32	---	
9	Performance	.22	.02	.14	.18	-.08	.06	-.13	.15	---

* Network measures not available.