



This is to certify that the

thesis entitled

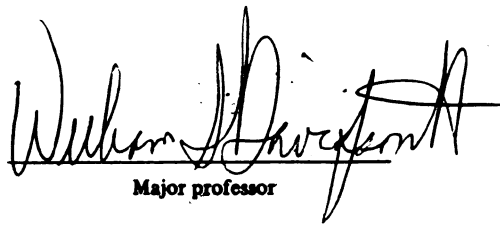
The Diversion of Juvenile Delinquents:
A first step toward the dissemination
of a successful innovation

presented by

Craig H. Blakely

has been accepted towards fulfillment
of the requirements for

Ph.D. degree in Psychology


Major professor

Date 12/10/80



OVERDUE FINES:

25¢ per day per item

RETURNING LIBRARY MATERIALS:

Place in book return to remove charge from circulation record:

<p>5098</p> <p>24 R 310</p> <p>12</p> <p>326</p> <p>2342</p> <p>B-014</p> <p>087</p> <p>115</p> <p>WOSI</p>	<p>KAN 05 '86 011</p> <p>JCT 12 '87</p> <p>118</p> <p>05 1997</p> <p>FEB 10 2002</p> <p>02 09 02</p> <p>MAY 10 2006</p>
---	---

THE DIVERSION OF JUVENILE DELINQUENTS:
A FIRST STEP TOWARD THE DISSEMINATION
OF A SUCCESSFUL INNOVATION

By

Craig H. Blakely

A DISSERTATION

Submitted to
Michigan State University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

Department of Psychology

1981

ABSTRACT

THE DIVERSION OF JUVENILE DELINQUENTS: A FIRST STEP TOWARD THE DISSEMINATION OF A SUCCESSFUL INNOVATION

By

Craig H. Blakely

Since the juvenile court came under critical attack in the early 1960's, diversion of juvenile offenders from formal system involvement has become an increasingly frequent occurrence. Diversion typically occurs at some point between formal adjudication and disposition. Frequently alternative community intervention strategies are implemented.

Although reports of the effectiveness of diversion programs in the literature have been mixed, the Adolescent Diversion Project has been a specific example of a successful diversion program. Given the inconclusive evidence noted in the literature supporting diversion programs in general, the degree to which the diversion component was a core component in this program became a critical question. This study examined the extent to which previous successful outcome results could be replicated within the structure of the juvenile court system. Could the intervention model itself account for the results without actually diverting the youth from the formal system?

Juvenile offenders were referred from the county juvenile court and were randomly assigned to experimental or court treatment as usual control conditions. Youth who were assigned to the experimental conditions were

randomly assigned to work on a one-to-one basis with university undergraduates who received extensive training and supervision. The students spent six to eight hours a week working with assigned youth. Two primary intervention strategies were employed. Behavioral contracting was used to clarify and modify interpersonal contingencies operating between the youth and significant others. In addition, child advocacy techniques were implemented in an attempt to insure the welfare of the youth by protecting his/her rights and helping to locate or generate the requisite resources to fulfill the youth's unmet needs and wants.

Experimental youth and volunteers were also randomly assigned to one of two intervention conditions. Volunteers in the diversion condition continued to implement the intervention strategies with diverted youth in a manner practiced by previous project volunteers. Volunteers in the court condition were trained by project staff in the identical intervention strategies. However, they were supervised by a court staff member. The degree to which the different supervision strategies affected the intervention process constituted the primary independent variable that distinguished the two intervention conditions.

Multiple measures were used to evaluate the effectiveness of the intervention conditions on several dimensions. Were differential archival outcome results (court, police, school) observed? Did the volunteers intervene in a similar fashion? How did the experience impact on the volunteers?

Process data indicated that the volunteers in the court condition substantially altered the intervention model during implementation. Their intervention goals seemed considerably different than goals of volunteers in the diversion condition. These findings were confirmed by the results

of the volunteer measures. Volunteers in the court condition did not retain as much of the training material, did not value the training experience, viewed delinquents in a negative light, and were much more likely to recommend punitive intervention strategies than volunteers in the diversion condition.

Outcome results suggested that court condition youth were more likely to recidivate and receive a more serious dispositional decision regardless of the seriousness of the offense. Degree of active system involvement appeared related to ultimate penetration into the system following subsequent recidivism.

Results pointed to the fact that volunteers trained in a specific delinquency intervention model drastically altered the implementation of that model as a function of the supervision employed during intervention. Further interpretations of the findings and implications for diversion research and social change strategies in general were discussed. Likely directions for future research efforts were also noted.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

As with any longitudinal research effort, successful completion is dependent upon the help and cooperation of a great number of peers, companions and participants. Foremost was the assistance provided by my committee chairman, Bill Davidson. His stimulation during my undergraduate years was instrumental in my pursuing a graduate career in the social sciences. His support and friendship during my graduate career were invaluable. The expertise offered by my other committee members, Neal Schmitt, Ralph Levine, Esther Fergus, and Glenn Shippee was also appreciated. Their constructive comments made for a better end product.

I feel very fortunate to have worked with the Adolescent Diversion Project. The atmosphere is very clearly that of a home away from home. The example, companionship and encouragement afforded by those staff members that have departed before me, Ricki Kantrowitz, Jim Emshoff, and Tina Mitchell, made the entire process much easier than it might have been. A special thanks goes to Isa Fernandez for her company, support and editorial comments during the hectic three week interval immediately preceding orals when time was clearly running out. A large number of staff members were directly involved in the implementation of this project. John Jeppesen and Tina Mitchell assisted in the supervision of students. Debbie Bybee and John Jeppesen collected the outcome data. Jeana Chodakowski, Julie Parisian, Cheryl Saylor and Karen Badger supervised the interviewers' collection of process data. Without

their assistance this project would never have materialized.

A special appreciation goes to John Cole, the court intake referee who supervised the court group. I am amazed even today that he was able to juggle the political pressures at the court and retain his job despite the added pressure brought about by his involvement in this project.

My friends, who provided support, encouragement and diversion throughout this trying experience, might only guess at how important their contributions have been. I'd especially like to thank Barb Schulz whose love and companionship were always there when they were needed most and my parents, Jane and Paul Blakely, whose support and encouragement have been extremely valued.

And last, but not least, my sincere appreciation goes to the undergraduate volunteers and the youth and their families directly involved in the project. It is my hope that the benefits received by these individuals exceeded the picture drawn by the aggregate conclusions here.

100
100
100
100

100
100

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
LIST OF TABLES	vii
LIST OF FIGURES.	ix
LIST OF APPENDICES	x
INTRODUCTION	1
Present Perspective	1
Historical Perspective.	3
Historical Development of the Juvenile Justice System. . .	3
Critique of the Juvenile Justice System.	5
Theories of Delinquency.	6
Individual differences.	7
Sociological theories	8
Behavioral theories	10
Labeling theory	12
The Need for an Alternative	14
Community Based Intervention Alternative	15
Diversion Alternative.	17
The Use of Nonprofessionals as Change Agents	20
Rationale for the Present Line of Research.	21
The Adolescent Diversion Project	22
Innovation Dissemination	25
The Current Research.	26
Research Questions	27
METHOD	30
Context of the Research	30
Subjects.	31
Youth Referred	31
Nonprofessional Volunteers	31
Trainers/Supervisors	32
Design.	33
Procedure	37
Recruitment of Students.	37
Selection of volunteers	38
Selection of research assistants.	38
Youth Referral	39
Assignment of Youth to Student Volunteers.	41
Volunteer Training	41
Diversion training.	43
Court training.	48

	Page
Interviewer Training	48
Supervision.	50
Diversion supervision	50
Court supervision	51
Intervention	52
Diversion intervention.	52
Court intervention.	55
Measures.	56
Archival Measures.	56
Police records.	57
Court records	57
School records.	57
Interview Based Measures	58
Life domain measures.	59
Self-reported delinquency measure	59
Labeling measures	60
Police reference	61
Court reference.	61
Project reference.	61
Label acceptance/rejection	63
Process measures.	63
Amount of time	66
Volunteer contacts	66
Recreational activities.	66
Home involvement focused on changing the parent. . .	66
Home involvement focused on changing the youth . . .	67
School intervention focused on changing the school .	67
School intervention focused on changing the youth. .	67
Legal system intervention.	67
Contracting.	68
Advocacy	68
Nonprofessional Volunteer Measures	68
Knowledge acquisition and retention	68
Volunteer training satisfaction	69
Volunteer attitude.	70
Individual punitive.	70
Radical-nonintervention.	70
RESULTS.	71
Youth Outcome Measures.	72
Archival Data.	73
Police data	73
Court data.	81
School data	90
Summary of archival outcome data.	94
Interview Based Measures	94
Self-reported delinquency	96
Labeling outcome.	96
Police reference	98
Court reference.	98
Project reference.	98

	Page
Label acceptance/rejection.	102
Summary of labeling measures.	102
Process measures	104
Amount of time.	104
Volunteer contacts.	106
Summary of general volunteer involvement.	106
Recreational activities	106
Home involvement focused on changing the parent . . .	109
Home involvement focused on changing the youth. . . .	109
Summary of home interventions	113
School intervention focused on changing the school. .	113
School intervention focused on changing the youth . .	113
Summary of school interventions	115
Legal system interventions.	115
Summary of legal system interventions	119
Contracting interventions	119
Advocacy interventions.	119
Summary of process measures.	123
Impact on Nonprofessional Volunteers	125
Course Related Measures	125
Knowledge acquisition/retention measure.	125
Volunteer training satisfaction.	126
Volunteer Attitude Measures	126
Individual punitive.	130
Radical-nonintervention.	130
Summary of nonprofessional data.	130
Overview of Findings	130
DISCUSSION.	134
Questions Posed by this Study.	134
Archival Outcome Results.	135
Self-reported Estimates of Delinquent Behavior.	140
Labeling Effects.	141
Intervention Process Findings	143
Impact on the Volunteers.	148
Limitations of this Research	150
Implications and Conclusions	153
Major Research Issues Raised in this Study.	153
Degree of implementation of the model.	153
Outcome.	155
Future Directions.	156
Diversion	156
Social Change	157
APPENDICES.	159
REFERENCES.	263

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
1 Research Design for Archival Outcome Measure	35
2 Research Design for Nonarchival Measures	36
3 Labeling Scales Intercorrelations.	62
4 Intervention Process Scales Intercorrelations.	64
5 Inter-Interviewer Agreement Correlations Intervention Process Scales	65
6 Archival Court and Police Data Intercorrelations	74
7 Police Contacts Adjusted for Time at Risk.	75
8 Pre-Post Police Contacts Adjusted for Time at Risk	77
9 Average Seriousness of Police Contacts	79
10 Pre-Post Average Seriousness of Police Contacts.	80
11 Most Serious Police Disposition.	82
12 Pre-Post Most Serious Police Disposition	83
13 Court Petitions Adjusted for Time at Risk.	84
14 Pre-Post Court Petitions Adjusted for Time at Risk	86
15 Average Seriousness of Court Petitions	87
16 Most Serious Court Disposition	88
17 Pre-Post Average Seriousness of Court Petitions.	89
18 Pre-Post Most Serious Court Disposition.	91
19 Months Incarcerated.	92
20 Number of Youth Enrolled in School	93
21 Summary of Archival Outcome Results.	95
22 Self-Reported Delinquency.	97

Table	Page
23 Youth's Rating of Labelers Knowledge of Contact with Police. .	99
24 Youth's Rating of Labelers Knowledge of Court Contacts	100
25 Youth's Rating of Labelers Knowledge of Project Involvement. .	101
26 Label Acceptance/Rejection	103
27 Amount of Intervention Time.	105
28 Volunteer/Youth Contacts	107
29 Recreational Activities.	108
30 Home Intervention Focused on Changing Parent	111
31 Home Intervention Focused on Changing Youth.	112
32 School Intervention Focused on Changing the School	114
33 School Intervention Focused on Changing the Youth.	116
34 Intervention in the Legal System	117
35 Contracting Intervention Activity.	120
36 Advocacy Intervention Activity	122
37 Summary of Intervention Results.	124
38 Volunteer Training Test.	127
39 Evaluation of Didactic Training.	129
40 Delinquency Orientation Individual Punitive.	131
41 Delinquency Orientation Radical Non-Intervention	132

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure	Page
1 Project Organizational Structure	34
2 Recreational Activities.	110
3 Contracting Intervention Activities.	121
4 Volunteer Training Test.	128

LIST OF APPENDICES

Appendix	Page
A Draft of Administrative Agreement	159
B Recruitment Letter.	160
C Student Agreement	161
D Referral Sheet.	162
E Participation Agreement	163
F Release of School Records	164
G Diversion Training Manual	165
H Seriousness and Dispositional Codes for Archival Court and Police Data.	244
I Self Report Delinquency Questionnaire	245
J Label Spread Instruction Form	248
K Label Spread Answer Sheet	249
L Intervention Opinions	250
M Course Evaluation	255
N Delinquency Orientation Scale	258

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Present Perspective

The past two decades have brought a phenomenal increase in the crime rates in this country and a resultant public awareness and outcry. The acuteness of this trend was evident in the dialogue of public office seekers of the recent political campaigns on both the national level and the local level in central Michigan. Saleem Shah, Director of the Center for Studies of Crime and Delinquency of the National Institutes of Mental Health, capsulized this trend with the following statement:

It can be said with little fear of exaggeration that the phenomena of delinquency and crime constitute one of the most critical domestic problems presently facing the country (Shah, 1973).

Though the rapid increase in the incident rates of juvenile crime has slowed somewhat in the past five years, the acuteness of the present state of affairs can be evidenced by comparing recent statistics with those gathered during 1960. During the decade and a half from 1960 to 1975, crimes increased by just over 200%. The President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice (1967) estimated that one out of nine in the population would have contact with the juvenile justice system prior to reaching the age of eighteen. The rate was calculated to be one in six if only males were considered. Wolfgang, Figlio, and Sellin (1974) found that approximately one-third of the males born in Philadelphia in 1945 had official police contacts prior to the age of eighteen.

In 1978, over 23% of all arrests made in the United States were youth under the age of eighteen. If only index crimes are considered (homicide, rape, robbery, aggravated assault, burglary, larceny, and auto theft), 41% of those arrests were under the age of eighteen (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1979). Currently, 22% of all males and 30% of all females arrested have not yet reached the age of eighteen (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1979).

This alarming increase in the rate of juvenile crime has fueled an increasing disillusionment with the juvenile justice system as a viable method of directly addressing the problem. A broad spectrum of methodologies aimed at correcting the failures of the current system have been suggested. These range from the utilization of extremely punitive deterrence orientated approaches to the adoption of strategies aimed at protecting youth from the harmful labeling effects of the juvenile justice system as it currently exists. Unfortunately, there was no agreement upon which strategy to adopt, consequently the problem remained. In light of this, the President's Commission on Law Enforcement (1967) challenged both the juvenile justice system and the community to jointly develop viable means of intervening with juveniles. The diversion of juveniles from the juvenile justice system through an alternative community agency has been a direct outgrowth of these perspectives.

Though diversion programs typically remove juveniles from further contact with the juvenile justice system, they also generally provide an alternative intervention program. The current research proposed to compare three intervention strategies. The first group of youth were diverted from the system and placed in a program operated through the Department of Psychology at Michigan State University. Undergraduates trained in

child advocacy and behavioral contracting techniques were assigned to work with these youth. A second group of youth were also assigned undergraduates trained in the same advocacy and contracting techniques. However, these youth were not formally diverted from the juvenile justice system. Youth in third group were also not diverted from the juvenile justice system and received treatment as usual from that court system.

The following sections will outline the historical events that led to the present perspective and the need for alternatives. The first section will present a general description of the conception and growth of the juvenile justice system. It will be followed by a critique of the current system's delinquency control efforts. The third section will detail the concurrent historical development of the major theoretical explanations of juvenile delinquency. The following section will attempt to draw from these theories and outline the need for alternatives to the traditional juvenile justice system. The specific alternatives that led directly to the current research will then be developed, ultimately leading to the final research questions posed by this study.

Historical Perspective

Historical Development of the Juvenile Justice System

Juvenile delinquency and society's responses to this problem can be traced to precolonial days in Europe, however, for present purposes the most meaningful place of departure would be the dawn of the industrial revolution in America around the turn of the 19th century. Increased child labor contributed to the weakening of family ties. The social control system based upon strong family units also began to deteriorate. These deteriorating family units coupled with the move towards urban areas, increasing population density, and prevalent poverty conditions led to a

drastic decline in traditional forms of social control. These conditions led to the first house of refuge opened in New York in 1825 (Krisberg & Austin, 1978). Within the next several years, houses of refuge were started across the country. These houses were essentially prisons for delinquents; however, they were viewed as schools for instruction rather than places of punishment. Since they were founded as preventative institutions, these houses of refuge accepted delinquent, dependent and neglected youth, a practice which continues to this day in the juvenile justice system. During the second half of the 19th century, most states took over jurisdiction of the houses of refuge and they became known as state reform schools.

The 20th century version of the juvenile justice system began in Illinois in 1899 with the passage of the first comprehensive child welfare legislation in this country. This legislation was a direct attempt to protect the youth from the mistreatment that had historically been a part of the houses for wayward youth and state reform schools. The legislation was also intended to protect society from the misdeeds of the delinquent youth. The thrust of the initial Illinois legislation was to provide for the care of the youth in a manner similar to the care given by a typical responsible parent. The youth were essentially denied legal safeguards provided for in adult courts in exchange for the parentlike concern and individualized justice and treatment provided by the juvenile court.

The juvenile court in Illinois quickly expanded. By 1901 status offenses, those offenses unique only to juveniles, were incorporated into the court's sphere of influence. By 1905, the court was also responsible for the supervision and treatment of youthful offenders. Finally, by 1907, the court incorporated its own paid professional probation staff.

By the mid 1920's, virtually every state had its own separate juvenile justice system. Though they were heavily influenced by the leading delinquency theorists of the day, the juvenile courts continued in this preventive substitute parent role through the mid 1960's (Krisberg & Austin, 1978).

Critique of the Juvenile Justice System

During the juvenile court's first half century of existence, operating procedures fluctuated as a function of the changing philosophies of the times. However, the court continued with its informal operating principles and "apparent lack of concern for troubled youths."

In the mid 1960's, the juvenile court came under stringent attack from many perspectives. These criticisms are evident in a series of court decisions that attacked the very basis of the juvenile court structure. In *Kent vs. the U.S.* (1966) the juvenile courts were warned against procedural arbitrariness. And in a landmark case (*Gault*, 1967), the court recognized the constitutionally guaranteed rights to due process for juveniles. In a majority opinion, Justice Abe Fortes stated "under our constitution the condition of being a boy does not justify a kangaroo court" (*Gault*, 1967). Though these legal decisions did offer additional procedural safeguards to juveniles, many felt that the remedy to the court's problems did not lie in the increased formality of proceedings but in the lack of treatment resources.

Another frequently levied criticism of the juvenile justice system centered around its exclusive reliance on the use of police contacts and referrals as well as court contacts and disposition as the sole definition of delinquency. It has been claimed that these official archival records are more a measure of police behavior than they are a measure of deviant behavior (Gold, 1966; Farrington, 1973; Williams & Gold, 1972). It has also

been pointed out that most delinquent behaviors are not officially observed or reported, and would, therefore, not appear in official records (Blakely, Kushler, Parisian, & Davidson, 1979).

Such a focus has led many, especially police and court officials, to erroneously conclude that delinquency is essentially a lower socio-economic class phenomena centered within minority groups living primarily in urban areas. This assumption in turn initiates a cycle which biases official police and court behavior and is reflected in the demographic characteristics of youth that come in contact with the system.

As these conclusions suggest, the present state of affairs is in a bit of an uproar. Researchers and practitioners in the field are evaluating numerous alternatives to the system as it presently exists. Prior to outlining these alternatives, the next section will detail the major theories of delinquency as they led to these alternatives and ultimately the development of the current research.

Theories of Delinquency

Following the first decade of operation of the probate court in Illinois, the conclusion was reached that many juveniles needed attention of a more professional nature than that provided by even the most dedicated probation officers. In a response to this conclusion, the Juvenile Psychopathic Institute was opened in Illinois in 1909 with William Healy as its head (Mennel, 1973). The institute was undertaken with the intention of ascertaining causal or influential factors related to delinquency as well as delineating a practical intervention strategy. Unfortunately, Healy was unable to locate a definitive set of causes of delinquency through observation. However, he did pinpoint several potential causes of delinquency including peer group influences, adventure seeking, and mental disorders.

Healy concluded that "every case will always need study by itself" (Mennel, 1973, p. 165). In subsequent years, Healy argued that a great deal of juvenile delinquents could be traced to the relationship between the child and his parents. This was a widely adhered to perspective that strongly supported and legitimized the flexible *parens patriae* operation of the court. Healy's work also added credence to the necessity of incorporating primarily professionals in delinquency prevention due to the complex nature of the delinquency problem and its related causes. This fact tended to isolate the juvenile court from direct public scrutiny. Following his work in Chicago, Healy began establishing child guidance clinics across the country.

Individual differences. Using Healy's findings as a point of departure, Glueck and Glueck (1934) designed a longitudinal study aimed at identifying the causal factors in delinquency. They evaluated youth from these guidance clinics and found the recidivism rates to be high (Glueck & Glueck, 1934). The Gluecks continued to stress the importance of individual factors as they related to delinquent behavior. Even during the depression of the 1930's, importance of the family for the treatment and rehabilitation of delinquents was emphasized. Again, these notions supported the juvenile court structure as it existed.

The influence of the Gluecks has been apparent for the past forty years in delinquency research. Their methodology of assessing a delinquent population and a nondelinquent population and pinpointing differences as being pertinent to juvenile delinquency has been used frequently. Though the technique frequently yields large numbers of false positives, Waldo and Dinitz (1967) found delinquents and nondelinquents to differ on objective personality tests, performance measures, as well as projective techniques.

Sociological theories. Another diametrically opposed viewpoint was developed in Chicago in the early to mid 1930's. The Chicago area project was a direct offshoot of this new perspective. The philosophical assumptions of the project were based on the sociological theories of Shaw and McKay (Shaw, 1929; Shaw & McKay, 1942). This group's explanation of delinquent behavior differed radically from the other leading theorists of the time who stressed internal explanations for delinquent behavior and institutionalization as the intervention approach. The Area Project found delinquency rates to be heavily represented in different sectors of the Chicago community and, consequently, based theoretical interpretations upon demographic and socio-economic conditions of different sectors of the inter-city. Delinquency was seen as a problem particularly acute in the city environment due to factors such as population density, changing neighborhoods and related adjustment problems, as well as the resultant strain on traditional community and family controls. The group also stressed the importance of the impact of adolescent peer groups.

The Area Project became one of the first groups to directly intervene in a preventive sense. The project attempted to intervene directly in the community by pinpointing community members that demonstrated certain leadership qualities. The community members were given meaningful roles and shared in a decision-making process within each community organization. These workers from within the community were seen as potentially more dedicated since they had an obvious direct vested interest as well as detailed knowledge of community peculiarities. Given proper training and guidance, they were seen as capable of organizing and administering their own local welfare programs, etc. The community group involved themselves in recreational programs, law enforcement programs, and campaigns in schools. This

was seen as a means of dealing with delinquency in a preventive fashion, although more direct efforts were employed with institutionalized youth and delinquent gangs. Though all the results were not definitive, most theorists concluded that the Area Project in Chicago clearly succeeded in organizing community groups and dealing with the problems related to delinquency, and it appeared as if delinquency rates decreased slightly in affected areas (Krisberg & Austin, 1978).

These sociological theories have been supported by others that viewed delinquency as a result of the structures present within the society (Merton, 1957). However, these theories have also been severely criticized. The criticism has centered on the findings that various demographic variables such as socio-economic status, race, and geographic area, tend to be correlated with official arrest rates, however, this is not necessarily true of actual delinquent behavior rates (Nye, Short, & Olson, 1958). More recently, this critical view has been supported in great detail (Hirschi, 1969; Erickson & Empey, 1963; Williams & Gold, 1972).

Another sociological group that supported the notion of community organization and development in a preventive sense originated with the mobilization for youth in New York City. This group was founded on the theories of blocked opportunity developed by Cloward and Ohlin (1960). This theoretical perspective suggested that all of society maintains middle class goals yet the legitimate avenues of accessing those goals are differentially available to different subgroups within the population. Lower class and other minority subgroups are denied many legitimate means of accessing these goals. They are forced to exist in a slum community with its discrimination and inadequate school systems, yet they are pressured to succeed. With the lack of legitimate opportunities, many

are compelled to actualize their goals through illegitimate means which are more readily available to them.

In the late 1960's and early 1970's, the move towards the youth service bureau concept began as an outgrowth of the Chicago Area Project and the mobilization for youth in New York. Again, agency people were expected to work hand in hand with community representatives to decide on specific program content. At the time of the founding of the youth service bureaus, the central focus was on diverting juvenile offenders from the formal criminal justice system and providing welfare assistance and other social services. In general, youth service bureaus tended to fail in their efforts to succeed at these basic goals. Conflicts arose between agency professionals and community representatives as to the appropriate programmatic content. Gradually, the focus of the youth service bureaus moved away from the community action approach begun by the Area Project in Chicago. The move was clearly toward limiting community input, thereby reducing the challenge of the authority of the bureaus. In some cases, this was carried to such an extreme that the youth service bureaus were directly controlled by police or probation departments with no community input whatsoever (Davidson, Koch, Lewis & Wresinski, in press).

Behavioral theories. Another theory that rapidly began to gain credence during the 1960's is that of the behavioral explanation for delinquent behavior. Proponents of this approach have argued that any behavior, delinquent or not, is learned as a function of its consequences (Bandura, 1969; Ullmann & Krasner, 1975). According to this approach, there are many forces active within the youth's environment that may lead to delinquent behavior. Parents may punish or ignore prosocial behavior on the part of the youth while at the same time reinforce antisocial

behavior. Schools may reinforce antisocial behavior while ignoring prosocial behavior on the part of the youth. The youth's peer group may concurrently reinforce antisocial behavior while ignoring or even ridiculing prosocial behavior on the part of the youth (Patterson & Reid, 1970).

This perspective looked beyond the individual and identified the importance of the environment in the acquisition and maintenance of delinquent behavior. The implications, in terms of intervention strategies, have suggested the need to rearrange the environmental contingencies or reinforcement patterns in order to decrease antisocial behavior and increase prosocial behavior. The absolute number of behavioral applications and the variety of settings have grown considerably in the last two decades. However, the research efforts have been characterized by a number of methodological flaws that have threatened the validity of the conclusions (Davidson & Seidman, 1974; Neitzel, Winett, MacDonald, & Davidson, 1977). Others have questioned the durability of these behavioral changes (Baer, Wolf, & Risley, 1968; Baer, 1973) and the generalizability of these changes (Burchard & Harig, 1976). These considerations have led many to conclude that since the maintaining stimuli for delinquent behavior is in the natural environment, the focus for change should also occur in the environment. In that sense, active change in the environment acts to build in preventive measures to deter future delinquent or antisocial behavior (Emshoff, 1980).

Numerous examples of behavioral applications in the natural environment exist as well. Many include behavioral interventions within the home settings of delinquents (Patterson, 1974; Alexander & Parsons, 1973; Stuart, 1971).

Results have been positive, however, many of Davidson and Seidman's criticisms applied to this research as well (Davidson & Seidman, 1974). The application of behavioral theories in delinquency prevention appears promising but the general issue of what strategy should be applied in which specific setting remains unresolved.

Labeling theory. Another major theoretical perspective that began to receive considerable attention in the late 1960's and early 1970's was social labeling theory. The beginnings of labeling theory can be traced to the early writings of Lemert (1951). Though Lemert identified several origins for deviant behavior, the critical factor in labeling theory is society's reaction to that behavior on the part of the individual. Systematic deviation then becomes likely when society makes survival of the deviant individual a problem unless he can become absorbed in some sort of protective social system. Lemert clarified this process by distinguishing between primary and secondary deviation. He saw primary deviation as the state of affairs in which an individual engages in norm violating behavior that he regards as not a part of his normal repertoire. On the other hand, secondary deviation develops when the individual becomes aware of his deviant role. Deviations remain primary and situational as long as they are rationalized or otherwise dealt with as functions of a socially acceptable role (Lemert, 1974). Secondary deviation arises out of repeated acts of norm violation and an experiencing of societal reactions. Frequently, these reactions on society's part stimulate further deviant acts. Lemert saw the process as beginning with primary deviation followed by societal penalties; further primary deviation followed by stronger penalties and rejections on society's part; further deviation with resentments beginning to focus on those

doing the penalizing followed by a crisis in which the community stigmatizes the deviant which results in a strengthening of the deviant role and acceptance of that position on the part of the individual (Lemert, 1951).

More recently, Becker (1963) has pointed out that the likelihood that a behavioral event will be identified as deviant varies according to the time and place in which it occurred. Becker illustrated the potential impact of labeling theory with the example of an individual falsely accused as a deviant and the resultant societal reactions even though the individual had been conforming in character. Perhaps Becker's greatest contribution to the field has been his concept of the deviant career. Becker suggested that deviant careers ought to be studied in terms of the processes and variables which sustain that pattern of behavior over a period of time rather than focusing on specific occurrences. He argued that:

One of the most crucial steps in the process of building a stable pattern of deviant behavior is likely to be the experience of being caught and publicly labeled as deviant . . . the most important consequence is a drastic change in the individual's public identity (p. 30).

Klein has described the labeling process as a four step process (Klein, Teilmann, Lincoln, & Labin, 1978). The process begins with the actual commission of a juvenile offense and subsequent contact with the judicial system. At this point, an official label is attached to the youth. The second step can be seen as a spreading of that label. This spread, in a sense, can be assessed by determining the actual number of people in the youth's environment that become aware of the attached label. The third step would then be seen as an internalization on the part of the youth of the actual label. This internalization can be

simplified to read the extent to which the youth is aware of others' opinions of him in terms of the actual label, weighted by the extent that the youth cares about the person's opinion. The fourth and final step is seen as a result of the initial three and is merely continued contact with the juvenile justice system.

Schur (1975) would argue that although reality is a good deal more complex than labeling theory would have us believe, the theory does advise us to pay attention to social definitions of deviants and society's reactions to deviant persons. Gibbons would argue that although this is all well and good, there has not been a great amount of empirical investigation of these matters to date (Gibbons & Jones, 1975).

The Need for an Alternative

The previous sections have outlined the prominent theories of delinquency causation, the historical development of the juvenile court system, and the major procedural critiques of the system that arose in the 1960's. The major theories alone have stimulated a great diversity of implications for intervention strategies. Many of these strategies have been implemented with varying degrees of success by practitioners in the field. The critical attack waged on the system for its procedural arbitrariness, coupled with conflicting research results, led to an increased disillusionment with the traditional juvenile justice system and its means of intervening in the lives of delinquent youth. Therefore, demand has increased for delinquency prevention programs that are community based (President's Commission on Law Enforcement, 1967), use nonprofessionals (Gruver, 1971; Kantrowitz, 1979; Mitchell, 1980), and divert youth from the formal juvenile justice system (Lemert, 1971; Davidson, 1978).

Community Based Intervention Alternative

The President's Commission on Law Enforcement (1967) challenged both the justice system and the community to jointly seek alternatives in the intervention and prevention of delinquency. The priorities of institutional based versus community based intervention alternatives have sawed back and forth for years. In the last decade, frequent criticisms of institutional alternatives have emerged and a move toward the use of community based strategies for dealing with delinquents has surfaced along with the above noted trend towards diversion programs. Criticisms have typically centered around the ineffective strategies employed with institutional settings and occasional examples of inhumane treatment (Goldenberg, 1971; Wright & Dixon, 1977).

The historical beginnings of the movement toward community based intervention programs can be traced to the Chicago sociologists (Shaw & McKay, 1942; Merton, 1957) who argued for situational and population based factors as contributing to the delinquency problem, the blocked opportunity structure theories of Cloward and Ohlin (1960), the gang delinquency theories (Short, 1968), the impact of schools (Gold & Mann, 1972), and possible labeling effects of juvenile justice system involvement (Goldenberg, 1971; Elliott, 1978; Lewis & Davidson; Lincoln, et al., 1977).

Another perspective that historically has led to arguments favoring the community based alternatives can be tied to the individual differences tradition founded in the classic work of the Gluecks (1951). By defining the subgroups as being either delinquent or nondelinquent as a function of either institutionalization versus noninstitutionalization or previous police contacts versus no previous police contacts, researchers have identified differences based on several personality and social

characteristics (Waldo & Dinitz, 1967) and differential parenting skills (Glueck & Glueck, 1951). Others have found delinquents to be morally immature (Prentice, 1972), less socialized (Smith & Austrin, 1974), lacking in social skills (Phillips, Phillips, Fixsen, & Wolf, 1976), and the product of dysfunctional upbringing (Alexander, 1973).

With the demand for alternatives to traditional means of intervention so great, the interaction of the two above mentioned historical developments led to a suggestion for community based intervention programming. The demand for preventive measures in delinquency control made the need for community based programming even more apparent.

Actual intervention programs implemented in community settings have been extremely varied. Programs have been designed to assist in the transition from institutionalized settings back into the community (Moeller, 1968), provide alternatives to institutionalization (Davidson & Robinson, 1975), as well as provide for a continuation of detached gang workers' programs (Klein, 1971). In fact, in a recent review, Wright and Dixon (1977) have identified over 6,000 different community projects.

In the area of delinquency control, community programs designed to impact upon the delinquency problem have been structured into two general groups. The first group contains those programs designed to provide services to formally identified delinquents (i.e., those with formal police contacts or those currently institutionalized). Shore and Massimo (1973) in a ten year follow-up study of youths receiving educational training, job training, and counseling have indicated that these youth show lower recidivism rates and are more frequently employed than controls. Others have failed to find positive results when comparing institutionalized youth with those in community programs (Stephenson & Scarpitti, 1969).

The second group attempted to influence the delinquency problem through community based preventative programs. Again, results have typically been mixed (Davidson, 1976). Many have raised serious questions about the predictive accuracy of preventive community programs, particularly with the probable high rate of false positives (Rappaport, Seidman, & Lamiel, 1977; McCord, 1977).

Diversion Alternative

One of the major outgrowths of these community based efforts has been the diversion of juvenile offenders from formal court processing. The recommendations of the President's Commission state that diversion is essentially a process of referring youth to existing community treatment programs at some point between apprehension and adjudication. The President's Commission also suggested that a community based program should be independent of and in lieu of justice system involvement.

Proponents of this diversion approach found immediate support from several areas. Sociologists from the Chicago Area Projects as well as more recent social learning theorists have been arguing for years for a similar approach to delinquency prevention. Their view essentially defines the typical cycle as beginning with an influential subgroup or group within the society with the power to confer labels (Erickson, 1962). This influential group defines what behaviors are acceptable and which are not. Given the definitions formed by these groups, individuals can be defined as different or deviants. Quite frequently these deviants are clumped together and all differing characteristics are duly noted. These characteristics are then defined as the problem and often those inflicted with the problem are relegated inferior social standing (Becker, 1963; Ryan, 1971).

Many theorists based strong appeals for diversion on similar conclusions as that reached by Lemert (1971):

In many cases the harm done to children and youth by contacts with these courts outweighs any benefits thereby gained Moreover, the interaction between child and court an unanticipated consequences of the processing of a child in many instances contributes to or exacerbates the problem of delinquency (p. 1).

In 1973, the Department of Health, Education and Welfare reached a similar conclusion in stating that the juvenile court is a "market place wherein a negative community image is unwillingly purchased, consumer protection is minimal, and all sales are final."

Given this background, diversion programs appeared all around the country. The most obvious reaction on a large scale was witnessed in the youth service bureaus. These bureaus were initially intended to serve as a clearinghouse for community resources available to delinquent youth. As mentioned earlier, youth service bureaus have met with conflicting results (Lewis & Davidson, 1977). Major criticisms of diversionary programs have centered around fears that diverted youth are those that have committed less serious offenses. Another serious criticism has centered around the possibility that diversionary programs have provided a means of sidestepping the Gault decision by forcing the youth into a pseudo plea bargaining situation. Essentially, this argument suggested that the youth is coerced into choosing the less consequential diversion alternative with its inherent implication of a guilty plea rather than fighting the system and employing the guaranteed legal safeguards (Nejelski, 1976).

Sound research evaluations of diversion programs have existed only in the past several years. Again results have been conflicting. Lincoln conducted an evaluation of a series of diversion programs in Southern

California and failed to find any positive effects in official outcome or self-report data (Lincoln, Teilmann, Klein, & Labin, 1977). In fact, the study's findings suggested that the diversion programs yielded higher recidivism rates than simple release procedures (Carter & Klein, 1976). In another study, Elliott (1978) found similar results when he noted that recidivism rates for a diversion group did not differ from those of a court referred group.

Others have reached more positive conclusions. Collingswood, Douds, and Williams (1976) in evaluating the Dallas Police Department and youth services program, found that diverted youth receiving counseling and skills programming were less likely to be rearrested than those not participating in a diversion program. Though the evaluation was not based on strong experimental methodology, it did provide more promising support for diversion programs. Binder, Monahan and Newkirk (1976), in a truly randomized experimental evaluation of a similar program, reached mixed results. On the other hand, in another truly randomized experimental design involving diverted youth working with volunteers and control youth that were released outright, results indicated that diverted youth were less likely to recidivate (Seidman, Rappaport, & Davidson, 1976; Davidson, Rappaport, Seidman, Berck, Rapp, Rhodes, & Herring, 1977). Kantrowitz (1979), in a study that was a direct outgrowth of the work done by Davidson, et al. (1976), found similar results.

In summary, few empirically sound evaluation studies of diversionary programs exist to date. Of those that do, conclusions have been mixed. The one strong conclusion that can be drawn is that diversion programs do hold promise (Davidson, et al., 1976; Kantrowitz, 1979) and more work is needed.

The Use of Nonprofessionals as Change Agents

Additional criticism of traditional juvenile court processes was leveled at a general lack of manpower. This problem is poignantly evident when considering intra-individual approaches of intervention. However, the use of nonprofessionals has also been tied to the community based movement since nonprofessionals contribute flexibility, enthusiasm, and new perspectives (Poser, 1966). One of the most outspoken researchers in criticizing the intra-individual approach and its related lack of manpower has been George Albee (1968). His conclusions have led Gruver (1971) to summarize the situation by stating that:

Albee's continuing investigation of professional manpower resources in the mental health fields had made apparent the severe current shortages, and, further, has suggested the probability of even greater future shortages.

A second aspect of the mental health manpower dilemma is that even if there were sufficient numbers of professional personnel, present mental health ideology would prevent many of those needing help from receiving it . . . groups such as drug abusers, alcoholics, and juvenile delinquents have also been neglected by the mental health professionals primarily because professional contact with them has been for the most part fruitless.

More provocative is the evidence that nonprofessionals are more effective than their professional counterparts in working with some population which are presently receiving professional focus (pgs. 111, 112).

As in other fields in psychology and the social sciences, the use of nonprofessional volunteers as professionally supervised change agents has dramatically increased in recent years. Recent figures suggest that there are over a quarter of a million volunteers involved in over 2,000 programs relating to delinquents and juvenile court settings (Schwartz, Jensen, & Mahoney, 1977). Typical volunteer programs have used the nonprofessionals as part of a correctional team (Schwartz, 1971), as

caseaides (Lee, 1968), as Big Brothers in a probation setting (Logan, 1972), as well as with institutionalized youth (Reinhertz, 1969).

An additional variable of considerable interest is the impact of non-professional programs on volunteers themselves. Cowen, Zax, and Laird (1966) have noted that volunteers' attitudes towards the target population become more positive, while their attitudes towards relevant institutions become more negative. Gruver (1971) has found that volunteer programs have a positive impact on the volunteer's self-confidence and self-acceptance.

In summary, many have found the use of volunteers in service to delinquents to have worked well and resulted in reduced recidivism rates (Siegel, 1973; Rosenbaum, Grissel, Kaschtail, Knox, & Leenhouts, 1969). Others have been more cautious about their conclusions (Gruver, 1971; Rappaport, 1977) frequently suggesting that despite the widespread belief in the superiority of indigenous nonprofessional volunteers, the ultimate answer awaits empirical documentation (Durlak, 1979).

Rationale for the Present Line of Research

The juvenile court was initiated more than eighty years ago as an alternative to processing juveniles through adult courts. The court has come under increased attack during the last decade and a half due to its procedural arbitrariness, manpower shortages and general ineffectiveness. The major theories of delinquency causation have frequently conflicted and have been criticized for their inherent dependencies on official archival records. It has been argued that they are merely theories of penetration into the juvenile justice system, rather than theories of delinquency. Many of the intervention strategies that arose from these major theoretical perspectives have also been criticized as ineffective.

The legislative mandate and theoretical support for community based programs was outlined. More specifically, diversion programs were presented as a community based intervention alternative to the juvenile justice system's traditional strategies. The use of nonprofessionals was also suggested as a potentially effective method of implementing community based diversion programs on a widespread basis.

The next section will briefly outline the historical development of the Adolescent Diversion Project, a successful community based diversion program utilizing nonprofessional volunteers as change agents. The following section will point out the need to disseminate successful innovations that ultimately led to the current research. Finally, the specific research questions will be detailed.

The Adolescent Diversion Project

Conclusions drawn from the historical trends above led several researchers at the University of Illinois to design a community based diversion program for youthful offenders (Davidson, 1976; Rappaport & Seidman, 1971; Seidman & Rappaport, 1974; Davidson, et al., 1977). The program was designed to train undergraduates in nonprofessional roles as change agents. These undergraduates were then randomly assigned delinquent youth from local police departments. Youth were, therefore, diverted from further juvenile justice system contacts.

The community based intervention strategy was based upon two models. The first model, behavioral contracting, arose out of findings by several authors that delinquent families tended to be more negative in their interaction with each other (Alexander, 1973; Alexander & Parsons, 1973). Stuart (1971) concluded that this lack of positive reinforcement within the home environment led to an increase in delinquent behavior on the part

of the youth. He suggested that a modification of reinforcement patterns within the home could alleviate much of this problem.

Stuart developed four assumptions upon which he based his behavioral contracting model. The first of these was that the receipt of positive reinforcement in an interpersonal interaction is seen as a privilege and not a right. Second, effective interpersonal interactions are based on the norm of reciprocity. Third, the value of an interpersonal interaction is based on the range, rate and magnitude of the reinforcers mediated in that interaction. And fourth, rules are seen as creating freedom for those involved in the interaction. This allows for a knowledgeable choice of behaviors by knowing a priori the consequences of that choice.

Behavioral contracts essentially detail a specific exchange of reinforcers within the home environment. This specific exchange guarantees the receipt of positives by all involved in clearly defined situations. The negotiation of these contracts also tends to assist in developing a more functional interactional pattern among those involved in the immediate family environment.

The behavioral contracting model has been employed in many settings. The most typical of these have been marital counseling (Azrin, Naster, & Jones, 1973) and within the families of delinquents (DeRici & Butz, 1974; Stuart & Tripodi, 1973; Stuart & Lott, 1972).

The second model employed by Davidson and his associates was that of child advocacy (Davidson & Rapp, 1976). This intervention strategy can be traced to the blocked opportunity theories of Cloward and Ohlin (1960) and the notion of blaming the victim developed by Ryan (1971). An additional rationale behind the use of advocacy strategies has been the concern for the protection of the youth's rights and interests. Several

authors have concluded that although the actual commission of delinquent acts does not differ, lower socio-economic status youths tend to be arrested more often than their higher economic status peers (Erickson & Empey, 1963; Williams & Gold, 1972; Erickson, 1973). These lower socio-economic status youth have also tended to receive more serious dispositions for the same offense (Williams & Gold, 1972; Erickson, 1973).

These findings have led many to the conclusion that in many respects delinquent youth are no different than their nondelinquent peers. However, they have become a victim of their situation. It was felt that an advocate, similar to a lawyer or union steward, could be of great assistance to youth in these situations (Davidson & Rapp, 1976). Finally, the overall package employed by Davidson (1976) was tied together through the use of the intervention model developed by Tharp and Wetzel (1969). Their pyramid model employed the use of trained paraprofessionals as mediators working directly within the family of the delinquent in the community setting. Professionals were then responsible for training and supervising the mediators. The educational pyramid model employed by Davidson incorporated undergraduates as trained volunteer mediators that were supervised by graduate students who were in turn supervised by university faculty.

In a true random control group design, Davidson (1976) found both advocacy and contracting strategies to be clearly superior to a no-treatment control on such factors as recidivism rates, seriousness of subsequent petitions or police contacts, and school attendance records. Davidson has also replicated these results in another setting (1978). Recent work by Davidson and his associates has found the advocacy contracting model of diversion to be superior to a court treatment as usual group (Davidson, 1978) as well as a Big Brother type volunteer program (Kantrowitz, 1979).

Innovation Dissemination

Community interventions with delinquents, diversion alternatives to the juvenile justice system, and the use of nonprofessionals are all strategies for intervening with delinquents that have in general been fraught with conflicting results. The above review has suggested that these strategies do hold potential promise but further documentation is needed. The previous section outlined a successful delinquency prevention innovation that incorporates these three strategies. Typically innovation research has focused on this step by step process of evaluating social programs. First, the innovation effectiveness is determined by comparing it to various treatment as usual and no-treatment controls. Following replications, the innovation is dissected in an attempt to determine what components of the intervention are responsible for producing the desired outcomes.

However, this line of research has focused solely on establishing the utility of the innovation as a scientifically validated alternative. As is frequently the case with successful federally funded demonstration projects, a dissemination phase typically follows several systematic replications. However, increasing concern is being felt about the amount of return on the investment made in this innovation dissemination research model (Williams, 1976). The bulk of the concern lies with the inefficient utilization of information by appropriate agencies in the social services sector. Fairweather, Sanders and Tornatzky (1974) have suggested that many validated innovations simply disappear due to the lack of a systematic plan to disseminate the innovation. All too frequently adopting organizations reinvent the innovations as they incorporate it into their formal structure. The observation that adopting organizations frequently don't

adopt the innovation per se, but in fact adapt the technology (Charters & Jones, 1973), leads one to the conclusion that "... tinkering with the innovation may effect the critical components responsible for its success" (Emshoff, Davidson, Schmitt, & Leedom, 1980). The issue of the degree of implementation and the related outcome results at the level of the adopting organization have too frequently been overlooked. "Thus, one must focus not only on the intrinsic characteristics, but also one must examine the extrinsic characteristics of the intervention from the viewpoints of the new utilizers" (Mitchell, 1980, p. 34).

The Current Research

Thus far, the Adolescent Diversion Project has been established as a viable alternative to traditional juvenile justice system handling of delinquent youth. The model has been intrinsically dissected and many of the core components have been identified. With the continued success of the diversion model developed by Davidson and his colleagues has come the increasing demand for the dissemination of the intervention model. The current research was designed to focus on the extrinsic characteristics of the innovation. Within the confines of a true experimental design, an attempt was made to assess the extent to which an adopting organization reinvented the innovation. More specifically, at issue was the generalization of the activities of a model diversion program (Davidson, et al., 1977; Davidson, 1976) following the transference of operational supervision to an existing community agency, in this case, the juvenile court.

The current research proposed the training of undergraduate student volunteers in the same advocacy and contracting techniques mentioned above. However, half of the students were formally supervised by court personnel during intervention. This allowed for a direct assessment of a

more formal court involvement given common intervention strategies and training. The research, therefore, attempted to determine the relative effectiveness of the intervention strategy both in terms of the Adolescent Diversion Project model and a court supervised dissemination alternative as well as a treatment as usual control.

Research Questions

Thus far, it has been demonstrated that the specifics of the diversion model employed in the current line of research has proven to be effective relative to several comparison groups. Prior to actual dissemination, a more rigorous evaluation of the extrinsic characteristics of the innovation is in order. Can the findings be replicated in still different settings? Must it necessarily be tied to the structure of a university? What existing agencies might utilize the innovation? Since the juvenile court is an existing social agency designed specifically to impact upon the delinquency problem, can the model be tied to the formal juvenile justice system structure and retain its essence? How might a change of this nature be perceived by the youth or the volunteers involved?

These general research issues can be summarized in a set of specific research questions. First, do the differential supervision modalities result in differential outcome results? Does a supervision modification of this sort change the program effectiveness? In order to assess these notions, not only is the direct comparison of the two intervention modalities required, but the inclusion of a treatment as usual control also is imperative. A less effective court supervised intervention strategy might be more cost efficient if it proved to be superior to the traditional treatment as usual control group. Dissemination to an already existing social agency, the juvenile court, could prove to be less costly

than creating new agencies. This issue was addressed by analyzing court, police and school records for youth in the three conditions. Second, can the impact of the intervention process be observed in the daily activities of the youth and significant others in the youth's life? Are differential condition effects apparent? The goal of the overall research project has been to attempt to define the specific components of the intervention model that produce the desired outcome effects (Emshoff, et al., 1979). In order to continue the process of breaking down the "black box" that is the successful innovation, it is helpful to identify specific areas in the youth's life that have been affected by the intervention process. These changes may in turn be related to outcome results and, therefore, may be useful in pinpointing specific areas of the youth's life that should be focused upon during intervention. This information was gathered through self-report interview data assessing various day to day activities in the youth's life.

Third, the potential pitfalls of relying solely on archival outcome measures in delinquency prevention programs has already been noted (Blakely, et al., 1980). Were there differential self-reported estimates of engaging in delinquent activity on the part of youth in the three conditions?

Fourth, labeling theory has been laid out as one of the foundations upon which many criticisms have been levied at the juvenile court (Becker, 1963; Lemert, 1971; Klein, et al., 1978). The three conditions inherent in the current research have differing degrees of formal ties to the juvenile court. Can the labeling effects this experience had on the youth be assessed? Did these effects differ by condition? This information was also gathered through self-report methodology.

Fifth, operational definitions will not suffice in describing interventions. It is an established fact that organizations rarely adopt an innovation precisely as it was intended to be implemented (Fairweather, et al., 1974; Emshoff, et al., 1980). Did the intervention model change significantly as it was implemented by volunteers in the two experimental conditions? The specifics of each volunteer's intervention activity were also monitored closely across time through repeated interviews.

Sixth, the positive benefits frequently obtained by volunteers have been noted (Gruver, 1971). However, the impact of the different supervision strategies employed by the two intervention modalities in the current research may impact on the volunteers differently. Attitudinal changes on the part of the volunteers could be related to labeling effects and more importantly to outcome results (Cowen, Zax, & Laird, 1966). Did the impact on the volunteers differ as a function of experimental conditions? Volunteers were administered various training tests and attitude questionnaires. The above mentioned measures will be detailed in the following chapter.

CHAPTER II

METHOD

Context of the Research

The research took place within the context of a larger five-year research project funded by the National Institute of Mental Health. The Adolescent Diversion Project has been in formal operation since April of 1977. The research was designed to replicate and expand upon the work done in the Illinois Project reported earlier (Davidson, 1976; Davidson, Seidman, Rappaport, Berck, Rapp, Rhodes, & Herring, 1977; Seidman, Rappaport, Davidson & Linney, in press; Davidson & Rappaport, 1977). The project followed the educational pyramid model noted in Seidman and Rappaport (1974). The principal investigator supervised and consulted with graduate students who were in turn responsible for research endeavors and the training and supervision of undergraduates involved in the project. The undergraduates served as nonprofessional change agents or research assistants within the project. They were involved in a three term sequence of formal coursework within the Department of Psychology at Michigan State University.

The Ingham County Juvenile Court served as the referral source for the project. The court processes approximately 600 youth annually. The principal investigator and key court personnel delineated an administrative agreement in 1975 (see Appendix A). The court, in turn, agreed to the random assignment of subjects to condition. They also agreed to refer only those youth that they would have normally dealt with either formally

or informally had the Diversion Project not been an alternative. In other words, the court would not refer youth whom they would have warned and released.

Subjects

Youth Referred

Thirty-nine youth were involved in the current research. One youth was not included in the research analyses due to his placement on formal probation as the result of additional court contact subsequent to his project referral yet prior to his contact with the volunteer. The youth ranged in age from 9 to 16 with a mean of approximately 13.9. In addition, 28 of the youth were white and all but five were male. All socio-economic strata were represented by the referred youth, however middle and lower income groups were proportionally over-represented. Petitions on referred youth included those for minor and serious misdemeanors as well as minor felonies with the exception of one control youth that was referred for a status offense.

Nonprofessional Volunteers

Twelve male and 12 female undergraduates at Michigan State University served as project change agents. These volunteers were for the most part social science majors in psychology or criminal justice. The majority were juniors. Students agreed to participate in the project for a three term sequence commencing Fall Term 1978 and ending Spring Term 1979. They received four credits per term. Students were randomly selected from a large group of interested students and randomly assigned to intervention conditions.

Trainers/Supervisors

There were four people involved in the training and supervision of undergraduate student volunteers. Three of the four were advanced students in psychology who had been working with the Diversion Project since its formal beginnings in April of 1977. The fourth member of the team was a court referee or intake worker. The court referee had been involved with the project as a consultant since its inception. More specifically, the referee served as a guest speaker during the training phases of the project by discussing with students the internal workings of the juvenile court from the perspective of a court staff member.

Students were trained and supervised in small groups of six. Past project research efforts have found this group size to be optimal with the training and supervision of nonprofessionals in delivery of service to delinquents in the community (Kantrowitz, 1979).

Rarely has an innovation and a dissemination spin-off been compared directly within the same study. This study attempted to assess the impact of returning the control of the diversion program back to the juvenile court by training the volunteers and arranging for a court referee to supervise the intervention process as a part of his formal job description. In order to minimize other sources of variation, the volunteers were all trained by project staff prior to the intervention/supervision phase. In one intervention condition, the diversion group, both training and supervision, were conducted by two of the graduate students. In the other experimental condition, the court group, the students were trained by the third graduate student and supervised by the court referee.

Although the three graduate students were not randomly assigned to conditions, random assignment of three persons to two conditions makes

little sense. The total number of potential supervisors was limited to project resources. The three graduate students that were available to supervise possessed similar skills and experience in the training and supervision phases of the project. Their assignment to intervention conditions was the result of a natural rotation of staff members across the various years of the overall project. The project hierarchical structure is laid out in Figure 1. It will be outlined in greater detail in subsequent sections of this chapter

Design

The six basic research questions raised at the conclusion of the previous chapter (pgs. 27-29) required four experimental designs. The first question concerning the effectiveness of the intervention strategies as measured by the archival court, police and school outcome variables was addressed in a three by six factorial design with repeated measures across time. The two factors were experimental condition (diversion, court, control) by time (four pre quarter intervals and two during quarters). The design is laid out in Table 1.

The second, third and fourth research questions addressing the impact of the intervention process on the day-to-day activities of the youth, the degree of self-reported delinquent activity and the extent of self-reported labeling were also addressed in a design with repeated measures across time. Table 2 lays out this three (condition) by four (pre, 6 week, 12 week, and post of 18 weeks) design.

The design for the process monitoring scales is also included in Table 2. This research question called for a condition by time factorial design as well. However, since it was intended solely to monitor the intervention process, only the two experimental conditions were included

Figure 1
Project Organizational Structure

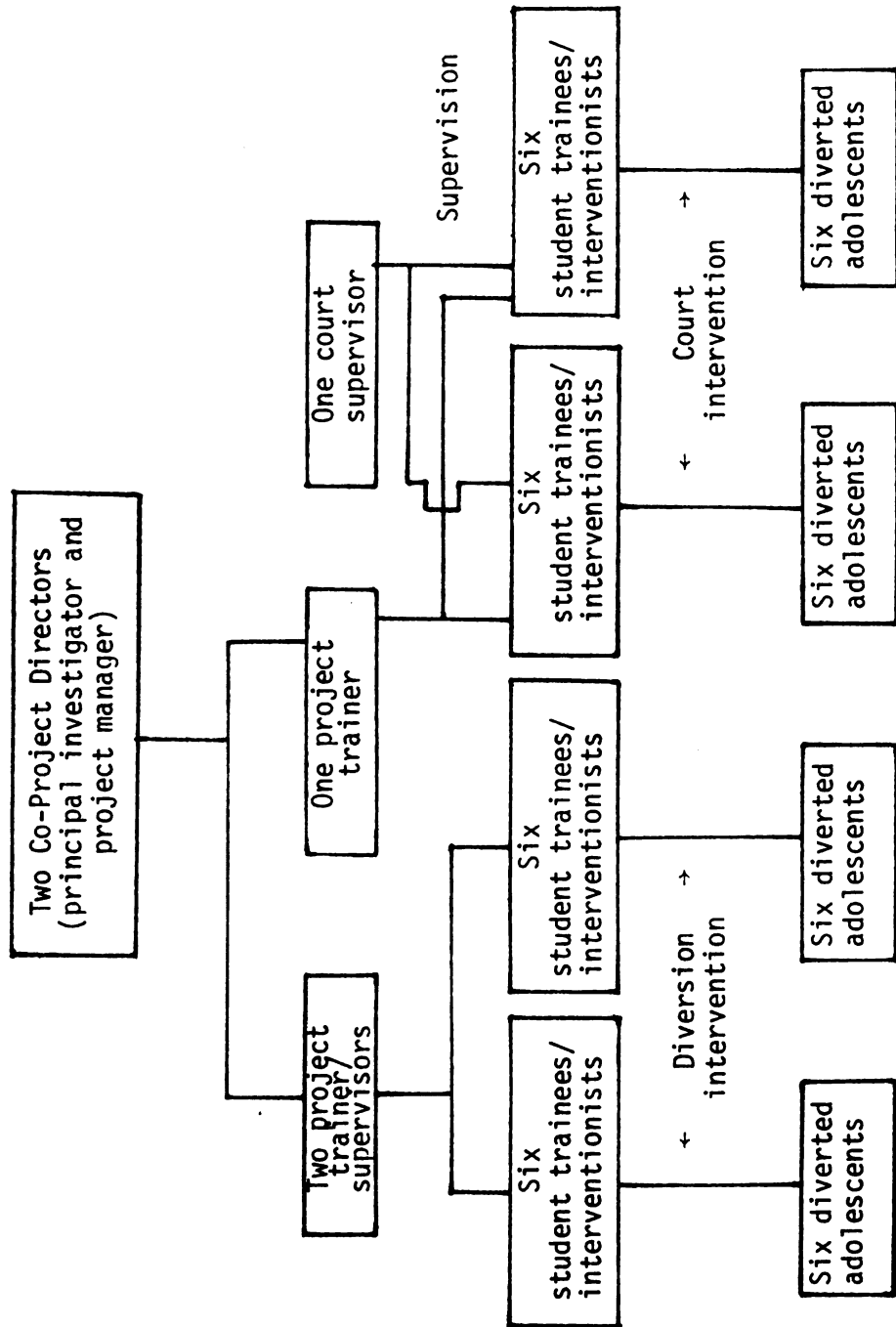


Table 1
Research Design for Archival Outcome Measures*

	One Year Interval Prior to Referral				During Intervention	
	quarter 1	quarter 2	quarter 3	quarter 4	quarter 5	quarter 6
Diversion	1-3	1-3	1-3	1-3	1-3	1-3
Court	1-3	1-3	1-3	1-3	1-3	1-3
Control	1-3	1-3	1-3	1-3	1-3	1-3

1 - Police Data (contacts, seriousness, disposition)

2 - Court Data (petitions, seriousness, disposition, incarceration)

3 - School Data (status, GPA, attendance, proportion of credits earned)

* Research question 1

Table 2

Research Design for Nonarchival Measures

	Pre	During Intervention			Post 18 weeks
		6 weeks	12 weeks		
Diversion	1-3,5	1-4	1-4		1-6
Court	1-3,5	1-4	1-4		1-6
Control	1-3	1-3	1-3		1-3

- 1 - Life Domain Measures (research question 2)
- 2 - Self-Reported Delinquency (research question 3)
- 3 - Labeling Measures (research question 4)
- 4 - Intervention Process Measures (research question 5)
- 5 - Volunteer Training Measures (research question 6)
- 6 - Volunteer Attitude Measures (research question 6)

and only the final three time intervals (each referring to the previous six week intervention interval) were monitored.

The final research question assessing the intervention impact on the volunteers themselves was addressed through two post only and two pre-post designs with the two experimental conditions serving as the other independent variables (see Table 2). In addition, correlational matrices of several outcome variables are presented.

Procedure

Recruitment of Students

During Spring Term 1978, letters were sent to 1,200 social science majors at Michigan State University announcing the availability of a three term course sequence in psychology. The letter described the nondidactic nature of the course in fairly nonspecific terms (see Appendix B). Those students who were interested were asked to call the main project office. Approximately 350 students called and were told the time and location of a first meeting the subsequent week. Approximately 250 of those students attended this original meeting. The students were given a general presentation of the nature of the project by the principal investigator. The project was described as being fairly demanding both in terms of time commitments and effort required. The students were indirectly discouraged from pursuing involvement in the project. It was explained that less than 20% of them would formally make it into the project, and that the 20% would be randomly selected.

Following the presentation, students were allowed a question and answer period. At this point, those that were still interested in becoming involved in the project were asked to fill out a contract stating their intent to remain involved in the project for the duration of the entire

three term period (Appendix C). It was explained to them that this agreement did not guarantee that they would get into the course but it did require them to complete further assessments. Those who completed the student agreement were asked to fill out several measures including a delinquency orientation measure (Lawrence, 1979), a semantic differential used to measure attitudes relevant to the project, Jackson's Personality Research Form (Jackson, 1968), and a measure of their locus of control. Several of these measures were a part of the overall research project not directly pertinent to the current research.

Selection of volunteers. An additional meeting time was scheduled the following week to continue the student assessment procedures. Approximately 100 students attended this second meeting and completed the pre-assessment, pre-selection battery. They were told that they would receive letters in the mail during the summer as to their selection status. During the first week of August, 12 males and 12 females were randomly selected from that set. They were sent letters of acceptance as volunteers into the project and were told to contact the project office within a week as to their intent of enrolling in the project course sequence. An additional 12 students were sent letters explaining that they were on a waiting list and should any other students decide not to participate in the project, a waiting list student would be contacted. Those students who said they weren't interested in joining the project were replaced by a randomly selected same sex person from the waiting list group. The final 24 students were then randomly assigned to intervention/training/supervision conditions controlling for sex.

Selection of research assistants. A large quantity of the data generated by this project was gathered through the process of conducting

interviews with the youth, parent and volunteer in each case at several points in time (see measures). To facilitate this process, an additional course was established through the Psychology Department. The course was a three term sequence design to teach interested students social science research methodology with a good deal of hands-on experience. Students were recruited from the rejected volunteer pool as well as from the guidance counselors in the psychology and criminal justice departments. Fifteen undergraduates participated in this course sequence.

Youth Referral

Referrals occurred after a preliminary hearing had been held. At this point the charges had been read to the youth, the youth had been provided his/her guaranteed legal rights, and the youth had the opportunity to plead guilty or not guilty to the charges as stated. If the youth denied the charges, a formal hearing was scheduled before a judge and the youth was provided a court appointed attorney. If the youth plead guilty to the charges, referral to the Diversion Project became an option available to the court referee. At this point, the referee provided the youth and parent with a brief description of the project and offered to set up a meeting with a project staff member to discuss the project in more detail. Those youth who voluntarily decided that they were interested in the project scheduled an appointment to talk to project staff.

Project staff provided the youth and parent with a more detailed description of the Diversion Project. The youth were told that they would be matched with a student volunteer from Michigan State University who would work with them on a one-to-one basis for a period of approximately eighteen weeks. They were told that they would be required to work with the volunteer approximately six to eight hours a week. The youth were

then provided with a brief description of what activities typically occur when working with volunteers and what areas in the youth's life might be open to intervention. It was then pointed out that there were several things that both the youth and the parent should be aware of before they agreed to participate in the project: (1) not everyone could get into the project, and (2) roughly three-quarters of those that decided to participate in the project did actually get matched to volunteers.

It was further explained that in either case, the youth and parent would be asked to assist in the evaluation of the project. At this point, the data gathering commitments and time intervals were outlined for the youth and parent. In addition, the confidentiality and anonymity of the data was stressed. The project was described as being totally voluntary. The youth and parent were told that they would be returned to the referee if they chose not to participate in the project. The referee would then decide what alternative course of action would be most appropriate. If the youth and parent decided that they wished to participate in the project, they were asked to sign several participation agreements. A referral sheet containing some demographic information was filled out (see Appendix D), and the parent and youth were then asked to sign a release of court and police records (see Appendix E), and a release of school records form (see Appendix F). At this point, the random assignment of youth to conditions was made. This was accomplished by randomly drawing envelopes which had enclosed cards identifying experimental condition. Envelopes were stratified by referral referee, sex, race, and order of referral of the youth as well as the seriousness of the referred petition. (The seriousness was determined by the stated intent of the court referee to handle the case in a formal or informal nature should the case

become a control and be returned to the referee for an alternative disposition decision.) The 39 youth referred to the project were then randomly assigned to treatment condition (diversion, court and control). Both experimental and control referrals were then told that interviewers would be getting in touch with them within the next few days. Experimental youth and parents were told that a volunteer would be getting in contact with them within a day or two after the interviewer contacted them.

Referrals began the middle of October and continued until all 24 volunteers were matched with youth. This random assignment process resulted in 15 youth being assigned to the control condition. The final referral was made February 6, allowing ample time to complete the 18 week intervention interval prior to the end of Spring Term classes in early June.

Assignment of Youth to Student Volunteers

Within the experimental conditions, youth were randomly matched to student volunteer. However, students who did not have cars were assigned youth who lived on or near to community bus routes.

Students were instructed to make a telephone contact with the youth immediately upon assignment and set up an initial meeting. For the remainder of that youth's involvement in the project (eighteen school weeks), the youth and student were expected to spend six to eight hours a week working together.

Volunteer Training

Classes were scheduled to meet on a weekly basis. During the majority of the first quarter, approximately eight weeks, classes were devoted to training and supervision of any assigned cases. Classes during the first term were scheduled to run a duration of two and a half hours to allow

time for training and possible supervision of cases. During the remaining two terms of involvement, classes were scheduled for two hours.

During the first eight weeks of training, weekly portions of a training manual, which was designed specifically to assist in the training of students in the intervention techniques employed by the project, were distributed to the students. Manuals incorporated weekly presentation of the material as well as a presentation of assigned outside readings (on reserve in the library) and weekly assignments.

During training, classroom sessions began with a short question and answer period during which time students were allowed to ask supervisors any questions pertaining to that week's material. Following this session, students were required to respond to written quiz material. After the written quizzes, the instructor or trainer graded the papers and the entire group discussed the material relevant to the questions. Following the written questions, students were required to respond to a series of oral questions. These oral questions were similar in content; however, the oral procedure allowed for a more direct interaction on the part of students involved.

Due to the intervention nature of the project, students were required to master each week's material. In the event that a student missed either a written or oral question, that student was asked to return directly to the material pertinent to that item and rewrite the response to that item. In addition, that student was required to respond to an extra question designed by the supervisor to assist the student in recovering the missed material. During training phases of the project, grades were assigned to students as a function of three criteria. The criteria were: attendance to weekly meetings, responding correctly to

written questions, and responding correctly to oral questions. Students that satisfied the above criteria received a 4.0 for the week's material. Students that responded incorrectly to any of the written or oral questions but returned the rewrites to the supervisor within the next three school days received a 3.0 for that week's material. In the event that a student missed a rewrite as well, an individual session was scheduled between that student and the trainer.

Upon being assigned a youth, the student volunteer's responsibilities increased dramatically (see supervision).

Diversion training. The diversion condition model was a direct follow-up of those procedures that resulted from the Illinois Project described earlier. Though extensive modifications had been made in the several years since the Illinois Project, direct links were apparent. The advocacy and contracting strategies developed in the Illinois Project were combined to allow a multi-faceted intervention program. The general model of intervention followed a problem solving approach that can be broken into four chronological phases. The volunteer's initial involvement in the project involved getting to know the youth and focusing on initial assessment strategies. These assessment strategies designed to identify significant others in the youth's environment, potential reinforcers in the youth's environment, areas of conflict, areas of unmet needs, appropriately targeted persons who might be able to satisfy unmet needs, etc. Upon completion of the initial assessment process, the youth, volunteer, and significant others decided on a global intervention plan.

A second phase of the intervention process emphasized continued assessment, the generation of alternative courses of action, the assessment of probable outcomes, and the specification of detailed strategies for intervention.

The third phase involved direct monitoring of the strategies implemented. This monitoring was designed to provide all involved sources with direct feedback about the ongoing effectiveness of the strategies employed. Direct monitoring allowed for the refinement of strategies as well as the implementation of new strategies that were more appropriate. It should be emphasized that the assessment phases of the project also continued throughout all other phases. This allowed the student and volunteer to be reactive to changes within the youth's environment.

As discussed earlier, the initial eight weeks of a student volunteer's involvement was spent primarily in training. The training followed a sequence portrayed in the training manual initially developed during the Illinois Project. As noted earlier, this manual has since gone through extensive revisions (see Appendix G). A brief overview of the training follows.

The first week provided an overview of the three quarter sequence course, formatted expectations of students, and detailed training procedures. The confidential nature of any information gathered in conjunction with course involvement was stressed. The first week's manual then developed a history of the juvenile justice system from its informal beginnings in the late eighteen hundreds through the uprisings of the mid 1960's epitomized by Gault (1967). An overview of the local juvenile justice system followed. This section was followed by the development of clear rationale for the need to divert juveniles from the juvenile justice system. The first week's section of the manual concluded with the development of the behavioral conceptions of the human behavior model and its relationship to juvenile delinquency. The rationale behind this model ultimately led to the behavioral contracting model employed by the project.

The second week of training outlined in the manual developed the environmental resources conception of human behavior and the rationale for multi-level training when working with youth. The environmental resources conception of human behavior led to the development of the advocacy model also incorporated in the diversion training condition.

The third week of training emphasized assessment as a necessary predecessor to intervention. Assessment strategies were developed to correspond with both the advocacy and contracting models. Prior to performing an advocacy intervention, areas of unmet need had to be detailed, the location and identification of potential resources that could meet those needs had to be determined, the individuals that control those resources had to be identified, and the targeted individual's vulnerabilities had to be defined. In order to perform behavioral intervention strategies, it was first necessary to identify problem areas, potential reinforcers, natural mediators or significant others and the present operating contingencies. The fact that the two assessment paradigms (advocacy and contracting) were not incompatible and could occur simultaneously was also emphasized.

The fourth week was devoted to experience in assessment by the students. During the week, students were given two assignments: (1) to develop a behavioral assessment paradigm, and (2) to collect the necessary information for an advocacy assessment. Class time was devoted to reviewing these homework assignments. Particular attention was given to the assessment steps outlined during the previous week as well as to the specificity apparent in the student's assessment strategies. Additional class time was devoted to several role plays dealing with situations such as speaking to the youth for the first time on the phone and in person. Also, initial meetings with family members and teachers were role played.

As noted earlier, the assessment phases of the total project model were developed as a necessary preliminary step to intervention. The fifth week was devoted to the selection and initiation of intervention strategies based upon assessment. Again, both the advocacy and contracting models were outlined in this section of the manual. When contracting was used, a plan of action was developed involving the negotiation of a contract between the youth and significant others. This negotiation involved development of reciprocal exchanges of responsibilities and privileges for all parties involved. The contract also incorporated bonuses for exceptional performance as well as sanctions for poor performance. A detailed monitoring system was also included. The volunteer served as a mediator between the youth and other parties involved in negotiation of the contract.

Advocacy intervention was described as developing along two continua. (A graphic depiction of the dimensions [Davidson & Rapp, 1976] is on page 243 in the manual (see Appendix G). The targeted individual who was identified as controlling the needed reinforcers could exist at either the individual, administrative, or policy level. Also, the intervention strategy could take on the format of a positive, neutral, or negative approach.

Once again, role plays were incorporated into this week's training. The contracting role play involved a description of a youth and some problem areas or desires on the part of the youth as well as a description of the youth's parents and some of their desires. The role play involved preliminary assessment, the proposition of the contract to the parties involved, introductory discussion of contracting, and the beginnings of a negotiation session. The advocacy role play incorporated the

description of a youth with some unmet needs. Students were assigned different cells within the two dimensional advocacy intervention model and were asked to role play their approach to the targeted individuals.

The sixth week continued the practice of contracting and advocacy interventions. Students continued the contracting role play begun during week five and proceeded to formulate a detailed contract satisfactory to all parties involved. Additional hypothetical advocacy situations were presented and role played in a similar fashion to those completed during week five. In addition, the manual outlined several case studies that typified problems frequently encountered by students working with youth.

Week seven was devoted to the monitoring of intervention strategies employed. Evaluation of intervention strategies was described as an essential ingredient in any intervention model. Students were taught that they needed to continually seek feedback pertaining to the effectiveness of strategies employed. Methodology and pitfalls frequently encountered in monitoring were pointed out and decision rules for the potential renegotiation of contracts as well as the occasional necessity for secondary advocacy efforts were discussed. Again, role plays were heavily emphasized during class sessions.

The eighth and final week focused on termination of the youth's formal involvement from the project. The eighteenth week termination point was always clearly defined during the initial week of intervention and used as a firm point in time around which to set goals. Week eight training, therefore, focused on the final two to three weeks of intervention. During this time, the volunteer instructed the youth and significant others in the methods used by the volunteer during intervention. The intention was that the youth and parents would then be able to

continue to implement the skills developed in the project following formal termination from the project.

Court training. The court training was identical to the procedures outlined in the diversion training condition. A detailing of major discrepancies follows. During week one training, the notion of diversion was deleted from the training as well as the training manual (p.172). This information was replaced with a more detailed development of the apparent manpower shortages within formal probate court staff. In addition, the classroom procedures detailing the use of two graduate students during the training phase was modified to read the single graduate student (pgs.165-167). Similar modifications were made in the manual during the second week's training as the issue of labeling (the development of the line of reasoning that formal juvenile justice system contact frequently leads to further delinquent activity) was removed (p.186). The remainder of the manual and training sessions directly followed the procedures outlined under the diversion training condition. The true training conditions, therefore, were nearly identical throughout the entire eight week involvement.

Interviewer Training

Interviews were conducted by students involved in an additional three term practicum for undergraduates. These students were also subjected to an initial strenuous training period that incorporated both reading assignments and examinations as well as modeling, practice, and role playing. Initial instruction involved detailing the overall procedures of the project and its involvement with the local schools and juvenile justice system. Students were then presented with outlines for material to be covered during interviews and listened to practice tapes or tapes of interviews conducted by previous interviewers.

During the first weeks of their involvement, the students accompanied and observed interviewers involved in ongoing cases as they conducted interviews in real settings. Students then began practicing interviews among themselves during class time while supervisors observed and provided feedback. Students received practice interview assignments to be completed with other project staff members and recorded on tape. The tapes were then brought back for feedback from supervisors.

By following this format, students learned the procedure and open-ended nature of the interviews while following a nondetailed outline prior to actually seeing the item set to which they would ultimately respond. Following this initial training, interviewers were taught the detailed procedures of responding to the items, coding all the information, compiling all the material gathered on a case by case basis, and procedures for labeling and turning in the material.

Once the supervisors felt the interviewers had learned or mastered the necessary skills, a practice interview was again assigned and the interviewer completed an entire interview and coded the information. The supervisors were then able to assess the interviewer's readiness in a live situation.

Once training was completed, interviewers were assigned cases in such a manner that an interviewer was responsible for all the sources and all the waves related to a single case. This meant that a single interviewer followed a particular case throughout its involvement in the project. Interviewers were assigned four cases apiece while requiring each to participate in an inter-rater case. In the event of an inter-rater pair, one interviewer was assigned the case and conducted the entire interview throughout all four waves. The second interviewer accompanied the former

and observed and recorded the interview. This allowed a direct assessment of exact inter-rater agreement of rated items and the computation of correlations between inter-rater scale scores. Research experience has demonstrated inter-rater exact agreement to be in the .60's. The scale by scale inter-rater correlations are presented with each specific measure. The supervisors continually checked data as it was turned in and monitored tapes of interviews throughout the duration of each interviewer's involvement in the project.

Supervision

Diversion supervision. The remainder of the first term (following the eight weeks of training) and the subsequent second and third terms were devoted entirely to the supervision of cases. Each student with a case presented a summary of the past week's activities beginning with the goals identified by the student. The presentation then chronologically outlined critical activities of the past week, particularly as they related to stated goals and objectives. The presentation concluded with some statements concerning what the student intended to do during the coming week. The small group format allowed for in-depth discussion of details pertaining to each case as well as brainstorming and group problem solving as issues arose.

The overall intervention model defined each volunteer as well as the graduate students in each supervision group as an experimental person capable of assisting and generating alternatives that might be appropriate as intervention strategies for any given case. Students' grades were based primarily on demonstrated case responsibility. Class presentations, contribution to discussion of others' cases, weekly progress reports, and attendance were also considered.

Supervision also afforded the project an opportunity to have direct input to volunteers in terms of guaranteeing adherence to the model. It provided the volunteers with a frequently needed source of encouragement should the going get rough. The two diversion supervision groups consisted of six trained undergraduate volunteers working with two graduate students.

Court supervision. Following training, supervision of the court condition was transferred to the court staff. Training had been completed by a graduate student on the project while supervision was conducted by a court referee that has been involved in the project as a consultant since its beginnings. The court referee was provided with a training manual and several sessions were spent outlining strategies discussed in the manual. In addition, training in the supervision strategies employed by the project and the rationale for all components of supervision were detailed. Students were required to maintain the identical written records and were graded on the same basis as students in the diversion condition.

The court referee met with his students to supervise volunteer intervention on a weekly basis for a period of two hours. These sessions were audio-taped and regularly reviewed by the principal investigator. The principal investigator and court referee met regularly in order to provide feedback. However, adherence to model was not stressed during these sessions. The rationale for this entire research effort lies in the impact on intervention due to varying supervision strategies employed by the referee.

It was felt that both the youth and his/her family, as well as the volunteer, might perceive their involvement in the project as a direct involvement with the court structure. The nondiversionary nature of this

perception was expected to have impact on the intervention strategies employed. The impact was monitored by process measures that were then related to outcome results.

Intervention

The intervention process can be seen as a series of steps that do not necessarily follow in a clearly defined sequential fashion. The general steps were introduction, assessing the youth's situation, selecting strategies for intervention, monitoring intervention strategies, and finally termination. The introductory period was seen as a one to two week period spent primarily just getting to know the youth. It overlapped somewhat with the initial assessment phases as the two were not mutually exclusive. Assessment continued throughout the entire involvement in the project as new areas of unmet need or interpersonal problems appeared. Strategy selection was obviously dependent upon the assessment phases that had been completed and led directly to the intervention phase. Monitoring can be seen as a system of evaluating the nature of the impact resulting from intervention. This monitoring evaluation frequently had consequential impact upon ongoing intervention strategies. These consequences took the form of either encouragement, a strong suggestion for the need for renegotiating a contract, or the need for secondary advocacy efforts. Termination was a transition from the actual intervention phases of the project to a point in time where the youth was no longer formally involved in the project. This entire process can be seen as a series of overlapping steps. A graphical presentation of this cycle is shown in the last page of the diversion manual (Appendix G).

Diversion intervention. Students, upon being assigned to youth, were instructed to call the youth immediately and set up a meeting time.

They were encouraged to plan some activity during the initial meeting to allow for something to divert attention from the formality of the beginnings of project involvement. It was, however, suggested that the activity not be so all encompassing to be a detriment to conversation. This initial meeting was seen as a means of establishing the initiation of assessment strategies. The first two to four weeks focused primarily upon getting to know the youth, his or her likes and dislikes, significant others, problem areas, areas of unmet needs, etc. These initial recreational/discussion/assessment sessions with the youth frequently led to the involvement of others in the assessment phase. The others involved were most frequently parents, peers, teachers, or counselors. The information gathered during this assessment phase was generally sufficient to cover material needed to design a contracting or advocacy intervention strategy.

The information gathered during this phase of the involvement was presented to the supervision group on a weekly basis. The supervision group was then in a position to be able to assist the volunteer in outlining alternative intervention strategies to deal with specific problem areas present as well as to assess the probable outcomes of these intervention strategies prior to actual implementation. The volunteer was then in a position to discuss the most appropriate alternatives directly with those involved in the youth's environment.

Should the volunteer decide that a behavioral contract seemed most appropriate, the first step was to meet separately with the parties involved and present the general notion of contracting. The volunteer then directed each party to detail a list of things they would like changed in their interpersonal network. Having laid the groundwork for an actual contracting session, the volunteer then brought the lists of

potential changes suggested by either party to the next supervision meeting. The supervision group assisted the volunteer in outlining potential contractual agreements. The volunteer then scheduled a session with all parties involved and began the actual negotiation process. Ultimately, a reciprocal contractual agreement emerged. The framework for the negotiation of contracts, the principal components of contracts, and example contracts are included in the training manual (Appendix G) as well as in Stuart (1971) and DeRici and Butz (1975).

Should the assessment strategies have suggested the need for an advocacy effort on the part of the volunteer, the student began by presenting the needs of the youth to the supervision group. The group then assisted the volunteer in identifying appropriate individuals within the community that held the reinforcers needed to bring about the desired change in the youth's environment as suggested by the assessment strategy. Following the identification of the most appropriate target individual, the volunteer began to compile information concerning the vulnerabilities of that individual. Again, alternative strategies were discussed in the supervision group and the most reasonable alternative was ultimately implemented.

Following the initiation of an intervention strategy, monitoring became a necessary component. The monitoring focused on the actual implementation of the intervention strategy as well as the effectiveness of that intervention strategy. Through the use of these monitoring endeavors, the volunteer was able to stay on top of ongoing changes in the total situation and react appropriately.

During the initial months of intervention, the volunteer performed various tasks on behalf of the youth. These tasks included things such

as advocacy efforts or the mediation of contract negotiation sessions. As time progressed, the volunteer made every effort to involve the youth to a greater and greater extent during the intervention processes. By the sixteenth week, the volunteer began to make direct efforts at training the youth and/or significant others in the techniques developed by the project. The volunteer began describing in great detail the contracting model and the general strategy of advocacy to both the youth and his/her parents. This instruction, coupled with the modeling impact of strategies already successfully completed and subsequent role plays of hypothetical situations, was intended to leave the youth and parents in a situation in which they would be capable of continuing these efforts on their own. Hypothetical case studies are included in week six of the training manual (Appendix G).

Court intervention. Once again, training efforts suggested that court intervention should follow or resemble closely the intervention detailed in the action intervention segment. As was outlined earlier in the training sections, the training was virtually identical throughout the entire eight weeks. Potential intervention differences arose because of the differential nature of the supervision of volunteers during the intervention phases of the program. These differences were most likely due either to labeling processes or simply the perception of continued involvement in the court system. The differential treatment of the volunteers during supervision had a significant impact on the intervention process. The evaluation of this impact (diversion vs. nondiversion) on the primary outcome variables and the relationship to process scales were the major thrust of the current research.

MeasuresArchival Measures

The three sources of archival outcome data were collected semi-annually. They were coded into four quarters of pre data (totalling one year) and two quarters of during data (see Table 1, p. 35). This archival outcome data was collected by graduate research assistants working on the project with assistance from undergraduates. Data collectors were unaware of the experimental condition of the youth.

During the time frame within which the current research took place, adult records from one of the larger police precincts in the county were not available to project staff. This problem, coupled with the fact that several youth were incarcerated at various points during their involvement in the project, led to the conclusion that the number of police contacts and court petitions variables might be misleading. More specifically, the archival outcome measures were not sensitive to official contact with the system by seventeen year olds. And, youth that were incarcerated for a significant length of time would show disproportionately low annual offense rates when compared with youth that were at risk throughout the entire year.

Two examples should serve to clarify the issue. In the case of incarceration, if two youth each had two official contacts with the system during the one year pre interval, yet one was incarcerated for six months, it would make little sense to construe them each as having equal annual offense rates. The latter youth's rate might be interpreted as equivalent to four annual contacts. Similarly, youth with additional police contacts that became seventeen during the data gathering interval had them recorded as adult offenses that were not necessarily available to the research project. Thus, the concept of time at risk became conceptually critical within this research effort.

Therefore, the data sets were modified by dividing contacts or petition rates by the months at risk during that quarter and multiplying by the constant three in order to retain the data in quarter scores (3 months). This operation had the effect of maintaining the compatibility of the quarter time intervals while accounting for the fact that some of the youth who had been institutionalized or had turned of age during a particular quarter were not at risk for that entire quarter interval.

Police records. Archival police data continues to serve as a frequently utilized success criteria when intervening with delinquents. The frequency of contacts, average seriousness of contacts (modified Sellin & Wolfgang, 1964; see Appendix H), and the most serious disposition of any contacts for each quarter interval were gathered for each youth (see Appendix H). Police data was gathered from all major police departments in the county as well as from the county sheriff, the local state police offices and several township departments.

Court records. Archival court data is another frequently used success criteria. The frequency of court petitions, average seriousness of the petitions (see Appendix H), most serious disposition (see Appendix H), and length of incarceration were gathered for each youth for each quarter interval from the county juvenile court.

School records. As mentioned earlier, during intake interviews the youth and parent were asked to sign a release of school records. These release forms were taken directly to the schools to gather grade point average, enrollment status, attendance and credits earned records for each youth in the project.

Interview Based Measures

Interviews were conducted with the youth and one or both parents. If the case was not a control, the volunteer was also interviewed. These interviews were conducted at four points during the youth's formal involvement with the project (within a few days of the initial referral, 6 weeks into the intervention interval, 12 weeks into the intervention, and 18 weeks into the intervention interval or at termination from project involvement). The intake or time one interviews served as pre measures, therefore, the volunteers were excluded from this first wave of interviews since they had not yet had any contact with the youth (see Table 2, p. 36). Interviews were generally conducted at the source's residence.

The interview format itself followed a fairly open-ended, conversational, unstructured format. The interview process was designed to allow the source to discuss and/or describe relevant activities that had been occurring in their life. The interviewer essentially guided the source through the areas of concern. Interviewers were then required to respond to approximately 400 items pertaining to the information required. The interviews were audio-recorded, thus allowing the interviewer to go back to the tape to retrieve any lost information while responding to the items. The audio-tapes allowed the interviewer to focus his/her attention upon the interview itself rather than being continually forced to record information.

The items were combined to form scales using a rational/empirical method (Jackson, 1971; Selltitz, Wrightman, & Cook, 1976). After removing items on the basis of low endorsement frequencies, initial scales were created by rational groupings of the items. The internal consistency of these groupings was then determined and final scaling decisions were made

according to two criteria. First, in order for an item to remain in its scale, it had to show a significant correlation with the sum of other items on the scale. Second, the item had to demonstrate a significantly higher correlation with its own scale than with any other scale. If it showed a greater degree of convergence with another scale, it was moved if the move was to a rationally sound alternative. Otherwise, the item was discarded from further analysis efforts. This rather lengthy process of scale construction produced scales which were maximally reliable and maximally orthogonal.

Life domain measures. The life domain portion of the interviews was designed to assess the impact of the intervention process upon daily activities in the lives of youth involved in the project. Scale construction efforts resulted in eleven life domain scales that retained the same consistency during the last two re-analysis efforts. The internal consistency alphas of the life domain scales ranged from .59 to .91 with a mean of .76. Repeated multitrait-multimethod analysis efforts (with scales serving as traits and sources as methods) demonstrated good convergent and discriminant validity properties (Campbell & Fiske, 1959; Emshoff, 1980). However, the interviewer agreement figures suggested that the interviewers had difficulty agreeing on the concepts represented by the life domain scales. These scales were dropped from further analysis due to this unreliability in the measures.

Self-reported delinquency measure. Although archival data is often reported in outcome studies with adolescents in legal jeopardy, it has often been criticized as more a measure of the behavior of legal system officials (teachers, principals, police and court workers) than a measure of deviant behavior (e.g., Farrington, 1973; Gold, 1966). Thus, in this

study, the differential impact of volunteer supervision upon youth's delinquent activities as reported by him/herself was examined in addition to the more traditional measures.

Items for this measure were drawn from items used by Lincoln, Teilmann, Klein and Labin (1977), Gold (1970), and several items written by the project research staff (Blakely, Kushler, Parisian & Davidson, 1980). The item set was designed to determine the self-reported incidence of behaviors representing a wide spectrum of frequently occurring delinquent activities. Thus, infrequently occurring behaviors such as extremely serious crimes against a person were excluded. In addition, the 35-item set included five filler items depicting positive activities in an attempt to discourage response patterns or bias (see Appendix I). Youth were asked whether they had committed each behavior once, twice, more than twice or not at all during the last six weeks. These items generated one major scale.

The measure was administered at the four interview time periods, immediately following the process interviews (see Table 2, p. 36). In order to avoid problems due to inconsistent reading abilities of the interviewees, the items were read aloud to the youth and responses were recorded by the interviewer.

During the past four years of the project, this scale has consistently yielded alphas in the mid-eighties and intersource correlations have averaged in the mid-forties. The scale has also correlated with official archival data in the upper .20's (Blakely, et al., 1980).

Labeling measures. During the interviews, following the administration of the self-report instrument, a modified version of the labeling theory assessment devices developed by Klein was administered (Klein,

Teilmann, Lincoln, & Labin, 1978). The four steps of Klein's model were measured through the use of the archival outcome data and the administration of a labeling questionnaire. The instruction sheet and recording form for the labeling questionnaire are included in Appendices J and K, respectively. Five scales were constructed through the rational-empirical method, four were used in the current research.

The reliability figures for the four scales are included in the discussion of each scale below. Strong convergent and discriminant validity properties of the scales (Campbell & Fiske, 1959) were evidenced given the particular pattern of correlations in the original multitrait-multimethod matrix. A summary table of this matrix is included in Table 3.

(1) Police reference. This scale consisted of a simple sum of the items in the first column of the label spread answer sheet excluding the stepmother, stepfather, guardian and minister sources (see Appendix K). Therefore, an example might be: "Did others at school know about your contact with the police?" The internal consistency alpha for the scale was .84.

(2) Court reference. This scale assessed the extent to which significant others in the youth's life were aware of the court contact that led to the youth's referral to the project. An example item would include: "Did your neighbors know about your contact with the juvenile court?" This scale consisted of the same nine source referents as coded in the second column of the label spread answer sheet (see Appendix K). The internal consistency for this scale was .83.

(3) Project reference. This scale consisted of a sum of the source referent scores as coded in the third column (see Appendix K). The scale assessed the extent to which significant others in the youth's life were

Table 3

Labeling Scales Intercorrelations

	Monotrait-heteromethod	Monomethod-heterotrait			
		Youth		Parent	
	Youth with Parent	<u>Mean</u>	<u>Range</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>Range</u>
1.	.63	.27	.01 to .54	.31	-.19 to .57
2.	.83	.23	-.04 to .54	.28	-.07 to .57
3.	.57	.21	.10 to .43	.13	-.01 to .26
4.	.28	.05	.01 to .10	.21	.06 to .26

1 = Label Spread - Police Reference

2 = Label Spread - Court Reference

3 = Label Spread - Project Reference

4 = Label Acceptance/Rejection

aware of his/her involvement in the project. For example, "Do teachers and administrators at school know of your involvement in this project?" The internal consistency alpha for this scale was .65.

(4) Label acceptance/rejection. This scale assessed the extent to which the youth felt the awareness and opinion of these significant others was important to him/her. An example item included: "How important is it to you what others at school think of you?" The scale was composed of the coded responses from the same nine sources in the fifth column of the label spread answer sheet (see Appendix K). The internal consistency for this scale was .80.

Process measures. The intervention process portion of the interviews was designed specifically to monitor the intervention activities of the volunteers. It is frequently the case that innovations implemented in different settings result in drastic modifications of the intervention model as it was intended to be implemented. These scales were designed to monitor the specifics of the intervention process both in terms of strategies used (contracting and advocacy) and areas of implementation (school or legal system, etc.). Scale construction activities resulted in thirteen intervention process scales that have yielded consistent scale properties in the last several re-analysis efforts. The internal consistency figures for each scale are included with the specific descriptions for each scale below. They ranged from .58 to .92 with a mean of .79. Strong convergent and discriminant validity properties were also demonstrated by the process intervention scales (Campbell & Fiske, 1959). The multitrait-multimethod matrix summary table is included in Table 4. The interviewer agreement reliability figures are included in Table 5.

Table 4
Intervention Process Scales Intercorrelations¹

Monotrait-heteromethod (i.e., "validity diagonals")		Monomethod-heterotrait					
		Youth		Parent		Volunteer	
		Mean	Range	Mean	Range	Mean	Range
Youth with Parent	Parent with Volunteer						
1. .90	.76	.29	-.06 to .50	.28	.04 to .52	.31	-.01 to .59
2. .92	.73	.23	.06 to .44	.20	.02 to .39	.20	.01 to .41
3. .87	.80	.35	-.003 to .59	.33	-.08 to .50	.30	.03 to .52
4. .73	.67	.24	.10 to .48	.22	-.01 to .53	.26	.06 to .57
5. .86	.81	.24	-.01 to .44	.24	.00 to .53	.22	-.003 to .59
6. .86	.77	.34	.11 to .79	.26	.001 to .50	.31	.03 to .81
7. .80	.79	.31	.06 to .79	.26	-.0004 to .82	.27	.02 to .81
8. .90	.82	.25	.11 to .60	.26	.001 to .63	.23	.04 to .64
9. .88	.82	.31	.06 to .60	.30	.03 to .62	.33	.12 to .64
10. .95	.90	.13	.02 to .45	.10	-.01 to .36	.12	-.003 to .37
11. .85	.91	.10	.02 to .23	.10	-.01 to .22	.10	.01 to .25
12. .90	.91	.29	-.08 to .57	.28	.09 to .54	.29	-.06 to .53
13. .81	.67	.35	.07 to .58	.32	.03 to .47	.32	.05 to .57

1 = Volunteer/Target involvement	8 = School: Focus on changing school
2 = Lack of complaints/Positive involvement	9 = School: Focus on changing youth
3 = Parental involvement	10 = Job seeking
4 = Peer involvement	11 = Legal system involvement
5 = Recreational activities	12 = Behavioral contracting activities
6 = Family: Focus on changing parents	13 = Child advocacy activities
7 = Family: Focus on changing youth	

¹Correlations greater than .20 are significant at the .05 level.

Correlations greater than .25 are significant at the .01 level.

Table 5

Inter-Interviewer Agreement Correlations
Intervention Process Scales

	Between Interviewers Scale Correlation	Within Interviewer Correlations		
		Range		Mean
		Lo	Hi	
Amount of Time	.81	-.09	.66	.38
Positive Involvement	.16	-.01	.49	.21
Parental Involvement	.65	.02	.76	.35
Peer Involvement	.17	.01	.59	.30
Recreational Activities	.71	.03	.52	.36
Home Involvement: Focus on Parent	.84	.04	.77	.45
Home Involvement: Focus on Youth	.68	.04	.81	.38
School Involvement: Focus on School	.85	.14	.59	.30
School Involvement: Focus on Youth	.81	.22	.69	.44
Employment Activities	.85	.03	.43	.25
Legal Involvement	.44	.00	.49	.19
Contracting Activities	.96	.04	.78	.39
Advocacy Activities	.58	.04	.76	.35
	<hr/>			<hr/>
	.65			.33

The process intervention data was gathered at three time points (6, 12 and 18 weeks into the intervention interval; see Table 2, p. 36). At each data gathering point, information was collected concerning specific intervention activities that occurred during the previous six week interval. Therefore, it was gathered from experimental cases only. The relationship between these findings and the archival outcome results were determined and noted where significant. Results of nine of these scales were included in this research.

(1) Amount of time. This three item scale assessed the frequency and amount of contact the volunteer invested in intervention related activities. An example item was: "How much time does the volunteer spend working on the case?" The Cronbach alpha was .76.

(2) Volunteer contacts. Although this measure was not a process interview scale, per se, it was included in this section due to its conceptual proximity to the amount of time scale. The volunteers were required to keep a log book recording all of their case related contacts. The volunteer contacts item was simply a sum of the number of in-person contacts between the volunteer and youth during the intervention interval.

(3) Recreational activities. This scale reflected the extent that recreational activities comprised a part of the intervention process. The basic dimension was the frequency of recreational activities that the volunteer and youth engaged in together. Example item: "How often do the youth and volunteer participate in purchased recreational activities together?" The scale consisted of three items which had a scale alpha of .66.

(4) Home involvement focused on changing the parent. This scale was aimed at assessing the extent to which intervention activities were

concerned with changes in the home/family area. More specifically, it was designed to determine the extent that these changes were intended to change the parents' behavior. Example item: "To what extent is the intervention focused on getting the parents to improve their household rules?" This scale consisted of eight items which had an alpha level of .78.

(5) Home involvement focused on changing the youth. This scale was intended to assess the extent to which home/family intervention activities were focused on changing the youth's behavior. Example item: "To what extent is the intervention focused on the youth doing more household chores?" This scale consisted of five items that had a scale alpha of .73.

(6) School intervention focused on changing the school. This scale was focused on the extent to which the volunteer engaged in activity aimed at bringing about improvement in the school area while the efforts were directed toward the actions of the school staff rather than the youth per se. Example item: "To what extent is the volunteer working on curriculum changes?" This six item scale yielded an alpha of .78.

(7) School intervention focused on changing the youth. This scale was aimed at assessing intervention activities which were focused on the school behavior of the youth. Example item: "To what extent is the volunteer trying to get the youth to do more homework?" This scale consisted of eight items with a scale alpha of .87.

(8) Legal system intervention. This scale reflected the extent to which the volunteer became involved in the juvenile justice system while working with the youth. Example item: "Has the volunteer assisted in negotiating a court disposition?" This scale consisted of 11 items which had a scale alpha of .83.

(9) Contracting. This scale was developed to reflect volunteer actions representative of the behavioral contracting model of intervention. Items represented sequential steps in the contracting model beginning with assessment and ending with the instruction of the youth and significant others in the specifics of the contracting methodology. This nine item scale produced an alpha of .93.

(10) Advocacy. This scale consisted of items reflective of intervention activities required by the advocacy model of intervention. More specifically, the scale was designed to determine the extent to which the volunteer was intervening on behalf of the youth to gain needed resources. Example item: "To what extent has the volunteer specified individuals in control of needed resources?" This scale consisted of 10 items which had a scale alpha of .76.

Nonprofessional Volunteer Measures

As with the youth process data, there were several aspects of the non-professional volunteers' experience which were related to intervention implementation. In particular, the extent to which the volunteers recalled training material and their attitudes toward delinquents seemed to be important variables. Three dimensions assessing the impact of the intervention process on the volunteers themselves were assessed: knowledge acquisition and retention, volunteer satisfaction, and volunteer attitudes.

Knowledge acquisition and retention. A training test was created in order to assess the training knowledge mastery levels of the volunteers in the various conditions. The test included items based on the skills taught during the training phases of the volunteer's project involvement. There were four specific items related to the rationale behind the creation of the project model, rationales behind the use of the behavioral

and advocacy intervention strategies, and specifics relating to the triadic multiple strategy approach employed by the project. In addition, filler items not relating directly to training material were also included in the instrument (see Appendix L). The rational-empirical scale construction strategy was employed resulting in a training test scale of 14 items with an internal consistency alpha of .74.

The knowledge retention measure was administered following the end of volunteer training and again at the end of the volunteer's intervention period. In order to eliminate the volunteer's fear that he/she was being tested per se, the instrument was administered with the bulk of other measures that volunteers were required to complete and the measure was simply entitled "Intervention Opinions."

Volunteer training satisfaction. Since enthusiasm has been characterized as a critical tendency frequently displayed by successful nonprofessional volunteers (Durlak, 1971), scales were designed to directly assess the satisfaction of volunteers participating in this intervention project. These scales were but several components of an extensive project evaluation questionnaire (Mitchell, 1980) completed by the volunteers at the end of training and at the end of intervention.

Through the use of principal components/varimax rotation procedures (Tatsuoka, 1973), using Kaiser's criteria (Kaiser & Caffry, 1965), subscales were extracted from the overall project evaluation questionnaire. One subscale was included in the current research. This scale, the evaluation of a didactic training, included four items evaluating the specific training and intervention model. The project evaluation questionnaire developed by Mitchell (1980) is included in Appendix M.

Volunteer attitude. Attitude change as a function of nonprofessionals' involvement in various volunteer projects has previously been noted (Rappaport, Chinsky, & Cowen, 1971; Kantrowitz, 1979). Therefore, the differential impact on the volunteers of their experience in the two intervention conditions seemed a critical area to be assessed. Two scales included in a delinquency orientation questionnaire developed by Lawrence (1979) were included in the analysis (see Appendix N). The two scales, seen as potentially lying at opposite ends of a punitive-nonintervention continuum, are correlated $-.19$ ($p < .05$). The questionnaire itself was administered to the volunteers at the post intervention point.

(1) Individual-punitive. The individual-punitive scale of the delinquency orientation measure was designed to assess the extent to which the volunteer felt punishment was the desirable course of action when dealing with juvenile delinquents. The items included in this scale are identified in Appendix N. The internal consistency analysis resulted in a scale alpha of $.79$.

(2) Radical-nonintervention. The conceptualization of the radical-nonintervention scale grew out of the labeling literature. It was designed to assess the extent to which the volunteer felt that responses to delinquent activity should include diversion strategies and a general systems avoidance strategy. The items in this scale are also identified in Appendix N. The scale alpha was $.72$.

CHAPTER III

RESULTS

In this section, the results of the analyses will be organized according to the outline of the research issues raised at the conclusion of the first chapter (pgs. 27-29). First, the analysis of the youth outcome data relating to delinquent behavior (police and court archival records) and school performance will be described. Second, the results from the self-report delinquency questionnaire will be expounded. Third, the impact of systemic labeling upon the youth will be noted. Fourth, the intervention process measures monitoring the nonprofessional volunteers' actual intervention activities will be outlined. And fifth, the data assessing the impact of the intervention process on the nonprofessional volunteers will be detailed. The groups did not differ significantly on any pre-intervention measures.

Given the large number of variables directly assessed in this study, the data clearly demands multivariate analysis. However, due to the size and scope of this research, the small sample size precluded any grand multivariate analysis. Wherever possible, logical clusters of variables were analyzed initially in a multivariate fashion. These results are presented first in the appropriate sections and are followed by the presentation of repeated measures univariate analyses.

The police, court and school archival data were analyzed using experimental condition and time as independent variables. During the analysis

of the remaining variables, an additional independent variable was created. This additional variable should be seen as a simple dichotomization of successful cases versus failures. Cases were defined as failures if the youth had a contact with the police or a petition filed with the court during the intervention interval. Youth that did not have any contact with the official juvenile justice system during the intervention phase were considered successes. The inclusion of this dichotomous variable as an independent variable in an analysis of variance paradigm allowed for the examination of the relationship between various interview measures and the outcome of the case directly. In order to simplify data presentation, this dichotomous success/failure variable was included in tables only when the results were significant.

As noted earlier, several multivariate analyses will be included in the presentation of results. However, the bulk of the discussion will focus on the univariate analyses. In an attempt to tease out evidence supporting any relationship found in the data, Scheffé planned comparisons were performed (Scheffé, 1959). Due to the potentially correlated nature of the dependent measures and resultant inflation of alpha levels, single findings should be interpreted with caution. Wherever possible, convergence with other findings and sources of information will be noted in an attempt to support meaningful conclusions.

Pre data was gathered on nearly every outcome measure (see measures). The random assignment procedure appears to have been effective. Scheffé comparisons failed to reveal any pre-intervention condition differences.

Youth Outcome Measures

The primary question with which the current research concerned itself was the relative efficacy of the two experimental conditions (diversion

and court) and the court treatment as usual control in terms of traditional archival and self-report outcome measures.

Archival Data

Given the anticipated interdependencies of the court data (number of petitions, average seriousness of petitioned offenses, and most serious disposition) and the police data (number of offenses, average seriousness, and most serious disposition), the correlations between these various outcome measures were computed. Table 6 contains the correlation matrix for these six variables summed over the pre and summed over the post data collection intervals. The average intervariable correlation for the three court measures was .74 while the average intervariable correlation for the three police variables was .84. In a general sense, the intervariable correlations were quite high within the same time frame, while that relationship dropped substantially as one attempts to predict across time.

Police data. A multivariate analysis of variance of the three police variables (number of offenses, average seriousness and most serious disposition) yielded a significant main effect for time ($F = 3.76, p < .01$) and a significant condition by time interaction ($F = 2.07, p < .05$). This data was further broken down through univariate analyses of variance.

The univariate analysis of variance for the police contacts variable as adjusted for time at risk yielded a significant main effect for time and a significant condition by time interaction (see Table 7). Scheffé comparisons demonstrated a significant drop across time on police contacts in the diversion condition (times 1-4 vs. times 5-6: $F = 3.32, p < .01$). This drop in police contacts was not significant in the court and control conditions.

Table 6
Archival Court and Police Data Intercorrelations*

	Court Data			Police Data		
	Average Pre			Average Post		
	Off.	Ser.	Disp.	Off.	Ser.	Disp.
Court	Off.	1.00				
	Ser.	.73	1.00			
	Disp.	.53	.69	1.00		
Post	Off.	.00	.18	.17	1.00	
	Ser.	-.05	.08	.21	.84	1.00
	Disp.	-.11	.00	.17	.71	.92
Police	Off.	.35	.23	.28	.10	.15
	Ser.	.44	.51	.49	.25	.32
	Disp.	.33	.39	.33	.35	.41
Post	Off.	.01	.15	.06	.88	.62
	Ser.	.13	.16	.11	.53	.48
	Disp.	.08	.18	.12	.74	.66
	Off.				.14	.19
	Ser.				.44	.38
	Disp.				.34	.35
	Off.				.32	.51
	Ser.				.54	.66
	Disp.				.86	.93
	Off.				1.00	
	Ser.				.66	1.00
	Disp.				.86	.93

*Correlations greater than .23, $p < .05$.

Correlations greater than .32, $p < .01$.

Table 7

Police Contacts
Adjusted for Time at Risk

	1	2	3	4	5	6
Diversion	.18	.00	.20	1.50	.11	.00
Court	.08	.00	.58	1.50	.09	1.06
Controls	.06	.20	.33	.33	.34	.00

Analysis of Variance

<u>Source</u>	<u>Df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>Prob.</u>	<u>ω^2</u>
Condition (C)	2	1.34	1.44	.25	
Subjects (R)	35	.93			
Time (T)	5	3.02	3.98	.002	.16
C x T	10	1.71	2.25	.017	.05
R x T	175	.76			

The police data should be interpreted with caution, for two major reasons. First, it should be noted in the police contacts variable (Table 7) that **there** was a significant pre difference at time period four (time 4, diversion and court vs. control: $F = 12.27$, $p < .01$). Recall that youth were referred to the project for court petitioned offenses that **typically** occurred at time 4. Generally, its the case that court petitions are preceded by police contacts. However, during the current research, eight of the 15 youth in the control condition did not have any pre police offenses on record. Past research efforts have demonstrated similar problems with police outcome data (Kantrowitz, 1979; Emshoff, 1980; Mitchell, 1980). The fact that the unreliability of police data seems to have been unevenly distributed within experimental conditions makes this an even **greater** concern.

Second, cell means of zero were frequent in several of the outcome variables. Cell means of zero necessitate zero variance within those cells which violate analysis of variance assumptions. This is a frequently occurring problem in criminal justice research. In order to minimize the impact of this problem, pre-post analyses of variance were conducted on any outcome data sets where this problem arose. By aggregating the data in this pre-post manner, considerable power was lost and it was frequently the case that the observed effects were not replicated. However, the pre-post analyses were used to supplement the original analyses and determine the reasonableness of the conclusions drawn.

The analysis of variance of the pre-post police contacts variable as adjusted for time at risk is included in Table 8. There were no significant effects, however the results did show similar patterns of cell means

Table 8

Pre-Post

Police Contacts Adjusted for Time at Risk

	Pre	Post
Diversion	1.89	.23
Court	1.67	2.32
Control	.93	.68

Analysis of Variance

<u>Source</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>Prob.</u>
Condition (C)	2	9.99	1.33	.28
Subjects (R)	35	7.51		
Time (T)	1	2.63	.41	.52
C x T	2	7.76	1.22	.31
R x T	35	6.36		

and nearly significant comparisons. In addition, at the post data point, the court condition showed a significantly higher number of police contacts than the diversion or control groups (post, court vs. diversion and control: $F = 3.78$, $p < .05$). It appears as if the violation of the analysis of variance assumptions did not seriously effect the analysis. However, the increased power inherent in the initial analysis allowed several observed effects to reach significant levels. These results should be interpreted cautiously due to the unreliable nature of the police data set.

The average seriousness for all police contacts for each youth were calculated for each quarter interval. The univariate analysis of variance for this police seriousness variable yielded a significant main effect for time only ($F = 9.51$, $p < .01$; see Table 9). As noted earlier, many time effects on these outcome data were largely accounted for by the high number of contacts at the time 4 interval immediately preceding referral to the project. Scheffé comparisons on this variable demonstrated that this time effect was present in all conditions.

The average police seriousness analysis also suffered from the inclusion of cells with zero variance. The pre-post analysis of this data set is included in Table 10. Once again there was an observed main effect for time and it was apparent in all three conditions (pre vs. post, diversion: $F = 7.39$, $p < .01$; court: $F = 6.11$, $p < .01$; control: $F = 7.64$, $p < .01$). In addition, by aggregating the data in this fashion, the error term was modified such that at the post data interval the court condition showed a more serious police contact mean than the diversion and control condition ($F = 5.48$, $p < .01$).

The analysis of variance of the most serious police disposition variable yielded similar results; the main effect for time was significant

Table 9
Average Seriousness of
Police Contacts

	1	2	3	4	5	6
Diversion	.36	.00	.45	1.24	.18	.00
Court	.17	.08	.83	1.50	.08	.46
Controls	.20	.37	.67	.73	.24	.00

Analysis of Variance

<u>Source</u>	<u>Df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>Prob.</u>	<u>ω^2</u>
Condition (C)	2	.56	.56	.58	
Subjects (R)	35	1.01			
Time (T)	5	5.93	9.51	.0005	.15
C x T	10	.70	1.13	.34	
R x T	175	.62			

Table 10
Pre-Post
Average Seriousness of Police Contacts

	Pre	Post
Diversion	2.06	.36
Court	2.58	1.10
Control	1.97	.49

Analysis of Variance

<u>Source</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>Prob.</u>	<u>ω^2</u>
Condition (C)	2	3.14	.72	.50	
Subjects (R)	35	4.38			
Time (T)	1	45.32	21.07	.0005	.16
C x T	2	.09	.04		
R x T	35	2.15			

(see Table 11). Scheffé comparisons demonstrated significant drops in the police disposition variable for both experimental conditions (diversion and court), however, this drop was not significant in the control condition (times 1-4 vs. times 5-6, diversion: $F = 4.62$, $p < .01$; court: $F = 5.04$, $p < .01$).

Similar effects were noted in the pre-post analysis of the police disposition variable (see Table 12). There were no condition differences at the pre time period. However, the court group did show a higher disposition score at the post point than the diversion and control groups (post, court vs. diversion and control: $F = 3.35$, $p < .05$). The across time effects were more pronounced in this analysis as all three conditions showed a drop in the most serious disposition from pre to post (pre vs. post, diversion: $F = 12.49$, $p < .01$; court: $F = 13.20$, $p < .01$; control: $F = 5.63$, $p < .05$).

Court data. The multivariate analysis of variance on the first three court dependent variables (petitions, average seriousness and most serious disposition) yielded a significant time effect ($F = 2.27$, $p < .05$). The univariate analysis for the court petitions variable as a function of time at risk also yielded a significant time effect (see Table 13). Further analysis of this time effect through Scheffé comparisons showed a decline in the frequency of court petitions from times 3 and 4 to time 5 and 6 in the diversion condition ($F = 5.99$, $p < .01$) and the control condition ($F = 6.28$, $p < .01$). There was little pre-post change apparent in the court condition ($F = .06$, NS). In addition, the number of court petitions filed on youth in the diversion condition was significantly less than the number of court petitions filed on youth in the court condition during

Table 11
Most Serious Police Disposition

	1	2	3	4	5	6
Diversion	.18	.00	.27	1.00	.09	.00
Court	.17	.08	.67	1.17	.08	.33
Controls	.07	.27	.33	.47	.20	.00

Analysis of Variance

<u>Source</u>	<u>Df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>Prob.</u>	<u>ω^2</u>
Condition (C)	2	.82	1.93	.16	
Subjects (R)	35	.42			
Time (T)	5	3.28	10.30	.0005	.16
C x T	10	.47	1.48	.15	
R x T	175	.32			

Table 12
Pre-Post
Most Serious Police Disposition

	Pre	Post
Diversion	1.45	.18
Court	2.08	.83
Control	1.13	.40

Analysis of Variance					
<u>Source</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>Prob.</u>	<u>ω^2</u>
Condition (C)	2	3.70	1.81	.18	
Subjects (R)	35	2.05			
Time (T)	1	21.05	29.85	.0005	.17
C x T	2	.63	.90	.42	
R x T	35	.70			

Table 13
Court Petitions
Adjusted for Time at Risk

	1	2	3	4	5	6
Diversion	.00	.00	.30	1.00	.11	.00
Court	.00	.08	.25	1.00	.09	.71
Controls	.07	.20	.73	.87	.43	.09

Analysis of Variance

<u>Source</u>	<u>Df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>Prob.</u>	<u>ω^2</u>
Condition (C)	2	.52	1.07	.35	
Subjects (R)	35	.48			
Time (T)	5	4.21	6.50	.0005	.11
C x T	10	.59	.90	.53	
R x T	175	.65			

project involvement (times 5-6, diversion vs. court: $F = 5.69$, $p < .01$). The disparity between court petitions and police contacts as archival outcome results will be a crucial factor in a more comprehensive discussion of these findings.

The court variables also suffered from violations of the assumptions of the analysis of variance. Once again there were some cells with zero variance. The pre-post analysis of variance of the court petitions variable adjusted for time at risk showed a similar pattern of results but the specific Scheffé comparisons did not reach significant proportions (see Table 14).

Both the average seriousness (see Table 15) and most serious disposition court variables (see Table 16) yielded the anticipated main effects for time. All three conditions showed a pre-post drop in the average seriousness of court petitions filed (times 1-4 vs. times 5-6, diversion: $F = 3.66$, $p < .01$; court: $F = 4.68$, $p < .01$; control: $F = 6.93$, $p < .01$).

These results were confirmed by the pre-post analysis of the average court seriousness variable (see Table 17). All three conditions showed a drop in the average seriousness of court petitions filed (pre vs. post, diversion: $F = 9.13$, $p < .01$; court: $F = 10.93$, $p < .01$; control: $F = 17.35$, $p < .01$).

However, Scheffé comparisons demonstrated that petitions filed on youth in the diversion condition resulted in less serious dispositional decisions during project involvement when compared to dispositional decisions of petitions filed on youth in either the court or control conditions (times 5-6, diversion vs. court and control: $F = 5.43$, $p < .01$).

Table 14
 Pre-Post
 Court Petitions Adjusted for Time at Risk

	Pre	Post
Diversion	1.30	.23
Court	1.33	1.61
Control	1.87	1.04

Analysis of Variance

<u>Source</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>Prob.</u>
Condition (C)	2	3.80	.84	.44
Subjects (R)	35	4.53		
Time (T)	1	5.71	1.22	.28
C x T	2	3.10	.66	.52
R x T	35	4.69		

Table 15
Average Seriousness of
Court Petitions

	1	2	3	4	5	6
Diversion	.00	.00	.55	1.45	.09	.00
Court	.00	.25	.75	1.67	.08	.27
Controls	.20	.33	1.17	1.42	.38	.07

Analysis of Variance

<u>Source</u>	<u>Df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>Prob.</u>	<u>ω^2</u>
Condition (C)	2	1.16	2.67	.08	.01
Subjects (R)	35	.44			
Time (T)	5	12.49	14.96	.0005	.45
C x T	10	.31	.37	.96	
R x T	175	.83			

Table 16

Most Serious Court Disposition

	1	2	3	4	5	6
Diversion	.00	.00	.36	1.45	.09	.00
Court	.00	.08	.50	1.50	.33	.67
Controls	.07	.13	1.20	1.67	.67	.27

Analysis of Variance

<u>Source</u>	<u>Df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>Prob.</u>	<u>ω^2</u>
Condition (C)	2	2.31	2.70	.08	.01
Subjects (R)	35	.86			
Time (T)	5	12.23	11.32	.0005	.19
C x T	10	.61	.56	.84	
R x T	175	1.08			

Table 17
Pre-Post
Average Seriousness of Court Petitions

	Pre	Post
Diversion	.05	.01
Court	.07	.02
Control	.08	.02

Analysis of Variance

<u>Source</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>Prob.</u>	<u>ω^2</u>
Condition (C)	2	.003	2.43	.10	
Subjects (R)	35	.001			
Time (T)	1	.049	36.49	.001	.31
C x T	2	.000	.13	.88	
R x T	35	.001			

Again, these findings were confirmed by the pre-post analysis (see Table 18). The diversion condition showed lower most serious disposition scores than in the court and control conditions (post, diversion vs. court and control: $F = 3.55$, $p < .05$).

The additional court variable of incarceration also showed a difference between the diversion condition and the court and control conditions. Diversion youth were less likely to become incarcerated during involvement ($F = 4.46$, $p < .05$; see Table 19). These findings were not confirmed in the collapsed analyses.

School data. The multivariate analysis of variance of the school data yielded no significant findings. The dependent variables of numbers of the youth attending school, grade point average, percent of days absent, and proportion of credits earned were also subjected to univariate analyses of variance. The only significant finding in those four univariate analyses was a significant time effect for number of youth in school (see Table 20). This pre-post drop in number of youth attending school was carried by the control condition (times 1-4 vs. times 5-6, control: $F = 10.43$, $p < .01$). The decrease in youth attending school in the two experimental conditions was not significant. There were no significant condition differences at any time period.

Table 18
Pre-Post
Most Serious Court Disposition

	Pre	Post
Diversion	1.82	.18
Court	2.08	2.00
Control	3.07	1.87

Analysis of Variance

<u>Source</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>Prob.</u>
Condition (C)	2	13.97	2.05	.14
Subjects (R)	35	6.80		
Time (T)	1	18.01	3.20	.08
C x T	2	3.78	.67	.52
R x T	35	5.63		

Table 19
Months Incarcerated

	1	2	3	4	5	6
Diversion	.00	.00	.00	.01	.00	.00
Court	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.05
Controls	.00	.00	.00	.00	.04	.21

Analysis of Variance

<u>Source</u>	<u>Df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>Prob.</u>
Condition (C)	2	.04	.65	.53
Subjects (R)	35	.06		
Time (T)	5	.06	1.52	.19
C x T	10	.03	.68	.74
R x T	175	.04		

Table 20
Number of Youth Enrolled in School*

	1	2	3	4	5	6
Diversion	1.00	1.09	1.09	1.18	1.18	1.09
Court	1.08	1.17	1.17	1.25	1.25	1.25
Controls	1.00	1.00	1.08	1.08	1.23	1.23

*Scored = 1 - Enrolled
 2 - Not Enrolled

Analysis of Variance

<u>Source</u>	<u>Df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>Prob.</u>	<u>ω^2</u>
Condition (C)	2	.20	.47	.63	
Subjects (R)	33	.42			
Time (T)	5	.19	3.33	.007	.03
C x T	10	.03	.49	.89	
R x T	165	.06			

Summary of archival outcome data. The bulk of the data demonstrated the consistent change across time that was in a large part due to the unique nature of this data set. More specifically, all youth had contacts with the system immediately prior to their referral to the project creating an artificially high level of contact with the juvenile justice system at this time period. Some across time changes did differ by condition. The police variables tended to distinguish the experimental diversion and court conditions from the control condition while the court variables distinguished the diversion condition from the court and control conditions.

Differences between the groups were minimal. Although the chi square was not significant, two of the 11 youth in the diversion condition and three of the 15 youth in the control condition recidivated during project involvement while a full 6 of the 12 in the court condition had subsequent contacts with the juvenile justice system during project involvement. In this instance, recidivism referred to either a police or a court contact. The primary condition differences that were present were the findings that a smaller proportion of youth in the diversion condition had subsequent contacts with the juvenile court and of those that did, the youth in the diversion condition were more likely to receive a less serious disposition and were less likely to become incarcerated as a result of that contact. School differences were minimal. A summary of the archival outcome data is included in Table 21.

Interview Based Measures

Recall that interviews were conducted with various sources at four points in time commencing with the intake interview immediately following

Table 21
Summary of Archival Outcome Results*

	Dependent Variables								
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Diversion	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	0	8
Court	0	+	+	0	+	-	-	0	4
Control	0	+	0	+	+	-	-	-	3

*Symbols represent change across time or condition comparisons on each dependent variable.

+ Positive change

0 No change

- Negative change

1 Police contacts adjusted for time at risk

2 Average seriousness of police contacts

3 Most serious police disposition

4 Court petitions adjusted for time at risk

5 Average seriousness of court petitions

6 Most serious court disposition

7 Incarceration

8 School enrollment

9 Number of dependent variables on which the experimental condition scored at least as high a change score as the other conditions

the youth's referral to the project (see Table 2, p. 36). Three subsequent waves of interviews were conducted at six week intervals with the fourth being the eighteenth week or termination from the youth's formal involvement in the project. The following sections will outline the results from the data gathered during these interviews. Also recall that these tables include the dichotomous success/failure independent variables where it produced significant findings.

Self-reported delinquency. It has been argued that archival data is merely a measure of juvenile justice system behavior (Williams & Gold, 1972) and self-reported estimates of delinquent behavior should be incorporated into the evaluation design of any delinquency prevention project (Blakely, et al., 1980). The total scale derived from the self-reported delinquency measure was analyzed in a three by four (condition by time) analysis of variance. Recall that the data gathered at the first time interval referred to the six week time interval immediately preceding project referral. Results indicated an overall main effect for time (see Table 22). Both experimental conditions demonstrated this significant drop across time in self-reported illegal activity while this drop was not significant in the control condition (time 1 vs. times 2-4, diversion: $F = 4.49$, $p < .01$; court: $F = 4.27$, $p < .01$; control: $F = .56$, NS). Self-report data does represent less penetration into the official system. In that respect, it makes rational sense that these findings more closely resemble the findings in the police data than the court data.

Labeling outcome. The label spread scales were designed to assess the extent to which the youth felt that others were aware of his/her contacts with the police, court, and project, as well as the importance of these significant others to the youth. Klein, et al. (1978) felt that

Table 22
Self-Reported Delinquency*

	1	2	3	4
Diversion	12.00	8.09	8.55	8.82
Court	11.42	9.46	7.54	7.42
Controls	8.93	10.29	6.00	7.21

*Number of offenses reported.

Analysis of Variance

<u>Source</u>	<u>Df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>Prob.</u>	<u>ω^2</u>
Condition (C)	2	20.89	.14	.87	
Subjects (R)	34	152.73			
Time (T)	3	88.79	3.91	.01	.02
C x T	6	19.31	.85	.53	
R x T	102	22.69			

these dimensions could be monitored and used to build a model that would explain the labeling effects of the court system. Four subscales were adapted from Klein's own work in an attempt to determine the fit of his model with the differing impact of the experimental and control conditions in the current research. The results of the analyses of these four subscales are included in the following sections.

(1) Police reference. The analysis of variance of the scale assessing the extent to which the youth felt significant others were aware of his/her contact with the police that ultimately led to project involvement yielded a significant main effect for time (see Table 23). This time effect was virtually carried in its entirety by the pre-post change in the control condition (time 1 vs. times 2-4, control: $F = 2.81$, $p < .05$; time 1 vs. time 4: $F = 5.65$, $p < .01$). There were no direct condition or success/failure effects.

(2) Court reference. Similar results were reached concerning the scale assessing the extent to which the youth felt that significant others were aware of the contact with the court system that ultimately led to project referral (see Table 24). Again, there were no significant main effects for condition or success/failure. The observed time effect was due primarily to the pre-post change in the control condition as youth in that condition felt that an increasing proportion of significant others were aware of their court contact (time 1 vs. times 2-4, control: $F = 5.61$, $p < .01$).

(3) Project reference. The scale assessing the extent to which the youth felt that significant others were aware of contacts with the project also yielded a significant time effect (see Table 25). This significant rise across time was present in all three conditions (time 1 vs. times 2-4,

Table 23

Youth's Rating of Labelers
Knowledge of Contact with Police*

	1	2	3	4
Diversion	2.34	2.46	2.50	2.45
Court	2.40	2.39	2.50	2.52
Controls	2.24	2.26	2.38	2.46

*Number of sources aware of contact.

Analysis of Variance

<u>Source</u>	<u>Df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>Prob.</u>	<u>ω^2</u>
Condition (C)	2	.21	.55	.59	
Subject (R)	34	.38			
Time (T)	3	.21	3.50	.02	.02
C x T	6	.03	.42	.86	
R x T	102	.06			

Table 24

Youth's Rating of Labelers
Knowledge of Court Contacts*

	1	2	3	4
Diversion	2.27	2.35	2.44	2.29
Court	2.26	2.16	2.37	2.34
Controls	2.15	2.29	2.30	2.44

*Number of sources aware of contact.

Analysis of Variance

<u>Source</u>	<u>Df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>Prob.</u>	<u>ω^2</u>
Condition (C)	2	.04	.09	.91	
Subjects (R)	34	.44			
Time (T)	3	.19	2.73	.05	.02
C x T	6	.09	1.28	.27	
R x T	102	.07			

Table 25

Youth's Rating of Labelers
Knowledge of Project Involvement*

	1	2	3	4
Diversion	2.01	2.14	2.23	2.16
Court	1.94	2.29	2.28	2.36
Control	1.84	2.14	2.10	2.17

*Number of sources aware of contact.

Analysis of Variance

<u>Source</u>	<u>Df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>Prob.</u>	<u>ω^2</u>
Condition (C)	2	.32	.89	.42	
Subjects (R)	34	.36			
Time (T)	3	.74	15.94	.0005	.11
C x T	6	.05	1.02	.41	
R x T	102	.05			

diversion: $F = 4.58$, $p < .01$; court: $F = 24.64$, $p < .01$; control: $F = 18.48$, $p < .01$). Again, the main effects for condition and success/failure failed to reach significant proportions.

(4) Label acceptance/rejection. The scale assessing the importance of these labelers to the youth yielded a nearly significant time by success/failure interaction (see Table 26). It was in fact the case that youth involved in successful intervention experiences did not report any change in the relative importance of significant others across time. However, the youth who did recidivate during project involvement reported a significant pre-post drop in the perceived importance ratings of these significant others (time 1 vs. times 2-4, failures: $F = 6.26$, $p < .01$)

(5) Summary of labeling measures. Labeling theory has been used by many to criticize the courts and explain their many failures (Becker, 1963; Schur, 1975). The three conditions in the current research incorporated differing degrees of formal ties to the juvenile court. The question of whether labeling effects could be tied to outcome results in this research was intriguing indeed. The measures included in this section directly attempted to assess the occurrence of labeling effects according to the model developed by Klein (Klein, et al., 1978).

In summarizing the labeling data, it was apparent that the control group reported an increase across time in significant others' awareness of the youth's contact with the police and court. Significant others were increasingly aware of the youth's involvement in the project in all three conditions. However, this was much more obvious in both the court and control conditions. It is also interesting to note that the youth who had additional contacts with the legal system during their project involvement reported a clear decrease in the perceived importance of these

Table 26
Label Acceptance/Rejection*

		1	2	3	4
Diversion	Success	2.34	2.68	2.66	2.40
	Failure	3.45	3.00	2.89	2.95
Court	Success	2.54	2.64	2.81	2.91
	Failure	2.46	2.03	1.98	1.32
Controls	Success	2.55	2.86	2.55	2.26
	Failure	2.90	2.75	2.60	2.11

*The higher the score the more important the person is to the youth.

Analysis of Variance

<u>Source</u>	<u>Df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>Prob.</u>	<u>ω^2</u>
Condition (C)	2	1.84	.67	.52	
Success (S)	1	.10	.04	.85	
C x S	2	3.95	1.43	.25	
Subjects	31	2.76			
Time (T)	3	.76	2.07	.11	
C x T	6	.10	.28	.94	
T x S	3	.88	2.40	.07	.01
C x T x S	6	.21	.58	.74	
R x T	93	.37			

significant other labelers. In short, the data did not fit with the model put forth by Klein and his associates.

Process measures. As noted earlier, a major concern of any dissemination effort is the degree to which the adopting organizations implement the model as it was designed in the original innovation (Emshoff, et al., 1980). The juvenile court, existing to impact on the juvenile crime problem, is a logical potential user to consider in the dissemination of this successful delinquency intervention process. However, given the diver-sionary nature of the current model and the traditional focus of the juvenile court, substantial variations in the degree to which the model was implemented were anticipated. At this point, several of the analyses of the intervention process monitoring scales will be presented. Only scales with significant findings were included in this presentation.

Due to the fact that controls were excluded from intervention process data and the fact that it was gathered at only three points in time, too few replications were available to perform a multivariate analysis on the intervention process data. Scales were subjected to condition (diversion, court) by time (2-4) repeated measures univariate analyses of variance (see Table 2, p. 36). On several occasions, where it was meaningful and/or significant, the success/failure variable was included as an additional independent variable in the design.

(1) Amount of time. One of the more crucial variables concerned with the equivalence of the two groups is the scale assessing the actual amount of time the volunteers in each condition spent in intervention related activities. The analysis of this scale is included in Table 27. No significant effects were noted.

Table 27
Amount of Intervention Time

	2	3	4
Diversion	4.11	3.77	3.82
Court	3.63	3.89	4.08

Average item score (1-5)

Analysis of Variance

<u>Source</u>	<u>Df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>Prob.</u>
Condition (C)	1	.02	.01	.93
Subjects (R)	21	2.09		
Time	2	.10	.22	.80
C x T	2	.90	1.93	.16
R x T	42	.47		

(2) Volunteer contacts. The above evidence was confirmed by gathering similar information from the volunteers' log book records of case contacts. There were no significant condition effects due to the number of volunteer-youth contacts during the intervention interval (see Table 28).

(3) Summary of general volunteer involvement. In order to make inferences as to the extent to which outcome results were related to the differential degree to which volunteers implemented the model, it's imperative to rule out as many alternative explanations as possible. The actual amount of time the volunteers spent in direct case related contact with the youth is one such alternative explanation. Given that there were no significant differences in the overall amount of intervention activity in the two conditions, the issue then becomes to what extent did the volunteers in the two conditions adhere to the specifics of the intervention model. The remaining intervention scales focused on more specific components of the intervention process as they occurred across time.

(4) Recreational activities. The analysis of variance of the scale assessing volunteers' activities in the recreational domain is presented in Table 29. Significant main effects were noted for both condition and success/failure while the main effect for time was nearly significant. Several interaction effects were also nearly significant. Through the use of Scheffé comparisons, several important findings were discovered. Diversion condition volunteers working on successful cases showed a slight but nonsignificant drop in recreational activities from time 2 to time 3, followed by a significant rise in recreational activities from time 3 to time 4 (time 3 vs. time 4, diversion successes: $F = 10.81$, $p < .01$). Diversion condition volunteers in the failure condition showed a significant drop from time 2 to time 3 (time 2 vs. time 3, diversion failures:

Table 28
Volunteer/Youth Contacts

	Contacts
Diversion	25.64
Court	26.42

Analysis of Variance					
<u>Source</u>	<u>Df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>Prob.</u>	<u>ω^2</u>
Condition	1	3.49	.03	.86	.00
Subjects	21	105.59			

Table 29
Recreational Activities

		2	3	4
Diversion	Success	3.37	2.96	3.78
	Failure	2.67	1.50	1.34
Court	Success	3.67	3.70	4.00
	Failure	3.56	3.39	3.83

Average item score (1-5)

Analysis of Variance

<u>Source</u>	<u>Df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>Prob.</u>	<u>ω^2</u>
Condition (C)	1	15.03	9.01	.01	.17
Success/Failure (S)	1	9.52	5.71	.05	.10
C x S	1	5.73	3.44	.03	.05
Subjects (R)	19	1.67			
Time (T)	2	.88	3.16	.05	.02
C x T	2	.78	2.79	.07	.01
T x S	2	.85	3.05	.06	.01
C x T x S	2	.78	2.79	.07	.01
R x T	38	.28			

$F = 4.89, p < .01$) and then maintain this lower level at time 4 (see Figure 2). At this time 4 period, the diversion successes were significantly more involved in recreational activities than were volunteers in the diversion failure cell (time 4, diversion successes vs. failures: $F = 5.83, p < .05$). Volunteers in the court success or court failure cells maintained a high level of recreational activity consistently across all three time periods.

(5) Home involvement focused on changing the parent. Table 30 displays a summary of the analysis of variance and the group means for the home involvement scale focused on changing the parent. The time by success/failure interaction was significant. In general, volunteers in successful cases increased their intervention focused on changing the parent, while those in nonsuccessful cases decreased their amount of intervention focused on changing the parent. More specifically, the court condition successes increased the amount of their intervention activities that were focused on changing the parent across time (time 2 vs. times 3-4, court successes: $F = 3.45, p < .01$). On the other hand, the volunteers in the diversion condition failure cell decreased the amount of their intervention focused on changing the parent in the home setting (time 2 vs. times 3-4, diversion failures: $F = 3.51, p < .05$).

(6) Home involvement focused on changing the youth. In a similar vein, a significant condition by time by success/failure interaction was also noted in the home intervention scale focused on changing the youth (see Table 31). In this instance, volunteers of successful cases increased the amount of their intervention time focused on changing the youth in the home setting across time (time 2 vs. times 3-4, successes: $F = 4.92, p < .01$). Diversion failure volunteers decreased the proportion of their

Figure 2
Recreational Activities

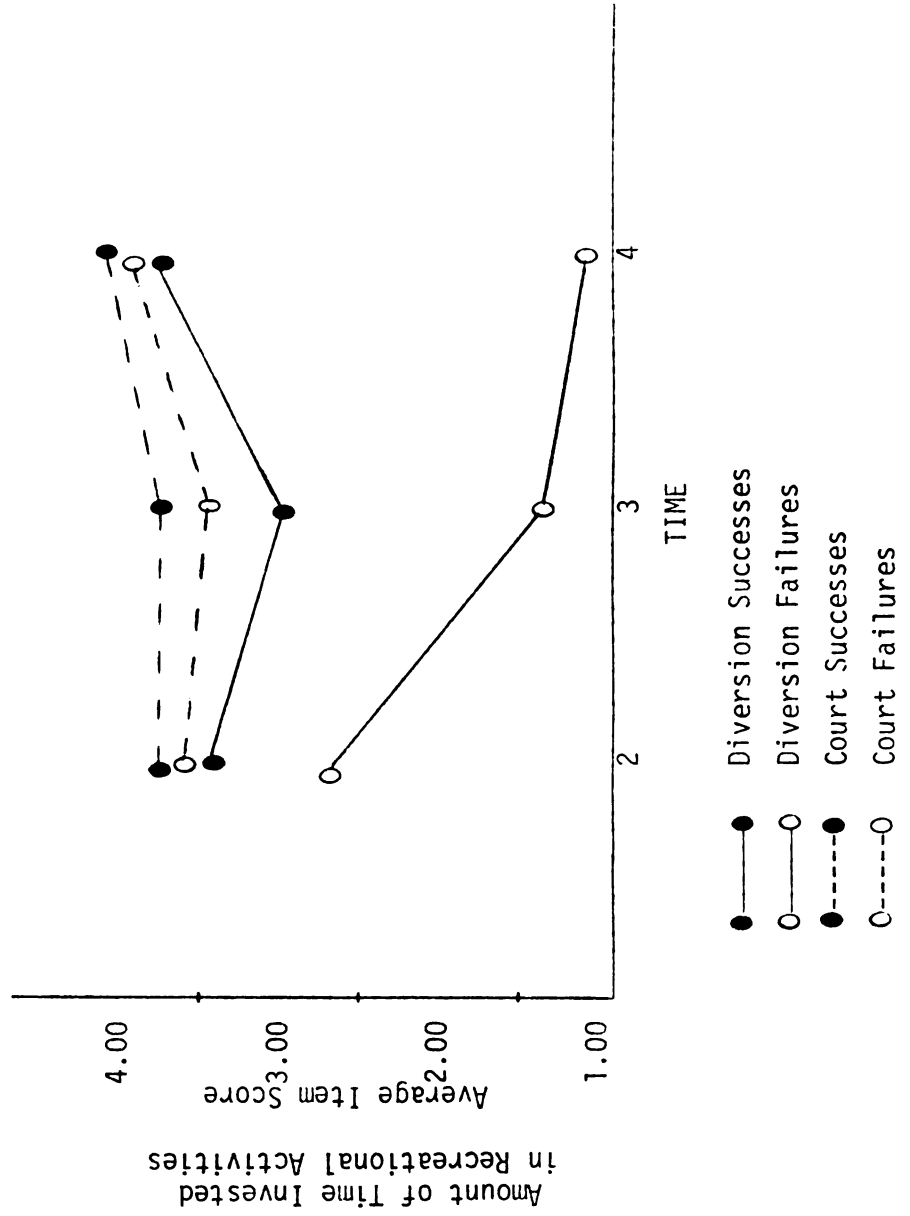


Table 30
Home Intervention
Focused on Changing Parent

		2	3	4
Diversion	Success	1.79	1.81	1.90
	Failure	2.39	1.69	1.50
Court	Success	1.07	1.41	1.65
	Failure	2.15	2.02	1.90

Average item score (1-5)

Analysis of Variance

<u>Source</u>	<u>Df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>Prob.</u>	<u>ω^2</u>
Condition (C)	1	.28	.23	.64	
Success/Failure (S)	1	1.46	1.23	.28	
C x S	1	1.22	1.02	.33	
Subjects (R)	19	1.20			
Time (T)	2	.07	.31	.74	
C x T	2	.37	1.54	.23	
T x S	2	.92	3.86	.05	.04
C x T x S	2	.02	.07	.93	
R x T	38	.24			

Table 31
Home Intervention
Focused on Changing Youth

		2	3	4
Diversion	Success	2.16	2.53	2.53
	Failure	2.75	1.70	1.30
Court	Success	1.30	1.76	1.83
	Failure	2.16	2.20	2.37

Average item score (1-5)

Analysis of Variance

<u>Source</u>	<u>Df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>Prob.</u>	<u>ω^2</u>
Condition (C)	1	.64	.39	.54	
Success/Failure (S)	1	.05	.03	.87	
C x S	1	3.85	2.31	.15	
Subjects (R)	19	1.66			
Time (T)	2	.03	.09	.92	
C x T	2	.90	2.59	.09	
T x S	2	1.43	4.10	.03	.04
C x T x S	2	.62	1.77	.18	
R x T	38	.35			

time invested in trying to change the youth in the home setting (time 2 vs. times 3-4, diversion failures: $F = 5.95$, $p < .01$).

(7) Summary of home interventions. In general, the two scales focused on monitoring interventions in the home area suggested that volunteers in successful cases increased intervention activities designed to change both the youth and the parent in the home setting. At the same time, it was apparent that failures decreased their home related interventions. By looking at the effects by condition, it appeared as if the diversion failures tended to give up on home change and focus on other areas. However, it should be recalled that there were no significant condition differences. The amount of activity was not different from that in the court condition.

(8) School intervention focused on changing the school. The school intervention scale focused on changing the school setting per se, yielded a significant condition by time interaction (see Table 32). In general, the diversion condition volunteers decreased the amount of their intervention focused on changing the school setting, while the court condition volunteers increased the amount of their intervention focused on changing the school setting. More specifically, the court volunteers increased their intervention from times 2 and 3 to time 4 (times 2-3 vs. time 4, court: $F = 6.80$, $p < .01$). This effect was carried out by the fact that the court successes increased their intervention across time (times 2-3 vs. time 4, court successes: $F = 6.73$, $p < .01$). Diversion failures decreased the amount of their intervention focused on changing the school setting (time 2 vs. times 3-4, diversion failures: $F = 4.35$, $p < .05$).

(9) School intervention focused on changing the youth. The school intervention scale focused on changing the youth in the school setting

Table 32

School Intervention
Focused on Changing the School

		2	3	4
Diversion	Success	1.59	1.57	1.43
	Failure	1.73	1.09	1.00
Court	Success	1.57	1.36	2.00
	Failure	2.01	2.13	2.30

Average item score (1-5)

Analysis of Variance

<u>Source</u>	<u>Df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>Prob.</u>	<u>ω^2</u>
Condition (C)	1	3.11	1.62	.22	
Success/Failure (S)	1	.18	.10	.76	
C x S	1	1.85	.96	.34	
Subjects (R)	19	1.92			
Time (T)	2	.15	.91	.41	
C x T	2	.70	4.14	.02	.02
T x S	2	.13	.80	.46	
C x T x S	2	.24	1.44	.25	
R x T	38	.17			

yielded a significant condition by success/failure interaction and a nearly significant condition main effect (see Table 33). These effects were due to the finding that volunteers in the court condition's success cell increased the amount of their intervention focused on changing the youth in the school setting across time (time 2 vs. times 3-4, court successes: $F = 8.35, p < .01$).

(10) Summary of school interventions. In summarizing the school intervention scales one should recall the school outcome results. The outcome results were minimal. There were no differences between the two experimental conditions in school variables. There were also minimal across time changes. The control group reported a drop in enrollment that did not occur in the experimental conditions.

Volunteers in the court success cell increased their school intervention in general across time. Volunteers in the diversion condition who were working with youth that had additional contacts with the legal system decreased their school interventions focused on changing the school setting. Perhaps the volunteers in this diversion failure cell were investing their efforts in more critical areas due to the additional justice system contact. A similar trend was noted in the home intervention scales. In any case, the increased efforts on the part of the volunteers in the court success cell did not relate to observed changes in the school outcome variables.

(11) Legal system interventions. The analysis of variance of the scale assessing intervention activities in the legal system is included in Table 34. Although no significant findings were noted in the analysis of variance, the anticipated success/failure main effect nearly reached

Table 33
 School Intervention
 Focused on Changing the Youth

		2	3	4
Diversion	Success	2.56	2.81	2.83
	Failure	1.54	1.65	1.50
Court	Success	1.98	2.63	2.99
	Failure	3.36	2.35	3.30

Average item score (1-5)

Analysis of Variance

<u>Source</u>	<u>Df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>Prob.</u>	<u>ω^2</u>
Condition (C)	1	7.92	3.67	.07	.07
Success/Failure (S)	1	.44	.20	.66	
C x S	1	12.41	5.75	.03	.13
Subjects (R)	19	2.16			
Time (T)	2	.43	1.30	.29	
C x T	2	.14	.42	.66	
T x S	2	.50	1.54	.23	
C x T x S	2	.16	.50	.61	
R x T	38	.33			

Table 34
Intervention in the Legal System

		2	3	4
Diversion	Success	1.06	1.00	1.02
	Failure	1.09	1.14	1.05
Court	Success	1.00	1.00	1.00
	Failure	1.30	1.72	1.67

Average item score (1-5)

Analysis of Variance

<u>Source</u>	<u>Df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>Prob.</u>	<u>ω^2</u>
Condition (C)	1	.64	2.04	.17	
Success/Failure (S)	1	1.25	4.01	.06	.04
C x S	1	.80	2.55	.13	
Subject (R)	19	.31			
Time (T)	2	.05	1.06	.36	
C x T	2	.07	1.61	.21	
T x S	2	.08	1.77	.18	
C x T x S	2	.04	.98	.39	
R x T	38	.04			

significance ($F = 4.01$, $p < .06$). Again, Scheffé comparisons yielded some interesting findings. Success/failure comparisons were not significant at time 2.

However, at time 3 volunteers in the failure cells were more involved in intervention activities in the legal system than volunteers in the successful cells (time 3, successes vs. failures: $F = 5.66$, $p < .05$). The same was true at time 4 (time 4, successes vs. failures: $F = 4.38$, $p < .05$). The data suggest that few youth came into contact with the legal system during the first several weeks of the intervention interval resulting in little differentiation between volunteers in successful versus failure cells until time 3. This might explain the failure of the success/failure effect to reach significant proportions.

Volunteers in the court condition increased their intervention in the legal system from time 2 to times 3 and 4 ($F = 8.00$, $p < .01$). Volunteers in the failure cells also increased their intervention focused on the legal system from time 2 to times 3 and 4 (time 2 vs. times 3-4, failures: $F = 24.08$, $p < .01$). More specifically, the court failures increased their interventions in the legal system across time (time 2 vs. times 3-4, court failures: $F = 15.60$, $p < .01$). This substantial increase in the court failure cell resulted in significant condition by success/failure comparisons at times 3 and 4. Volunteers in the court condition failure cell were much more likely to be involved in interventions in the legal system than were volunteers in any of the other three cells (time 3, court failures vs. court successes, diversion successes and diversion failures: $F = 10.27$, $p < .01$; time 4, court failures vs. court successes, diversion successes and diversion failures: $F = 9.48$, $p < .01$).

(12) Summary of legal system interventions. It is apparent that volunteers working with youth that have come into contact with the legal system will necessarily become more involved in interventions in the legal system. It is also apparent that this is to a greater extent true in the court condition. Volunteers in this cell were more involved in the legal system than in any of the other three cells during the latter half of the intervention interval.

(13) Contracting interventions. Although no significant findings were observed in the analysis of variance of the scale assessing contracting interventions (see Table 35), the main effect for time and the condition by time interaction were nearly significant and several comparisons were worthy of note. Volunteers in the court condition retained a fairly stable pattern of contracting activities across time, while volunteers in the diversion condition increased their intervention focused on contracting activities across time (time 2 vs. times 3-4, diversion: $F = 8.67, p < .01$). More specifically, diversion volunteers increased their contracting interventions substantially from time 2 to time 3 (time 2 vs. time 3, diversion: $F = 9.47, p < .01$) and dropped off this level to time 4. Although there was not an overall condition difference in the amount of contracting activities, these across time changes noted differential adherence to the contracting model as called for in the initial innovation (see Figure 3).

(14) Advocacy interventions. No specific findings were observed in the scale assessing advocacy interventions (see Table 36). However, it was interesting to note that the court volunteers that were working with youth that had additional contacts with the juvenile justice system decreased their amount of advocacy related interventions across time (time 2 vs. time 3, court failures: $F = 3.57, p < .05$).

Table 35

Contracting Intervention Activity

	2	3	4
Diversion	1.37	2.42	2.06
Court	1.84	1.92	1.97

Average item score (1-5)

Analysis of Variance

<u>Source</u>	<u>Df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>Prob.</u>	<u>ω^2</u>
Condition (C)	1	.03	.01	.92	
Subject (R)	21	3.09			
Time (T)	2	1.84	2.87	.07	.02
C x T	2	1.35	2.11	.13	
R x T	42	.64			

Figure 3
Contracting Intervention Activities

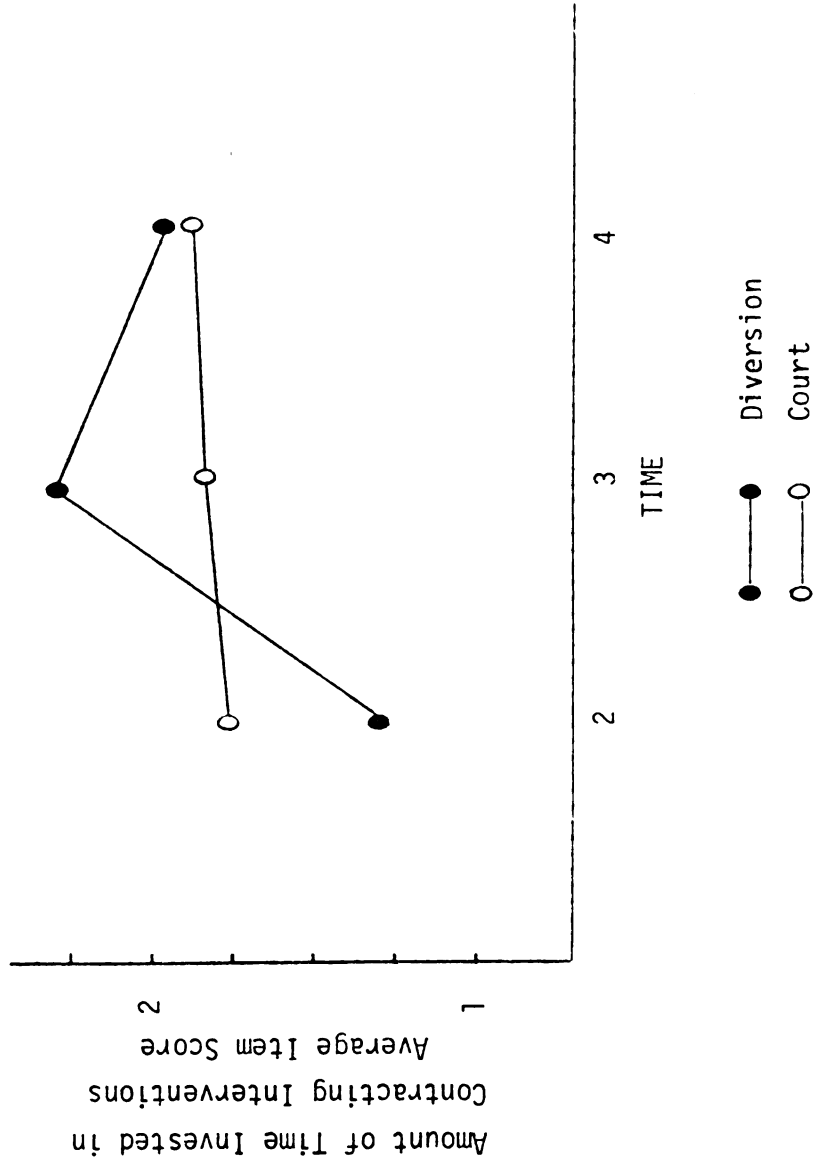


Table 36
Advocacy Intervention Activity

		2	3	4
Diversion	Success	1.96	2.22	2.21
	Failure	2.71	2.20	1.90
Court	Success	1.43	1.41	1.45
	Failure	2.21	1.52	2.03

Average item score (1-5)

Analysis of Variance

<u>Source</u>	<u>Df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>Prob.</u>
Condition (C)	1	3.52	1.90	.19
Success/Failure (S)	1	1.25	.67	.42
C x S	1	.39	.21	.65
Subjects (R)	19	1.86		
Time (T)	2	.26	.64	.53
C x T	2	.19	.48	.62
T x S	2	.65	1.63	.21
C x T x S	2	.24	.59	.56
R x T	38	.40		

Summary of process measures. Although there were few significant main effects for condition, there were several significant interactions and comparisons. The most appropriate place of departure would be to restate the finding that there was an equivalent amount of intervention time invested on the part of volunteers in both intervention conditions. The specifics of how they implemented the intervention model did vary considerably by condition. A summary table of the significant intervention process findings is included in Table 37. There were two major discrepancies in the implementation patterns of the two groups. The model called for an assessment phase followed by specific planning, implementation of planned activities, monitoring, fade-out and termination. This pattern was evident in the recreational activities and the contracting and school intervention scales in the diversion condition. However, the patterns were not evident in the intervention activities implemented by volunteers in the court condition.

Second, the failures in the diversion condition frequently reduced interventions focused on the home and school settings across time and increased activities such as contracting. As was mentioned earlier, this could easily have been related to crisis oriented activities on the volunteer's part. These crisis activities interfering with the ongoing efforts coupled with the natural decrease in intervention activities as the case moved toward termination could explain the drop in home and school related interventions on the part of volunteers in the diversion failures cell. On the other hand, failures in the court condition increased activities in the home and school settings and were more involved in the legal system yet they showed a decline in advocacy activities on behalf of the youth.

Table 37

Summary of Intervention Results*

Dependent Variables

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Diversion	+	0	0	-	0	+	+	0	6
Court	-	0	0	+	+	-	-	-	4

*Symbols represent change across time or condition comparisons on each dependent variable.

+ Positive change

0 No change

- Negative change

1 Recreational activities

2 Home interventions focused on changing the youth

3 Home interventions focused on changing the parent(s)

4 School interventions focused on changing the school

5 School interventions focused on changing the youth

6 Legal system interventions

7 Contracting interventions

8 Advocacy interventions

9 Number of dependent variables on which the experimental condition scored at least as high a change score as the other condition

Court workers typically increase information gathering efforts in the home and school settings with youth that have recently come into official contact with the system. It appears that the influence of the court staff has manifested itself in the form of decreased volunteer adherence to the model in the court condition and replaced it with activities more related to traditional court services.

Impact on Nonprofessional Volunteers

The positive benefits frequently obtained through volunteers have been noted (Gruver, 1971). Cowen, Zax and Laird (1966) have also noted that the volunteers' attitudes toward the target population generally improve while their attitude toward relevant institutions generally deteriorate. These attitudes are also potentially related to the manner in which the volunteers work with the population. The impact of the differing intervention modalities upon the volunteers themselves could be related to labeling effects, outcome results, etc. The following scales directly assessed the impact of the experiences upon the volunteers across several dimensions.

Course Related Measures

The two training related measures were evaluated in a pre-post design. They assessed the amount of training material acquired by the volunteers and the volunteers' general evaluations of this training experience (see Table 2, p. 36).

Knowledge acquisition/retention measure. A major concern during this study was the acquisition and retention of knowledge concerning specific intervention skills. The volunteers took a training test at the end of the training interval as well as at the end of project involvement.

The analysis of variance of this training test data is included in Table 38. A significant **main effect** for time and a nearly significant **condition by time interaction** were observed. The court condition volunteers possessed a greater command of the material immediately following training, however, this difference was not quite significant. The significant findings noted above were due primarily to the drop in retention in the court condition (time 1 vs. time 4, court: $F = 7.76$, $p < .01$), while the diversion condition volunteers retained virtually all of the knowledge base they acquired during training (see Figure 4).

Volunteer training satisfaction. The results of the analysis of variance of the scale assessing the volunteers' evaluation of the didactic training (academic term 1) is included in Table 39. Data was collected immediately following the first term's training (time 1) and at the post intervention time period at the end of academic term 3 (time 4).

A strong yet nonsignificant **condition by time interaction** and a significant **condition effect** were noted. The diversion condition volunteers rated the didactic training experience higher at both time periods. However, this difference was not significant at time 1. The diversion condition volunteers reported an increase from time 1 to time 4 while the court condition volunteers recorded a decrease from time 1 to time 4, resulting in a significant condition difference at time 4 (time 4, diversion vs. court: $F = 9.68$, $p < .01$). In other words, a significant condition difference was noted following the separation of the volunteers into the two experimental intervention conditions.

Volunteer Attitude Measures

In order to assess the impact of this intervention experience on the volunteers themselves, changes in their attitude toward delinquents and

Table 38
Volunteer Training Test

	1	4
Diversion	10.36	10.27
Court	11.58	9.92

Number correct responses (14)

Analysis of Variance

<u>Source</u>	<u>Df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>Prob.</u>	<u>ω^2</u>
Condition (C)	1	2.14	.52	.48	
Subjects (R)	21	4.08			
Time (T)	1	9.59	4.50	.05	.05
C x T	1	7.13	3.34	.08	.03
R x T	21	2.13			

Figure 4
Volunteer Training Test

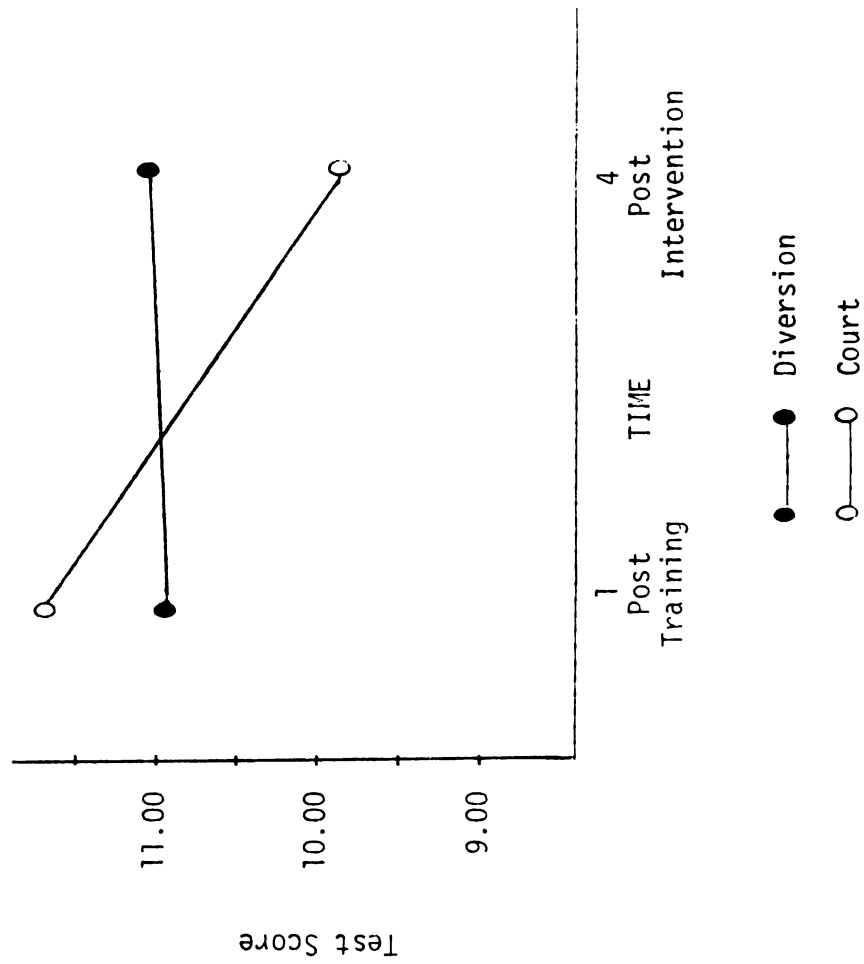


Table 39
Evaluation of Didactic Training

	1	4
Diversion	3.68	4.09
Court	3.29	3.19

Average item score (1-5)

Analysis of Variance

<u>Source</u>	<u>Df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>Prob.</u>	<u>ω^2</u>
Condition (C)	1	4.80	9.96	.01	.20
Subjects (R)	21	.48			
Time (T)	1	.23	.85	.37	
C x T	1	.76	2.80	.11	
R x T	21	.27			

the juvenile justice system seemed critical. The two delinquency orientation scales (Lawrence, 1979) included in this analysis attempted to place the volunteer on a punitive-nonintervention continuum.

Individual punitive. Table 40 includes the analysis of the individual punitive scale within the delinquency orientation measure. This data, gathered at the post data point (time 4), showed a strong condition effect suggesting that the court volunteers became much more punitively oriented.

Radical nonintervention. In a similar vein, Table 41 presents the results of the radical nonintervention scale from the delinquency orientation measure. Again, a condition difference was noted as the diversion volunteers were much more likely to suggest a nonintervention strategy in response to some hypothetical situation.

Summary of nonprofessional data. In summary, it appears as if the court condition volunteers lost a good deal of the information they acquired during training. In addition, by the end of project involvement, these volunteers also placed less emphasis on the importance of the training component than did diversion condition volunteers. The court volunteers were much more likely to suggest punitive measures of incarceration as an appropriate response to delinquent activity and were less inclined to suggest diversion or other nonintervention strategies as alternatives. In short, their attitudes toward juvenile delinquents, in general, were drastically different than volunteers' attitudes in the diversion condition.

Overview of Findings

A general summary of the overall findings would suggest that the volunteers in both conditions mastered the requisite material prior to

Table 40
Delinquency Orientation
Individual Punitive

Diversion	3.50
Court	4.15

Average item score (1-5)

Analysis of Variance					
<u>Source</u>	<u>Df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>Prob.</u>	<u>ω^2</u>
Condition	1	2.42	29.10	.01	.55
Subjects	21	.08			

Table 41

Delinquency Orientation
Radical Non-Intervention

Diversion

4.00

Court

3.59

Average item score (1-5)

Analysis of Variance

<u>Source</u>	<u>Df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>Prob.</u>	<u>ω^2</u>
Condition	1	.96	4.39	.05	.13
Subjects	21	.22			

commencing intervention. However, those in the court condition did not retain command of that material and became more punitively oriented throughout the intervention interval. These changes were also related to the degree to which the volunteers implemented the intervention model. The anticipated temporal patterns of intervention activities were evidenced in the findings of several process monitoring scales in the diversion condition. However, the strategies employed by volunteers in the court supervised condition were clearly at variance with the intentions of the model. Court volunteers maintained a high level of recreational activities, placed less emphasis on assessment strategies, did not show a decrease in direct family involvement as the case moved toward termination, and did not advocate on the youth's behalf following recidivism.

These differing intervention activities were also related to different outcome results. The police data demonstrated experimental control effects. These findings were supported by similar results in the self-report data set. The court data, on the other hand, differentiated the diversion condition from the court and control conditions. In particular, the finding that a full 50% of the youth in the court condition recidivated during project involvement stood out.

The following chapter will attempt to tie together the findings related to each of the research questions. Implications and likely future directions for the current line of diversion research and dissemination efforts will be discussed.

CHAPTER IV

DISCUSSION

This study was designed as a preliminary step in the dissemination of a successful social innovation. The history of this specific innovation, the diversion of juvenile offenders from traditional justice system involvement, has followed a rather ideal progression from the initial innovation to its present state of existence in which the contemplation of dissemination seems a logical next step. The initial innovation was rigorously evaluated. It was systematically replicated at another site. Attempts were made to tease out the salient factors involved in the successful implementation of the innovation through controlled experimental designs. At this point in the development of the overall project time line, it makes little sense to ask the general question "Does diversion work?" Rather, conclusions can be drawn about the success of this specific diversion model and its implementation with a specific population of youth employing a specific sample of nonprofessional volunteers, etc. The typical RD & D model would then call for the dissemination of the innovation to potential users.

Questions Posed by this Study

An issue frequently raised concerning diversion programs is the degree of independence from the formal juvenile justice system required to guarantee the successful implementation of the program. More specifically, the question "Can the model work if it is merely an alternative arm

of the formal system?" seemed a critical one to ask prior to beginning a dissemination effort. As noted earlier, the formal juvenile court was initiated as an alternative to the processing of juveniles in the adult courts. The institution of the juvenile court exists primarily to deal with adolescents in contact with the legal system. Is it essential that we create an entirely new institution as an alternative to the original alternative in order to impact upon the juvenile crime problem? Or, would the simpler solution of introducing this diversion model into the system itself have sufficient impact? It was to these general issues that the current research addressed itself as a preliminary step in the dissemination of this innovation.

In order to assist in the synthesis of the data, the specific research questions will first be addressed independently. The data pertaining to each question will be summarized, general conclusions will be drawn, and possible explanations for the findings will be outlined.

A macro level summary will then tie the research findings together and conclusions and implications will be drawn accordingly. Possible confounds and limitations of the current research will be outlined. And finally, future directions for diversion programs in particular and social change strategies in general will be outlined.

Archival Outcome Results

The typical research question in delinquency prevention efforts has focused on the archival outcome results of the intervention strategy. In the current research, the differential impact of the two experimental intervention modalities (the original diversion condition and the court supervised alternative) and the court treatment as usual control on official court, police, and school records was determined (see Table

21, p. 95). There were no pre differences in any of these archival data sets.

Analysis of the school data resulted in differential effects at the general level of school enrollment. Youth in the control condition were less likely to be enrolled in school during project involvement than during the one year interval prior to project referral. Youth in the two experimental conditions showed no change in enrollment patterns across time. Project involvement in either experimental condition appears to have contributed to maintaining the status quo. These findings replicate those found in the Illinois project (Davidson, 1976) and replicated in earlier Michigan State research (Kantrowitz, 1979). Project involvement was found to enhance the stability of school performance.

Findings were similar in the police data set. That is, significant effects tended to differentiate the experimental conditions from the control group, though this difference was more apparent in the diversion condition than in the control condition. In this instance, the seriousness of youths' contacts with the police did not differ by condition. All three groups demonstrated a significant decrease in the average seriousness of police contacts from the one year interval prior to project referral to the interval during project involvement. The diversion condition demonstrated a clear drop in the frequency of police contacts. This pre-post drop in official police contacts was not evident in the court and control groups. However, a different pattern was observed in the dispositional decision data collected from the police departments. Youth in the control condition failed to show any change in the seriousness of dispositional decisions due to police contacts. Youth in the two experimental conditions showed a pre-post drop in the average seriousness of police dispositional decisions.

The court data tended to show a slightly different pattern of results. Once again, the average seriousness of court petitions filed on youth did not change over time nor did it differ by condition. Youth in the court condition were more likely to have additional petitions filed against them during project involvement than were youth in the diversion or control conditions. The remaining court variables clearly distinguished the diversion condition from both the court and control conditions. Youth in both the court condition and the control condition were likely to receive more serious dispositional decisions and were more likely to become incarcerated for offenses of the same seriousness than were youth in the diversion condition.

Klein (1979) has suggested that programmatic attempts at diversion may be producing unintended effects and that the original conceptual model is rarely if ever implemented. The original conceptual model to which Klein was referring is outright release of the juvenile with no further action taken. Typically diversion programs have incorporated some form of active intervention. Emshoff has suggested that the crucial issue is not whether the diversion program includes an active intervention plan, the critical issue lies in the manner in which the evaluation research is conducted (Emshoff, Jeppesen, Blakely, & Kushler, 1979). The evaluation must include both confirmatory and exploratory components in an attempt to determine the salient factors contributing to the success of the specific diversion alternative being evaluated. Emshoff's point lies in the fact that it makes less sense to ask the question "Does

diversion work?" than it does to ask "Does this specific program work, with this specific population, in this specific setting?" and "Could it be used by others in different settings?" The common ground that these two researchers have identified is that diversion typically incorporated removing the youth from further formal court processing.

More importantly, the distinction between typical diversion efforts and the original conceptual model to which Klein alluded may be related to the discrepancies noted between the police and court findings in the current research. Klein would suggest that the intervention model employed by volunteers in the diversion condition is in actuality two strategies in one. Not only are the youth diverted from further system involvement following initial inquiries, but they are also subjected to an intensive intervention effort lasting several months. However, volunteers in the court condition were in essence implementing only one of the two strategies. Though the youth in the court condition were not formally handled by the court in a technical sense, they were clearly not diverted.

Becker (1963), Schur (1971) and many others have suggested that contact with the official juvenile justice system often leads to further involvement merely due to that contact. Evidence has been sighted that suggests that actual offense rates do not differ, only official contacts with the system increase as a function of an initial penetration into the system (Klein, 1979; Williams & Gold, 1972). The officical archival data utilized by the current research effort represent differing degrees of penetration into the juvenile justice system. At one exteme is the incarceration variable. Recall, results on the court disposition and incarceration variables distinguished both court related conditions (court intervention and control) from the diversion condition. In other

words, the variables that assessed the greatest penetration into the juvenile justice system clearly distinguished the court related conditions (those without a clear diversion component) from the actual diversion condition. In fact, this finding held up despite the fact that there were no condition differences in the average seriousness of the petitioned offenses.

The police data, on the other hand, represents less penetration into the system than the court data. Again, the average seriousness of the offenses were not different by condition, however, it was the case that the seriousness of the police dispositional decisions decreased in both intervention conditions but not in the control condition. One could hypothesize that the two intervention conditions were sufficiently potent to produce experimental/control effects on the police variables. But the additional diversionary component in the diversion condition was essential to minimize effects once penetration had reached the court stage. This issue will be raised again as related findings are discussed on other measures.

An alternative explanation of a more parsimonious nature is in order. It could simply be the case that the court condition was in actuality merely an exercise in implementing surveillance activities. In fact, this explanation may more closely fit the data. The manpower shortage in the court system was noted earlier. The difference between the two court related conditions might be accounted for by the fact that the court referee was able to gather a great deal more information about each youth in the court condition through the volunteers. This hypothesis was further supported by listening to audio-tapes of supervision sessions

in the court condition. There was case study evidence that the court referee/supervisor did in fact use the volunteers to gather offense related information about youth in the court condition. One serious example was noted on the audio-tapes in which the volunteer became aware of some illegal activity that the youth had been engaging in at school. This volunteer was ultimately instrumental in having the youth expelled from school.

Another recurring example arose when it was discovered that the referee was having youth brought before him at the court for informal sessions. These "sessions" were designed to set the youth straight and provide some support for the volunteers in a negative threatening sense, a sort of local "scared straight" phenomenon. However, it was the case that only two of the six failures in the court condition did not have police contacts corresponding to their additional court contacts during project involvement.

Self-reported Estimates of Delinquent Behavior

It has been noted that official archival court and police data sets have often been criticized as outcome measures in delinquency research evaluations (Gold, 1966; Farrington, 1973; Williams & Gold, 1972). These archival measures do serve well as measures of youths' penetration into the formal judicial system. However, they are dependent upon official recognition of delinquent acts prior to the recording of the event. Given the illegal nature of delinquent acts, they are typically not readily observable. Although self-report instruments are subject to their own peculiar criticisms, they are not effected by the necessity of official observation and recording of the actual behavior.

Minimal conclusions can be drawn from the self-report instrument. Findings were sparse. However, they did compliment the archival findings. Both experimental conditions showed a pre-post design drop in self-reported estimates of delinquent behavior. No condition differences were observed and the archival success/failure difference failed to reach statistical significance (though the differences were in the appropriate direction).

The intervention model, as implemented by both conditions, showed some positive impact on the police data while only the diversion condition showed effects on the court variables. It was suggested that the specific "diversion from the court" component present only in the diversion condition resulted in these differential archival findings. The self-report results more closely approximated the archival police findings than the court findings. These findings further support the notion that a continuum exists that might be labeled penetration into the system. At one end of this continuum lies the commission of the offense, while the other end is anchored by the court disposition. The self-report data would be a step removed from official detection. This might explain the failure of the success/failure effect to reach significant proportions. The fact that these findings most closely resembled the results of the archival police data lends support to the conclusions drawn in the previous section. Both interventions were sufficiently potent to produce results in the self-report data as well as the police data. This was not the case in the control condition.

Labeling Effects

The assessment of the labeling effects centered around two basic issues. The first of these, measured by the police, court, and project

reference scales, was the extent to which the youth felt others were aware of his/her contact with the official system. The second was the extent to which the youth felt the awareness and opinion of significant others was important to him or her. From these, two basic questions emerged: (1) Did the proximity to the justice system differentially effect the youth's perception of the extent of label spread? (2) Was this in any way related to the importance that the youth placed on significant others in their lives?

As noted earlier, the instrument was designed to measure the extent to which Klein's operationalization of labeling fit with the information reported by youth participating in this research (Klein, et al., 1978). Although the data did not support the anticipated findings, some interesting results were obtained. Change in label spread scores referenced to police or court contacts occurred only in the control group, while youth in all three conditions reported an across time increase in label spread referenced to project involvement. The pre-post increase in label spread may have been related to the volunteers actively working with many members of the youth's family. Youth in the diversion and court conditions may have defined the volunteers to others as family workers rather than delinquency prevention volunteers. Control youth did not have this recourse to explain their project involvement, and their label spread scores increased across time. Perhaps the volunteers in the experimental conditions served as a "buffer" which reduced the labeling effects on the police and court reference scales.

According to Klein's model, the extent to which a youth accepts or rejects labels being forced upon him is directly related to the youth's perception of the importance of those significant others. In short,

youth were more likely to see themselves as delinquents and recidivate, if important others were labeling him/her as a potential delinquent. Although the findings of this research did not support this position, they did not provide substantial evidence to eliminate the model as a plausible rival hypothesis. The model predicts that those youth who reported a greater deal of police and court label spread (in this case the control group) and felt that the opinions of significant others were important, would be more likely to recidivate. It is not reasonable to assume that these effects would be instantaneous or should necessarily occur within an 18 week time span. A better assessment of the validity of the model can only occur after follow-up data has been collected. If the model holds up, youth with the higher label acceptance scores during project involvement should demonstrate a greater tendency to recidivate, or fail, than youth with lower scores. Unfortunately, follow-up data was not available during the current research efforts.

A more classical interpretation of these findings might suggest that youth who recidivate utilized a defense mechanism and lessened the impact of the labels placed on them by belittling the importance of the opinion of their significant others. This in turn would increase the probability of their recidivating or failing.

In short, no clearcut conclusions can be drawn from these findings. The current data did not support the model of labeling theory developed by Klein. Follow-up data would be necessary to implement an adequate test of that model.

Intervention Process Findings

These process interviews were designed to answer several questions. How much did the volunteers intervene? In what specific areas? How

were the actual intervention activities related to the outcome of the case? And, most importantly, how did the implementation of the model differ by condition? Although the basic strategy of random assignment to condition and the systematic manipulation of independent variables with the control of confounding variables provides for straightforward conclusions, the combination of exploratory and confirmatory paradigms within the framework of a longitudinal perspective allows one to emphasize the process monitoring of day-to-day events as they relate to the intervention process without blind dependency on operational definitions as descriptions of the intervention process per se. The current data set lends great support to this position.

It was apparent that the influence of the juvenile court staff member, serving in a supervisory role, had a substantial impact on the model diversion project as it was implemented. In an overall sense, this was evidenced in the trend recurring throughout most of the intervention process scales. The reader is encouraged to refer to Table 37 (p. 124) for a summary of the results discussed in this section. The data clearly showed a reverse trend in the pattern of successes versus failures across time. In the diversion condition, the successes typically showed the greater amount of intervention activity (excluding the legal system involvement scale). The reverse was true of the court condition. Generally the court failures showed a greater amount of intervention related activities.

These trends can be related more specifically to the intervention model as it was intended to unfold. The general model called for an initial assessment period of several weeks. During this period, the volunteers spent the bulk of their time getting to know the youth,

significant others in the youth's life, and setting general goals to work toward during the intervention period. During the first several weeks, it was frequently the case that a good deal of time was spent in recreational activities allowing for the interpersonal interaction required in the assessment phase. Following this phase, more detailed intervention goals were specified and actual intervention related activities increased substantially. During the last several weeks of the intervention period, the volunteers gradually reduced their direct involvement in intervention related activities and increasingly returned control of the situation back to the youth and family. Throughout the intervention interval, the youth and family were gradually encouraged to advocate on their own behalf and negotiate their own behavioral contracts with less and less input from the volunteer. During this period, intervention activities on the part of the volunteer were expected to decrease somewhat and the recreational activities to perhaps rise again.

The trends in the data showing the volunteers' recreational activities with the youth dramatically displayed the disparity between the conditions in terms of adherence to the intervention model. In general, the court condition volunteers spent a greater proportion of time in recreational activities than did the project condition volunteers (recall, that the volunteers in the two conditions did not spend a differential amount of time in case related activities). Those in the diversion success cell showed a high level of recreational activity during the first third of the intervention period (time 2) followed by a nearly significant drop to time 3 and a significant rise again to time 4. This trend corresponded well with the intention of the model. There was a good deal of recreational activity occurring during the assessment interval followed

by a drop off during the most critical intervention weeks and another rise in activity as the case moved toward termination. The diversion failures again showed the drop in recreational activity from time 2 to time 3 but the drop continued on to termination (time 4). This was perhaps due to the increased demands placed on these cases due to the additional contact with the legal system inherent in the failures.

The court group, on the other hand, showed a relatively stable pattern across both the success and failure cells. Not only did the court condition volunteers spend a greater proportion of time in recreational activities, but they maintained this higher rate across time. The curves in Figure 2 (p. 110) did not correspond with the trend theoretically anticipated given the specific nature of the intervention model.

The diversion success group clearly followed the expected pattern of moderate intervention activity during the first time interval, followed by an increase in activity to time 3. Typically, the activity rate decreased to time 4. These trends were evident in the school and contracting scales (see Tables 33 and 35 and Figure 3, pgs. 116, 120, and 121) and corresponded well with the drop and subsequent rise in recreational related activities. The diversion failures followed a similar pattern through time 3, however, they frequently continued the increase in intervention related activity through time 4 and maintained a lower level of recreational activities. Again, this is probably related to the increased need to deal with the crisis situation related to the youth's additional contact with the justice system. Volunteers probably found it necessary to invest a good deal of time intervening in the appropriate areas on the youth's behalf.

These trends were not typically apparent in the court condition. The successes generally increased intervention activities over time right through the termination interval when activities should have decreased (see Table 35, p. 120). Failures showed the overall increased level of activity (see Tables 33 and 35, pgs. 116 and 120). One hypothesis that might explain the level of activity in the court failure cell lies in the tendency for court staff to focus the bulk of their attention on cases where there are in fact current problems. Perhaps this was due to the oversized caseloads that the typical court worker must endure. In any case, it was apparent that this increased activity level was related to the differential supervision that existed in the court group. The court failures tended to spend a little more time on their cases and were somewhat more recreationally oriented than the diversion failures. They were also more likely to be involved in specific intervention related activities than were the court successes. However, it was interesting to note that the court failures showed a significant drop across time in activities related to advocacy efforts on the behalf of the youth. Perhaps volunteers in the court failure cell were instructed to intervene using strategies quite different than advocacy.

This finding was supported by the differential police and court results. More specifically, the data supported the explanation that the court condition was in many respects a surveillance exercise. It was apparent that many of the court condition's failures were likely to have been court initiated as the result of information gathered by the volunteers and shared with the court referee/supervisor. The referee in turn called the youth in for an inquiry resulting in continued legal system involvement in a formal sense. In his supervisory role, the referee

would necessarily have seen volunteers' advocacy efforts as counter-productive and in conflict with his own efforts of handling the youth in his role of court referee. Recall as mentioned earlier that information was available from audio-tapes and notes of court condition supervisory sessions that suggested some youth in the court success cell had been called before the referee in an informal "off the record" sense.

On the other hand, these findings tended to detract from the alternative explanation for the outcome results. The process data could not be construed as supportive of the notion that both experimental conditions incorporated a similar intervention strategy and the diversion component of the model produced the salient differences between the conditions. The process data clearly suggested that there was a strong confounding variable that directly threatened the validity of such a conclusion. More simply stated, the intervention conditions differed drastically during implementation.

Impact on the Volunteers

The final general research question directly observed the impact of the intervention experience upon the student volunteers themselves. This impact was noted in terms of training material acquired and retained, a general evaluation of the utility of the training material and the impact on the volunteers' attitudes toward delinquents in general.

Although the straight knowledge acquisition or condition comparisons were not significant, the conditions differed drastically in retention (note the condition by time interaction in Figure 4, p. 128). The volunteers in the diversion condition retained virtually all the training related knowledge acquired during the first term. The court condition volunteers' retention level dropped significantly from the post training

period to the point of termination from project involvement. This information converged with the adherence to the model differences noted in the process measures. It is likely to have been related to the differential supervision strategies employed within the two experimental conditions. Supervisors in the diversion condition frequently employed role plays of actual case situations during supervision and generally referenced the training manual on a regular basis. The diversion volunteers were encouraged to develop intervention strategies as a result of their own assessment strategies. The court referee was more likely to bring the official record file on each youth to class and develop intervention strategies accordingly. As a result of these disparities in supervision, it was not surprising to note the condition differences in training knowledge retention.

Given the above conclusions, it was also not surprising to note the difference in the volunteers' evaluations of the didactic training component. At the end of project involvement (time 4) the court volunteers were less likely to favorably rate the training component than volunteers in the diversion condition. In fact, several of the volunteers in the court condition went on to do undergraduate internships under the referee's supervision at the juvenile court. ✓

The differential impact of the supervision experience upon the volunteers was even more clearly delineated by the attitudinal measures. One could conceive of a single dimension that taps attitudes toward juvenile delinquents and forms a continuum ranging from at one extreme a very negative-punitive bent and at the other extreme a much more liberal radical nonintervention view. Following their training/intervention/supervision experiences, volunteers in the two experimental conditions

clearly clustered at two divergent positions on such a continuum. Diversion volunteers were more likely to view delinquents as similar to everyone else. They were more likely to recommend minimal entry into the justice system and much less likely to consider any punitive intervention strategies than volunteers in the court condition.

The impact of the overall experience on the volunteers themselves seemed reasonable clear. Those in the diversion condition retained a good deal of the training material, favorably viewed the training material and model, intervened in a manner consistent with the philosophy espoused by the model, viewed delinquents in a favorable light, and suggested preventive or nonintervention strategies. Volunteers in the court group lost a great deal of the training knowledge, viewed the training and intervention model less favorably, intervened in a manner less consistent with the steps laid out in the original innovation, viewed delinquents in a negative light and were likely to recommend punitive intervention strategies.

Limitations of this Research

Certainly, final results and conclusions should be viewed with a degree of caution. First, though the overall diversion project has been systematically replicated many times, this specific piece of research was intended to be primarily exploratory in nature. It was conceived of and implemented as a first step in the process of disseminating a successful social innovation. The importance of exploratory or "first step" research efforts cannot be overemphasized. However, results should be treated as guidelines to future research efforts rather than the ultimate answers to the initial questions posed.

Second, the sample size of the current research was limited by the resources available to the project and by the size of the community. In addition, directly observing the interview data's relationship to the archival outcome of the case resulted in cell sizes as small as two and three. Many results nearly missed significant proportions. The findings might have been considerably more conclusive with an increased sample size. The general project strategy has been to increase the overall sample size through replication. Clearly the implications from this work warrant at least a systematic replication.

Third, the current research observed the impact of the intervention condition as it occurred during the project intervention period. The most important components of the current research were the intervention process scales that specifically monitored the differential degrees to which volunteers in the experimental conditions implemented the intervention model. The research design adequately addressed this issue. However, the outcome effects of the intervention strategies could have longitudinal effects that only become apparent at some point following the actual intervention interval. Follow-up data will ultimately be collected for two years following each youth's involvement in the project. These results should add considerably to the conclusions drawn from the current research.

Fourth, multivariate analyses were performed when a sufficient sample size was available. However, the bulk of the data presentation concerned the univariate analyses. During scaling, attempts were clearly made to maximize the orthogonality of the measures. Though the scales did show discriminant properties, they were intercorrelated to some extent. Some results may have capitalized on chance. However, constant efforts were

made to point out convergence from other sources and care was taken to minimize the potential impact of this problem during the description of the findings.

Fifth, there has been some controversy concerning the use of repeated measures analyses of variance, particularly with its application to the exploration of pre-post differences. The unique nature of the present outcome data merely served to intensify the concern over this controversy. Recall that the outcome data was analyzed in six sequential time intervals, four quarters pre and two quarters post. Inherent in this data set were high means in the fourth quarter or the quarter immediately preceding project involvement. Youth were referred to the project as a result of contact with the juvenile justice system during this interval. Huck and McLean (1975) have argued that the repeated measures analysis of variance is too conservative with respect to interaction terms and too liberal with respect to across time effects. However, alternatives such as analysis of covariance or an analysis of variance based on change scores also rely heavily on pre scores and display subsequent biases as well. Therefore, analyses should be interpreted with these considerations in mind.

Sixth, the zero variance cells present in the outcome data constitute a recurrent problem in criminal justice research efforts. The resultant violations of the assumptions of the analysis of variance model forced confirmation analyses of pre-post aggregate data sets. Though these results typically confirmed the earlier findings despite the reduction in power, these considerations should be kept in mind when interpreting the findings.

Seventh, the trainer/supervisors were nested within condition and may have contributed to condition differences by confounding the findings. Past experience and research efforts have shown the graduate student staff members to be remarkably similar in terms of variables such as: volunteer ratings of supervisors, volunteer ratings of supervisors "expert answers," differential outcome results within conditions, etc. The greater threat to validity posed by this limitation occurred as a function of employing a single court referee as the only supervisor in the court condition. Unfortunately, arrangements with the court did not allow for a more extensive implementation of the design. The extent to which the court referee was representative of the typical court referee was not directly known. He had a typical degree and had been involved in the system for many years as he worked his way up the promotion ladder. However, any systematic replication would necessarily have to more directly control for this confounding issue.

Implications and Conclusions

Major Research Issues Raised in this Study

Degree of implementation of the model. The major issue that stimulated the current research concerned the feasibility of returning control of a successful juvenile diversion program back to the court system from which the youth were initially diverted. Therefore, a major research question necessarily focused on the degree to which volunteer interventionists in this condition actually implemented the model as it had been intended to be implemented. In interpreting these findings, it is crucial to recall the differences in the intervention conditions. The volunteers were all trained by project staff in the same skills, using the same materials. Both the youth and volunteers were randomly assigned

to intervention conditions and the two were randomly matched. Following the training, half of the volunteers were supervised by court staff. They all came from the same pool, intervened in the same community settings, at the same time, etc. Yet, differential intervention activities were consistently noted across time.

The groups of volunteers were not appreciably different at the post-training pre-intervention point. They had acquired a similar knowledge base concerning the intervention model. Yet following intervention, not only did they differentially retain information but the court volunteers had redefined their opinions concerning both juvenile delinquents and the juvenile justice system.

Certainly innovations are adapted somewhat as they are implemented in new settings with different formal operating structures. However, the issue here is what components of the innovation did the court group adopt? The volunteers did implement the intervention strategies to some extent. What they failed to do was maintain an investment in the philosophy of the diversion model. They continued to petition youth to the juvenile court. They modified the assessment phase, failed to advocate on the youth's behalf following additional contacts with the legal system, and became more punitive in their interventions. In short, diversion was no longer their business. Although they practiced some of the project intervention strategies, second order change was not achieved (Seidman, 1976; Rappaport, 1977). The change was for the most part superficial in nature (first order change). There was little or no systemic impact apparent.

Outcome. Although the noted differences in the implementation of the model were critical findings in this research, the significance of those findings was directly tied to the differential impact in terms of the ultimate outcome criteria. The chi-square was not significant, however, 18% of the diversion condition youth recidivated while a full 50% of the court youth recidivated.

The disparity between the court and police findings has immense implications for diversion in general. Both intervention conditions produced significant drops in the most serious disposition of these contacts. This change was not apparent in the control group.

The court data, on the other hand, tended to distinguish the experimental court condition from the diversion and control conditions. All three conditions showed a drop in the average seriousness of petitions filed. Yet those in the court condition did not show a drop in the frequency of petitions filed or in the seriousness of the ultimate dispositional decisions recorded in the diversion and control conditions. In fact, the court group showed a higher rate of petitions filed during project involvement than was the case in the other conditions. Both the court and control groups were likely to receive more serious dispositional decisions including incarceration than those in the diversion condition. It appears that the degree of active system involvement in a juvenile case was related to the degree to which dispositions of subsequent petitions became punitive and restrictive regardless of the seriousness of the petitioned offense. The self-report data also produced results that supported these conclusions.

The larger issue of "To what organizations should a successful diversion program be diffused?" cannot be answered here. However, even given the limitations inherent in this design, it appears that one could justifiably decide against implementing the innovation within the framework of the juvenile justice system. In keeping with the overall project philosophy of conducting concurrent designs of an exploratory and confirmatory nature, the "black box" that is this particular diversion program must be pulled apart even further in order to identify the organizations to which the innovation should ultimately be disseminated.

Future Directions

Diversion

The longitudinal model of research employed by the project continues to pick apart the "black box" that has been to date a successful diversion program. The basic model has been successfully contrasted with various control groups (Davidson, 1978) and pseudo-intervention conditions (Kantrowitz, 1979). A family only intervention modality has been shown to be effective in some domains and not others (Emshoff, 1980) and volunteers from a local junior college have been successfully trained and have implemented the model with similar results (Mitchell, 1980). Currently, ongoing research efforts are focusing on the feasibility of recruiting and training volunteers directly from the community and implementing the same procedures. Diversion, as defined by the specifics of this innovation, remains a viable intervention strategy in dealing with delinquent youth.

Social scientists operating successful innovations should feel obligated to disseminate their innovations. However, this served to add another "black box" to the overall picture. The issues of "How best to

bring about the dissemination efforts?" and "To whom should the innovation be diffused?" become all encompassing. Fairweather (1974) has suggested the necessity of incorporating a group that is strongly committed to the innovation at the adoption site. Case study information clearly points out the difficulty in implementing such a process (Rappaport, Seidman, & Davidson, 1979). Future research efforts that are currently in the planning stages will attempt to continue breaking down this new "black box."

Social Change

The general question raised by this research addressed the issue of the dissemination of innovative research projects to potential users. More specifically, at issue was the degree to which the model was implemented at the "adopting" site and its relationship to outcome results. In the final analysis, implementation and outcome are inseparable. In order to determine the critical ingredients of an intervention strategy, one must know the related outcome results. In order to reproduce the outcome results, one must know what specifics of the intervention model lead to those results. In this research, the only modified variable was the supervisor of the nonprofessional volunteers during the intervention phase. Yet, different intervention strategies were employed and they ultimately produced different results.

If we cannot produce similar results in a dissemination effort this minimally removed from the original innovation, who are we kidding when we suggest that dissemination efforts through traditional workshops all across the country will have any hope whatsoever of incorporating the essential ingredients of the innovation within the daily operating structure of adopting organizations.

In summary, dissemination research has typically focused on the strategies of persuading organizations to adopt the innovation. The fact that this objective can be accomplished given the requisite amount of effort has frequently been addressed in the literature (Fairweather, 1967; Fairweather, Sanders, & Tornatzky, 1974). However, it is apparent that this is an insufficient step in the overall model. Observers are increasingly questioning the return on the federal investment in research and development in the social sciences. The issue of the effectiveness of this dissemination model, both in terms of the degree to which the innovation is implemented by adopting organizations and in terms of outcome data at the level of adopting organizations is just now beginning to receive its due attention (Emshoff, et al., 1980). However, accompanying this observation is the overwhelming awareness of the lack of rigorous research on how to ensure the most efficient utilization of social innovations. Increased attention must be paid to the manner in which adopting organizations re-invent the innovation as it is adapted to the demands of their organizational structure. Although the current research has taken but a small step in the direction of pinpointing the extent of this problem, it has clearly suggested the presence of a substantial problem inherent in the research development and diffusion model of conducting social science research efforts.

APPENDICES

•

•

APPENDIX A

DRAFT OF ADMINISTRATIVE AGREEMENT

MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY ADOLESCENT DIVERSION PROJECT
Draft of Administrative Agreement

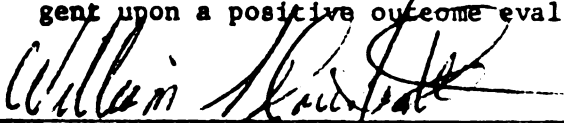
This agreement is to specify the intention and future relationship of Dr. William S. Davidson II, Director of the Michigan State University Adolescent Diversion Project and the Ingham County Probate Court, Juvenile Division. These two parties are jointly initiating the Adolescent Diversion Project for the purposes of: 1) developing an intensive program of service to youthful offenders from the local community to be used as an alternative to formal juvenile court adjudication and disposition, and 2) conducting a careful and systematic evaluation of the effectiveness and impact of the Adolescent Diversion Project. In line with this intention the following agreement is specified:

The MSU Adolescent Project will:

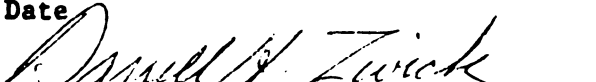
1. Take responsibility for Project operation including accepting and processing referred youth; recruiting, selecting, training, and supervising student volunteers who will act as the primary change agents; administer relevant course credit for the students.
2. Take responsibility for Project evaluation including the necessary data collection, data management, analyses, and interpretation components.
3. Provide the Court with monthly reports of Program progress as well as maintaining informal communication with the Court staff about Program operation and outcome.
4. Take responsibility for all written communication to the granting agency should federal research support be forthcoming.
5. Take the initiative for establishing an Advisory Board for the Project which will include local youth, parents, Court personnel, and community leaders.
6. Insure the confidential and anonymous handling of all information collected relevant to individual youth and Program operation.
7. Take the initiative for Program continuation after federal support expires contingent upon a positive outcome evaluation.

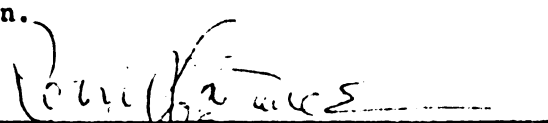
The Ingham County Juvenile Court will:

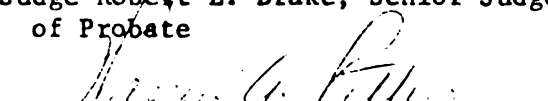
1. Refer approximately 100 and 75 youth to the project in the first and second years of operation respectively. The referral of youth to the project will take place following a preliminary inquiry or hearing and only in the case of a youth who admits to the allegations in question.
2. Cooperate in the evaluation of the Project. This will involve several specifics including the random assignment of youth to comparison approaches, and allowing confidential and anonymous access to court records by the Project research staff.
3. Participate in the ongoing operation of the Project by accepting formal reports and informal communication with the staff.
4. Participate in the Advisory Board of the Project.
5. Assist the Project staff in working towards the Project's continuance contingent upon a positive outcome evaluation.


 Dr. William S. Davidson II

12 1 10 1982
 Date


 Darrell Zwick, Intake Supervisor


 Judge Robert L. Drake, Senior Judge
 of Probate


 Warren Ritter, Director of Children's
 Services

APPENDIX B
RECRUITMENT LETTER

MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY - East Lansing
Department of Psychology - Olds Hall

May 2, 1978

COURSE ANNOUNCEMENT

Dear Student:

We would like to inform you about a sequence of courses available to undergraduates beginning in Fall 1978. The course involves a three-term commitment. The course will be offered under Psychology 370 (Fall, 1978), Psychology 400 (Winter, 1979), and Psychology 400 (Spring, 1979) for 4 credits each term. The course will provide you the opportunity to work on a one-to-one basis with an adolescent from the local community. These youths have been referred by the juvenile court. The course will provide you with initial training in working with adolescents and ongoing supervision of your actual involvement and progress. The course will be a unique combination of information, intervention techniques, and actual community experience. This course will be a valuable experience for anyone considering graduate work and/or a career in the human service fields. PLEASE NOTE: This course requires that you be enrolled the entire three terms.

Due to the typical overwhelming response to this course, we are limited in the number of people we can process. Therefore, the first 175 people who call the office number (355-1814) starting Monday, May 8, will be the only people invited to the initial meeting. If you or any of your friends would be interested in this project, please call 355-1814 between 8:00 a.m. and 5:00 p.m. no earlier than May 8 for information concerning the first meeting.

Sincerely,



William S. Davidson II, Ph.D.
Assistant Professor of Psychology .
Director, Adolescent Diversion Project

WSD:rjm

APPENDIX C
STUDENT AGREEMENT

APPENDIX C
STUDENT AGREEMENT
MSU ADOLESCENT DIVERSION PROJECT
1978

I am interested in being involved in the MSU Adolescent Diversion Project and I hereby agree to participate in an assessment session which will take place on Thursday, May 18, 1978 and a behavioral assessment session to be scheduled at a later date.

If I am selected, this agreement signifies my intention to be involved in the MSU Adolescent Diversion Project. It is my understanding that this project involves a three-term commitment involving Psychology 370 for Fall 1978 and Psychology 400 for Winter 1979 and Spring 1979 for four hours credit each. My work in this course will include participation in the initial training segment (6-8 weeks) as well as intensive work with an individual adolescent to whom I am assigned. The course will involve an average of 8-10 hours of involvement per week.

If I am selected for the Diversion Project, there are several special conditions of this course which I agree to abide with. First, I fully understand that all the information concerning the youth with whom I will be working is to be held in the strictest confidence. Second, I agree to participate in the course and field work Fall term through the end of finals week, Winter term beginning with the start of registration and through the end of finals week, and Spring term beginning with the start of registration and through the end of finals week. Third, grading for this course will be based on my demonstration of responsibility in class and in field work, class attendance, and following ethical standards. Fourth, I understand that I will be asked to complete further assessment procedures during the course of the project.

If I am not selected for this Project, I agree to participate in the follow-up assessment (approximately one hour) at the end of Spring term, for which I will be paid \$12. Finally, I am aware that I will be notified of my acceptance or non-acceptance into the course by August 31, 1978.

Professor William S. Davidson II

Student

Date

APPENDIX D
REFERRAL SHEET

APPENDIX D

Referring Referee

ADOLESCENT DIVERSION PROJECT

Referral Sheet

Case # _____

Name

Parent's Name

Address

Address

Phone Number

Phone Number

Birthdate

School - Grade

School Last Year - Grade

Educational Level of Father 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 1 2 3 4 G

Educational Level of Mother 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 1 2 3 4 G

Occupation of Householder

Alternate Contact

Alternate Contact

Address

Address

Phone

Phone

Marital Status:

Who lives in the House:

Interests:

When to Reach:

APPENDIX E
PARTICIPATION AGREEMENT

MSU ADOLESCENT DIVERSION PROJECT

Participation Agreement

In the Fall of 1976, Michigan State University and the Ingham County Probate Court started a program for youth in this community. The idea for the program is to provide an alternative to the juvenile court for local youth. This project involves several things. First, some of the youth in the program will be working with volunteers. The volunteers will be working with kids on a lot of different things depending on the kinds of changes which need to be made for particular kids. This might involve working things out between you and your parents, working things out at school, helping you find a job, things to do in your free time and so on. Second, not all of the kids who decide to be in this program will be working with a volunteer. About 3/4 of the kids will be working with a volunteer between six and eight hours per week on the kinds of things described above. The rest of the kids will be returned to the intake worker. Whether or not you will be working with a volunteer will be decided by lottery and in no way reflects what we think of you. When you complete the program on ____/____/____ and if you've had no further trouble with the court, you will have no further court responsibility. If you would like to talk to a lawyer about this decision, Attorney Daniel Hanks will be willing to meet with you without charge.

This form is for you to indicate your intention to participate in the program. It's important for you to know exactly what you're agreeing to.

1. We hereby indicate that we are participating in this project voluntarily and understand that we have the right to withdraw if we see fit.
2. We understand that this project is being evaluated and that our input will be an important part of that evaluation. We, therefore, agree to provide honest and accurate information to the project staff.
3. We agree to be interviewed by the project staff on six occasions. Once within two days, once in six weeks, once in twelve weeks, once in eighteen weeks, one and two years from now. We understand that this information as all information, will be kept confidential. We also understand that both _____ and his/her parents will participate in each interview. _____ will be paid \$5.00 for each interview. Finally, we understand that one of _____'s friends will also participate in the interview.
4. We agree to work with a volunteer should one be assigned. We understand that this may involve six to eight hours per week. We understand that the volunteer will be able to work around our schedule.
5. We hereby give permission for the project staff to examine and record the police and court records for _____. It is also understood that this information will be handled confidentially and anonymously. This permission includes access to juvenile as well as adult records should they occur. This permission applies to all records from 197_ through 198_.

Youth _____

Date _____

Parent _____

Project Staff _____

Court Staff _____

APPENDIX F
RELEASE OF SCHOOL RECORDS

APPENDIX F

MSU ADOLESCENT PROJECT

Release of School Records

_____ is participating in a research project through the Department of Psychology at Michigan State University. As part of the project _____ and his/her parents are hereby releasing school records to the project staff.

We hereby give permission for the Project staff to examine and record the school grades, attendance records, number of credits earned, and suspension records for _____ for school years 19____, 19____, 19____, and 19____. We understand that this information will be handled confidentially and anonymously.

Youth _____ Date ____/____/____

Parent _____ Project Staff _____

Birthday ____/____/____

School This Year - Grade

School Last Year - Grade

APPENDIX G
DIVERSION TRAINING MANUAL

WEEK 1

- I. Topics: Course Overview
Behavioral Conception of Human Behavior and Delinquency
- II. Assigned Readings (To be mastered by class time this week)
Tharp, R.G., & Wetzell, R.J. Behavior modification in the natural environment. New York: Academic, 1969, Pp. 1-25, 44-60.
- III. Course Expectations

The project in which you are to be intensively involved over this school year has two primary goals. First, to provide quality community-based service to local youth in legal jeopardy with the juvenile justice system. Second, is to examine the operation of this program and its effectiveness.

There are a large number of people involved in the operation of this project. First, undergraduate students will provide the critical ingredient of providing quality service to the youth with which we work and providing input to supervisory sessions. Second, graduate students in psychology will be supervising the weekly classroom sessions for the project. Third, Professor Bill Davidson will be consulting with the group supervisors and overseeing evaluation activities.

A critical component of the function of this project will be relationships with the local juvenile justice system. While the juvenile justice system has many components, which we will outline and discuss later, the goal of this project is to keep local youth out of the formal court system. The local Ingham County Juvenile Court currently sees approximately 600 youthful offenders. This project will accept referrals from this pool as an alternative to current court processes.

IV. Classroom Expectations

We will be meeting once a week. During the first 8 weeks, these meetings will last 2½ hours. The remainder of the year we will meet for 2 hours weekly. One critical component of this project is your attendance at these weekly sessions. This is not because we are particularly interested in making sure that all good little undergraduate students go to their classes. Rather, we have found that a very important part of this project is the mutual discussion and input we can have as a group towards our work with individual kids.

The weekly supervisory sessions will consist of several things throughout the course of the year. During the first eight weeks the majority of the time will be spent in training you in effective methods of intervention with adolescents who have come into contact with the legal system. We will also be discussing the cases you will be beginning during the first eight weeks of the semester. During the first eight weeks you will be assigned outside readings relevant to your work in this project. The assignments will be available to you in the assigned readings section of the Undergraduate Library under Psychology 370. The weekly reading assignments are outlined on the attached pages. While you may be used to classes in which the teaching strategy involves ranking students as to how much they have learned in comparison to other students, we will be taking a somewhat different approach in this course. It is important that each one of you have a strong background in the approaches to youth used in this project. Thus, the first eight weeks of this course will be taught so that everyone will learn the essential information relevant to their service to youth. You will be expected to have mastered the material in the assigned readings by the time that you come to class. When you get to class we will spend the first 5 to 10 minutes answering any questions that you may have had about the assignment. You will then

ADOLESCENT PROJECT

be asked to answer three short essay questions during the next 20 minutes. Following the essay questions you will again have time to ask any questions of the supervisors relevant to the week's reading material. Next, we will break into groups of three to four students and one supervisor. Each student will be asked to answer two questions orally in a discussion format. The supervisors will prepare six to eight questions for discussion. Each student will be asked to answer two questions at random. The format will be the following. First, each student will be given three minutes to answer each question in sequence. Then, following each answer, the group will be allowed to add any additional discussion relevant to that specific question for a two-minute time period. This format will be followed for each of the six to eight questions in sequence. If you answer both oral questions assigned to you adequately and each of the three written questions at 85% or better accuracy, you receive an A for that week's training. If you do not answer any one or more of the questions, written or oral, accurately, you will be asked to write an additional question for each one you missed on your own during the next three school days. If you answer the make-up questions with 85% or better accuracy you will receive a B for that week's training. If you still fail to meet criteria, you will be scheduled for an individual session with the supervisors for additional reading and discussion. The last half of each of the first eight sessions will be devoted to speakers, role playing and supervision of the early cases assigned to the program.

After the first eight sessions, the supervision class meetings will be focused on group discussion of the individual cases with which you will be working. These will become more detailed as the training pro-

ADOLESCENT PROJECT

gresses and will include a number of components. First, you will be asked to present a detailed oral description of your case each week to the group. Second, you will be asked to bring to class each week the weekly progress report. This is for the purpose of providing a written record of the program's activities and providing feedback information to the agencies referring the youth to us. Third, you will be expected to add input to the group discussion of individual cases and attend to suggestions about your case from other students and the supervisors. Fourth, the discussion of each person's case will consist of goal-oriented group problem solving. In short, this method of group supervision consists of outlining the goals or problem areas for each case, the alternative solutions available, the potential costs and benefits of each alternative, and the selection of a course of action. Fifth, you are each expected to keep a weekly log of your activities. The specifics of how you are to keep the log will be outlined on a sheet on the inside cover of the log.

It is also important that you are clear as to the relative degrees of responsibility that you have to each of the program's components. You should view as your first responsibility the youth with whom you will be working and his/her best interests. This responsibility includes your interactions with him/her as well as your interactions with your friends and others. The importance of confidentiality in your interactions with your friends, relatives, etc., cannot be overemphasized. Your next responsibility is to the project as a whole. It is also critical that you are honest about your activities relevant to the youth with us. While we definitely have positive expectations about your interactions with the youth, do not hesitate to tell us of something that has gone on

ADOLESCENT PROJECT

which you think may have been a mistake. If we know about it we can work it out together as a group. Your third responsibility is to your fellow students. This includes your input to the group discussions relevant to your own and other people's cases.

Up to this point we have discussed your involvement in the supervision sessions. However, your major involvement in this project, in terms of time, will be working with or in behalf of a young person from the local community. The specific content of your involvement with the youth will be the focus of our next seven sessions. Several general rules apply. First, you will spend six to eight hours per week providing service to the youth to whom you are assigned. This will include direct interaction with the youth, interaction with significant other people in the life of the youth, preparing for future interactions, etc. A second general rule is that the intention of this project is to provide individualized services to each of the youths referred. In other words, we will be applying the principles and techniques developed in the next seven weeks to each youth according to the characteristics of the individual and his/her situation.

V. Brief History of the Juvenile Justice System and the Notion of Diversion

Historically, the phenomena of juvenile delinquency in America was created by the initiation of the juvenile court system at the end of the 1800's. Prior to that time youthful offenders were handled with varying degrees of formality by adult courts. The initial thrust for the creation of the separate system for handling juveniles came from the desire to protect children from mistreatment while still providing a vehicle for safeguarding society from youthful wrong-doings. The failure of refuge homes, used for wayward youth in the nineteenth century, had

ADOLESCENT PROJECT

resulted in children being severely treated and used as low cost manual laborers. The court was to provide for the care of children in a way which would ideally approximate that provided by "responsible" parents. Other central issues in the formation of a separate juvenile court were that the court per se would operate with a maximum amount of flexibility in order to allow informal truthseeking procedures and would provide a format amenable to individualized treatment. In short, it was suggested that the juveniles exchange their constitutional right to a full-fledged trial for the benevolent concern of the court. When necessary the court was to assume the role of the interested parent; such procedures were not thought to require multiple safeguards.

The court's sphere of influence was quickly expanded. The courts had been created with all the fervor of a publicly supported social movement. For example, Illinois Juvenile Courts, usually cited as indicative of early juvenile court development, were created by the 1899 Juvenile Court Act and given jurisdiction over any youth who violated the criminal code. Its operation was based on the work of unpaid probation officers appointed by the court. By 1901, legislative change expanded the legal definition of juvenile delinquency to include uniquely juvenile offenses such as incorrigibility. In 1905 the Court's mandate was further expanded. Initially it was responsible for the adjudication and disposition of cases. Now it was also to direct supervision of treatment services provided pursuant to its orders. In 1907 legislation further expanded the Court's arena by providing for professional probation officers and court staff. After the fervor of the first decade of this century, the juvenile courts in this country essentially conducted their mission in a rather dormant fashion. Most other states had followed

ADOLESCENT PROJECT

Illinois in creating separate courts for juveniles by the twenties. Separate Juvenile Bureaus in urban police departments were close behind. Procedural informality, individualized treatment, and provision of services approximating those of a natural home were held as basic operating principles.

All continued relatively quietly until the middle sixties. The juvenile justice system, like many other social institutions, became the target of a variety of attacks, both from those within and outside its ranks.

The first line of criticism attacked the juvenile court's justification for acting with procedural informality while at the same time holding the fate of individual youth in its hands. Characterized by the Supreme Court decision in the case of Gault, in 1967, it was suggested that the entire juvenile court movement had been a fiasco. In its majority opinion the Supreme Court stated that regardless of the good intentions of the juvenile justice system, the condition of being a boy does not justify a kangaroo court. The failure of the juvenile justice system to provide either sound, effective treatment or procedural safeguards insuring constitutional safeguards left the youth with nothing. These criticisms struck at the very heart of the rationale for the juvenile justice system.

A second line of criticisms of the juvenile justice system was focused on its mistreatment of youth by sending them to highly malignant correctional institutions. This line of attack was quite similar to the arguments which had provided the rationale for the creation of the original juvenile courts. Recidivism rates were extremely high and the poor conditions which existed in the juvenile institutions were almost unbelievable.

ADOLESCENT PROJECT

One major response to these problems was to suggest that youth should be diverted away from the system altogether. The general argument was that the juvenile justice system has become so malignant that alternatives must be provided. This project is very much part of the effort to divert juveniles from involvement with the formal justice system.

As can be seen from this description, we have in many ways come full circle. The "new Diversion" of which this project is a part is very similar to the initiation of the original court. Our task is to beat the previous record.

VI. Overview of Local Juvenile Justice System -- Graphic Discussion (see chart following page)

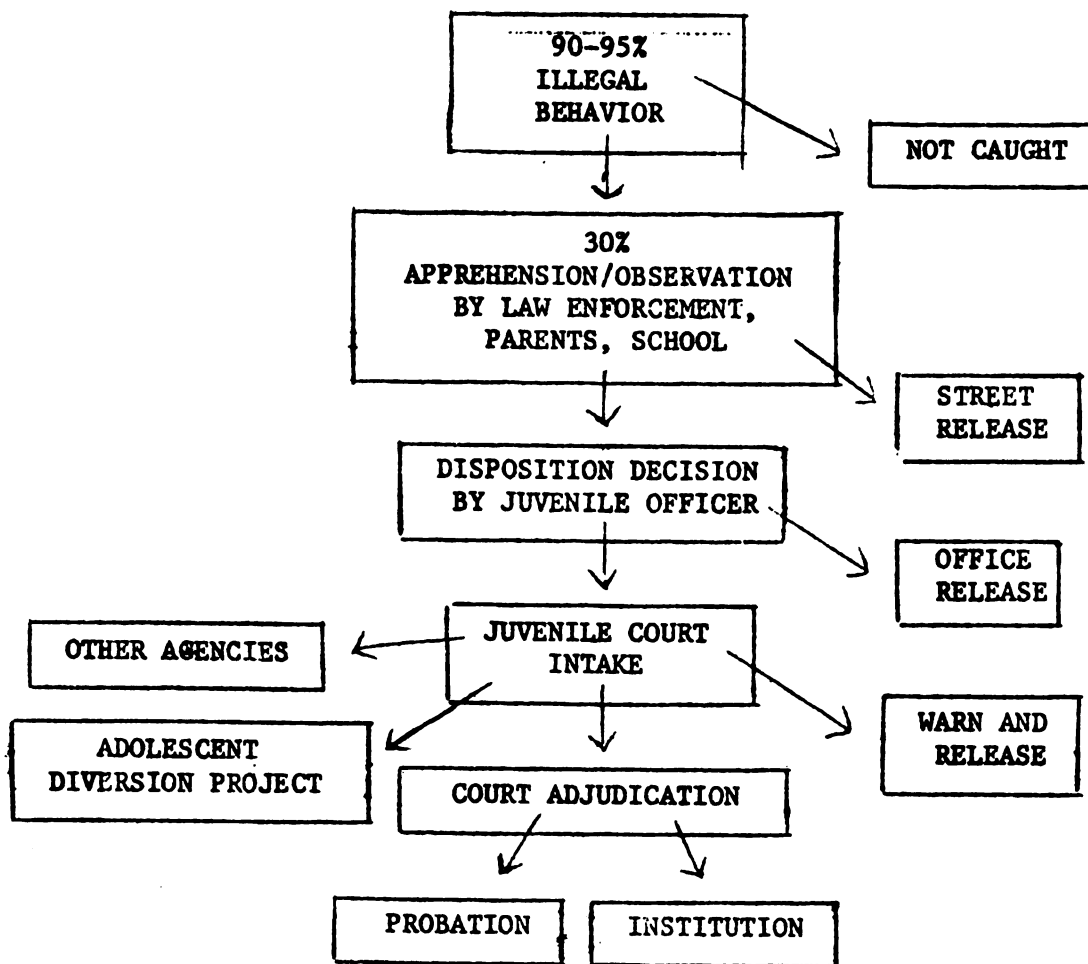
VII. Behavioral Conception of Human Behavior and Delinquency

In these next two weeks we will be talking about two relatively distinct rationales with regard to human behavior and delinquency. One is the behavioral approach and the other is the environmental resources approach. First the behavioral perspectives will be discussed. After examining the theory and traditions of each, a discussion of an effective individualized case approach will follow.

Human Behavior

It should be pointed out from the very beginning that the behavioral conception of human behavior and problems was in many ways a reaction to traditional medical model and intra-individual approaches. In addition, the behavioral approaches have as their ancestry the experimental-learning-theory based traditions within the field of psychology.

The behavioral approach to human behavior, as a reaction to the traditional medical model viewpoint, focused on several components of several traditional conceptions including both medical and psychological



ADOLESCENT PROJECT

positions. In the first place, psychiatric explanations of human behavior had often focused on internal psychic health or illness. Overt human performances were said to be the product of internalized early experience. Differential early experiences were said to result in various types of individuals with varying degrees of healthy and pathological components. Similarly, traditional psychological approaches to human behavior focused on intra-individual characteristics, also resulting from early childhood experiences and genetic background, which supposedly produced observed differences in human behavior and personality structure. The basic model was that there are types of individuals who act and think differentially; major emphasis was placed on internal states as predictive of actual human actions. The traditional approaches viewed human problems as individual problems and the individual became the focus of therapeutic and change strategies. The focus of change was the individual and great emphasis was placed on professional therapists.

The behavioral approach made several attacks on traditional approaches. First, it emphasized the importance of an individual's environment in determining actions. Second, it suggested that the focus of change had to be the environment of the individual rather than the individual per se. Third, the target of change included multiple environmental components rather than only the individual via one-to-one therapy, and therefore people other than the professional therapist were viewed as critical to the process of change. Fourth, it suggested that ongoing human behavior was a function of the principles of learning theory rather than relatively intractable intra-individual characteristics. Fifth, behavioral approaches suggested that deviant was a function of societal labeling processes rather than characteristic of individual deviant actions. In other words, behavior was only termed deviant when observed by and defined as such by important others or the individual himself/herself.

The behavioral approach suggests that human performances are a function of several basic processes, drawn from laboratory experimentation. First, human behavior can be initiated, maintained, and increased by four processes. Obviously, one way people learn to do things is through instruction. They can be told specifically how and what to do. Another way is for the person to observe another person or persons doing something. This process is generally referred to as modeling and has been shown to be a potent process in human behavior. People also learn to do things when some action on their part leads to a positive consequence. This process is referred to as positive reinforcement and involves the presentation of a positive or desired event following the occurrence of some action. A last process which has been shown to increase human performances is negative reinforcement. Actions which lead to the cessation of a negative consequence are more likely to be performed again. Consider the following examples:

Instruction: You could ask the youth you are working with to meet you someplace. You would tell him/her specifically where you would meet, what you would be doing, what time you would meet, and how he/she could get there.

Modeling: You might show the parents of the youth you are working with a different way of interacting with him/her that you had found to be successful. You would have the parent(s) watch you and the youth engage in a positive conversation about what the youth had done that day.

Positive reinforcement: You might set up a situation where the youth you are working with received an allowance based on how well he/she had done in school each day.

Negative reinforcement: You might arrange an agreement between the youth and his/her parents such that curfew hours (a negative event) would be liberalized if the youth came in on time for some specified time period.

ADOLESCENT PROJECT

In addition to the principles for increasing and maintaining desired actions, there are two principle methods for decreasing undesired actions. Punishment involves the presentation of a negative event following some action. In other words, as a result of doing something, an undesirable event occurs. Another type of punishment involves the removal of a positive event contingent upon a certain activity. In short, the person loses something he/she desires as a result of some action. Here are two examples:

Punishment (negative event): You might set up an agreement between the youth and his/her parents such that if the youth returned home late, he/she would have to do extra household chores.

Punishment (loss of positive event): Under a family contract a youth might be required to pay back part of his/her allowance each time he/she did not attend school. (see chart following page)

While this brief overview of a behavioral approach to human behavior has summarized the basic processes governing the actions of people, most of these principles are usually conceived of as operating at the individual level. In other words, one person, in control of the reinforcers, is viewed as controlling or influencing the behavior of another individual. In the situations in which you will be dealing in this program throughout the year it is usually the case that interpersonal interactions define the areas which need attention. In the interpersonal situation both parties are seen as influencing each other's behavior in a reciprocal fashion rather than one individual having absolute control. In other words, interpersonal exchanges operate in a two-way fashion according to the principles outlined above. In actuality both parents and kids, teachers and kids, kids and their friends, kids and their employers, etc., have considerable mutual influence over the actions of each other. Within an

Clarifying the relationship between positive/negative events and their presentation or removal.

	PRESENT	REMOVE
Positive Event	<p>Positive Reinforcement</p> <p>(\$, smiles, food, priveleges)</p>	<p><u>Punishment I</u></p> <p>(T.V., smiles, stay up late)</p>
Negative Event	<p><u>Punishment II</u></p> <p>(pains, frowns, ridicule)</p>	<p>Negative Reinforcement</p> <p>(threats, scoldings, restrictions)</p>

also see Tharp and Wetzel p. 23.

ADOLESCENT PROJECT

operant interpersonal view of human behavior (applying learning theory principles to the interpersonal situation) a number of assumptions are made regarding interpersonal relations between youth and the significant others in their life. Within this framework, the receipt of positive interactions in the interpersonal situation is viewed as something which has to be earned rather than an absolute right. People have to essentially act nice towards others in order to expect positives in return and vice versa. A second assumption is that effective interpersonal relationships are governed according to the norm of reciprocity. In other words, the old adage of "If you scratch my back, I'll scratch yours" turns out to be true. A third assumption suggests that the value of an interpersonal relationship is a function of the range, rate, and magnitude of positive reinforcements involved in that relationship. People essentially value others who treat them positively, on many occasions, and in many ways. Lastly, it is suggested that rules can be utilized to create freedom in an interpersonal relationship. When two individuals engaged in an interpersonal relationship specify what they can mutually expect from each other it allows a certainty which will increase the chances of positive exchanges and allow the exploration of additional positive alternative modes of interaction.

Juvenile Delinquency

There have been many theories of juvenile delinquency put forth by social scientists since the early part of this century. Most of them have focused on either pathological or deviant individuals as the cause of delinquency. Other theories have argued that delinquency was the product of deprived or discriminatory social conditions. Neither of these very prominent sets of approaches have produced either adequate explanations of delinquency nor have they suggested helpful intervention approaches.

ADOLESCENT PROJECT

Within the framework of the operant interpersonal view of human behavior, delinquency is seen to be a function of a set of ongoing interactional processes. It is very important to note that the principles which are said to govern the initiation and maintenance of delinquent behavior are the same as those which are said to function in all human actions. Delinquency is not viewed as pathological or deviant in and of itself. Rather, delinquency is socially defined. In fact, the mere commission of an unlawful act is insufficient to identify a delinquent. The act must be observed and formally labeled in order for a youth to become known to the juvenile justice system.

It appears that delinquency is a function of several processes which you will be attempting to change with the youth you work with. It has been observed that delinquents and their families are different from nondelinquents on a number of dimensions. First, the families of delinquents disproportionately display (model) and attend to (reinforce) delinquent actions. In other words, the youth have been exposed to and reinforced for the commission of undesired actions by their families. Second, the families of delinquents fail to attend to the prosocial performance of the youth. Academic, social, and vocational accomplishments of the youth are insufficiently attended to by his/her family. Third, the interaction patterns in families of delinquents are generally governed by aversive controls rather than positive relationships. The families you will be seeing during this year will often disproportionately use negative tactics (e.g., threats, grounding, complaining, etc.) to attempt to influence one another (get what they want). Fourth, the peer group of delinquents will similarly disproportionately attend to and encourage delinquent activities and insufficiently encourage prosocial accomplishments. The peer groups of the youth you work with will provide social payoff

ADOLESCENT PROJECT

for "hell raising" and seldom be interested in the academic, vocational, or recreational accomplishments of the youth. Fifth, the school personnel which relate to the youth (primarily teachers) will also be overconcerned with the negative actions of the youth and fail to pay consistent attention to his/her accomplishments. Sixth, other significant individuals in the life of the youth will interact with the youth according to the same dysfunctional pattern. In short, there are many interpersonal forces in the form of contingencies which have led the youth towards a path of unlawful activity.

The implications of an operant interpersonal explanation of delinquency are multiple. It is obvious that interpersonal contingencies form a major component in the development and maintenance of delinquent activity. Thus, the focus of interventions must be the interpersonal relationships within the life of the youth you will be working with. The next eight weeks will be spent in part in training you to modify the interpersonal relationships which are important to the youth you are working with. The importance of assessing and intervening in each case on an individual basis cannot be overemphasized. One major concern is that you are able to move the important relationships in the youth's life towards the norm of contingent reciprocity. Positive reciprocal interactions are a central component in averting further difficulty. You will want to be working with the youth and the significant others in his/her life to move their interaction patterns towards a positive quid pro quo relationship. It must also be stressed that your intervention will be with the youth and the various significant individuals in his/her life. Many traditional approaches, particularly those involving student volunteers such as yourselves, have placed exclusive focus on the individual youth in isolation.

ADOLESCENT PROJECT

Your role in this project is much more akin to that of a negotiator between the youth and important individuals than it is to the role of the individual therapist or friend.

As can be seen from the explanation of delinquency reviewed above, the important factor is that you are successful in inducing changes in the interpersonal environment of the youth. It is probably next to impossible to change the youth in isolation, and any changes which might occur would not be likely to continue after you stopped seeing him/her anyway, if that were your only focus. It is critical that you focus on the natural interpersonal relationships in order to guarantee durable and useful changes. And as will be seen in the next lesson, it is also critical to focus on the youths needs and the related environmental resources in order to maximize the relevance and longevity of change.

VIII. Overview of Training Manual

IX. Questions

X. Discussion of Class Members Conceptions of Delinquents

XI. Basic Principles from This Week's Material

- A. Decline of the professional therapist as a viable intervention approach.
- B. Behavioral approach as an alternative to traditional conceptions of human behavior.
- C. Negative consequences of the medical model approach to human problems.
- D. Principles of learning theory.
- E. Principles of the operant interpersonal view of human behavior.
- F. Interpersonal processes operative in the lives of youth.
- G. Review of behavioral principles.
- H. Explanation of delinquent behavior.
- I. Implications for intervention with youth.
- J. The triadic model, its components, and the role of mediator.

1. List four shortcomings of the medical model of human behavior.
2. What four processes lead to the initiation and maintenance of human behaviors? Give examples.
3. Describe the triadic model and interrelationships.

ORAL QUESTIONS

1. How does the behavioral model provide an alternative to the medical model? What are the implications for this project?
2. What are implications of behavioral models for use of nonprofessionals?
3. What is contingency management? Give examples and be specific.
4. What two processes lead to the decrease in human behavior? Give specific examples.
5. Compare and contrast the behavioral and traditional views of delinquency and its treatment.
6. What 6 interpersonal processes lead to delinquency?

- I. Topics: Environmental Resources Conception of Human Behavior and Delinquency
Rationale for Multi-Level Training for Work with the Youth
- II. Assigned Readings (to be mastered by class time this week)
 - Ryan, W. Blaming the victim. New York: Vintage Press, 1971. Introduction and Chapter I.
 - Levine, A. The rights of students. New York: Avon, 1973. Pp. 11-27, 149-159.
 - The Court Structure of the State of Michigan (mimeo)
 - Davidson, W.S., Seidman, E., Rappaport, J., Berck, P., Rapp, N., Rhodes, W., & Herring, J. Diversion Programs for Juvenile Offenders.
- III. Questions from Students (10 minutes)
- IV. Written Questions (20 minutes)
- V. Group Discussion Questions (30 minutes)
- VI. Study Notes (supplement to readings)

Human Behavior

In order to put the approach of child advocacy and its related techniques into perspective it is necessary to examine the recently popularized environmental resources conception of human behavior. As with most theoretical and conceptual developments in the fields of social science, the environmental resources conception of human behavior is very much a reaction to traditional conceptions and strategies within academic and professional realms.

The environmental resources conception of human behavior was specifically a reaction to two rather broad approaches within the social sciences. The first, prominent within the field of psychology, is generally characterized as the individual differences tradition. The basic approach of the individual differences school of thought is that human behavior is a function of multiple individual characteristics (intelligence, personality, family background, etc.). The individual differences approach then actually crosses the fields of psychology, social work, sociology, etc. Each discipline has traditions of seeking explanations of human behavior by examining relatively stable individual characteristics as explanations of variation in human behavior. The basic model was that there are types of individuals who act and think differentially. The major emphasis was on tapping those internal states, types, traits, etc., as predictive of specific human actions. Without a doubt, the individual differences conception and philosophy have been the most prominent in the fields of social science and in society as a whole. In fact, the individual differences ideology is at the basis of many of our "American" traditions. The individual differences approach to human behavior has led to a myriad of approaches to changing undesirable individuals, of various types, within a traditional therapeutic format. The basic strategy involves inducing change in the individual characteristics of the individual so that the undesired actions would disappear or be replaced by desired actions, self-esteem, ego strength, appropriate repertoires, etc. Most of the change approaches that you are familiar with in the fields of psychology, psychiatry, social work, counseling, education, are aimed at changing individual characteristics as the appropriate route to therapeutic gain.

ADOLESCENT PROJECT

A second approach to human behavior, very prominent in the field of sociology in the fifties, and at the base of the social action movements of the sixties, is the social conflict theoretical position. The basic premise of the social conflict approach is that human behavior is to a great extent a function of social structures. In other words, formal and informal social structures and forces function to direct an individual and/or group towards behavior patterns considered to be normative or legal. The basic position is that the opportunity structure of a society of culture determines the behavior patterns of humans. This position suggested that cultures are successful in convincing all of its members of the desirable goals which are to be obtained. In our own culture such common goals include material wealth, education, good jobs, etc. However, it was suggested that cultures make legitimate and illegitimate means to attaining the commonly esteemed goals differentially available to subgroups within each society. In other words, if legitimate means towards the commonly held goals are not available to individuals or groups they will seek and find illegitimate methods of attaining congruence with society's ideals. The implications of this social structure/social conflict conception of human behavior for social and individual interventions were that the opportunity structures of American Society had to be opened so that all groups had equal access. In other words, deviance was seen to be a function of rather intrac-table social conditions and structures. The social structure approach was also often related to the individual differences ideology by suggesting that the individual differences which had been observed (e.g., low intelligence, criminality, poverty, poor work record) were a function of the unequal opportunity structure.

The environmental resources conception of behavior actually reacted to the individual differences and social conflict traditions in several ways. First, it suggested that in fact there were individual and social structure differences among and between social subgroups and individuals and that these were desirable. In short, the importance of the individual was emphasized as not only existing but as desirable. The importance of each and every individual was paramount. The environmental resources conception openly attacked the social and individual differences approaches as being value laden. It was granted that differences existed, but that many other differences existed which were not being focused on for politically convenient reasons. In other words, such characteristics as intelligence or upper level social standing were defined according to the dominant social culture's values and that in fact many other differences existed among any groups one might select. The point is that those differences are in some sense revered and provide insufficient reason for dismissing social responsibility for unfulfilled human need.

A second line of attack focused on the fixed nature of either the individual differences or social differences approaches. Both had suggested that relatively stable characteristics, derived from cross-sectional approaches to research, were predictive of human behavior. The environmental resources position argued that in actuality human behavior was much more likely to be a function of ongoing social processes which could, by their very nature, not be captured by a static model. The alternative suggested was one of involvement in which the basic right of each individual to society's resources was highlighted. It was suggested that the two traditional schools of thought, with their focus on static individual and social characteristics, had provided an excuse for not being involved in the social process. This position was most elaborately delineated by the recent Joint Commission on Mental Health in Children. The Commission stated that each individual in our society had a basic right to the resources, in all life domains, which the society had available. In short, the basic constitutional rights to life, liberty, happiness, etc., were reasserted as a systematic position about how to deal with human difficulty. These rights include both material and social or personal

ADOLESCENT PROJECT

resources. In other words, each individual has a right to have his/her needs fulfilled through education, vocation, recreation, interpersonal relationships, upbringing, etc.

The implications of the environmental resources conception of human behavior lead to the role of advocate for various individuals and social groups to insure that the society and local community respond to the needs of all their members. The advocacy approach is hardly new to our society. In fact, advocates have existed in a number of naturally occurring and professional roles for some time. In general, parents are construed as advocates for their children, lawyers for their clients in adversary trials, professional associations for their constituents, labor unions for the worker, etc. The environmental resources conception suggests that the role of advocate needs to be more widely dispersed among various demographic, developmental, professional groups, etc. The arena becomes the ongoing social processes which are intricately related to human actions. The advocate is to insure that each individual, practically held as sacred, receives the full gamut of resources to which he/she has a right and which are needed to fulfill individual needs.

JUVENILE DELINQUENCY

As with the general environmental resources conception of human behavior, the specific application of this approach to juvenile delinquents was a reaction to the inadequacy of traditional approaches to suggest positive strategies for dealing with youthful law violators. This reaction was a function of the traditional schools of delinquency theory failing to account for the widespread incidence of illegal behavior by youth among all social and demographic groups. The Child Advocacy approach was also a reaction to the apparently malignant conditions prevalent in the nation's juvenile justice system and programs designed to "rehabilitate" delinquent youth. Rather the environmental resources conception suggested that delinquent youth were very much like all other youth, except that the material and personal resources which could have been used to avert their being labeled delinquent had not been executed.

The basic position of the environmental resources conception of delinquency is this: (1) Illegal youthful behavior is widespread among all youth groups. (2) A small subset of the youthful law violators are identified by police, parents, and school officials as being official juvenile delinquents. (3) If sufficient material and personal resources are not exerted, the youth will in fact become officially labeled delinquent. (4) Entry into the formal juvenile justice system in fact leads to further delinquency. In general, the position of the environmental resources conception of juvenile delinquency is that the individual has unfulfilled personal and material needs. The delinquent youth is to be respected and his/her rights to the community's resources advocated. Again, the value of the individual is exemplified.

It should be noted that the reappearance of the importance of the rights of juveniles to the community's resources was as much a function of events in the legal and political spheres as it was theorizing in the social sciences. As was mentioned in the first week's overview of the juvenile justice system, most "people-helping" approaches has progressed in relative solitude between the time of the early twentieth century and the early sixties. During the mid-sixties the rights of those being served by various social programs were reasserted in the streets and the landmark decisions of the United States Supreme Court. More

ADOLESCENT PROJECT

specifically, the decision in the Gault case indicated that juvenile offenders had a right to the nation's legal resources in the defense of their cases. This basic philosophy has been expanded to the other social service fields where the basic rights of individuals to be involved in and have some control over their own destinies is also being stressed. In the area of treatment of juvenile offenders this individual rights/child advocacy approach has been specifically applied in recent recommendations for the use of the advocacy approach as a general intervention strategy. A large number of social groups have advocates to look out for their best interests. In fact, success in American society, both material and personal, can be viewed to be a function of one's ability to manipulate society's resources for one's own benefit. Children have been lacking in advocacy groups and hence probably gotten less than their fair share of the community's resources. Those youth identified as delinquents have received even less of the resources to which they have a right. The approach of child advocacy suggests that the scales be balanced such that the law violator has an equal chance of gaining the resources necessary to fulfill his/her personal and material needs. The methods of advocacy are suggested as a solution.

The implications of the environmental resources of the problem of delinquency suggest three general components to the child advocacy approach. First, it is suggested that the advocate take on the role of identifying, mobilizing, and generating the necessary community resources to meet the needs of the individual or group which is his/her constituent. The unmet needs of the individual are to be identified by the advocate together with the constituent individual or group. In other words, at the very heart of the child advocacy approach is an individualized strategy rather than a set of carefully specified steps to follow in all instances. In line with this position, the advocate is called on to use the existing resources of the community available in the broad spectrum of individual human needs. In general, a wide variety of resources exist which are little known to or used by the population in question relevant to their personal and material well-being. There is also the demand of the advocate to meet the individual needs through the creation of community resources which may be nonexistent, but are needed by the individual or individuals in question.

The second component of the recommendations for the role of child advocate are that the advocate use a variety of strategies to mobilize or generate community resources. Obviously, multiple tactics are available and none are universally applicable or predictive of success. The advocate is called upon to carefully consider the various strategies available, the idiosyncracies of the individual and the situation and resources to be target, and make a decision about a course of action likely to lead to the desired goals. In short, the child advocacy approach relies a great deal on the individual resources of the advocate.

A third component of the child advocacy approach is that the goal of the advocacy effort is to move the target individual towards a self-advocacy position. Since the approach is based on the "sanctity" of the individual and his/her rights to resources, it is critical that the individual be involved in the advocacy effort to the extent that they will be able to assume their own advocacy at the close of the intervention. Obviously, the intervention does not seek to place the person in the position of needing a formal external advocacy system to maintain their well-being. They need to be directly taught the methods and organization of individually generated advocacy effort and/or the option of organizing others to join in the approach.

In these last two weeks we have discussed the fundamental concepts of the behavioral and environmental resource approaches. Although the application of these theories are somewhat distinct, we will be using a combination of these two concepts in dealing with the participants in this program. It is crucial that you understand the reasons for presenting both approaches within the same training. This summary will provide the rationale for promoting the "multiple strategy" model and will show how the two models will fit together in the remaining six weeks.

First, each method of mediating change for the youth has been selected for its soundness in theory and in practical application. In the Illinois Delinquency Project there was no major outcome difference between the group using the behavioral techniques and the group employing the environmental resources model. In other words both approaches were very effective.

Second, although both groups did better than those not receiving the new strategies, it was clear that because of a special need or situation a particular youth might have done better if another strategy had been permitted. As a result of the indepth assessment you will become knowledgeable about the needs and special problems of your youth. Each of the youths assigned will of course differ in many respects. Behavioral and environmental resources initiatives are presented together so that in planning with the youth your options for helping him/her are expanded.

Third, the use of a tailor-made program will help to eliminate the tendency to make various assumptions about the several dimensions of the youth's problems. It will become clear that while the methods are given there are no rigid sequences or procedures in applying these models. Different areas of the youth's lives may not only be quite separate but also problem free. Obviously, how you use the methods you have been studying must be largely determined by the individual's circumstances. Individualized Programming is a major advantage of this approach.

Fourth, the examination and use of options presented from these models of intervention will help to insure the stability of the changes you plan and execute. When considered together a combination behavioral and environmental resources approach covers more of what may be significantly affecting the youth's current way of life. A multilevel intervention provides flexibility and mutual backup systems rather than total dependence on a single technique. In the long run it's essential to consider the appropriateness as well as the interrelatedness of both approaches on an individual basis.

Fifth, having the opportunity to plan a strategy and pick your own methods will allow you the freedom to be more than a technician following a routine. You will have the freedom and flexibility to be innovative in implementing your plans. Basically, this promotes using a number of sources in seeking relevant information for the benefit of the youth. Such objectivity suggests that your commitment is not to a particular method, but to the youth.

What does individualizing an approach in working with a youth entail? And, in general, how does one devise practical plans and how do both models fit together in doing so? These questions will be directly addressed in the course work of the next several weeks. We will examine numerous examples of prior and ongoing experiences as this term progresses. Class sessions are designed to show how our multiple strategy model can be practically applied to the several situations you will encounter.

ADOLESCENT PROJECT

There are three parts to the discussion of how these approaches work together to individualize each youth's program. Briefly, in depth assessment is an essential starting point for both applied methods. The needs of the youth, the available resources, and significant others must be recognized. As you will learn next week, the information gathering procedures are quite similar even though one approach will use the information on an interpersonal level and the other on a systemic (community) level.

Second, once needs are assessed it will be necessary to plan the appropriate strategies for change. On both the interpersonal and the systemic (community) levels, it is important to select the most influential targets and most effective methods available.

Third, the mediator must continue to be involved in the monitoring of change throughout the program. Intervention and implementation are not enough. Rather, one must continually evaluate the success in achieving goals, and be sensitive to sources of feedback.

Finally, the multiple strategy approach provides for durability of change. In the process of terminating your formal involvement with the youth both individual models stress the importance of relaying your training to the youths themselves and significant others for their continued use. Thus, while you initiate beneficial change it is important that the youth and the resources environment can perpetuate or expand on the changes made.

VII. Basic Principles from This Week's Material

- A. The position of the individual differences approach.
- B. The position of the social conflict approach.
- C. The criticisms of the environmental resources conception.
- D. The goals of advocacy.
- E. Steps in blaming the victim.
- F. Rationale for the victim-blaming approach.
- G. Hiding the victim-blaming approach.
- H. Rights under the First Amendment.
- I. Rationale for the advocacy approach.
- J. Environmental resources explanation of delinquency.
- K. Components of the advocacy model.
- L. Goals and aims of the Illinois project.
- M. Type of participants (Illinois project)
- N. Assessment and evaluation (Illinois project)

VII. Basic Principles Continued...

- O. Determinants of success (Illinois project)
- P. Further research (Illinois project)
- Q. "Multiple strategy" rationale.
- R. Integrating steps of the "multiple strategy" model.
- S. General Structure of the Court System

3. What are the characteristics of the victim-blaming approach? What are the fatal flaws?

ORAL QUESTIONS

1. What are the steps in blaming the victim?
2. How does the environmental resources conception of human behavior offer an alternative to a victim blaming approach?
3. What is the rationale behind the advocacy approach to youth and what are the implications for this project? Why is self-advocacy an important goal in the advocacy approach?
4. What was the cause and implications of Tinker vs. Des Moines Independent School District Decision?
5. How is the victim blaming approach to social problems carefully disguised? Give an example.
6. Was the project successful? How was this determined?

193
WEEK 3
ADOLESCENT PROJECT

I. Topic: Assessment as a Prelude to Intervention

II. Assigned Readings (To be mastered by class time this week.)

Davidson, W.S. Child advocacy in the justice system. Social Work, May, 1976, Page 228 and first column of page 229 only.

Kanfer, F.H., and Saslow, G. Behavioral diagnosis. In C.M. Franks (Ed.) Behavior therapy: Appraisal and status. New York: McGraw-Hill, Excerpts on reserve

DeRici, W.J., and Butz, G. Writing Behavioral Contracts. Champaign: Research Press, Pp. 9-25

National Information Center on Volunteers in Courts Some things to think about in working with juveniles. Mimeo

The Answer Book. (Inquire at reference desk of library. Just skim through it and note format, general content, etc.)

Patterson, Excerpt from Families, Chapter 7, Pp. 59-69. Mimeo

III. Questions from Students (10 minutes)

IV. Written Questions (20 minutes)

V. Group Discussion Questions (30 minutes)

VI. Study Notes (supplement to readings)

Your initial introduction to a youth and his/her life situations will actually involve several sequential steps. After a youth has been assigned to this program, your supervisor will be matching you up with an individual youth. You will be informed of the name, address, age, school, etc., of the youth. It is critical that you make a contact with the youth as soon as you are assigned. Your initial contact will generally consist of a phone call to the youth to set up a mutually agreed upon time and place to get together. It is important that you be very specific about time and place and that you live up to the arrangements precisely. You should introduce yourself by name and identify yourself as being from the "volunteer" project. Often a commonly agreed upon activity will provide inducement for the first meeting. You will spend the first week primarily getting to know the youth and his/her situation.

Although these earliest meetings should be fairly relaxed, as you and the youth become acquainted, you should use this opportunity to begin the very important process of assessment. Exactly how you do this is critical. On the one hand, while you want to find out the maximum amount of information about the problematic interpersonal interactions which the youth encounters and the unmet resource needs the youth has, you do not want to be exclusively "problem" oriented. These youth will likely have been "problemated" to death in the past and may be turned off by such an approach. Instead, during the first week, you want to focus your early discussions on what the youth does and inquire specifically about each area discussed. In this manner, "problem" areas will emerge as one component of the youth's life and can be attended to as such.

The interpersonal atmosphere in which the early conversations are conducted is very important. You should attempt to foster a feeling of genuine concern toward the youth and a sincere interest in his situation. However, you should avoid playing social worker or attempting to force an emotional bond where one does not exist. At the same time, you must gather necessary information about the youth and be constantly sensitive to possible information about interpersonal relationships and/or unmet resource needs. Once again, however, this must be done with sincerity and some tact. The last thing you want to do is come on like the local cop or an investigative reporter.

To summarize, while your initial contacts with the youth should be as a friend, as you would get to know any new acquaintance, it is essential that you be at all times aware of the need to gather pertinent information about the youth and his social and environmental situation.

Keeping in mind the multi-level intervention approach which this course emphasizes, you must obtain enough information to permit a comprehensive intervention plan to be developed. In order to allow yourself the flexibility to utilize an appropriate combination of behavioral and environmental resource (advocacy) strategies, the necessary background information about the youth and his/her situation must be gathered. Only after you have made this comprehensive assessment can an intervention plan, tailored to the needs and potentialities of your youth, be developed and implemented.

In the actual assessment process, you should be simultaneously gathering information that could be used for either behavioral or environmental resource oriented interventions. However, for the purposes of this manual, it may be most clear to separately discuss the assessment requirements of each methodological approach. Once the requirements of each method are clear to you, it should be possible to encompass both methods when your actual assessment takes place.

The Behavioral Approach

In using the behavioral approach, you want to set the stage for yourself to assume the role of mediator between the youth and various significant others in his/her interpersonal network and to work with them toward a negotiated interpersonal agreement. To be able to accomplish such a task, you must obviously first gather the necessary information about the youth's interpersonal network, such as: who are the important persons in the network; what are the present contingencies; and particularly, what are the problem areas in the network. As soon as feasible in the relationship, possibly at the end of the first week, you should identify with the youth the interpersonal contingencies you would both like to work on. A CARDINAL RULE IS THAT YOU WANT TO SELECT GOAL AREAS IN TERMS OF IMPROVEMENT RATHER THAN ONLY STOPPING OR REDUCING HASSLES. Your role now becomes clearly that of a mediator, for the purpose of establishing and monitoring interpersonal agreements.

At this point the assessment phase moves into a more advanced stage. Now assessment will be intermixed with specific action steps. Once you have established a friendship with the youth and identified areas in which you will be

ADOLESCENT PROJECT

working, the next step is to set up meetings between yourself and the important people you have mutually identified. While the range of important persons who might be identified is to always be based on the individual youth and the situation as you see it, you will generally be most heavily involved with parents, teachers, employers, etc. The purpose of the initial meeting with the youth and each of the significant others identified is to establish what each party would like to see improved in their mutual interaction. Specifically, after setting up such meetings, and necessary introductions, your task is to identify what each party would like changed in the most exact terms possible. The best way to gain such information is to ask each party that question directly, and then further question them in order to get their demands further specified and translated into positive statements rather than negative. For example, a common thing that teachers want is for the youth to do his/her school work. Your response would be to find out exactly what the school work was in terms of daily and weekly tasks. Another common request by parents is for the youth to follow the family rules. Your response would be to ask exactly what those rules were. Kids will often want to get their parents off their backs. When inquiring specifically as to what that was you might find out that the youth wanted to be able to go out with his/her friends without a 30-minute lecture about why he/she shouldn't. Your response here would be to find out exactly what the youth would like the parents to do instead. The two general rules to be remembered at this point are: (1) Do you know exactly what each party is asking for so that all concerned would agree on whether the change had taken place or not? (2) Can each request be stated in terms of a positive rather than in terms of what each would like the other to stop doing?

After identifying the desired changes of each party you are ready to negotiate an agreement. Some details about this process will be provided in the coming weeks.

The Environmental Resources (Advocacy) Approach

In using this approach you want to set the stage for yourself to assume the role of advocate for the youth and his/her situation in areas of personal or collective need. In other words, you want to begin to identify the critical interfaces between the youth and the social systems of the local community. As components of this process you must be able to identify both the unmet needs of the youth and the various community resources available to meet those needs. This will involve gathering information from the youth and significant others in his life, as well as familiarizing yourself with resource options potentially available. As soon as possible, again perhaps at the end of the first week, you should identify with the youth the areas of unmet need that you would both like to work on. A cardinal rule in the advocacy approach is that YOU WANT TO IDENTIFY TARGET AREAS OF UNMET NEED RATHER THAN ONLY BEING CONCERNED WITH STOPPING AREAS OF HASSLE. (As with the behavioral approach, interventions you attempt with the youth should be phrased and directed in positive terms if at all possible.) Your role now becomes that of an advocate for the purpose of executing actions in behalf of the youth and monitoring the progress of those advocacy efforts in accomplishing your mutually agreed upon goals.

After you have gotten to know the youth you are working with and assessed with him/her the areas of unmet individual need to be worked on, the next step is to identify the critical individuals at the interfaces between the youth and

the social system which can meet his/her unmet need. It is insufficient to merely target a system for advocacy. You need to identify and isolate the individual who can provide the resource needed. It is also necessary to determine how this individual can be influenced (i.e., what his/her vulnerabilities are). For example, it is insufficient to target the local school system as failing to provide your youth an adequate education. What you must do is to identify the individual administrator, principal, secretary, teacher, etc., who can change the targeted resource. In other words, each target for change you mutually select must include the specific resource that you would like to effect and the individual who has control over that resource. Similarly, it is insufficient to indict the local employment field for failing to provide your youth with meaningful and rewarding employment. What must be done is to select what kind of job or jobs would meet the individual need, what rate of pay is reasonable and needed, and exactly who is in the position to provide the youth with the employment situation desired. As can be seen a variety of kinds of information is required to make this stage of the advocacy complete. In addition to specifying exactly what is to be advocated for, how it can be brought about, and who can provide the resource, you will need to gather the maximum amount of information about the target situation and individual possible. In other words, you will need a good deal of information about the target individual in order to make decisions about the strategy to be used in the advocacy. Quite like the attorney taking a case to court, you have to have your case together, know the issues involved, and understand how the judge and jury can be persuaded. In the coming weeks, some of the strategies involved in the advocacy method will be discussed in greater detail.

It is important in this assessment process to obtain specific information. General, unsupported findings are unacceptable, as the following examples illustrate:

- | <u>Unacceptable</u> | <u>Acceptable</u> |
|--|---|
| 1. The youth says his parents hassle him. | 1. The youth says that if he comes home after 11:00, his parents won't let him out the following evening. |
| 2. Youth says school is O.K. | 2. The youth says she likes all of her 6 classes except one, math. Her report card indicates she received a D in math and C's or better in everything else. Both she and her mother report regular attendance, missing about twice per month. |
| 3. Youth wants to participate in work-study program but he was told he would have to wait at least 6 months. | 3. Youth was told by a secretary he would have to wait 6 months to get on work-study. The director of the program was identified and a copy of rules for program operations obtained. |

To summarize, the process of assessment is an essential starting point for both the behavioral and the advocacy methods. The needs of the youth, the significant others in the youth's life, the resources possessed by the youth and his/her family, and the external resources available in the community, all must be assessed and considered in formulating an intervention strategy. This assessment should cover all aspects of the youth's life (home, school, friends, free time, employment, and legal situations). Finally, although assessment is a crucial activity in the early phase of your contact with the youth, you should remain attentive to any new information or changes in the need or resource situation throughout your work with the youth.

ADOLESCENT PROJECT**VII. Basic Principles from this Week's Material:**

- A. Initial Contact with Youth**
- B. Need/Rationale for Assessment**
- C. Assessment of unmet Needs and Potential Resources**
- D. Assessment of Interpersonal Network and Existing Behavioral Contingencies**
- E. Resources to Use in Planning Intervention**
- F. Some General Principles of Interacting with Juveniles**

1. Describe the three aspects of the initial analysis done in Kanfer and Saslow's system. Give an example of each.
2. What specific things should you be listening and looking for during the initial time period when you are getting to know the youth?
3. Describe what The Answer Book looks like (color, size, content, etc.). Briefly describe a hypothetical situation in which you might use it.

ORAL QUESTIONS

1. What specific information do you need to do on an advocacy intervention strategy?
2. What specific information do you need to do on a behavioral intervention strategy?
3. Why is it important to "have your case together" when carrying out an advocacy effort?
4. Describe the cardinal rule of child advocacy and explain why it is central to the environmental resources conception of human behavior.
5. List 3 or 4 methods of information collection and give examples of how you might use them in your work with youth.
6. Describe Kanfer and Saslow's view of functional analysis - how do they see people, interactions, behavior, etc.?

WEEK 4

ADOLESCENT PROJECT

I. Topic: Assessment in Practice

II. Assigned Reading:

Tharp, R.G. and Wetzel, R.J. Behavior modification in the natural environment. New York: Academic, 1969, 126-147.

III. Questions from Students

IV. Written Questions

V. Class Expectations

The format will be a little different in this week's class sessions. As usual, you will have assigned readings to do and will be expected to answer three written questions in class. After the questions have been graded and discussed, class members will talk about and role play the homework assignments done over the week. (See below) The grade that you usually receive for answering oral questions will be given for completing these practical assignments.

VI. Assignment #1

Collect data on a friend's behavior that is of interest to you or someone else.

Be sure to describe the targeted behavior in observable terms.

Provide a daily report. (Including at least 4 days)

For example, your two roommates are always fighting because one (Ed) complains that the other (Tom) plays the stereo too loud after he goes to bed. Tom claims that he never puts the volume above "3", which Ed had said previously was not too loud. Tom also feels Ed goes to bed too early and shouldn't expect everyone else to change just for him. You might monitor this for a week, by checking the exact volume level 15 minutes after Ed has gone to bed.

Day	Sunday	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday	Saturday
Time at which Ed goes to bed	10:30	11:30	10:30	11:30	12:00	10:30	11:30
Volume level 15 minutes later	5	3	5	3	Not on	6	3

ADOLESCENT PROJECT

Your roommate's boss just got really angry at her, claiming she is always late to work. This infuriated your roommate because she said she was late that day for the first time in one month. Since she works in the dorm cafeteria and it is possible for you to sit in there and note the time she arrives for work, you decide to monitor her behavior.

	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday	Saturday	Sunday
Time due	12:00	1:00	1:00	12:00	1:00	off	off
Time arrived at cafeteria counter	12:00	12:55	1:10	12:15	1:05	off	off

Note that both of these examples involve the monitoring of an observable event which is described very specifically. Also note that the form for recording the behavior can be used easily.

Assignment #2

Choose an area of unmet need of a friend of yours. Collect the necessary information for an advocacy assessment as detailed on pages 27-28 of the manual. You do not need to plan a strategy to deal with the situation, only complete an assessment. Come to class with a written summary of your findings.

VII. Discussion Questions and Role Plays

1. Come to class prepared to give some examples and to role play talking to the youth for the first time on the phone.
2. The types of questions you would ask during early meeting with the youth.
3. Other ways of getting information about the youth.
4. Meeting with family and teachers for the first time.

VIII. Basic Principles

- A. Resistances to the Approach and Proposed Solutions.
- B. Examples of observing and charting behaviors.

WRITTEN QUESTIONS

1. What are individual resistances and replies? Give examples.
2. Discuss family and school resistances and replies.
3. Discuss community resistances and replies.

- I. Topic: Selection and Initiation of Intervention
- II. Assigned Readings (To be mastered by class time this week)
 - Stuart, R.B. Behavioral contracting within the families of delinquents. In J.S. Stumphauer (Ed.), Behavior therapy with delinquents. Springfield: Thomas, 1973, Pp. 334-350.
 - DeRici, W.J., and Butz, G. Writing behavioral contracts. Champaign: Research Press, Pp. 37-55.
 - Becker, Excerpt from Parents are teachers. Mimeo
 - Patterson, Excerpt from Families. Mimeo, Pp. 70-on
 - Tharp, R.G., and Wetzel, R.J. Behavior modification in the natural environment. New York, Academic, 1969, Pp. 81-126
- III. Questions from Students (10 minutes)
- IV. Written Questions (20 minutes)
- V. Group Discussion Questions (30 minutes)
- VI. Role Plays and Discussion (To be described in class)
- VII. Study Notes (supplement to readings)

After establishing a relationship with the youth and assessing his situation from both the advocacy and behavioral perspectives, it will be necessary to execute your plans of action (though the procedures described in the assessment section should be continued in order to further your understanding of the youth and to be sensitive to changes in the youth's life). Again, although you may very likely employ both methods simultaneously, the two procedures will be described separately.

The Behavioral Contract

There are several general rules which you should keep in mind when you are in the process of negotiating a contract. First, in order for something to be included in a contract, it must be monitorable by both parties involved. If not, there's no way to deal with it. A common mistake is to be concerned with things over which we can have no influence. A usual request from parents is to have influence over where a kid goes and who he/she goes with. Given that they can't follow the youth around when he/she's not at home, it's better to focus on whether or not the youth returns on time and tells them where he/she's going. A second rule to follow is that a request for change by either party must be capable of generating reciprocal change by the requester. A third rule to follow is to work on a few things that appear important to both the youth and the other party involved. You obviously don't have time nor can you change everything right away. The intention is to get a pattern of positive interaction initiated by focusing on a few important events. A fourth rule is that the terms must be clear, specific and written in common language.

In order to initiate the process of negotiating a contract, you'll need to meet with all parties involved in the contract. The purpose of this meeting will be for you to select the responsibilities, privileges, penalties, and bonuses to be included in the contract. This may involve extensive discussion in which you will act as a negotiator. During this process, it will be important for you to keep the above rules in mind. A further task for this meeting is the establishment of a mutually available monitoring system of each person's performance under the rules of the contract.

ADOLESCENT PROJECT

More specifically, you will propose, in writing, an interpersonal contract between the youth and the various others you have identified as important or particularly troublesome with the following components:

Privileges: Four (4) specific things which each party desires.

Responsibilities: Four (4) specific things which each party agrees to do for the other.

Bonuses: One (1) extra desired event that each party can expect if they do something "extra" for the other.

Sanction: One (1) specific penalty for each party should they fail to live up to some specific condition of the contract.

Monitoring: A method for monitoring the performance of each party on each of the above components which can be varified by both parties. Common examples include diaries, checklists, charts, grade cards, etc.

Under the principle of reciprocity, one party's privileges become the other's responsibilities and vice versa. The contract should be presented to the parties involved as a selective set of their concerns which they agree to work on as a beginning. You should be ready to acknowledge that the first contract cannot focus on everything, rather it provides a place to start. The contract should be signed by each of you. You will need to check back quite frequently initially to monitor the progress of the contract. If you have selected things which are truly important to each party, in other words they function as reinforcers, both should accept it with a moderate amount of further discussion. The importance of very carefully watching, listening, and inquiring about important changes for each party will become very clear at this point.

Advocacy Strategies of Intervention

The approaches available in child advocacy are multiple. The ranges of advocacy strategies available might be thought of as varying along two continuas. The first describes various advocacy strategies ranging from positive approaches to change to negative or aversive strategies. The points on this continuum include the following:

1. At the positive end, the advocate can attempt to gain the good favor of the person or agency in control of the needed resource.
2. At midpoint, the advocate could select a neutral strategy, often referred to as consultation, in which information would be provided to the critical individual or agency about the area of unmet needs.
3. At the negative end of the continuum, the advocate could decide to take direct aversive action against the critical individual or agency. If the needed resource is not provided, threats to take such action are also a major component of negative strategies.

The second set of strategies available to the child advocate consists of a continuum of approaches to bring about change that ranges from the individual level to the societal level. The points on this continuum include the following: (1) at the individual level, the

ADOLESCENT PROJECT

advocate could identify the critical person in control of the needed resource, (2) at the administrative level, the advocate could identify a critical agency in control of the needed resource, and (3) at the policy level, strategies might include situations in which the advocate could identify some political or social system that was responsible for the resource that was lacking.

As can be seen, the first two sets of strategies will necessarily interact. In other words, you will need to select strategies that are positive or negative and identify systems or individuals that must be changed. Figure 1 shows the resulting combination of strategies. The Roman numerals indicating each of these combinations correspond to the following examples.

- I. Positive Strategy at the Individual Level. One common situation is that young people's needs for education are not being met because of inappropriate or irrelevant aspects of their curriculum. Taking a positive-individual strategy, the advocate would identify individual teachers and seek their agreement to try to make adjustments in the classroom curriculum that would be more conducive to the needs of youths.
- II. Positive Strategy at the Administrative Level. The absence of adequate recreational activities and facilities constitutes another typical area of unmet needs for youths. Taking an administrative-positive approach, the advocate would contact the city commission with a proposal for drafting an application for a community development grant to generate additional recreational facilities and programs.
- III. Positive Strategy at the Policy Level. Many youths who are seen in delinquency programs are unemployed. Taking a positive approach at the policy level, the advocate would lobby state legislators to amend irrelevant restrictions on the types of employment for which young people could qualify and try to initiate legislation to provide jobs in the public and private sectors.
- IV. Information-Provision Strategy at the Individual Level. Another example of unmet recreational resources could be a particular youth's desire to participate in organized athletics. Taking an individual-information approach the advocate might tell the coach of a local "peewee" football team that the boy in question wanted to join the league.
- V. Information-Provision Strategy at the Administrative Level. In the area of employment, the advocate taking an administrative-information strategy would present information about available employees and rates of unemployment to the director of the local youth employment service and would see that such information was highlighted by the media to influence policy-makers.
- VI. Information-Provision Strategy at the Policy Level. Educational resources are a common area of need for all young people. In fact, current educational systems fail to deal effectively with one-third to one-half of American youths, many of whom, in consequence come into contact with the juvenile justice system. Taking an information strategy at the policy level an advocate would present the state board of education and state superintendent of schools with dropout

Figure 1

INTERACTION OF ADVOCACY STRATEGIES

Positive vs. Negative Strategies

		Positive	Neutral	Negative
Policy vs. Individual Strategies	Individual	I	IV	VII
	Administrative	II	V	VIII
	Policy	III	VI	IX

ADOLESCENT PROJECT

rates and preferences for educational alternatives and would highlight the right of all students to a public education.

- VII. Negative Strategy at the Individual Level. Youths are often denied access to employment because of the employer's knowledge of past deviance. Taking an individual-negative approach, the advocate would have the local media cover the story about a young person's being denied a job by the particular employer.
- VIII. Negative Strategy at the Administrative Level. Youths are often denied access to alternative education because of the lack of availability. Taking a negative strategy at the administrative level, the advocate would initiate a class-action suit against the school district for failing to meet its legislative mandate to educate all youth.
- IV. Negative Strategy at the Policy Level. Frequently, youths are not employed by the very programs designed to employ them (for example, the Neighborhood Youth Corps), because of group membership or place of residence. Taking a negative-policy strategy, the advocate would enjoin a legislative committee to investigate the federal agency charged with operating such youth-employment programs, holding it responsible for its employment practices and the quality of the jobs provided.

The actual combinations of strategies that could result are practically endless and depend on the situation, the people involved, the resource in question, and the person controlling the resource. A critical step is to assess the potential impact of alternative strategies.

It is the intention to build an advocacy approach which you will be able to use on an individual basis. In other words, you will want to select the most promising advocacy strategy based on the following factors: (1) What you know about the target individual or individuals and where they are "vulnerable" to change efforts. Anything we jointly know about the target individual and previous attempts to institute change should provide us clues as to what type of strategy and level of intervention holds the most promise. (2) What intervention strategy is likely to produce the most durable change. There's no sense in following exclusively short-run approaches. In short, many unmet needs may call for policy level changes in the handling of various community resources rather than only a decision relevant to a particular case.

It is anticipated that during the initial stages of your involvement with the youth assigned to you that you will carry out the advocacy effort for the youth. Later, during the 18 weeks of involvement you will be instructing the youth in carrying out his/her own advocacy. Throughout it, it is important that you keep the youth informed as to the progress of your efforts and to continually check on his/her satisfaction with ongoing developments. In other words, you want to carry out advocacy for the youth but you want to keep him/her involved.

The actual advocacy effort is governed by the general principle of action. In other words, you are to be very outgoing, persistent, and insistent in your efforts to mobilize the community's resources for your youth. One common form the advocacy effort will take is personal contact with the target individual or individuals. Several things about exactly how you approach the target individual are important. First, you do not want to present the youth you are working with in a negative light as an excuse for why he/she needs a certain resource. The

ADOLESCENT PROJECT

youth you will be working with will have already been identified as having "problems" of one sort or another by multiple people and adding fuel to that fire is counter-productive. Second, it is important that you are well aware of the style of the target individual you will be trying to persuade, by positive or negative means, so that your entry into the system in question can be facilitated. This does not mean that you need to agree with or be co-opted by the local school, employment, recreational, social, etc., systems. However, you will need to be intricately aware of their modes of operation so that you can use their existing resources to the best advantage of the youth you are working with. It should be obvious that the initial phase of assessing the target individuals and systems provides you a critical base for gaining entry to the community's resources. Third, you do not want to jeopardize the credibility or integrity of the youth you are working with, yourself, or the program. In other words, your contacts with critical individuals you have targeted. For example, if a child has been excluded from his/her rights to an education through school suspension, and the suspension did not conform to either the procedural safeguards or the substantive requirements governing suspension, you would find yourself directly in opposition to school officials in your efforts to either get the youth reinstated or demanding that the school system provide an educational alternative for that youth. Your interpretation of the situation, from the perspective of the youth, may be in conflict with those controlling the resource in question. It is your job to see that the rights of the youth are executed to the fullest extent.

In addition to direct advocacy efforts via personal contact you may also be involved in indirect advocacy efforts which involve phone calls, correspondence, and contacts with others closely related to the target person. In addition to trying to convince the target person of the unfulfilled need of your youth, another effective route for advocates is to bring indirect pressure on the target individual through other people. For example, if your target individual were the director of a local youth employment program (e.g., Neighborhood Youth Corp.) to get a useful job for your youth, you might also want to contact the local Board of Directors and/or funding source of that program to bring additional influence on the target individual. In general, indirect advocacy efforts will be accomplished as a supplement to the direct advocacy effort. It is critical that a single individual be targeted for the advocacy effort so as not to engage in amorphous system blaming as an alternative to action.

Again, it should be emphasized that these two methods are not mutually exclusive. A given area of the youth's life might call for the use of either, neither, or both methods. The success of your intervention will be considerably dependent upon your ability to creatively respond to each problem on an individual basis and apply the technique that best deals with the situation. In other words, you should not decide which technique you like the most from the readings and use that method indiscriminately, but rather you should let the nature of each problem dictate the appropriate action.

ADOLESCENT PROJECT**Basic Principles from this Week's Material**

- A. Stuart's view of family interpersonal relationships.
- B. Initiation of involvement with an assigned youth.
- C. Components of a good contract.
- D. Selecting an advocacy strategy.
- E. Information necessary for the initial advocacy effort.
- F. Principles governing direct advocacy.
- G. The role of indirect advocacy.
- H. Intervention effects of assessment.
- I. Selecting reinforcers.
- J. Strategies for developing new behaviors.

ROLE PLAY OF CONTRACTING SESSION

Youth - 15 year old male - 9th grade

"wants" - To stay out later, money, not get bugged all the time.

Parents - Mr. and Mrs. Blue Collar

"wants" - chores done around house, kid to come in on time and
kid to "shape up" and/or "grow-up".

Stage 1

Important points to consider

- A. Do preliminary assessment with each party to find out general wants, problems, etc.
- B. Must propose the idea of a contract, to each party separately, and explain briefly what it is, etc., and persuade them to enter a contracting session. (Be able to deal with resistances i.e., don't want to bribe, etc.)
- C. Must bring people together (physically).
- D. Do an intro. rap to both parties and lay out ground rules.
 - 1. Specific wants only (i.e., specify what behavior is wanted)
 - 2. Analogy to a legal contract, etc.
 - 3. Importance of reciprocity.

Supervisors - you may want to secretly coach the "parents" to bring up resistance.

WEEK 5

ADVOCACY DISCUSSION AND ROLE PLAY

Harvey Hardluck is 15 years old and was working in city parks in summer job programs funded by feds. He was fired. The boss gave no explanation but Harvey thinks he is suspected of ripping off some tools.

Assign different students to come up with examples of how specific strategy categories could be used. For instance, ask a student "How could a negative policy strategy be used."

Assign different students to role play any interactions implied by the suggested strategies, such as approaching the boss, the program director, etc.

Do as many strategies (using different categories) and role plays as time permits.

1. What are the three principles governing the implementation of the direct advocacy approach? Why is the principle of credibility important to the advocacy approach?
2. Describe the five general rules to consider when you formulate and negotiate a contract. (before writing it up)
3. What methods are available for developing new behaviors and removing undesired ones?

ORAL QUESTIONS

1. How do you go about arriving at an interpersonal agreement between the youth and the several significant others in his/her life? How does the principle of reciprocity affect this process?
2. What is meant by the "exchange of positives in an interpersonal interaction?"
3. Describe the positive-negative continuum of available advocacy strategies and give examples of each.
4. What information is necessary for the initial advocacy effort?
5. What is the criticism trap and how can it be avoided? Give examples.
6. What are some of the negative effects of punishment?
7. What are the intervention effects of assessment?
8. What are the possible sources of reinforcement/privileges?
(How do you find out what a good reinforcement is?)

WEEK 6

ADOLESCENT PROJECT

- I. Topic: Contracting and Advocacy Interventions in Practice
- II. Assigned Readings (To be mastered by class time this week)
 - State of Michigan, Child Labor Laws, 1974, Pp. 103-113, 153-155
 - Lansing School System, Code of Student Conduct for Elementary and Secondary Schools.
 - Lansing School System, Discipline Infractions.
 - Levine, A. The rights of students. New York: Avon, 1973, Pp. 55-90
- III. Questions from Students
- IV. Written Questions
- V. Discussion of Case Studies and Role Plays (To be described in class)
- VI. Basic Principles
 - A. Rights of students
 - B. School supervisors--rights and procedures
 - C. Juvenile Labor Laws--protections and exemptions
 - D. Work permits
 - E. Relation of school to Law Enforcement

The following case studies will be discussed in class. Come to class with any comments or questions written down. Also, what would you have asked or done differently if you had been the volunteer?

The following case study highlights the principles, activities, and anticipated outcomes of the behavioral contracting method of intervention.

BEHAVIORAL CONTRACTING CASE

Joe was a sixteen-year-old who had come to the attention of the juvenile division for possession of marijuana and violation of the municipal curfew laws. Prior to the referral to the Adolescent Diversion Project, Joe had had five contacts with the police, including possession of controlled substances, truancy from school, and curfew violation. Joe lived in a middle-class area of Urbana-Champaign and

ADOLESCENT PROJECT

both of his parents were employed. His father worked as a maintenance department supervisor and his mother was a salesperson in a local department store. During intake and preassessment, Joe had expressed a sports interest and was assigned to a male student volunteer who had a similar interest.

After being assigned to Joe, the student called Joe at home and set up a time for them to get together. Joe invited the student to his house for the following evening. At that initial meeting, the student explained the project briefly to Joe and his parents. He and Joe were then left alone by Joe's parents. Conversation was initially difficult, and the student had to carry the conversation for the first hour by talking about such day-to-day things as what he was taking at the University, what life in Chicago (student's home town) had been like, and the student's intramural football team. Although Joe had been rather quiet initially, particularly in the presence of his parents, he gradually began to discuss his own situation.

Joe indicated that he was in high school but was pretty turned off to the whole school situation. He said that he skipped whenever he got the chance. He talked of his interests in sports, particularly the Babe Ruth baseball team he pitched for and the Sunday afternoon football group he hung around with. In discussing his home situation, Joe said that he didn't really mind it at home, but that "I spend as much time as possible away from home, with the guys or my girlfriend." The initial contact ended with Joe and the student making plans for the upcoming weekend, either to go to a football game or to play football together. Two days later, Joe called the student and invited him to play football on Sunday with Joe and his friends. In the words of the student, "As he put it, it's tackle and it's rough--Somehow I have the feeling this was my first test...The game was pretty tough, but it was good..."

During the remainder of the initial two weeks Joe and the student went to a movie, played football again, had dinner together and talked on the phone several times. During this time the students had some difficulty getting in touch with Joe but each time they talked, the student stated that "he's genuinely glad to hear from me."

Following the initial "get acquainted" period, the student began to work on assessing Joe's situation more specifically in order to initiate a contract between Joe and his parents. The student proceeded by setting up two somewhat more formal sessions with Joe and his parents. These sessions were held at Joe's home. The student began by explaining the idea of behavioral contracts, and what was required by both parties. This initial "contracting session" resulted in a consensus on the general areas of change desired by both Joe and his parents. Joe's parents thought Joe should show more responsibility around the house, keep better hours, and improve his appearance. Joe wanted to get his parents off his back and get a component stereo set. At the conclusion of this session, the student asked both Joe and his parents to specify these changes in greater detail prior to the next meeting.

At the next meeting the parents specified some agreements they would like to exact from Joe. They felt he should: (1) inform his parents where he was after school and return home before 5:00 p.m.; (2) make his bed and clean his room daily; (3) put out the garbage on Wednesday and Fridays; (4) set the table for dinner each night; (5) mow the lawn or shovel the snow as needed; (6) cut his hair; (7) improve his grades in school. Joe specified for the contract that he (1) be allowed to earn at least \$5.00 per week toward the stereo he wanted; (2) be allowed to go out four week nights and two weekend nights; (3) be allowed to choose his friends without interference or harassment from his parents.

On the basis of this information, the student drew up a tentative agreement between Joe and his parents. During the two week period required to initiate the contract the student also spent about two hours each week talking with Joe's parents about their several concerns. At the beginning of the sixth week the following contract was implemented.

Joe agrees to:

1. Call home by 4:00 p.m. each afternoon and tell his parents his whereabouts and return home by 5:00 p.m.
2. Return home by 12:00 midnight on week-end nights.
3. Make his bed daily and clean his room daily (spread neat; clothes hung up).
4. Set table for dinner daily.

Joe's parents agree to:

1. Allow Joe to go out from 7:30 to 9:30 Monday through Thursday evenings and ask about his companions without negative comment.
2. Allow Joe to go out the subsequent weekend night.
3. Check his room each day and pay him \$.75 when cleaned.
4. Deposit \$.75 per day in a savings account for Joe.

Bonus

If Joe performs at 80% or above #1 through #4 above, his parents will deposit an additional \$3.00 in his account for each consecutive seven day period.

Sanction

If Joe falls below 60% in #1 and #2 above in any consecutive seven day period, he will cut two inches off his hair.

At this time the student also set up daily checklists on each of the terms of the contract to be jointly used by Joe and his parents to record each other's performance.

Following the implementation of the initial contract, the student began meeting with Joe and his parents on a weekly basis to go over the checklists on the contract specifications. In addition, the student and Joe spent three to five hours per week in various recreational activities. These included sports events, a party at the student's house, and riding around in the student's car.

Joe's performance on the contract was consistently 90% or above. However, two weeks after it began, Joe received grades for the term. Although the student's earlier visit with Joe's teachers had indicated that they were "completely satisfied with Joe's performance," he received an F, two D's, one B, one C and two incompletes. This report card created considerable controversy between Joe and his parents. The student held an extra meeting with Joe and his parents in which he suggested that school performance be included in the contract.

The result was the combination of the household responsibilities (bed making, table setting) into a single responsibility with payment on a weekly rather than daily basis. Daily checksheets were established with Joe's teachers and he was able to earn additional savings towards his stereo. During the same time period, Joe had located a part-time job doing maintenance work and the use of his earnings had become a heated domestic issue. A further addition was made to the contract whereby Joe agreed to save \$15/week in

return for the use of his parent's family room for his friends on one weekend night.

Within two weeks, Joe was consistently performing at a 100% level on all contract items and both he and his parents reported to the volunteer that they were more satisfied with the situation. In addition, Joe had been in no further difficulty with the police, and his next report card contained one A, one B, and three C's.

During the seventeenth and eighteenth weeks, the student held two final sessions with Joe and his parents. These sessions focused on a general discussion of the contracting approach and its use on an ongoing basis. They role-played negotiations of several situations that had become troublesome in the past and the student coached them in specifying what each party wanted, stating requests in terms of positives, negotiating reciprocal agreements, and monitoring the contract. The student explained that his involvement with them had come to an end since they had made some real gains and that they should use the procedures in the future when difficulties arose. The student reported that they parted on a very friendly basis and that he had heard from Joe spontaneously several times before leaving the University.

In sum, the behavioral contracting model involved the following activities on the part of the student intervention agent:

During the first weeks of contact the student attempted to build rapport with the youth and began to assess areas of interpersonal conflict. Attention was focused on the home and school and on selection of behaviors to be modified and critical persons to be involved.

The following week the student involved the youth and those persons with whom he or she had a "dysfunctional relationship" in a process of specifying the behaviors or attitudes each would like changed.

Sometime near the fourth week, the student "negotiated" the written agreement between the parties. The contract specified what each person would change in the relationship and what each could expect.

Throughout the intervention, the student functioned as a mediator, assisted in the renegotiation of the contract, as necessary, and helped the parties achieve satisfactory results from the process.

Approximately four weeks prior to termination, the student attempted to instruct the youth and other persons involved in the contract in how to maintain an ongoing process of behavioral contracting. After instruction and sufficient practice, student involvement was terminated.

Child Advocacy Case #1

Don was a twelve-year-old who had had four previous contacts with the police. His previous contacts included arson, theft, and incorrigibility. Don was in the seventh grade and an A and B student in school. Don's father worked as a municipal employee and his mother as a secretary. At the time of referral, Don was being charged with theft from his neighbor's house. Following intake and pre-assessment, Don was assigned to a student volunteer.

The student made the initial contact with Don by phone, explaining that he was with the University's Adolescent Diversion Project and that he would like to get together with Don. By the student's report, Don sounded rather disinterested, but "a very intelligent kid." Their initial meeting was at Don's home, and the student met Don and his parents. He and Don talked for an hour about the project and the student's activities at the University. They spent the remainder of the initial contact playing catch in the backyard and parted by agreeing to get together on the following Saturday. The remainder of the initial two-week period was spent in a variety of activities. Don and the student spent two days on the campus attending fraternity soccer games, going to the University museum, and having lunch at a campus restaurant.

The student also met with Don's parents. They were quite intent on "explaining" Don's problems in terms of his early childhood experiences resulting from a previously broken marriage. They felt that such early trauma had left irreparable effects on "which were responsible for the current delinquency."

At the beginning of the third week, the student initiated his meeting with Don by explaining the general principles of child advocacy. He expressed to Don that they needed to be concerned with ways in which Don would be able to obtain the kinds of things he wanted. He went on to explain that these might involve programs, activities, or employment that Don felt would be useful. He further suggested that what he and Don might do together could be included. This precipitated a series of discussions surrounding Don's interests and the activities he would enjoy. Don and the student continued their activities over the next two weeks, attending an intramural football game and going on a "nature hike" while still discussing Don's needs. These discussions culminated in an agreement between Don and the student to focus on the following activities:

1. Earning his own money;
2. Joining an ice hockey club;
3. Getting involved in a recreational group, particularly those involving swimming and gymnastics;
4. Joining a nature study group.

During the fifth week of the project, Don and the student set about determining what community resources existed for meeting their objectives, what strategy they would follow in obtaining each, and which of them would take the responsibility for following through with each. They went together to the University library to look through the county directory of social services. The student also called the local park department and the Boy Scout agency. After determining the availability of the needed programs and activities, Don and the student then constructed the following set of strategies and responsibilities:

1. Employment. Don and student discussed the realities of a 12-year-old gaining employment legally. They realized that more informal ways of earning money would have to be sought and decided that Don would circulate among his neighbors a flyer indicating his availability for odd jobs (gardening, leaf raking, garage cleaning, window washing, etc.). This would be followed up by personal contacts with each family on his block.

2. Ice Hockey. The student took the responsibility for contacting the head of the local youth hockey club, for additional information and determination of eligibility requirements, time commitments, fees, etc.
3. Gymnastics. Their earlier search for information had indicated that the local YMCA had a weekly gymnastics instruction program Wednesday after school. Don agreed to go and sign up. The student agreed to ask Don's parents for the \$10 registration fee.
4. Swimming. Don agreed to sign up for the Saturday swimming program at school.
5. Nature. Don and the student were to go together to an organizational meeting for the neighborhood Boy Scouts Troop.

Although Don indicated that he had been interested in these activities for some time, his parents had been more interested in his staying around the house.

The student set up a meeting with the parents and explained to them the rationale for involving Don in these activities and how the activities were selected. According to the student's report, the parents were very supportive of the plan and offered to provide transportation and additional fees when needed.

Don and the student were successful in accomplishing each of their stated goals except the ice hockey which wouldn't start for two months. Don worked up his "small business" to where it kept him occupied two afternoons per week; by the end of the project he had even opened a savings account. He was also involved on a regular basis in the other activities. His mother reported "he's been extremely responsible lately."

About midway through the project, Don's family decided that they would be moving out of state after the first of the year. Don and the student turned their attention in that last month to preparing for the move. This took the form of having Don get information from his new community about the potential for similar activities there and planning strategies for how he would involve himself in the new community. According to the student's report, Don was even to the point of having written a plan of action for himself after receiving information about the new community in the mail. They spent their last two sessions together with Don's parents explaining the importance of the advocacy strategy for future situations.

Child Advocacy Case #2

Mike was a sixteen-year-old who at the time of his referral was facing charges for attempted murder and aggravated assault. This was Mike's first offense in the local community since moving here from a large urban area five weeks earlier. Mike lived with his mother who was employed as a surgical aide in a local hospital. Before coming to the local community, Mike had been deeply involved in gang activity. He had been on probation in his previous community. After intake and pre-assessment, Mike was assigned to a student volunteer.

By the student's report, Mike was very quiet during that first meeting. The student said that "He called me 'Sir,' and I freaked out." After a rather uncommunicative hour, the volunteer asked Mike what he would like to do, and he indicated an interest in shooting pool. As a result, they went to the University Union and talked and played pool. Their next two weeks together involved mostly recreational activities. They attended a University basketball game, had dinner at the student's house, and shot pool. Before the first two weeks were up, the project was informed that the prosecuting attorney's office intended to file a petition on the attempted murder charges even though the police had agreed to divert Mike to the project. Mike received a five-day notice to appear in court for a preliminary hearing. He called the student and asked him what he should do. The student suggested that they go to the preliminary hearing together, and that the first step should be to request an attorney.

Mike, his mother, and the volunteer attended the preliminary hearing and, at the volunteer's suggestion, Mike remained silent except to request an attorney. A continuance was granted for two weeks to allow for a court-appointed attorney to be involved in the case.

Two days after the initial court hearing, Mike went to the student's house and initiated a discussion of what they should do next. According to the student, this was the first time that he had any indication that Mike was interested in actively participating in the project. A lengthy discussion followed in which the student explained the whole notion of advocacy and that they would have to "have their case together" if they were to convince the court that severe action was unnecessary. He explained that it would be important that they be able to convince the judge that the project provided a positive alternative to probation or placement away from home.

During the next two weeks, the student and Mike talked on the phone three times per week and continued their recreational activities. They discussed various community programs and activities which would interest Mike. Mike expressed a particular need to do this since he was new to the community. Because the shooting incident in question involved some of the "prominent" kids in his neighborhood, he was pretty much a loner socially.

Together they identified the following needs and community programs:

1. Department of Vocational Rehabilitation. Mike was considerably behind in school and was interested in part time employment. He was behind to the point that he was unable to read and continuing to attend regular ninth grade classes was of little potential benefit.
2. Junior varsity basketball team. Mike was a good basketball player but had not gone out for the basketball team because he was not aware of when and where practice and tryouts occurred.
3. Recreational activities. Mike felt that he needed additional activities to meet other youth in the community.

Mike and the student discussed the need for developing a strategy to gain access to the desired programs. They spent an afternoon going over a catalogue of programs in the local

community and determining who was going to take responsibility for making the necessary contacts. The student agreed to set up a meeting with Mike and his school counselor so they could get more information concerning the vocational program available through the school. Mike agreed to approach the basketball coach, explain his situation, and request permission to try out. They agreed to go together to look into several recreational programs available through the Boy's Club and the park district.

Mike's scheduled court hearing was postponed for a month due to the absence of the presiding judge. Mike's attorney indicated that they would request a further continuance, to give them time to demonstrate that formal court supervision was not necessary for Mike.

Mike was successful in gaining permission to try out for the basketball team and started playing regularly. Gaining access to the vocational resources proved more difficult. A number of pre-assessment screenings were necessary for Mike to enroll in the school district's vocational rehabilitation program. The meeting with the school counselor culminated in an appointment for physical and psychological testing. The actual testing was delayed on two occasions, however. Finally, the student confronted the school counselor and vocational rehabilitation coordinator for an explanation for the delays. They indicated that Mike had been missing school on several occasions, and they weren't sure he was a "good risk." The student next went to the district director of the program and demanded that Mike be admitted to the vocational and work study program, threatening intervention by Mike's attorney. Within two weeks Mike was enrolled in half-day vocational classes and participating in work/study employment the other half day.

When the formal court hearing was finally held (three months after referral), the student and Mike's attorney were successful in convincing the judge that formal intervention by the court would be counterproductive. An informal review was scheduled in 60 days, but Mike was not formally adjudicated. At this point, the student began reviewing the principles of advocacy with Mike. Unfortunately, however, two weeks prior to his termination, Mike was arrested for theft (shoplifting) and was formally placed on probation at his review hearing.

WEEK 6

ROLE PLAY OF CONTRACTING SESSION

Role play the actual negotiation of a contract based on the situation set up in Week 5 role play.

Important points to consider

- E. Have each party outline wants, have other party respond as to their perception of the situation.
- F. Look for common ground and offer opinions as to possible trade-offs
 - 1. Avoid choosing sides
 - 2. Don't let them get off the track and into general bitching
- G. Actually physically write-up a suitable contract. Remind them of need for specific behaviors, ease and reliability of monitoring, etc.
- H. Set up ground rules for monitoring compliance by each side.

Have students critique the resulting written contract.

WEEK 6

ADVOCACY ROLE PLAY AND DISCUSSION

Nat Natural, your 13 year-old youth, has been busted. A storeowner he knew, but did not work for, gave him \$20.00 to go get some change down the street. The youth returned without the money, claiming some older kids took it. The storeowner took him to the police, where a \$10.00 bill was found in his hair.

Use last weeks instructions, assigning students' new categories of strategies to use. Role play implied interactions.

WEEK 6

WRITTEN QUESTIONS

1. What Rules govern search and seizure and interrogation of students?
2. When minors under 18 years old want to secure the necessary work permit, what prerequisites are necessary?
3. Describe the right to due process and discuss at least two applications to suspension and expulsion from schools. (general)

WEEK 7

- I. Topic: Monitoring Interventions
- II. Assigned Readings:

DeRici, W.J., and Butz, G. Writing behavioral contracts, Champaign: Research Press. Pp. 57-66.

Levine, A. The rights of students, New York: Avon, 1973. Pp.97-110
- III. Questions from Students (10 minutes)
- IV. Written Questions (20 minutes)
- V. Group Discussion Questions (30 minutes)
- VI. Role Play and Discussion
- VII. Study Notes (Supplement to readings)

Once you have put into effect the strategies discussed in past week, you must immediately begin the important process of monitoring your intervention. Indeed, a critical part of the contracts you negotiate and the advocacy you conduct is the monitoring systems which you build into the overall strategy. Paralleling the previous weeks discussions in this handbook, the monitoring procedures for the behavioral and the advocacy interventions will be discussed separately. Once again, however, you should keep in mind that you may very well be simultaneously carrying out and monitoring interventions of each type in your work with your youth.

Monitoring the Behavioral Intervention

One of the most important facets of any contract you negotiate and execute with the youth and significant others is the system you design for monitoring the agreement. A sound monitoring system, which will provide accurate information about performance to all parties involved, is important for primarily two reasons. First, the implications of the operant interpersonal explanation of delinquent behavior suggest that accurate feedback which is specific and positive in focus provides the basis of effective interpersonal relationships. In other words, the monitoring system sets up regular opportunities for all parties to discuss positive accomplishments. The operation of the monitoring systems you set up will initiate the process of specific positive goal-oriented interactions between the youth and significant people in the youth's environment.

The second reason, closely related to the first, is that mutually monitorable accomplishments will limit the areas of concern to the parties involved to those things which can be modified. By carefully selecting privileges and responsibilities to fit into a mutually monitorable system you will decrease irrelevant arguments in the interactions between the youth and others. It will also decrease disagreements about the performance of each party on the contract items during monitoring sessions between yourself and the parties involved.

Your role for involvement with the youth during this monitoring/renegotiation segment of the intervention (from the third week of the first month until two weeks prior to termination) becomes very much that of negotiator. Although your primary responsibility is still to the youth to which you are assigned, an effective strategy for exerting that responsibility is through the monitoring of the interpersonal agreements which you set up. Thus, the majority of your time

WEEK 7 - ADOLESCENT PROJECT CONTINUED

will be spent in going over the information from the monitoring system with the various people involved in each interpersonal agreement. You will be asking people to keep accurate information for you on the progress of each other's behavior, and you will be meeting with them, AT LEAST ONCE A WEEK PER CONTRACT, to go over that information. It is important that you give specific instructions as to exactly how the information is to be kept. It is necessary to get the information written down right after the performance in question occurs or fails to occur. For example, one of the things you might be working on with the youth and the parents is the time at which the youth has to be in at night. You must instruct both parties to keep a record of curfew promptness each night. A good idea during the initial negotiation is to provide various instigations for each person to keep the records in question. One way is to have them tell you how, when, and where they will do it, as you are setting the system up, and to specify when you will be getting together the next time to go over each person's progress.

There are several ground rules which apply to this monitoring/renegotiation phase of the intervention. The general format is to meet with both parties involved in an agreement on a very regular basis in the early going and gradually fade out your involvement in anticipation of termination. Your meetings with these parties should be generally restricted to the feedback from the monitoring system. In other words, the people will be presenting you with the information they have been keeping. Discussion of the thousand and one other things each person may also want to change must be limited by your initial goal to work on a select set of important things at one time. Immediate perfection is an unrealistic goal. It will take some time for the system to begin generating large-scale improvements. The temptation will be to cash in the initial contract in favor of renegotiation at the first failure on the part of either party. What you want to pay particular attention to is exactly how the people involved in each agreement are executing the contract. The information you receive from the monitoring system should provide you the basis for further inquiry as to what happened when each person complied with or violated the agreement. In other words, you should specifically ask "What exactly happened when....?" You will usually have to ask that question several times at first in order to find out exactly what happened since people are not used to providing such information in response to the general question. Finding out how the contract is being used in actuality will allow you to provide feedback in line with the principles outlined earlier. Again, it is important to maintain your role as negotiator. You want to be particularly sensitive to your prescribed role as negotiator at this monitoring/renegotiation phase. In providing feedback to either party it is important that you also follow the principles you are asking them to follow. In other words, you should provide feedback in terms of what alternative response the person in question could make to contract compliance or violation rather than only providing empty criticism. You want to be careful not to alienate either party involved in the contract with negative feedback which is overkill. Negative feedback concerning interpersonal performance should always be preceded by and balanced by positive feedback and suggestions.

There will be times when you find that for a variety of reasons the initial contract is not meeting the interpersonal goals of the two parties involved. Such failure may be a result of inadequate assessment in determining which changes are actually important to each party or that the initial interpersonal situation may have changed. It may also be the case that the initial contract quickly accomplished its stated goals. In any case, you, together with the youth and the supervisory group may decide that it would be more beneficial to

WEEK 7 - ADOLESCENT PROJECT CONTINUED

attempt to renegotiate the initial agreement. Such renegotiation should follow these general decision rules: (1) You should not consider renegotiation until after at least three to four weeks of implementing the initial agreement. (2) The contract renegotiation should follow the same procedures as the negotiation of the initial agreement. (3) You should involve all parties, including the supervisory group, in the renegotiation process. (4) The renegotiation should be based on the information you have gained from executing the initial agreement.

In the case of renegotiation for the purpose of moving on to additional goals, after accomplishing those laid out in the initial contract, it is important that each party involved receive additional privileges if they are to be asked to take on additional responsibilities. It is not sufficient to merely add responsibilities to the new agreement for the same pool of privileges. In other words, you don't want to place either party in double jeopardy. You should be able to select new privileges for each party from the information provided by executing the initial agreement. By listening carefully to the things which each party is concerned about and watching the things they do in interpersonal exchanges you should be able to get additional information useful in the renegotiation process.

When a contract is renegotiated for reasons of less than desired performance on the part of either person, you should also follow the principles laid out for the initial contract negotiation. In general, if one or both of the individuals is not meeting the terms of the contract they have not received interpersonal exchanges which they value for their performance. You will therefore be involved in one of two general activities in this type of renegotiation. In one instance you will have to negotiate additional privileges for either or both parties to be exchanged for increased performance. If it is your assessment that the existing privileges are sufficient to induce the desired change, another option is to upgrade the execution of the specific terms of the agreement in terms of how and when privileges are delivered, the consistency with which they are delivered, eliminating negative feedback given contiguous with grudgingly provided privileges, etc.

Monitoring the Advocacy Intervention

Careful monitoring is also an important component of the advocacy approach. In this approach monitoring involves paying close attention to the effects of your advocacy efforts. It is particularly important that you listen carefully to the youth you are working with as to his/her satisfaction with the changes which have been brought about.

It is also important that you check the specific effects of the change directly. Advocacy and accountability go hand in hand. Often you may find that changes which have been specifically agreed to by the target individual, (such as changes in the resources to be made available to the youth) are not being carried out exactly as planned or may be producing undesired side effects. For example, let's say that you are working with a youth who has been left to sit in a special education program which is irrelevant to either his areas of interest or future vocational or educational aspirations. One obvious move you would make would be to work out a curriculum change with the youth's counselor so that the youth's interest and potential were better served by the education system. Without careful checking with the youth and the new situation which he/she had been placed in as a result of your efforts, you might assume that the educational needs were being met. However, after careful checking with all concerned you may find that the new classes which had appeared so useful on the surface were in fact also

irrelevant for the needs of the youth. In this case you would need to reassert the rights of the youth through additional advocacy strategies.

The key to adequate monitoring of your advocacy efforts is to ask very specific educated questions of the youth and the other parties involved. In other words, you need to know enough about the situation that you are able to accurately probe for the information you need to assess whether anything useful has happened. When inquiring about the progress of change efforts you cannot accept the "Everything's okay" response. You need to find out exactly what has happened without playing 20 questions. You are likely to get accurate feedback: if you have established a friendship with the youth, are sufficiently informed about the changes desired, can inquire in a manner that the youth can understand, and can convince him that you know what you are talking about.

Similar to the renegotiations that may need to occur with the behavioral approach, you may also find it necessary to initiate some secondary advocacy efforts. A number of comments about such efforts need to be made. First, you should allow adequate time for the initial changes to take place. Skeptical patience describes the position you should take. Second, careful monitoring of the change process should provide you additional information to use in the event that further direct or indirect action is needed. Third, after allowing three to four weeks for the desired effect to take place, you should assess together with the youth and the supervisory group whether additional effort in an area of unmet need is indicated. In general, secondary advocacy efforts should include a careful scrutiny of the initial strategy used, approach taken, and the specific target as an individual. You may decide that another strategy is indicated or that the initial effort needs to be executed again.

Regardless of what intervention was attempted there are two basic questions. First, was the intervention properly and completely executed. Second, did the intervention result in the desired changes in the youth's life. The answers to these two questions indicate your next step.

VI. Basic Principles from this Week's Material

- A. Characteristics of a sound monitoring system
- B. Rationale for a monitoring system
- C. Decision principles for contract renegotiation
- D. Strategies for contract renegotiation
- E. How to monitor the effects of the initial advocacy
- F. Decision rules for secondary advocacy efforts
- G. Personal appearance rights
- H. Decisions related to discrimination
- I. The use of tracking in schools

TROUBLESHOOTING GUIDE

The following questions may help you to spot the problems in your contracting system.

THE CONTRACT

1. Was the target behavior clearly specified?
2. Did the contract provide for immediate reinforcement?
3. Did it ask for small approximations to the desired behavior?
4. Was reinforcement frequent and in small amounts?
5. Did the contract call for the reward accomplishment rather than obedience?
6. Was the performance rewarded after its occurrence?
7. Was the contract fair?
8. Were the terms of the contract clear?
9. Was the contract honest?
10. Was the contract positive?
11. Was contracting as a method being used systematically?
12. Was the contract mutually negotiated?
13. Was the penalty clause too punitive?

THE CLIENT

1. Did he understand the contract?
2. Is he getting the reinforcer from some other source?
3. Do the reinforcers have to be reevaluated?
4. Has a new problem behavior developed that is drawing the mediator's attention away from the target behavior?

THE MEDIATOR

1. Did the mediator understand the contract?
2. Did he dispense the kind and amount of reinforcement specified in the contract?
3. Did he dispense it according to instructions, at the rate specified, and with consistency?

THE MEDIATOR (Continued)

4. Did punishment accidentally accompany the performance being reinforced?
5. Did he stop mediating?
6. Do you need a new mediator?

MEASUREMENT

1. Have the data been verified as accurate?
2. Did your data collector understand what he was supposed to count?
3. Did you rehearse the counting task with him?
4. Did you reinforce him for his behavior?
5. Is the data collection task too complex or too difficult?
6. Should you try to get another data collector?

WEEK 7

CONTRACTING ROLE PLAY

Ex-Contract

Kid - Bring school work home daily
 Do work daily
 Turn work in at school daily
 Clean room daily

Parent - Lunch money
 Weekly movie

Parents complain that the youth did not finish his work. Youth says he was only supposed to do 15 minutes per day.

I. Discuss Problems of Above Contract

(Trouble Shooting Guide)

1. No direct exchanges - hard to determine what's earned or not earned.
2. Not specific enough to be easily monitored--particularly in positive.

When renegotiating--allow sufficient time, same procedures, all parties learned from initial attempt.

II. Role Play Renegotiation of Above Contract Including Monitoring Strategies

1. Specific feedback
2. Positive feedback
3. Mutually monitorable
4. Monitored immediately
5. Volunteer monitor at least every other day initially in order to intercept minor problems early that might lead to premature failure.
6. Get specific what happened when information
7. Negative feedback only when essential--then only when in conjunction with positive

Initial failure does not mean contracting doesn't work--find out why and fix it.

ADVOCACY ROLE PLAY

Katie Kodak wants to take a photography class at school. She is serious about photography as a hobby and possibly a career. However, her school (a Lansing public school) does not allow students to take such electives if they have not passed core courses (English and Math) the preceding term.

Follow week 5 and 6 advocacy discussion and role play discussions, using new categories of strategies.

1. What are the characteristics of a good monitoring system for a contract?
2. What are the rules governing an initiation of a secondary advocacy effort?
3. What are two common reasons for failure of contracts? What decision rules would govern renegotiation of a contract?

ORAL QUESTIONS

1. Describe the characteristics of your role during the monitoring phase.
2. What are 2 reasons why a sound monitoring system is important to a behavioral intervention strategy?
3. What principles should you follow in providing feedback to each party in the contract?
4. Discuss several methods of gathering information within the framework of an advocacy monitoring framework.
5. What rules govern discrimination on the basis of sex? Give some examples from cases cited.
6. Discuss some critical components of contract renegotiation.

WEEK 8
ADOLESCENT PROJECT

- I. Topic: Termination/Generalization/Overview
- II. Assigned Readings (To be mastered by class time this week)
Levine, A. The rights of students, New York: Avon, 1973. Pp. 111-138.
- III. Questions from Students (10 minutes)
- IV. Written Questions (20 minutes)
- V. Group Discussion Questions (30 minutes)
- VI. Discuss Flow Chart
- VII. Study Notes (supplement to readings)

As outlined in the very first week of the semester, the goal of this project is to keep the youth out of the juvenile justice system. Our means of accomplishing that goal are to get the youth and the important people in his/her environment to use the methods of contractual agreements and advocacy as alternatives to seeking formal societal means of control. The accomplishments that you are able to make with the youth and their situations must act as the beginning of changes in interpersonal strategy and in their mode of meeting their individual needs. One problem which any program of this type has is that the involvement with the target population cannot last forever. Decisions to terminate at any particular time point are merely arbitrary. In this project we have selected eighteen weeks as the model intervention time period. Eighteen weeks allows sufficient time to accomplish significant changes, allows a mutually visible goal time period to work for, and has been shown to be short enough to avoid undesired dependency.

During the last two weeks of the three-month intervention your primary focus will be to teach the youth and significant others to use the methods of negotiated interpersonal agreements and advocacy as strategies for goal attainment and conflict resolution. The preparation of these people for your termination should include three components.

First, you will want to make it clear from the beginning that you are going to be involved with a particular youth for an eighteen week time period. You will want to inform all parties of this fact beginning in the early part of your involvement. This should help to clarify your role as a person who is going to be involved in the explanation, execution, and instruction of alternative methods for handling problem areas. It will also make all parties aware that there is an explicit target date for accomplishment of stated goals and gradual transfer of primary responsibility back to those individuals in the natural situation. As you near the end of the eighteen week time period, you will want to begin more systematically informing the parties with which you have been involved of the termination. This should generally be approached by inquiring about or suggesting specific things to be accomplished prior to your termination of involvement.

ADOLESCENT PROJECT

Second, you will want to intensify your instruction of the various persons in carrying out the methods of negotiated interpersonal agreements and advocacy. In some senses, throughout the intervention you will be teaching the youth and the various significant others in the methods of behavioral contracting and advocacy. This will be taking place through your instruction and example.

In the case of contracting, the initial and renegotiated contracts will in many senses provide practice sessions for all concerned in handling future situations which may arise. However, you will want to spend the last two weeks of your intervention specifically instructing all concerned in the methods and principles which you have been utilizing in implementing the negotiated interpersonal agreements. Essentially you will want to provide them with the information and principles that you have had at your disposal throughout the intervention. For example, you will want to tell them in some detail about the phases of negotiated interpersonal agreements, the basic principle of positive reciprocity, the importance of working on mutually monitorable events, the importance of specific positive contingent feedback, rules for renegotiation of interpersonal agreements, and using the information from successful and poorly executed contracts. In short, you will want to provide them a detailed alternative to turning to the police or other formal agents of social control for conflict resolution.

In the case of advocacy, you will be instructing the youth and his natural advocates (e.g., parents, friends) in the methods of advocacy from the beginning. This will be taking place through your mutual discussion and the youth observing your advocacy efforts. In addition, about half way through the eighteen week intervention you will want to purposely have the youth accompany you when you make the contacts with target individuals. It is important that he/she not only be told about how to execute self-advocacy but that they actually gain first-hand experience in pleading their own cases.

During the last two weeks of the eighteen week intervention, you will want to place primary emphasis on training the youth to be his/her own advocate. Again, you will want to provide them with all the information that you have been using. For example, you will want to tell them in detail about the phases of executing an advocacy effort, their basic rights to the community's resources, the importance of making an adequate assessment of their unmet need areas, the various advocacy strategies available, the rules for selecting strategies, paying careful attention to their effects of their self-advocacy efforts, the rules for supplemental advocacy, and how to use the information gained for future need fulfillment. In short, you want the youth and significant others to have an alternative to passive acceptance of unfulfilled needs.

A third, and critical component of the termination process will be to have the parties involved actually practice each of the methods. Every party involved in each interpersonal agreement should practice in your presence the contracting process which you have been utilizing. In addition, the youth should actually carry out an advocacy effort with you serving as "coach". This will serve several purposes. You will be able to observe their execution of each method and allow you to provide feedback, both positive and negative, about their performance. It will also provide additional cues that your involvement will be ending and that they will be expected to carry out the process on their own for future situations. They need to have the opportunity to try out the method on a completely new situation without your direct involvement. For contracting, you will want to help each dyad select either a contrived situation to "role play" or a future situation which they expect will arise. For advocacy, you will want to

ADOLESCENT PROJECT

have your youth select an additional area of need which you have not worked on or contrive a likely future situation which can be role played. You will then have them go through the processes involved in each of these methods of intervention.

Ideally, this practice session would focus on an additional area of concern in the youth's life which could provide the basis for actual use of the technique in the time period immediately following your termination of involvement. It is important that all concerned actually practice the method and gain the experience of carrying such processes out on their own.

A final task you will be expected to accomplish in your relation to each case is to prepare a final termination report. This report will incorporate the ongoing information you have been compiling on the case in the weekly evaluation forms, the log books, and the goal attainment. In general, the final termination report should follow the format of the weekly evaluations you have been doing throughout. It should include an expanded version of the following components.

Goals. What were you specifically working on with this youth and his/her situation during your three-month involvement. This section would include your original goals and any additional goals you identified later.

Techniques. This section should detail exactly what you did and what you tried to get others to do in order to accomplish the goals which were identified above.

Evaluation. What is your assessment of the degree to which the goals were accomplished and the techniques utilized helpful in attaining those goals.

Recommendations. Any additional information which you think was relevant to your work with the youth.

At this point the focus of the class is going to change. You may wish to refer back to page three of this manual to re-read the paragraph describing the structure of classes from now on. The criteria for grading will obviously also change. There will be five components of your grade from now on. First and most important is the responsibility you take with your youth. Second is your class presentation of your case. Third, the contribution you make to the rest of class discussion will be included in your grade. Fourth, your weekly progress reports should be on time and complete. Finally, your attendance at weekly classes is very important.

VIII. General Principles from this Week's Material

- A. Purpose of the termination strategy.
- B. Sequential components of the termination approach.
- C. Contents of the termination report.
- D. Strategies for maintaining change.
- E. Rights of pregnant students to an education.
- F. Confidentiality of school records.
- G. Decisions related to school grades and records.

WRITTEN QUESTIONS

1. What are the three sequential components of the termination process?

2. Name three points of the rationale for an 18 week intervention.

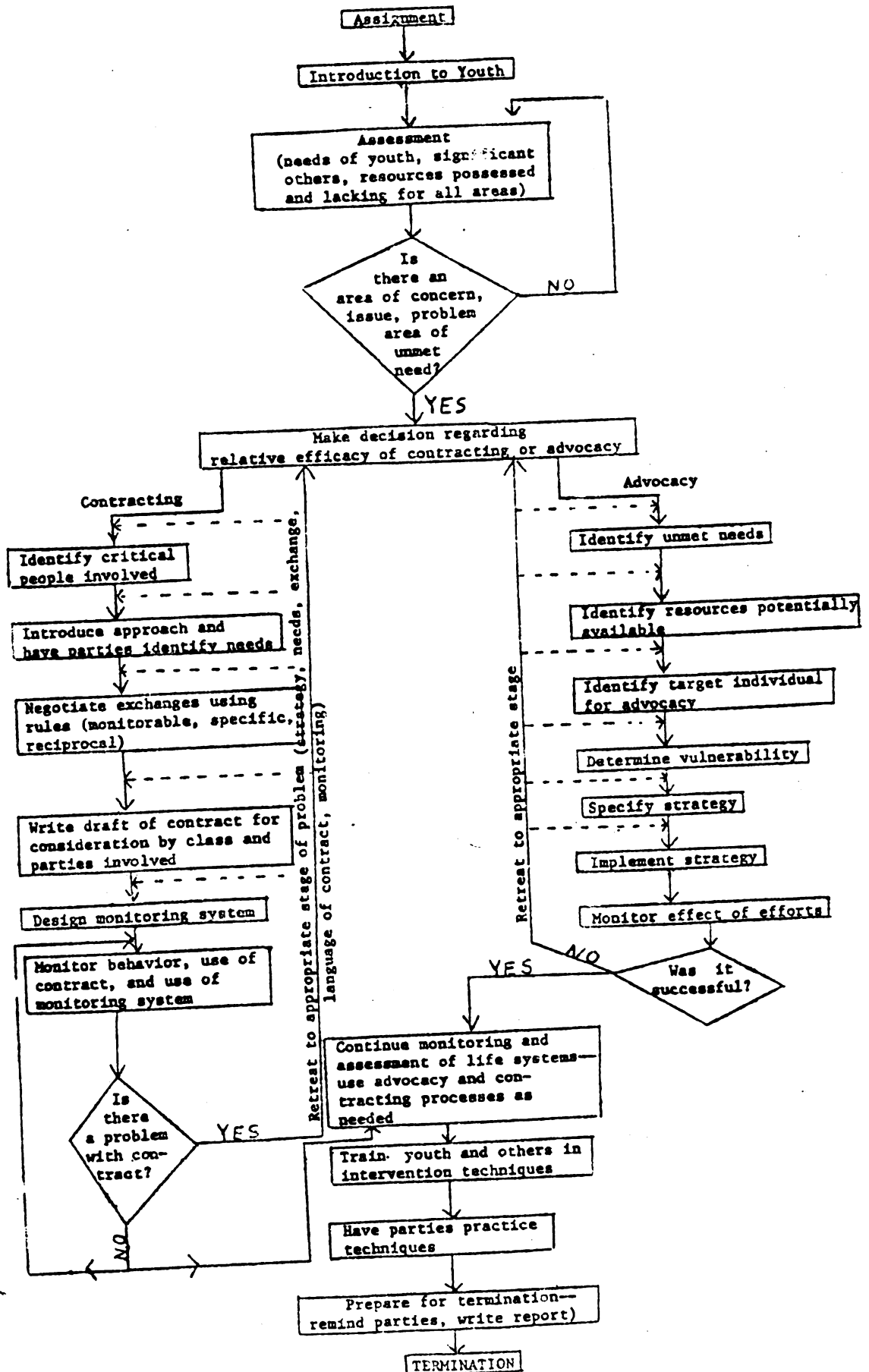
ORAL QUESTIONS

1. What is to be included in the termination report?
2. What are the five grading criteria for the remaining weeks of the course?
3. What are three ways in which the youth learns the methods of contracts and advocacy?
4. What are some of the issues and problems involved with schools keeping student records?
5. What are the arguments against bringing lawsuits to secure every right currently denied to students?

The following points should be considered in using this flow chart.

- 1. Several areas of the youth's life may need attention at any given point in time. Intervention may be proceeding simultaneously at several different stages on the chart.**
- 2. Assessment and monitoring of all areas of the youth's life should continue regardless of what stage of intervention is occurring.**
- 3. Certain phases of one strategy (advocacy or contracting) may be appropriate in conjunction with the other.**
- 4. While the process on the flow chart represents the most rational procedure, in practice the arrows will point in both directions.**

Overview of Intervention Process



APPENDIX H
SERIOUSNESS AND DISPOSITIONAL CODES
FOR ARCHIVAL COURT AND POLICE DATA

APPENDIX H

Seriousness and Dispositional Codes for Archival Court and Police Data

Average Seriousness Weights for Police and Court Data¹

1 = status offenses (truancy, incorrigibility, runaway, minor in possession of alcohol, curfew)

2 = minor property crimes (larceny, receiving and concealing, malicious destruction with damages under \$50; trespassing, entering without permission; drug offenses, eluding arrest)

3 = major property crimes (larceny, receiving and concealing, malicious destruction with damages over \$50; breaking and entering [B & E], car theft [UDAA], unarmed robbery, burglary) minor crimes against person (assault, etc., without weapon and without injury)

4 = major person crimes (assault with weapon, rape, child molestation, armed robbery, unarmed assault with injury)

Write the seriousness code beside each offense and circle the number. Average the seriousness codes for all offenses whose commission dates fall within the given quarter. Record this average (rounded to two decimal places) in the column headed "av. Ser." for each quarter.

Most Serious Disposition for Police Contacts

- 0 = none (no contacts)
- 1 = warn and release
- 2 = petition

Most Serious Disposition for Court Petitions

- 0 = none (no petitions)
- 1 = petition denied/dismissed
- 2 = referred to parents
- 3 = consent probation (informal processing)
- 4 = referred to community agency
- 5 = referred to caseworker
- 6 = formal probation
- 7 = community residential placement (foster home; group home)
- 8 = institution

¹Modified from Sellin and Wolfgang, 1964.

APPENDIX I
SELF REPORT DELINQUENCY QUESTIONNAIRE

SELF REPORT DELINQUENCY (SRD)

HOW OFTEN HAVE YOU:

HOW OFTEN HAS YOUR SON/DAUGHTER:

HOW OFTEN HAS YOUR YOUTH:

IN THE LAST
6 WEEKS YEAR

-
- 2085 SKIPPED CLASS WHEN YOU/HE/SHE WAS IN SCHOOL?
- 2086 GONE ONTO SOMEONE'S LAND WHEN THEY DIDN'T WANT YOU/HIM/HER TO BE THERE, OR WITHOUT THEIR PERMISSION?
- 2087 GONE INTO A HOUSE OR BUILDING WHEN YOU/HE/SHE WASN'T SUPPOSED TO BE THERE?
- 2088 PLAYED ON A SCHOOL ATHLETIC TEAM?
- 2089 THREATENED TO HURT SOMEONE?
- 2090 BEEN TOLD TO BRING YOUR/HIS/HER PARENTS TO SCHOOL FOR SOMETHING YOU/HE/SHE DID WRONG?
- 2091 DAMAGED OR MESSED UP SOMETHING NOT BELONGING TO YOU/HIM/HER?
- 2092 HURT SOMEONE BADLY ENOUGH FOR HIM/HER TO NEED BANDAGES OR A DOCTOR?
- 2093 GOTTEN ON THE HONOR ROLL FOR GOOD GRADES IN SCHOOL?
- 2094 TAKEN SOME PART OF A CAR OR SOME GASOLINE?
- 2095 HIT A MEMBER OF YOUR/HIS/HER FAMILY? (IN ANGER)
- 2096 HAS NOT BEEN ALLOWED TO GO TO SCHOOL UNTIL THE SUPERINTENDANT OR PRINCIPAL TOLD YOU/HIM/HER THAT YOU/HE/SHE COULD GO AGAIN? (BEEN SUSPENDED)

- 2097 TAKEN SOMETHING NOT BELONGING TO YOU/HIM/HER
WORTH LESS THAN \$2.00?
- 2098 EARNED SOME MONEY AT A JOB?
- 2099 DRUNK BEER OR LIQUOR? (INCLUDES SIPS)
- 2100 RUN AWAY FROM HOME?
- 2101 SKIPPED A FULL DAY OF SCHOOL?
- 2102 BEEN SENT TO THE SCHOOL PRINCIPAL'S OFFICE
FOR BAD BEHAVIOR IN CLASS?
- 2103 CARRIED A GUN OR A KNIFE?
- 2104 WORKED ON A SCHOOL NEWSPAPER OR YEARBOOK?
- 2105 TAKEN SOMETHING NOT BELONGING TO YOU/HIM/HER
WORTH OVER \$50.00?
- 2106 DONE SOMETHING AROUND THE HOUSE OR FOR THE
FAMILY THAT REALLY PLEASED YOUR/HIS/HER FAMILY?
- 2107 SET FIRE TO SOMEONE ELSE'S PROPERTY?
- 2108 USED OR THREATENED TO USE A WEAPON TO GET
SOMETHING FROM A PERSON?
- 2109 TAKEN SOMETHING FROM A STORE WITHOUT PAYING FOR IT?
(REGARDLESS OF PRICE)
- 2110 SMOKED WITHOUT YOUR PARENTS/YOUR/HIS PARENTS
KNOWING ABOUT IT OR WITHOUT PERMISSION? (REGULAR CIGS.)
- 2111 WORKED FREE FOR A CHARITY ORGANIZATION?
- 2112 TAKEN A CAR WITHOUT THE OWNER'S PERMISSION? (INCLUDES
JOYRIDING)

- 2113 SMOKED MARIJUANA?
- 2114 TAKEN SOMETHING FROM A PERSON BY FORCE?
(MAY OR MAY NOT USE A WEAPON)
- 2115 BEATEN UP ON SOMEBODY OR FOUGHT SOMEONE (PHYSICALLY)?
- 2116 TAKEN DRUGS OR PILLS, OTHER THAN MARIJUANA?
- 2117 BOUGHT OR GOTTEN SOMETHING THAT WAS STOLEN BY
SOMEONE ELSE?
- 2118 BROKEN INTO A PLACE AND STOLEN SOMETHING?
- 2119 TAKEN THEINGS WORTH LESS THAN \$50.00? (OVER \$2.00)

•

APPENDIX J
LABEL SPREAD INSTRUCTION FORM

APPENDIX J

LABEL SPREAD INSTRUCTION FORM

INTERVIEWER: THE FOLLOWING FORM SHOULD BE COMPLETED BY BOTH THE YOUTH AND PARENT SOURCES FOLLOWING THE 20 ITEM QUESTIONNAIRE. THE FIRST TWO COLUMNS MAY CALL FOR MULTIPLE RESPONSES SHOULD THE YOUTH HAVE BEEN IN CONTACT WITH THE POLICE OR COURT ON ADDITIONAL OCCASIONS SINCE THE INCIDENT THAT RESULTED IN REFERRAL TO THE PROJECT. REFER TO CONTACTS DETERMINED IN THE PREVIOUS QUESTIONNAIRE. USE MULTIPLE MARKS WITHIN THE APPROPRIATE BOX SHOULD THE NEED ARISE (e.g.

--	--	--

). BE CERTAIN ALL MARKS ARE CLEARLY DISTINGUISHABLE.

For example: "Now I would like to know what people found out about your contacts with the police and court. First I would like to know about your mother. Some of the questions may seem obvious, but I need to know for sure. Did your mother know about the contact with the police that got you in the project? Did she know about the contact with the court? Does she know about your involvement in the project?"

AT THIS POINT YOU SHOULD REPEAT THE FIRST TWO QUESTIONS FOR ANY ADDITIONAL CONTACTS THAT YOU HAVE NOTED.

"Does your mother know about the other contact with the police you mentioned? Did she know about the court contact?"

THESE MULTIPLE CONTACTS MAY RESULT IN MORE THAN ONE MARK IN A SINGLE BOX AS NOTED ABOVE. NOW YOU SHOULD CONTINUE ACROSS THE FIRST ROW.

"Does your mother see you as someone who will do ok in life in things like school, jobs, having a family, and so on...? Does your mother see you as someone who will need help for personal problems? Does your mother see you as someone who will do something that will get you into trouble? How important to you is what this person thinks of you?"

IF THERE IS A STEPMOTHER, REPEAT THE SET FOR THAT SOURCE. IF NOT, MOVE ON TO THE FATHER. PROCEED THROUGH THE REST OF THE LIST IN A SIMILAR FASHION. IT MAY BE APPROPRIATE TO SKIP THE STEPFATHER AND GUARDIAN AS WELL.

DURING THE PARENT INTERVIEW, REWORD SOURCE REFERENCE AND QUESTIONS SUCH THAT THEY WILL REFER TO THE SAME PERSON.

For example: IF YOU ARE INTERVIEWING THE MOTHER REFER TO CONTACTS YOU'VE LEARNED OF FROM THE MOTHER, NOT FROM THE YOUTH: "Are you aware of the contact with the police that led to your (son/daughter) involvement in the project? Are you aware of the contact with the court?", etc.

APPENDIX K
LABEL SPREAD ANSWER SHEET

LABEL SPREAD ANSWER SHEET

Case # _____ Wave _____ Source _____ Date _____ # of police contacts since project referral _____	Did source know about your contact with the police? (for each contact)	Did source know about your contact with the court? (for each contact)	Does source know about your involvement in this project?	Does the source see you as someone who will do something that will get you into trouble?	How important is it to you what this person thinks of you?
	Yes (2) (1) (0)	Yes (2) (1) (0)	Yes (2) (1) (0)	1 2 3 4 5 Def. yes Prob. yes Don't know Prob. not Def. not	1 2 3 4 5 Very impor. Somewhat impor. Don't know Somewhat unimpor. Not at all impor.
Mother/Stepmother	3015.	3024.	3033.	3042.	3052.
Father/Stepfather	3016.	3025.	3034.	3043.	3053.
Rest of Family	3017.	3026.	3035.	3044.	3054.
Best Friend	3018.	3027.	3036.	3045.	3055.
Others at School	3019.	3028.	3037.	3046.	3056.
Teachers, Administrators	3020.	3029.	3038.	3047.	3057.
Neighbors	3021.	3030.	3039.	3048.	3058.
Person who turned you in	3022.	3031.	3040.	3049.	3059.
Police Officer	3023.	3032.	3041.	3050.	3060.
Youth				3051.	

APPENDIX L
INTERVENTION OPINIONS

Student Number _____

INTERVENTION OPINIONS

Choose the answer to each question which is most appropriate and write the letter of your choice in the space at the left. ONLY ONE ANSWER SHOULD BE MARKED.

- ____ 1. Which of the following is a rationale for an 18-week intervention?
- a. It is the length of time several authors have recommended in order to establish a behavioral contract.
 - b. While not enough time for actual changes to occur, it is a sufficient instruction period.
 - c. It is a visible time period for which all involved can set goals.
 - d. Both the student and family involved often lose interest after four or five months.
- ____ 2. Which of the following is a valid criticism of the 'Sick Parents Theory' of delinquency?
- a. The theory is illogical.
 - b. The theory has no empirical support.
 - c. Role models are unrelated to delinquency.
 - d. The implications of the theory for treatment are unsatisfactory.
- ____ 3. Which of the following is a shortcoming of the medical model of human behavior?
- a. The labels of the medical model usually gloss over psychodynamic problems.
 - b. Prescribed drugs often will not change asocial behavior.
 - c. Viewing asocial human behavior as an illness is frequently inappropriate.
 - d. The trend toward nonprofessionals in medical roles has helped make professionals less accessible.
- ____ 4. Which of the following is an interpersonal explanation of delinquency?
- a. Delinquency is a product of discriminatory social conditions.
 - b. Delinquency stems from disturbed interactional patterns.
 - c. Delinquency is caused by a lack of social interactions.
 - d. Delinquency is a symptom of historical personality defects.
- ____ 5. Which of the following is a general rule to consider when negotiating a contract?
- a. Behaviors should be in terms of both positives and negatives.
 - b. Behaviors should be monitorable.
 - c. Behaviors should be as general as possible.
 - d. Behaviors should be relatively unimportant to those involved.
- ____ 6. Which of the following is a characteristic of a good monitoring system?
- a. It has a built-in incentive for monitoring.
 - b. It should be done easily long after the performance.
 - c. It describes backsliding and mistakes clearly.
 - d. The parents are the principal monitoring agent.
- ____ 7. Which of the following is not a characteristic of the families of delinquents?
- a. Families model and attend to delinquent actions.
 - b. Interactions in families are governed by aversive controls.
 - c. Parents of delinquents are too lenient.
 - d. Families fail to attend to prosocial performance.

- _____ 8. What was the major outcome of the Tinker vs. Des Moines Independent School District Decision?
- a. All students have a right to a free education.
 - b. All students have a right to a hearing if suspended.
 - c. All students have a right to peacefully express their views.
 - d. All students have a right to a quality education.
- _____ 9. Which of the following is an environmental resources explanation of delinquency?
- a. Delinquency is an acting out of infantile rage at an ungiving environment.
 - b. Delinquency is caused by unfulfilled personal and material needs.
 - c. Delinquency is caused by broken homes.
 - d. Delinquency is caused by significant others' attention to negative actions.
- _____ 10. Which of the following defines the Premack principle?
- a. Observing and recording data may by itself cause a change in the observed behaviors.
 - b. High frequency activities can be used to reinforce low frequency activities.
 - c. If a behavior is not monitorable by both parties, it cannot be dealt with in a contract.
 - d. Identify target areas of unmet needs rather than merely stopping areas of hassles.
- _____ 11. Which of the following will not help to make meetings with the family to discuss desired changes more effective?
- a. Help clarify messages.
 - b. Help focus on positive changes.
 - c. Make sure people speak in specific terms.
 - d. Make sure the entire history of the problem is understood.
- _____ 12. Which of the following are you looking for during the assessment period with a youth?
- a. Precipitating action for youth's referral to the project.
 - b. Unchangeable interpersonal contingencies.
 - c. Psychological flaws which should be dealt with by professionals.
 - d. Significant others in the youth's life.
- _____ 13. Which is the cardinal rule of child advocacy?
- a. Phrase everything in terms of specific behaviors.
 - b. Don't put either party in double jeopardy.
 - c. Remain as unobtrusive as possible.
 - d. Identify unmet needs as well as areas of hassle.
- _____ 14. Which of the following is a fatal flaw of the victim-blaming approach?
- a. Victims blame their environment.
 - b. It is universalistic rather than exceptionalistic.
 - c. It ignores human rights.
 - d. Victims are dealt with in a value-free manner.
- _____ 15. Which of the following is a way of clarifying a speaker's statement?
- a. Relating a similar experience of your own.
 - b. Giving feedback on the statement.
 - c. Paraphrasing the statement.
 - d. Making a judgment on the validity of the statement.

- ____ 16. Which of the following is a reason for employing a multiple strategy approach in working with delinquents?
- a. It allows for individualized action plans.
 - b. Neither strategy proved effective alone in the Illinois project.
 - c. It fits in most easily with the instability of delinquence.
 - d. Delinquents' problems are so deeply seated, no one strategy is sufficient.
- ____ 17. Which of the following is true?
- a. A principal does not have the right to search desks and lockers.
 - b. In most states, the search of a person on school grounds is illegal without a warrant.
 - c. Students may not express their political views while on school grounds.
 - d. If questioned, a student has the right to remain silent.
- ____ 18. Which of the following is an operant explanation of an interpersonal process leading to delinquency?
- a. Families attend only to prosocial performance of the youth.
 - b. Delinquency behavior results from an unbalance between unconscious and conscious self-concept.
 - c. Families model and reinforce delinquent actions for the youth.
 - d. Delinquent behavior is inherently pathological.
- ____ 19. Suppose you felt a behavioral contract was an appropriate method of handling a family problem. However, the father is reluctant because he is opposed to bribing his son to behave well. What would you do?
- a. Explain that all behavior is controlled by its consequences.
 - b. Explore the possibility of alternative techniques with the family.
 - c. Explain that bribery has been shown to be an effective way of changing an adolescent's behavior.
 - d. Discuss the advantages and disadvantages of bribery with the father.
- ____ 20. Which of the following describes the positive approach to advocacy?
- a. You attempt to convince the target of your advocacy to provide for the needs of your youth.
 - b. You are very aggressive with the target of your advocacy.
 - c. You approach several likely resources with your concern.
 - d. You have the news media publish an article attacking the target of your advocacy.
- ____ 21. Which of the following is information you need to do an advocacy intervention strategy?
- a. Location of potential resources.
 - b. Names of natural mediators.
 - c. Samples of youth's record.
 - d. Youth's psychological profile.
- ____ 22. Which of the following measures were used to evaluate the Illinois project?
- a. Financial records.
 - b. School records.
 - c. Projective tests.
 - d. Vocational tests.

- ____ 23. What is the chief advantage of a token system?
- a. They lend to the modification of less monitorable behaviors.
 - b. You don't need to know the effective reinforcers operating at any one time.
 - c. They employ the norms of reciprocity.
 - d. They are easier to develop and use than other contracts.
- ____ 24. Which of the following is a guideline for providing feedback to parties involved in a contract?
- a. Feedback should be as general as possible.
 - b. Meet with parties separately if negative feedback must be given.
 - c. Negative feedback should include alternatives for the parties.
 - d. Negative feedback should be given first so it will be heard.
- ____ 25. What is an important rule in choosing a reinforcer for the youth in a contract.
- a. It should be chosen by the parents and volunteer.
 - b. It should be totally unavailable to the youth through other means.
 - c. It should be able to be presented to the youth within one day of the behavior to be reinforced.
 - d. It should be important to the youth.
- ____ 26. Which process can lead to initiation and maintenance of a human behavior?
- a. Demonstrate the behavior.
 - b. Remove a pleasant stimulus following the behavior.
 - c. Stop reinforcement following the behavior.
 - d. Introduce an aversive stimulus following the behavior.
- ____ 27. Which of the following is a rule to use in renegotiating a contract?
- a. The contract renegotiation should follow the same procedures as the negotiation of the initial agreement.
 - b. The renegotiation should not be biased by any information obtained from executing the initial agreement.
 - c. Do not begin renegotiations unless both parties are dissatisfied with the contract.
 - d. Don't begin renegotiations until after at least three to four days of implementing the initial agreement.
- ____ 28. Which of the following is a rule governing an initiation of a secondary advocacy effort?
- a. Remain as unobtrusive as possible in your role as an advocate.
 - b. Discontinue effort when the agency says everything is all right.
 - c. Allow two weeks for the initial strategy to produce results.
 - d. Use your monitoring strategy to discern effectiveness of the initial strategy.
- ____ 29. Which of the following should not be included in the termination report?
- a. A complete description of the youth's personality.
 - b. Goals for your intervention.
 - c. Techniques used in your intervention.
 - d. Recommendations.

- _____ 30. Which of the following is a principle governing the implementation of an advocacy approach?
- a. Threaten with negative consequences initially to gain respect.
 - b. Don't jeopardize the credibility of yourself or the youth.
 - c. Be aware of the youth's style so as to gain system entry easily.
 - d. Present the youth in such a light so as to gain sympathy.
- _____ 31. Which of the following is a characteristic of the behavioral perspective of delinquency?
- a. The individual is the source of the problem.
 - b. The individual is the focus of change.
 - c. The pathology is a stable component of the individual personality.
 - d. It requires minimal use of professionals to employ intervention techniques.

APPENDIX M
COURSE EVALUATION

ADOLESCENT DIVERSION PROJECT

Code _____

[illegible]

11. How do you feel about the model of intervention that you were trained in?
 1 2 3 4 5
 liked very much extremely disliked
12. How do you feel about the amount of training you have received?
 1 2 3 4 5
 extremely extremely
 inappropriate appropriate
13. How do you feel about the way in which the training was presented?
 1 2 3 4 5
 liked very much extremely disliked
14. How much do you talk with friends not in this class about the training and skills you have received?
 1 2 3 4 5
 never very frequently
15. Outside of this class, how much do you talk with other students in this class about the training and skills you have received?
 1 2 3 4 5
 never very frequently
16. If you have a case already assigned, how frequently do you talk with friends not in this class about problems, concerns and issues dealing with your case? (We are not referring to any breach of confidentiality.)
 1 2 3 4 5
 never very frequently
17. If you have a case assigned, how frequently do you talk outside of class with other students in your class about problems, concerns and issues dealing with your case?
 1 2 3 4 5
 never very frequently
18. How much do you like the grading scheme of this course?
 1 2 3 4 5
 dislike very much like very much
19. If already assigned, how much do you like the class discussion of your case?
 1 2 3 4 5
 like very much dislike very much
20. If already assigned, how useful to you is the class discussion of your case?
 1 2 3 4 5
 completely useless very useful
21. How much do you like the class discussions of other students' cases?
 1 2 3 4 5
 dislike very much like very much
22. How useful to you is the class discussion of others' cases?
 1 2 3 4 5
 completely useless very useful

23. How much do you like the role plays done in class?
1 2 3 4 5
like very much dislike very much
24. How useful to you are the role plays done in class?
1 2 3 4 5
completely useless very useful
25. How much do you like the manual used in this course?
1 2 3 4 5
like very much dislike very much
26. How useful to you is the manual?
1 2 3 4 5
completely useless very useful
27. How much did you like the outside readings required in this course?
1 2 3 4 5
disliked very much liked very much
28. How useful to you are the outside readings required in this course?
1 2 3 4 5
completely useless very useful
29. How much did you like the format of answering oral questions in small groups?
1 2 3 4 5
liked very much disliked very much
30. How useful to you was the format of answering oral questions in small groups?
1 2 3 4 5
completely useless very useful
31. How much did you like the format of answering written questions in large groups?
1 2 3 4 5
disliked very much liked very much
32. How useful to you was the format of answering written questions in large groups?
1 2 3 4 5
very useful completely useless
33. How much did you like the format of rewriting questions you had answered incorrectly?
1 2 3 4 5
liked very much disliked very much
34. How useful to you was the format of rewriting questions you had answered incorrectly?
1 2 3 4 5
very useful completely useless
35. How much did you like the outside speakers (court and police staff)?
1 2 3 4 5
disliked very much liked very much
36. How useful to you were the outside speakers?
1 2 3 4 5

APPENDIX N
DELINQUENCY ORIENTATION SCALE

DELINQUENCY ORIENTATION SCALE

The following statements present a wide range of opinions regarding the causes and treatment of juvenile delinquency, as well as the role of the juvenile justice system. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each by circling the appropriate number.

-
1. Juveniles would be better off if they were not officially handled by any agency. . . .

1	2	3	4	5
strongly disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly agree

2. Delinquents should be prosecuted fully. . . .

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	agree	neutral	disagree	strongly disagree

3. We have every right to force our youth to follow laws set down for them by legislation. . . .

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	agree	neutral	disagree	strongly disagree

4. Increasing individual therapy will lessen delinquency. . . .

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	agree	neutral	disagree	strongly disagree

5. A basic disturbance in the process of socialization of the individual causes delinquency. . . .

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	agree	neutral	disagree	strongly disagree

6. Giving adults within the community more control and power will have a direct effect on delinquency rates. . . .

1	2	3	4	5
strongly disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly agree

7. Individual service should be provided for those youth identified as predelinquent. . . .

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	agree	neutral	disagree	strongly disagree

8. There is no such thing as a delinquent. . . .

1	2	3	4	5
strongly	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly
disagree				agree

9. It is possible to spot "predelinquents" before they get into serious trouble. . . .

1	2	3	4	5
strongly	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly
disagree				agree

10. The societal factor of racism is the most critical variable underlying delinquency. . . .

1	2	3	4	5
strongly	agree	neutral	disagree	strongly
agree				disagree

11. Providing more counselors will aid greatly in decreasing delinquency problems. . . .

1	2	3	4	5
strongly	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly
disagree				agree

12. The juvenile court strips the youth of his identity. . . .

1	2	3	4	5
strongly	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly
disagree				agree

13. The juvenile court is generally too lenient with delinquents. . . .

1	2	3	4	5
strongly	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly
disagree				agree

14. The best way to prevent delinquency is to identify predelinquents early. . . .

1	2	3	4	5
strongly	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly
disagree				agree

15. The search for the cause of crime is useless since everybody at times is criminal but only certain people happen to come to the attention of officials. . . .

1	2	3	4	5
strongly	agree	neutral	disagree	strongly
agree				disagree

16. One must be strict when dealing with a delinquent youth. . . .

1	2	3	4	5
strongly	agree	neutral	disagree	strongly
agree				disagree

17. It should no longer be illegal to run away or skip school. . . .

1	2	3	4	5
strongly	agree	neutral	disagree	strongly
agree				disagree

18. Lessening discriminations and inequality will lessen delinquency. . . .

1	2	3	4	5
strongly	agree	neutral	disagree	strongly
agree				disagree

19. By separating the delinquent youth from the rest of the community reform will be made easier. . . .

1	2	3	4	5
strongly	agree	neutral	disagree	strongly
agree				disagree

20. Immediate punishment will reduce delinquent behavior. . . .

1	2	3	4	5
strongly	agree	neutral	disagree	strongly
agree				disagree

21. Making a youthful offender of the law go through juvenile court proceedings can only cause more problems in the future for the youth. . . .

1	2	3	4	5
strongly	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly
disagree				agree

22. Redistributing the wealth in our society so that all individuals receive equal wages will reduce delinquency. . . .

1	2	3	4	5
strongly	agree	neutral	disagree	strongly
agree				disagree

23. Juveniles are best served if they are diverted totally from the court. . . .

1	2	3	4	5
strongly	agree	neutral	disagree	strongly
agree				disagree

24. The best way to prevent delinquency is to bring about changes in the economic structure of society. . . .

1	2	3	4	5
strongly	agree	neutral	disagree	strongly
agree				disagree

25. It is of primary importance that the juvenile court limit its activities to criminal acts only. . . .

1	2	3	4	5
strongly	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly
disagree				agree

26. Prevention of delinquency should be based on psychological principles. . . .

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	agree	neutral	disagree	strongly disagree

27. If police arrested more youth, there would be less delinquency. . . .

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	agree	neutral	disagree	strongly disagree

28. Delinquency causing factors are not under the control of the youth. . . .

1	2	3	4	5
strongly disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly agree

29. Police should release fewer of the kids they arrest. . . .

1	2	3	4	5
strongly disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly agree

30. Programs utilizing the "soft" approach will not remove delinquency. . . .

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	agree	neutral	disagree	strongly disagree

31. The organizational structure of the police department determines who becomes a delinquent. . . .

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	agree	neutral	disagree	strongly disagree

32. In dealing with delinquency one should aim at changing groups and neighborhoods not individual youngsters. . . .

1	2	3	4	5
strongly disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly agree

33. To prevent delinquency it is necessary to make it known that the offender will receive complete punishment for his act. . . .

1	2	3	4	5
strongly disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly agree

34. The most beneficial approach to the delinquency problem is to improve the quality of counseling. . . .

1	2	3	4	5
strongly disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly agree

35. Factors giving rise to delinquent behavior are found in external social and economic conditions rather than within the personalities of certain individuals. . . .

1	2	3	4	5
strongly disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly agree

36. Schools are the best agents to identify potential delinquents. . . .

1	2	3	4	5
strongly disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly agree

37. An investigation into the cause of delinquent behavior should involve a look at societal rather than psychological factors. . . .

1	2	3	4	5
strongly disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly agree

38. Poverty causes delinquency. . . .

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	agree	neutral	disagree	strongly disagree

39. Courts must see to it that delinquents are adequately punished. . . .

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	agree	neutral	disagree	strongly disagree

40. Special counseling programs should be provided for the youth who engage in delinquent activities. . . .

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	agree	neutral	disagree	strongly disagree

41. The most important causes of delinquency are to be found outside of the individual. . . .

1	2	3	4	5
strongly disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly agree

REFERENCES

- Albee, G. W. Conceptual models and manpower requirements in psychology. American Psychologist, 1968, 23, 317-320.
- Alexander, J. F. Defensive and supportive communications in normal and deviant families. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 1973, 40, 223.
- Alexander, J. F. Behavior modification and delinquent youth. In R. E. Hardy and J. L. Cull (Eds.), Behavior modification in rehabilitation settings. Springfield, IL: Thomas, 1974.
- Alexander, J. F., & Parsons, B. V. Short term behavioral intervention with delinquent families: Impact on family process and recidivism. Journal of Abnormal Psychology, 1973, 81, 219-225.
- Azrin, N. H., Naster, B. J., & Jones, R. Reciprocity counseling: A rapid learning-based procedure for marital counseling. Behavior Research and Therapy, 1973, 11, 365-382.
- Baer, D. M. Methods for generalizing experimentally produced behavior changes. Paper presented at the Fifth Annual Southern California Conference on Behavior Modification, Los Angeles, October 28, 1973.
- Baer, D. M., Wolf, M. M., & Risley, T. R. Some current dimensions of applied behavior analysis. Journal of Applied Behavior Analysis, 1968, 1, 91-97.
- Bandura, A. Principles of behavior modification. New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1969.
- Becker, J. S. Outsiders. New York: Free Press, 1963.
- Binder, A., Monahan, J., & Newkirk, M. Diversion from the juvenile justice system and the prevention of delinquency. In J. Monahan (Ed.), Community mental health and the criminal justice system. New York: Pergamon Press, 1976.
- Blakely, C. H., Kushler, M. G., Parisian, J. A., & Davidson, W. S. Self-reported delinquency as an evaluation measure: Comparative reliability and validity of alternative weighting schemes. Criminal Justice and Behavior, 1980.

- Burchard, J. D., & Hanig, P. T. Behavior modification and juvenile delinquency. In Leitenberg, H. (Ed.), Handbook of behavior modification and behavior therapy. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1976.
- Campbell, D. T., & Fiske, D. J. Convergent and discriminant validation by the multitrait-multimethod matrix. Psychological Bulletin, 1959, 56, 81-105.
- Carter, R. M. & Klein, M. W. (Eds.) Back on the street: The diversion of juvenile offenders. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1976.
- Charters, W. W. & Jones, J. E. On the risks of appraising non-events in program evaluation. Educational Researcher, 1973, 2(11), 5-7.
- Cloward, R. A., & Ohlin, L. E. Delinquency and opportunity: A theory of delinquent gangs. New York: Free Press, 1960.
- Collingswood, T. R., Douds, A., & Williams, H. The Dallas Police Diversion Project. Exemplary Project Report: U. S. Department of Justice, 1976.
- Cowen, E. L., Zax, M., & Laird, J. D. A college student volunteer program in the elementary school setting. Community Mental Health Journal, 1966, 2, 319-328.
- Cressey, D. R., & McDermott, R. A. Diversion from the juvenile justice system. Washington, D.C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1973.
- Davidson, W. S. The diversion of juvenile delinquents: An examination of the process and relative efficacy of child advocacy and behavioral contracting. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Illinois, 1976.
- Davidson, W. S. Volunteers and the diversion of juvenile offenders. Grant submitted to and funded by the National Institute of Mental Health, 1978.
- Davidson, W. S., Koch, J. R., Lewis, R. G., & Wresinski, M. D. Model evaluation strategies in criminal justice: The ideals and the reality. New York: Pergamon Press, in press.
- Davidson, W. S., & Rapp, C. Child advocacy in the justice system. Social Work, 1976, 21, 225-232.
- Davidson, W. S., & Robinson, M. J. Community psychology and behavior modification: A community based program for the prevention of delinquency. Correctional Psychiatry and Social Psychiatry, 1975, 21, 1-12.

- Davidson, W. S., & Seidman, E. S. Studies of behavior modification and juvenile delinquency: A review, methodological critique, and social perspective. Psychological Bulletin, 1974, 31, 998-1011.
- Davidson, W. S., Seidman, E., Rappaport, J., Berck, P. L., Rapp, N. A., Rhodes, W., & Herring, J. Diversion programs for juvenile offenders. Social Work Research and Abstracts, 1977, 1, 40-54.
- Davidson, W. S., & Rappaport, J. Toward a model for advocacy: Values, roles and conceptions from community psychology. In G. Weber and G. McCall (Eds.), Advocacy in the disciplines. New York: Russell Sage, 1977.
- DeRici, W., & Butz, G. Writing behavioral contracts. Champaign, IL: Research Press, 1975.
- Durlak, J. A. Comparative effectiveness of paraprofessional and professional helpers. Psychological Bulletin, 1979, 86, 80-92.
- Elliott, D. S. Diversion: A study of alternative processing practices. Final report to the Center for Studies of Crime and Delinquency, NIMH. Boulder, CO: Behavioral Research Institute, 1978.
- Emshoff, J. G. The diversion of juvenile delinquents: A comparison of intervention within the family and intervention with all life systems. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Michigan State University, 1980.
- Emshoff, J. G., Davidson, W. S., Schmitt, N., & Leedom, N. Salient processes in the implementation of social technology. Grant proposal funded by the National Science Foundation, 1980
- Emshoff, J. G., Jeppesen, J. C., Blakely, C. H., & Kushler, M. G. Discrepancies in diversion research: Some possible explanations. Paper presented at the 87th annual convention of the American Psychological Association, New York, New York, 1979.
- Erickson, K. T. Notes on the sociology of deviance. Social Problems, 1962, 9, 308.
- Erickson, M. L. Group violations, socio-economic status, and official delinquency. Social Forces, 1973, 52, 41-52.
- Erickson, M. L., & Empey, L. T. Court records, undetected delinquency, and decision making. Journal of Criminal Law, Criminology, and Police Science, 1963, 54, 456-469.
- Fairweather, G. W. Methods for experimental social innovations. New York: Wiley, 1967.
- Fairweather, G. W., Sanders, D. H., & Tornatzky, L. G. Creating change in mental health organizations. New York: Pergamon, 1974.

- ✓ Farrington, D. Self-reports of deviant behavior: Predictive and stable? Journal of Criminal Law, Criminology, and Police Science, 1973, 64, 99-110.
- Gault, 387 U.S. 1, 1428-1458 (1967).
- Gibbons, D.C. & Jones, J.F. The study of deviance: Perspectives and problems. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1975.
- Glueck, S. & Glueck, E. One thousand juvenile delinquents. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press, 1934.
- Glueck, S. & Blueck, E. Unraveling juvenile delinquency. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press, 1951.
- Gold, M. Undetected delinquent behavior. Journal of Research on Crime and Delinquency, 1966, 13, 127-143.
- Gold, M. Delinquent behavior in American cities. Belmont, CA: Brooks-Cole, 1970.
- Gold, M. & Mann, D. Delinquency as defense. American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 1972, 42, 463-479.
- Goldenberg, I.I. Build me a mountain: Youth, poverty and the creation of new settings. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press, 1971.
- Gruver, C.G. College students as therapeutic agents. Psychological Bulletin, 1971, 76, 111-127.
- Hirschi, T. Causes of delinquency. Los Angeles: University of Los Angeles Press, 1969.
- Huck, S.W. & McLean, R.A. Using a repeated measures ANOVA to analyze the data from a pretest-posttest design: A potentially confusing task. Psychological Bulletin, 1975, 82, 511-518.
- Jackson, D.N. The personality research form. Palo Alto: Research Psychologists Press, 1968.
- Jackson, D.N. A sequential system for personality scale development. In C. Spielberger (Ed.), Current topics in clinical and community psychology (Vol. 2). New York: Academic Press, 1970.
- Kaiser, H.F. & Caffry, J. Alpha factor analysis. Psychometrika, 1965, 30, 1-14.
- Kantrowitz, R.E. Training professionals to work with delinquents: Differential impact of varying training/supervision/intervention strategies. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Michigan State University, 1979.

Kent vs. United States, 383 U.S. 541, 556 (1966).

Klein, M.W. The knowns and unknowns of diversion research. Paper presented at the 87th annual convention of the American Psychological Association, New York, New York, 1979.

Klein, M.W. Street gangs and street workers. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1971.

Klein, M.W., Teilmann, K.S., Lincoln, S.B. & Labin, S. Diversion as operationalization of labeling theory. Final report to the Center for Studies in Crime and Delinquency, N.I.M.H. Los Angeles: Social Science Research Institute, 1978.

Krisberg, B. & Austin, J. Children of Ishmael. Palo Alto, CA: Mayfield Publishing Co., 1978.

Krohn, M., Waldo, G., & Chiricos, T.G. Self-reported delinquency: A comparison of structured interviews and self-administered checklists. Journal of Criminal Law and Criminology, 1975, 65, 545-553.

Lawrence, J.A. Delinquency orientation: Creation of a measure. Unpublished senior thesis, Michigan State University, 1979.

Lee, R.J. Volunteer case aide program: A community responds. Crime and Delinquency, 1968, 14, 331-335.

Lemert, E.M. Social Pathology. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1951.

Lemert, E.M. Instead of court: Diversion of juvenile justice. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1971.

Lemert, E.M. Beyond Mead: The societal reaction to deviance. Social Problems, 1974, 21, 85-95.

Lewis, R.G. & Davidson, W.S. Model evaluation project: Youth service bureaus in Michigan. Lansing, MI: Office of Criminal Justice Programs, 1977.

Lincoln, S.B., Teilman, K.S., Klein, M.W. & Labin, S. Recidivism rates of diverted juvenile offenders. Paper presented at the National Conference on Criminal Justice Evaluation, Washington, D.C., 1977.

Logan, D.A. Community-based treatment for juveniles using volunteers. Corrective Psychiatry and Journal of Social Therapy, 1972, 18, 26-30.

McCord, J. Effects of clients age, sex of counselor, and rapport on the impact of treatment: A thirty-year followup. Paper presented at the American Association of Psychiatric Services for Children. Washington, D.C.: 1977.

Rappaport, J. Community Psychology: Values, research, and action. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1977.

Rappaport, J., Chinsky, J.M. & Cowen, E.L. Innovations in helping chronic patients: College students in a mental institution. New York: Academic Press, 1971.

Rappaport, J., & Seidman, E. College students in mental health service projects. Grant application submitted to N.I.M.H., 1971.

Rappaport, J., Seidman, E., & Davidson, W.S. Demonstration research and manifest versus true adoption: The natural history of a research project to divert adolescents from the legal system. In Munoz, R.F., Snowden, L.R. & Kelly, J.G. Social and Psychological Research in Community Settings. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass, 1979.

Rappaport, J., Seidman, E., & Lamiel, J. Knowing and telling: The prediction of dangerousness. Paper prepared for APA Task Force on Psychologists in Criminal Justice, 1977.

Reinhertz, H. The therapeutic use of student volunteers. In B. Guernsey (Ed.), Psychotherapeutic Agents. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1969.

Rosenbaum, G., Grisse, J., Kaschtal, T., Knox, R., & Leenhouts, K.Z. Community participation in probation: A tale of two cities. Proceedings of American Psychological Convention, 1969, 4, 863-864.

Ryan, W. Blaming the victim. New York: Vintage, 1971.

Schur, E.M. Radical non-intervention: Rethinking the delinquency problem. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1973.

Schur, E.M. Comments. In W.R. Gove (Ed.), The labeling of deviance. New York: Wiley, 1975.

Schwartz, I.M. Volunteers and professionals: A team in the correctional process. Federal Probation, 1971, 35, 46-50.

Schwartz, I.M., Jensen, D.R., & Mahoney, M.J. Volunteers in juvenile justice. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1977.

Scheffe, H. The analysis of variance. New York: Prentice-Hall, 1959.

Seidman, E. Steps toward the development of useful social public policies. Paper presented at the Interdisciplinary Seminar on Public Policy in Industrialized Countries, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, 1976.

- Mennel, R. Thorns and thistles. Hanover: The University of New Hampshire Press, 1973.
- Merton, R.K. Social theory and social structure. New York: Glencoe Press, 1957.
- Mitchell, Christina M. Nonprofessionals working with delinquent youth: An experimental comparison of university, community college and community nonprofessionals. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Michigan State University, 1980.
- Moeller, H.G. Corrections and the community. Federal Probation, 1968, 32, 25-29.
- Neitzel, M.T., Winett, R.A., MacDonald, M.L. & Davidson, W.S. Behavioral approaches to community psychology. New York: Pergamon Press, 1977.
- Nejelski, P. Diversion: The promise and the danger. Crime and Delinquency, 1976, 22, 393-410.
- Nye, F.E., Short, J.F. & Olson, U.J. Socioeconomic status and delinquent behavior. American Journal of Sociology, 1958, 63, 381-389.
- Patterson, G.R. Interventions for boys with conduct problems: Multiple settings, treatments, and criteria. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 1974, 42, 471-481.
- Patterson, G.R. & Reid, J.B. Reciprocity and coercion: Two facets of social systems. In C. Neuringer & J.L. Michael (Eds.). Behavior modification in clinical psychology. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1970.
- Phillips, E.L., Phillips, E.A., Fixsen, D.L. & Wolf, M.M. The teaching family handbook. Lawrence, Kansas: Kansas Printing Service, 1972.
- Poser, E.G. The effects of therapists' training on group therapeutic outcome. Journal of Consulting Psychology, 1966, 30, (4), 283-289.
- Prentice, N.M. The influence of love and symbolic modeling on prompting moral judgement of adolescent delinquents. Journal of Abnormal Psychology, 1972, 80, 199-211.
- President's Commission of Law Enforcement and the Administration of Justice. Task force report: Juvenile delinquency and youth crime. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1967.

- Seidman, E.S. & Rappaport, J. The educational pyramid: A paradigm for research, training, and manpower utilization in community psychology. American Journal of Community Psychology, 1974, 2, 119-130.
- Seidman, E.S., Rappaport, J. & Davidson, W.S. Adolescents in legal jeopardy: Initial success and replication of an alternative to the juvenile justice system. Invited address: 1976 National Psychological Consultants to Management Consulting Psychology Research Award, Meeting of the American Psychological Association, Washington, D.C., 1976.
- Seidman, E.S., Rappaport, J., Davidson, W.S. & Linney, J. Changing human service systems: Intervention with children, adolescents, adults and the elderly. New York: L. Erlbaum Associates, in press.
- Sellin, T. & Wolfgang, M.E. The measurement of delinquency. New York, Wiley, 1964.
- Selltiz, C., Wrightman, L.S. & Cook, S.W. Research methods in social relations. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1976.
- Shah, S.A. Perspectives and directions in juvenile corrections. Psychiatric Quarterly, 1973, 47, 12-36
- Shaw, C.R. Delinquency areas. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1929.
- Shaw, C.R. & McKay, H.D. Juvenile delinquency and urban areas. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1942.
- Shore, M.F. & Massimo, J.L. After ten years: A follow-up study of comprehensive vocationally orientated psychotherapy. American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 1973, 43, 128-132.
- Short, J.F. Gang delinquency and delinquent subcultures. New York: Harper & Row, 1968.
- Siegel, J.M. Mental health volunteers as change agents. American Journal of Community Psychology, 1973, 1, 138-158.
- Smith, P.M. & Austrin, H.R. Socialization as related to delinquency classification. Psychological Reports, 1974, 34, 677-678.
- Stephenson, R.M. & Scarpitti, F.R. Essexfields: A non-residential experiment in group centered rehabilitation of delinquents. American Journal of Corrections, 1969, 31, 12-18.

- Stuart, R.B. Behavioral contracting within the families of delinquents. Journal of Behavior Therapy and Experimental Psychiatry, 1971, 2, 1-11.
- Stuart, R.B. & Lott, L.A. Behavioral contracting with delinquents: A cautionary note. Journal of Behavior Therapy and Experimental Psychiatry, 1972, 3, 161-169.
- Stuart, R.B. & Tripode, T. Experimental evaluation of three time-constrained behavioral treatments for pre-delinquents and delinquents. Advances in Behavior Therapy, 1973, 4, 1-12.
- Tatsuoka, M. Multivariate statistics. New York: Academic Press, 1973.
- Tharp, R.G. & Wetzel, R.J. Behavior modification in the natural environment. New York: Academic Press, 1969.
- Ullmann, L. & Krasner, L. A psychological approach to abnormal behavior. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1975.
- United States Bureau of the Census, Statistical abstracts of the United States. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1979.
- United States Department of Health, Education and Welfare. The challenge of youth service bureaus. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1973.
- Waldo, G.P. & Dinitz, S. Personality attributes of the criminal: An analysis of research studies, 1950-1965. Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency, 1967, 4, 185-202.
- Williams, W. Implementation analysis and assessment. In W. Williams & R. Elmore (Eds.). Social Program Implementation. New York: Academic Press, 1976.
- ✓ Williams, J.R. & Gold, I.M. From delinquent behavior to official delinquency. Social Problems, 1972, 20, 209-229.
- Wolfgang, M., Figlio, R. & Sellin, T. Delinquency in a birth cohort. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1974.
- Wright, W.E. & Dixon, M.C. Community prevention and treatment of juvenile delinquency. Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency, 1977, 14, 35-67.