2475/3910

MONASH UNIVERSITY
THESIS ACCEPTED IN SATISFACTION OF THE
REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY
ON.......................6 September 2002 ....
.................█████████████.........................
Sec. Research Graduate School Committee

"FROM VAGRANT TO CARNEY"

A STUDY OF THE PROGRAMS AVAILABLE TO YOUNG OFFENDERS IN
VICTORIA'S YOUTH TRAINING CENTRES, AND THEIR RELEVANCE IN
ASSISTING THE YOUNG PEOPLE REINTEGRATE BACK INTO THE
COMMUNITY AFTER BEING DISCHARGED FROM CUSTODY.

By

Joan Churchill, BSc. (Hons). M.Ed. Studies (Special Ed.)

A dissertation submitted in fulfillment of the requirement for a degree of
Doctor of Philosophy, Monash University, Victoria.

Re-submitted November 2001.

TABLE OF CONTENTS.

(iv).

ABSTRACT.

The programs offered in Victoria's Youth Training Centres to young offenders were investigated in relation to the effectiveness of the skills they promoted, and their relevance to assisting young offenders achieve independence in the community after serving a period of detention imposed upon them by the courts. The sample consisted of one hundred male trainees aged between 17 to 21 years. Several data collecting instruments were developed by the researcher and used in conjunction with Kravetz, S.P. (1973). 'Rehabilitation Needs and Status, Substance, Structure and Process., and the Coopersmith (1987) 'Self Esteem Inventory'. The data were gathered while the sample were detained at three of Victoria's Youth Training Centres and in the community after they had been released. The results indicated that, despite skills having been developed through the programs offered in the Youth Training Centres, in line with the recommendations put forward by the Carney Report that young people detained by the courts, in a detention facility, should be provided with programs to develop life skills, they are in fact made redundant by such issues as accommodation, employment, financial and relationship problems with which the young people have to deal with in the community during the process of reintegration.

A surprising finding of the study was the identification of two groups of offenders. For one group, the period of detention had no impact upon their levels of self-esteem from the start to the conclusion of the detention period, despite them having been involved in many programs to develop skills and promote success. This group continued to maintain the same level of self-esteem throughout, with many having returned to another institutional placement within six months of being released back into the community. However, the second group of young people, while the results showed they had a decrease in their levels of self-esteem during the detention period despite the programs offered, continued to reside in the community six months of being released. However, there was no improvement in their self-esteem levels from the decreased scores recorded at the conclusion of their detention period. While the researcher offers several explanations to this finding in the discussion at the conclusion of the thesis, the study raises many questions concerning the effectiveness of the programs, support in the community to assist young people achieve independence after being released from a period of detention, along with the issues that surround recidivism.

DECLARATION

This thesis contains no material which has been accepted for the award of any other degree or diploma in any university or other institution and affirms that to the best of the candidate's knowledge, the thesis contains no material previously published or written by another person except where due reference is made in the text of the thesis.

Joan Churchill

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

According to Jones (1988), young people in the developed world have been the subject of an enormous amount of research over the latter part of the twentieth century. However, the researchers concluded, youth as a group cannot be researched because they are not a static group. Although Liebau and Chisolm (1993), have suggested that 'European Youth' do not exist, Wallace and Kovacheva (1995) argued that, the concept of youth is de-structured because significant life transitions are less and less aged related. However, it can be argued that youth is a relational concept because its existence has meaning largely in relation to the concept of adulthood. For the purpose of the proposed study, youth are defined as young people aged between seventeen and twenty one years of age. The sample group being a subset of youth, a group of young people who, as a result of the behaviours they have exhibited have been further classified by society as young offenders. This classification having resulted from the acts they have committed that are offences against the laws of society. A group who were, at the time of the data collection, detained at one of Victoria's Youth Training Centres under the jurisdiction of the justice system of Victoria, and thereafter released into the community.

1.1 Purpose of the Study.

A custodial sentence can be regarded as a number of things to a number of people. Considered by some to be short-term relief for society from people who exhibit deviant behaviours, others regard it as a process of rehabilitation for the offender in anticipation of reducing recidivism. However, behind all the discussion there is the continuous debate on how to meet individual needs in the most appropriate way that will assist the offender with the process of rehabilitation. The purpose of this study is to consider whether the skill content of programs offered to young people placed in Victorian Youth Training Centres is appropriate to provide them with the skills considered necessary to assist them achieve independence in the community after their release. It is a study undertaken in response to the recommendations set out in the Carney Report (1984) that resulted in The Children and Young Persons Bill (1989).

1.2 Organization of the study.

The project has been organized as follows: Chapter one is the introduction that explains the purpose of the study along with the organization of each chapter. Chapter two is the background to the study, where the reader is made aware of the political background and legislation that has, for over one hundred years attempted to deal with youth crime. The management of this problem has been classed by many researchers as a form of social control. The studies referred to in this chapter put forward many arguments relating to the political and public attitude relating to the need to provide a more constructive method of intervention to manage the growing problem of youth crime. Also referred to in the discussion is the inter-relationship between welfare and educational policies and the current trend that argues for the continued concept that education and vocational skills are the answer to the 'youth problem'.

The discussion presented in chapter three is related to the concerns that surround the prevention of recidivism, and the influence that such variables as unemployment can have upon delinquency. The concept of incarceration as a last resort is discussed in accordance with the recommendations put forward by the Carney Report. The discussion is further extended to acknowledge that in some situations the last resort is an option that the courts must consider. Also discussed are the studies that detail the importance of the programs that could be offered in residential placements if the courts do choose to implement a period of incarceration as a consequence of delinquent behaviour.

The literature detailed in chapter four concentrates on personality and behaviour characteristics exhibited by some people that, many researchers argue, can be associated with delinquent behaviour. The literature reviewed the studies that have surrounded the on-going debate that behaviour is influenced by heritable and non-heritable characteristics.

The discussion in chapter five is concentrated around the process of developing programs to meet the needs of individuals. The focus is upon the importance of the

identification of the skills that young people need in order to assist them reintegrate back into the community after they have been released. It also considers the transfer of skills developed in the institutions to assist young people achieve independence in the community.

Chapter six is related the process of transition and the type of programs, support and services that could provide the young offenders with what the Carney Report referred to as programs in the community. However as discussed in the chapter, the recommendation by the Carney Report that "welfare is the responsibility of the community as a whole and not exclusively the province of government or specialist service providers" (p.18), has re-opened the debate that has surrounded the provision and accountability of services that have, in the past, been provided by voluntary agencies.

The literature is summarized in chapter seven where the discussion coordinates the studies presented in the previous chapters. Also highlighted are the issues of concern that arise out of the literature and set the scene for the aims of the study. The focus being to determine whether the recommendations put forward by the Carney Report are being implemented in Victoria's Youth Training Centres and in the community through programs and support agencies. One of the aims of the study is to assess whether the programs offered to the young people have a skills based content that will provide them with skills deemed necessary to assist them achieve independence in the community irrespective of such outside variables as unemployment, accommodation, and financial problems.

The methodology of the study that cites the hypotheses, the data collecting instruments, the sample selection, the field of study, data collecting techniques, the organization of the interviews and the data analysis are all detailed in chapter eight. The results of the study are presented in chapter nine. The research findings are discussed in chapter ten, with an integrated discussion and the conclusion presented in chapter eleven.

CHAPTER 2   BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY.

2.1. The Carney Report (1984).

In 1982, the then Labor government of Victoria set up the Child Welfare Practices and Legislation Review Committee. The government requested a review of all policies, services and legislation that affected children, families and communities. The report that was completed in 1984 and which subsequently became known as the Carney Report (1984) resulted in The Children and Young Persons Bill (1989). The review process involved wide consultation with community groups and young people throughout Victoria, along with an analysis of child welfare practices and legislation in North America, the United Kingdom and other states throughout Australia. The final report that took two years to complete, was well received by welfare groups despite its criticism of existing policies, practices and the inadequacies that the committee believed existed in the delivery of welfare services in Victoria.

The Carney Report was Victoria's first rigorous examination of the child welfare system. Set up by a government administration that acknowledged the universal attitude regarding the need for a consistent and coherent philosophy and approach to social policy, its recommendations covered the total perspective of institutional practices. The report also acknowledged three important pre-requisites that need to exist to ensure the effective implementation of its recommendations: First the need for a continued commitment by governments irrespective of their politics or political views; secondly the promotion of community and professional awareness to highlight the committee's recommendation that the provision of welfare services should be viewed as a responsibility of the community as a whole and "not exclusively the province of the government or specialist services" (p.18), with the third being, "the provision of adequate resources" (p.19). It is the balance of these three pre-requisites upon which the success or failure of the Carney Report (1984) and its recommendations will depend.

The report upheld the philosophy regarding the need to maintain links between the family and young persons in governmental care facilities. It highlighted the need for an in-built policy of prevention for the provision of pre-care services and support for families exhibiting stress. Officially acknowledged for the first time in Victoria's child welfare services were the differing needs of the clientele of Community Services Victoria, (currently the Department of Human Services). Emphasis was finally placed on the need to separate the two categories of client, the young people who had been placed in care situations for their own protection, and the young offender who had been placed in custodial detention as a result of a ruling by the judicial system. It was through this distinction that the committee of enquiry accepted that two differing community expectations needed to be addressed. The report stated that "the perpetrator of a crime be punished, while on the other hand ensuring that young people are shown greater tolerance and leniency while they learn society's rules" (p.58). It emphasized the need to provide support that would assist young people to reintegrate back into the community after their release from a custodial sentence. It conceded the "need for practical assistance and programs designed to assist young people reintegrate into the community prior to their release, with agencies funded to provide and develop further programs to assist the reintegration of young people into the community" (p.58).

This renewed political interest in the welfare of young people and their families was apparent by the terms of reference set out by the government for the review committee to consider. It stated that the committee was "to provide a blueprint for the development of child and family welfare services to serve Victoria in the foreseeable future" (p.1). The committee believed they had achieved this, because, while they acknowledged there had previously existed an absence of a clear and coherent policy regarding service delivery and planning, they were optimistic for the future. In a letter to the then Minister for Community Welfare Services, they stated "the report, we believe, captures the overwhelming sentiments expressed by Victorians…it aims to translate those aspirations for greater equity and fairness into a realistic blueprint for further action by government in partnership with the community". It also

recommended that legislation should be implemented to "serve as a focus of community aspirations and values as well as a catalyst for social change, it should articulate the minimum standards of international treaties and statements adopted or ratified by the Australian Government" (p.20).

The review committee noted that of those young people who do offend, very few continue to offend into adulthood. To deal with this pattern of behaviour, the committee highlighted the need for better procedures to divert young peor' ... ... the formal criminal justice system. However, when young people do ... ... with the justice system, it recommended the existence of basic approaties ... ... ensure the punishment does not exceed the gravity of the crime. Th... ... ... several principles to underlie the development of procedures to de... ... ... young offenders. It recommended that sentencing guidelines be designed to minimize the necessity to place young people into custodial institutions and thereby 'minimize stigma'. It also recommended that a broad range of sentencing options should be available to the courts to allow for greater community based programs as an alternative to incarceration.

The committee proposed three levels of Intervention Orders:

Level 1: Minimum Intervention Orders could result in the dismissal of the charge, or a reprimand.

Level 2: Medium Intervention Orders would involve a greater degree of intervention in the lives of the young offenders, with the progress of the offenders monitored by the courts through supervision orders, restitution orders, probation and community service orders.

Level 3: Maximum Intervention Orders would allow the courts to impose rigorous supervision and monitoring by a Residential Review Board, that would be empowered to alter an order when appropriate. Maximum orders would provide the courts with access to a variety of graduated custodial sentencing options that would include Attendance Centres, Youth Training Centres, and in special circumstances, prison.

The three escalating levels of intervention orders recommended by the report were designed to divert young offenders away from the formal system of justice and ultimately, it was hoped, recidivism. Attendance Centres would allow a part-time loss of liberty as an alternative to full-time incarceration for young offenders of fifteen years and over who had committed an offence punishable by prison if committed by an adult. The recommendation was that the period of incarceration should not exceed more than ten hours per week. The report also recommended that Youth Training Centres should be available to provide for the small number of young offenders who may require full time secure care, although it emphasized was that such an option should be used as a last resort and imposed only when no other option would be suitable. The courts would implement a custodial sentence only in situations where a mandatory pre-sentencing report indicated the suitability of the young person for such a placement. The Carney Report emphasized that when the state deprives a young person of his/her liberty, it acquires the responsibility of providing for the physical and developmental needs of that young person by developing a range of skills and programs to foster a community developmental role.

Detention facilities should, the report recommended, develop programs for life skills and a transition program of support in the community to assist young offenders reintegrate back into the community after their release from custody. The report also stated that "young people under state care should be provided with the same educational opportunities as young people in the community, including a diverse range of curriculum choices" (p.58). Previously Parker (1981) argued, the connection between the child in care and the young offender has resulted in researchers and commentators from within and outside institutional settings having been critical of the lack of effective programs and planning to meet the needs of clients. Nevertheless, the Carney Report believed it had delivered a "blue print" for future action with its recommendation that "services be provided for children, families and young offenders, and that practical assistance and programs are designed to reintegrate young offenders into the community prior to their release" (p.58).

At the same time that the Victorian Government was reviewing its welfare and justice system for young people, the Commonwealth Government of Australia was assessing educational services to all Australians. This educational review was in the light of changes being implemented in the United States of America and the United Kingdom to ensure that curriculum content and program delivery encompassed the acquisition of skills to keep pace with a changing economy. Driers and Cicconi (1988) argued that, "there has been a rediscovering of education as the major instrument available to develop productive citizens" (p.3). The acquisition of skills would allow students to approach education and job opportunities with a feeling of personal commitment and anticipation. It would, argued the researchers, "allow young people to see opportunities as avenues leading to personal goals rather than as individual hurdles over which they must leap" (p.5). It was this philosophy that the Carney Report envisaged would be adopted by, and implemented through, The Children and Young Persons Bill (1989). It could, they believed, be achieved through the introduction of educational opportunities and life skills programs into government institutions, and thereafter, supported by programs in the community that would assist young offenders further develop and transfer those skills into daily living situations and assist them become productive citizens.

The introduction of the Children and Young Person's Bill (1989) incorporated most of the recommendations put forward by the Carney Report. It provided the people of Victoria with legislation that clearly separated The Family Division and The Criminal Division of the Children's Court. It was the first time legislation was implemented to deal with specific groups separately. The young person in need of care, and the young person who needed to be placed in a care environment as a result of the behaviour exhibited. Having set out the legislation that detailed service provision to meet the needs of the different clientele, it can be assumed that the government accepted the need to provide a social policy that would interact with other social issues and responsibilities. A policy that would address the diverse needs of all individuals to assist them develop the skills necessary to succeed in the employment market.

2.2. The Inter-relationship of Government Policies.

The inter-relationship of social policies aimed at delivering programs is nothing new. An examination of the relationship between education and other government policies in three Australian states, Victoria, New South Wales and Queensland during the twentieth century by Sherington and Irving (1989) concluded, "policies have been structured in response to perceiving youth in three related ways: as future citizens, as a current social problem and as a social movement" (p.11). The agenda behind the policies were, they argued, policing, training and welfare. The historical development of the provision of welfare services for young people in Australia can, argued Tierney (1972), be explained in similar ways. They were, argued the researcher, developed as a response to the problems engendered by urbanization as a response to the social conditions generated by the gold rush, the subsequent periods of economic depression, or as a policy of social investment in the future of a rapidly expanding nation. A study of the history of Australia led the researcher to comment, that, "in this country, policy concerning child welfare evolved from three major provisions: the penal system, the British Poor Law and private philanthropy" (Tierney, 1972, p.34).

While the British Poor Law, derived from the Elizabethan Poor Act (1601), set the pattern of the English system of welfare, it was never applicable in Australia. However, its principles of parsimony and harshness influenced welfare policy and practice throughout Australia in the nineteenth century. If one was destitute, then one was considered to be a vagrant or a criminal, with incarceration seen as the only relevant consequence. The only reason it did not become law in Australia was, argued Govan (1951), "the middle classes did not relish the prospect of having to subscribe to a Poor Law rate as did their counterparts on the other side of the globe" (p.140). Nevertheless, in Victoria as late as 1859 the situation still existed where children who had committed no offence, were sent to prison simply because their mothers had been imprisoned for vagrancy and destitution (Picton & Boss, 1981).

The discovery of gold resulted in a rapidly increased population with an increased number of abandoned and destitute children. On October 12th 1863, Thomas Bury, formerly an English penal administrator drew the attention of the Governor Sir Charles Darling to "a large number of houseless and homeless boys commencing a life of nomadic and erratic wanderings without having any visible means of support not only in and about Melbourne, but in all the large towns of the colonies" (Jaggs, 1986, p.1.) The solution was considered to be an agricultural reformatory where boys could erect buildings, and by their own labor, feed and clothe themselves. Victoria's Government had previously been giving sporadic attention to the need for legislation that would provide a more effective means than imprisonment for reforming the vagrant, destitute and young offender from a criminal career. And consequently, as noted by Jaggs (1986), a few months after Bury's letter the Government passed The Neglected and Criminal Children Act (1864).

Jaggs (1986) also noted that, although Victoria continued to maintain the analogue between vagrancy and criminal activity, in line with other Australian states, it began to adopt a more scientific approach to classifying young offenders from other young people considered to be 'at risk'. Industrial Reformatory Schools and family placement options were established by voluntary agencies to protect the growing number of orphaned and destitute children. Both the Industrial Schools and the family placement options performed a dual role. The legislation required that those who provided care and protection to young people should instill into them the skills of manual labor. This could they believed, be achieved through the virtues of hard work and obedience to authority, along with the acceptance by the young people of their lower status as a provision of cheap and compliant labor. In 1870 Tasmania replaced Industrial Schools with the family placement option in an endeavor to "reclaim otherwise wasted young lives" (Jaggs, 1986, p.42), a practice later adopted throughout Australia. In 1872, a Royal Commission declared Industrial Reformatory Schools harmful, describing them as legalized gateways to hell and they were closed down (Maunders, 1983). Therefore, the enthusiasm to remove troublesome

young people from corrupt influences in the community and place them in Industrial Schools had, by the end of the nineteenth century, diminished.

The introduction by Victoria of The Neglected and Criminal Children Act (1864) can be viewed as more of an attempt to achieve social order through the criminal justice system than an exercise in public charity. As Jaggs (1986) argued, "Victorians were motivated by fear of the dangers which idle and disaffected lower classes posed for society as much, if not more than by compassion for young people and children" (p.2). Child welfare as it is thought of today was not in the minds of Victorians who pressed for and passed the Act. The intention was not to protect children from ill treatment or the setting up of a public child rearing system. Their aim was to prevent the proliferation of a class of criminal slum dwellers similar to those who plagued urban settings in other countries by cutting off the source of its juvenile recruits (Jaggs, 1986). The legislation was an extension by the state of social control over young people, as many of the young people had "been placed in state care by parents on account of poverty" (Van Krieken, 1991, p.107). Neither the legislation nor the institutions introduced in 1864 were unique, but close copies of the English provision, "slightly altered in response to the exigencies of colonial politics" (Jaggs, 1986, p.2). However, by the early twentieth century institutions for troublesome youth were back in favor with, argued Hobbs (1975), improved standards and individualized treatment programs. However he also stated that, "the treatment that was supposed to follow a court finding was seldom available. Simple incarceration or probation without further assistance was the typical outcome" (p.60). In reality, individual assessment and treatment of young offenders was not attempted until the 1960's (Dickey, 1980).

Education developed a new focus at the beginning of the twentieth century with reforms to the existing provision and the establishment of state secondary education. This new educational philosophy was pivotal to the development of policies in many Australian states in the first two decades of the twentieth century.

Efforts to control the behaviour of young people outside school and in institutions was legislated for, and implemented by, the courts through the treatment and correction of juveniles and the implementation of activities. The continued control of apprenticeships through legislation was, according to Sherington and Irving (1989), also an attempt by New South Wales and Victoria to regulate the juvenile labour markets and guide youth into appropriate occupations as had occurred in the late nineteenth century. It was, argued the researchers, "a burgeoning effort to continue surveillance over the young beyond the formal age of leaving school" (p.14).

The 1930's saw a rejection by Victoria, Queensland and New South Wales of regulated vocational education as they adopted a new commitment to youth. However, according to Sherington and Irving (1989), the aim of the new focus was "as much directed toward control as toward developing the future potential of youth, particularly with the growing concern about juvenile delinquents" (p.15). In New South Wales, The Child Welfare Act (1939) established a new Welfare Department with the aim of developing, according to a report by the Minister of Public Instruction (1941), potential delinquents to become socially efficient citizens. This could be achieved through services in the community that emphasized the prevention of delinquency. The problem of delinquency became more evident in the 1950's when committees were established to report on issues of concern involving young people. The Barry Committee on Juvenile Delinquency was established in Victoria (1955), The Dewar Committee on Youth Problems in Queensland (1959) and in New South Wales, The Curlewis Youth Policy Advisory Committee (1962). All offered similar solutions, a strengthening of existing youth organizations and the provision of adult controlled and organized leisure and recreation activities to engage young people. The new Child Welfare legislation that followed in New South Wales and Victoria can, in part, be viewed as a recognition by many that the older traditional forms of attempting to control the activities of the young had failed. So in line with the recommendations of all three committees, and in response to the aftermath of the Second World War, an emphasis was placed on the economic and physical training of young people.

The inquiries into youth and delinquency in the late 1950's and early 1960's were, argued Bessant and Spaull (1976), matched by various committees of inquiries into secondary schooling. Their conclusions became the foundations upon which comprehensive secondary schooling was developed over the following decade. These changes were, argued the researchers, essentially solutions to post war demographic and economic pressures. While they argued the changes nominally provided for all young people within the secondary education system, the traditional academic model of the curriculum remained. However, there was the researchers concluded, a correlation with the general area of youth policies which hopefully would provide new forms of enlightened citizenship as well as prepare young people to enter the labour market in a rational and orderly manner.

Education was, according to Bessant and Spaull (1976), viewed as the answer to providing opportunities for young people for the future. This philosophy continued to remain the basis of policy development throughout the 1960's and 1970's. However the optimism that education alone could provide the answer to problem youth began to dissipate as social and cultural changes became evident (Wyn & White, 1977). Policing and surveillance of youth on the streets became a priority in several Australian states throughout the early 1960's and 1970's. In New South Wales the community based youth policy and the programs that developed from the policy initiatives of the 1950's were abandoned in favor of a stronger policing approach. At the same time the Chief Commissioner of Police in Victoria referred to juvenile delinquents as completely anti-social and in need of a strong police action (National Fitness Council of Victoria, 1962). This radical response was, according to Young (1981), society's answer to "controlling the problem of crime" (p.288). It was a time argued Cohen (1985) when the very foundations of the control systems were under assault.

The lack of faith in institutions that still catered for large numbers of young people resulted in the call for community care, community treatment and community control.

By the mid 1970's, doubt was being expressed about these new directions, as community reformers were not able to demonstrate that they were any more effective at reducing recidivism than traditional custodial measures (Cohen, 1985). The decrease in the early 1980's in Victoria of young offenders being placed in institutions as a result of the ongoing reforms of the 1970's, slowed as the decade progressed. The reason young offenders were again being placed in increasing numbers in custodial placements was in part, according to Cohen (1985), a result of the fact that many young people had failed to respond to the non-custodial forms of intervention and support in the community. The use of community based alternatives being used as the primary form of retribution for young offenders was an important variable in the lack of success of community based alternatives to incarceration. Cohen (1985), referred to research in the United States of America that concluded, "states which scored high success on the use of community programs also had an above average use of institutions" (p.47). And, according to Coates, Hiller and Ohlin (1978), it is the network of relationships and support in the community in conjunction with alternative forms of intervention that is the significant variable that will determine recidivism for young offenders.

In the past Australia has been recognized "as one of the most progressive countries in dealing with young offenders" (Mukherjee & Wilson, 1990, p.55). However, in recent years they argued, some states have swung toward more punitive measures when dealing with young offenders with the imposition in some areas of a curfew and the restriction of the juvenile caution system.

2.3. Education The Way Forward.

The inter-relationship between different departments, policy and provision of services for young people can be highlighted when, in 1938 the South Australian Government established a Committee of Inquiry into the treatment of delinquents and other young persons in the care of the state. The Committee of Inquiry, chaired by W.J. Adey, the Director of Education rejected law and prison as instruments capable of providing for

protection and change in the lives of young people. The new focus was to be in favor of the principles of education. However, it was the 1980's before there developed an understanding that youth problems were more structural than individually based. It was the crisis in the labour market that signified the beginning of a new relationship between the government and its young people.

In 1979, faced with rising rates of youth unemployment the federal government introduced the new Transition Program whose purpose was to ensure that ultimately all young people would be provided with options in education, training and employment, or a combination of all either on a part time, or full time basis. It was hoped that the options would make unemployment the least acceptable alternative (Carrick, 1979). The background to the transition education policy initiatives was not only the high rates of youth unemployment, it was, argued Ellict, Huizinga and Ageton (1985), also aimed at improving the opportunities for "at risk" students and their preparation for work through changes in school, or the provisions of post-school programs. It was also an attempt to explain the relationship between delinquent behaviour and school in accordance with young people's attitude, aspirations and academic achievement. According to Williams (1987), the focus was to cater for the population of students who had traditionally been considered as disadvantaged by the education system. A group who, he concluded, "are early school leavers and who have not acquired a basic education, and are likely to be education failures" (p.46). Students in general were encouraged to remain at school longer, a process that the government believed would be achieved through fundamental changes to the school curriculum, school organization, structure and improved support and cooperation between teachers, students and parents (Fraser, 1991). However according to Finn (1987), the only achievement of the scheme was, "it helped conceal the low levels of skills typified by most youth training programs, and was resisted by employers and young people alike. Employers preferred to train young people in skills which could be used immediately" (p.180). On the other hand, Lake and Willimason (1986) concluded that, one of the

most note worthy features of many of the transition programs that operated was their positive effect on the self-esteem of participating students.

The problem with the approach adopted by both the federal and state governments to integrate youth policy into the general macro-economic programs for education, employment and training was, it sought to encompass all young people according to their common needs and problems. While it can be accepted that young people experience common maturational problems, they are often expressed and consequently require to be addressed on an individual basis. Failure to do so could result in some young people becoming marginalized within society as noted by Driers and Cicone (1988) who commented that, "while the United States had been rediscovering education as a major instrument available to develop productive citizens and a productive workforce through modifying the structure and organization of schooling, it failed to address the diversity of individual characteristics and needs" (p.3).

2.4. Return of Vocational Education.

Despite the rejection of vocational education at the end of the 1930's by Victoria, New South Wales and Queensland, it was back on the agenda in the 1980's in response to the Federal Government's macro-economic program for education, employment and training. In 1985, the Federal Government announced a new target for school retention. The government anticipated that by the 1990's, sixty five percent of students would remain at school to complete year twelve. However, as Ashenden (1989) noted, the target did not specify which students, it was assumed it would relate to students in general and not specific groups. The targets, argued Williams (1987) "places attention on those who are succeeding in education rather on those who are not, and those who do leave are the least successful learners" (p.110). And consequently, the outcome was argued Ashenden (1989), that "some students have remained at, or returned to school because they can find no where else to go, but having stayed, they find no reward or interest in their studies and exhibit many problems associated with discipline" (p.8).

The release of the Finn Report (1991) called for more vocational education in an increasingly practical world. The report stated that the economic crisis had encouraged an examination of the capacity of Australia's schools and post-school systems to deliver highly trained employable entrants to the work-force. The report proclaimed a new educational philosophy. It proposed that the most successful forms of work organizations are those which encourage people to be multi-skilled, creative and adaptable. The report also noted that "the old Anglo-Saxon tradition and its apprenticeship model saw vocational and general education as separate" (Finn Report, 1991, p.5). It was also anticipated that, with the release of the report there would be "an extraordinary avalanche of policy development and implementation triggered by the joint impacts of rapidly increasing school retention, labour markets and work-place reform" (p.11). However, as Bantick (1992) noted, "while the economic crisis encouraged an examination of the capacity of Australian education to deliver highly trained employable entrants into the work-force, many school leavers cannot read, write, count or present themselves with confidence or proficiency to employers" (p.10).

The Finn Report (1991) promoted the need for young people to develop "a set of key competencies regardless of the education or training pathway they follow" (p.1). A general education which focused on processes and skills rather than content would, noted the Finn Report, resolve the tension between vocational and general education. The outcome of the report and its recommendations was the setting up of another committee chaired by Eric Mayer. The resultant Mayer Report (1992) "Putting General Education to Work" supported the idea put forward by the Finn Report (1991), that young people needed a set of competencies to enable them to effectively participate in the world of work and its organization. It also highlighted the need for a new emphasis to be adopted in general education that would provide the foundations for a multi-skilled, flexible and adaptable work-force.

Supporting the argument put forward by the Finn Report, the Mayer Report noted the need to move away from specialized jobs and separate functions, with the focus being

placed on creativity, initiative, enterprise and the ability to think critically in relation to improved work practices. The philosophy behind the recommendations was that key competencies could be transferable. They were not trained behaviours, but mindful, thoughtful capabilities that would incorporate a sense of "the learner as one who builds concepts and develops understanding which could have technical applications" (p.5). The skills promoted could not, stated the Mayer Report, "be achieved through the use of behavioural learning theories which rely on low-level drill and reinforcement" (p.5).

The report supported the introduction of key competencies with the argument that "formal learning, while the desired means was not appropriate to all, and therefore the acquisition of the key competencies could be gained from a wide range of less formal methods and alternative routes of learning" (p.32). However, it did not set out any criteria on how to implement the recommendations other than through "already established guidelines within the training sector" (p.32). Emphasizing that the key competencies are essential for effective participation in emerging patterns of work, the Mayer Committee also noted that not all young people would have access to traditional school and training programs. Specifically mentioned were the difficulties of young people who displayed behaviour problems or who were considered to be at risk in other areas of their lives to such a point that it would impact upon them completing their formal schooling. A similar group of young people that the Carney Report identified could benefit from educational opportunities in Youth Training Centres if a more diverse range of curriculum choices were offered. Young people identified by the Mayer Report as "a group who have traditionally been disadvantaged in education and training" (p.39).

However, ambiguity and inconsistencies exist in the Mayer Report as it states that, "key competencies could provide an effective bridge between general education, vocational education and training with greater flexibility of movement between

education and training pathways, or they could lead to the construction of further barriers to flexibility" (p.47). It also stated that "it is not expected that the school sector will require significant changes to the curriculum, as opportunities to develop the key competencies exist with the current curriculum" (p.42). Such ambiguity acts to reinforce the view put forward by Marginson (1992) that the call to competency in education is a type of confidence trick. It is, he argued, time to recognize that the whole curriculum is for some the subject of conflict.

Vocational qualifications had increasingly become an important area of public policy in the United Kingdom (Keep & Mayhew, 1994). However, as Spilsbury, Morale and Evans (1995) noted, a number of significant concerns and criticisms had arisen regarding the nature and implementation of the qualifications. There is, the researchers argued, a narrowness of the occupation standards on which the qualifications are based. A situation that, according to Robinson (1996), had arisen as a result of the failure to bring about a coherent and integrated system of training. The emergence of competency based vocational education and training qualifications derived, according to Wolf (1995), from a tradition of behavioural educational psychology in the United States of America. However, according to Fowler (1979), it can be associated to the decline in the number of jobs available for young people that resulted from the economic recession that developed in the mid 1970's. This, he argued, highlighted the problems experienced by low educational achievement in the education system (Fowler,1979). There was concern that the education system was failing to mitigate low achievement and the new concept of vocational education was, he concluded, a joining of the human and socially aware brigade to educate the disadvantaged on the one hand, and on the other, to create a system of vocational relevance.

Although the concept of occupational competence was vague at the time, Fowler, (1979) argued, the idea that it might have an important part to play in preparing young people for the labour market was responsible for ensuring that it received a considerable amount of attention among policy makers. The desire to align education with the needs of industry was a major imperative and the emergence of competency based qualification was in part an outcome of this (Fowler 1979). While the long term economic, institutional and political factors provided the context for the freedom of vocational education and training on competency based lines, the most imperative reason arose according to Ainley and Corney (1990), from the politically driven necessity in the early 1980's to mitigate, in the short term, the impact of rising levels of youth unemployment. A problem that has in Australia according to Carson, Jamrozik and Winefield (1998), been a topic of public concern for a quarter of a century. Policy initiatives, volumes of research reports and the ongoing rhetoric of concern and good intentions have they argued, "turned into a rather meaningless ritual and there is nothing on the horizon to suggest that the situation might change. The multitude of programs devised by Australian governments over the past decades has been one big failure after another, and the failures have been predictable because the obvious causes of youth unemployment have been deliberately ignored" (p.9).

According to Carson, Jamrozik and Winefield (1998), unemployment is an unavoidable logical outcome of the 'free' market economy, especially in periods of rapid technological innovation and corresponding changes in the mode of production and restructuring of industry. Nevertheless, rhetoric, at least educational and political rhetoric continues to play an important role in sustaining the ideological commitment to the concept of globalization and maintaining a global economy. The modern nation state argued Esland, Flude and Sieminski (1999), requires a highly trained and flexible workforce in which knowledge and people-based skills form the basis of a self-perpetuating society. The effects of two decades of such neo-liberal philosophy and legislation have, the researchers argued, merely strengthened the power of employers in their pursuit of efficiency, greater flexibility and greater productivity. And

consequently, one could have a problem taking at face value the view by educational policy makers that vocational qualifications achieved through competency-based skills, as supported by the Mayer Report (1991), are appropriate to meet the requirements of a highly skilled workforce in a global economy.

As noted by Field (1995), the vocational curriculum in the United Kingdom has maintained its traditional status. He argued that, despite an increase in post-compulsory school enrolments in the 1990's, the new training programs have little relevance to the different employment situations in which young people find themselves. Because, he argued, it is in the employers' interest to provide narrow, job-specific training to minimize the risk of losing their trainees and forfeiting their investment. While Green (1990) argued that, vocational education is essentially seen by many as a means of keeping young people out of the labour market, Hutton (1995) concluded, "the new qualifications, while promoted as offering wider opportunities for access to training, are concentrated on the accreditation of low level skills which do not meet current let alone future occupational requirements" (p.5). While competency based vocational education may not, argued Hickock and Moore (1990) create a genuine skills revolution, they could increase the overall supply of credentials in the system. The net effect being, they concluded, would be to undermine people's confidence in the value of credentials and of extended education and careers training.

Ashton and Green (1996) argued that the promotion of vocational education requires a concerted commitment by both government and employers to provide a generously funded system of education and training. This could then, they argued, create an environment in which employers are committed to the effective utilization of high level skills. They argued that in the United Kingdom this has not been forthcoming. The reason for this, the researchers suggested, was the absence of a national approach to training underpinned by the necessary statutory frame-work governing the roles, rights and responsibilities of different parties. Green (1990) argued that there had been a

return to the voluntary principles of the pre 1964 period, coupled with an absence of effective collaboration between the partners to promote the policy. This absence of a strong culture and a lack of power by employer associations to enforce a common code of practice, tempered with low motivation by participants to complete courses has, argued Williams and Ruggatt (1998), resulted in problems attracting employers to recognize and promote vocational education qualifications. This situation is in contrast to that noted by Green (1990) who concluded, Germany has a system where vocational education has a strong centralized system of regulation, which through tradition, has social partnerships allied to strong state control and coordination.

2.5. Political Rhetoric or Control.

The development of legislation, whether in the form of educational or welfare provision is according to Sargent (1983) a form of socialization. Van-Krieken (1991) argued that welfare legislation was merely an extension by the state of social control, while the continued control of apprenticeships through legislation was, according to Sherington and Irving (1989) "an attempt to regulate the juvenile labor markets and guide youth into appropriate occupations as had occurred in the late nineteenth century" (p.14). Nevertheless, the education system argued Sargent (1983), plays an important part in socialization in so much as the knowledge it transmits prevails as the correct view in a given society. It is also he argued, a system "masquerading as knowledge which legitimizes the resulting inequality as an integral part of the whole stratification process which determines position and power in society" (p.133). Or is it merely a system that like all other enterprises needs to exhibit "economic productivity and competitiveness" (Mayer Report p.10).

2.6. Conclusion.

The arguments put forward in this chapter have considered the political debate and interest that has existed for over one hundred years in relation to youth crime. It has been argued that the continued debate and development of youth policies was as much a form of social control, as it was to provide support, protection, education and rehabilitation for young people who were identified as being at risk because of the behaviours they exhibited. Having acknowledged that youth crime has always been a serious problem, the chapter referred to the view put forward by several researchers that, the aim of policies developed throughout the twentieth century were to create 'productive citizens'.

It was noted in the chapter that the Carney Report was viewed as a 'blueprint' for the delivery of services and support for children, young people and families in Victoria. Despite the report's severe criticism of policy implementation and the delivery of welfare services in the decades leading up to the 1980's, all its recommendations that welfare services should be more focused toward meeting the needs of the different clientele it attracts, were accepted by the government of the day. And consequently, the report became The Children and Young Persons Act (1989).

The focus of the report was on prevention, with support for children, young people and families in the community being a priority. However, as noted in the chapter, a difference in the legislation that resulted from the Carney Report compared to previous legislation, was the need to divert young people away from the criminal justice system. While various options were made available to the courts, the committee was realistic enough to recommend that if the need did arise, then young people could be placed in a custodial placement. However, it was emphasized that it was to be the last resort and only used when no other option was suitable in the circumstances.

However, as with all services that are the responsibility of government bodies, the report acknowledged that the successful implementation of its recommendations would require government support irrespective of the government of the day's political persuasion, financial resources and in this instance, community support.

The focus of the Carney Report and its provision of services for young people, who, as a result of their behaviour could find themselves in a custodial placement, was that programs and support should be provided for them to develop skills that could assist them become independent once they were released into the community. However, it was noted in the chapter that programs to develop skills at an educational and vocational level for problem youth was nothing new. Programs with similar aims had been tried throughout Australia by several state governments for decades in anticipation that they would create 'productive citizens'.

The chapter referred to several researchers who noted that, historically the development of welfare policies were not the result of socially conscious governments providing for the unfortunate element of society, but instead, were society's response to the fear felt by some citizens that a disassociated and disadvantaged population could create a surge in criminal activity. It was from this prospective that services were developed for the people by the people, and voluntary and charitable organizations were created.

The services provided by the charitable organizations, which as noted in the literature were created in an attempt to curb society's panic, provided what at the time were considered socially just provision and protection. It was also noted that as the twentieth century developed and the problems associated with youth expanded, various forms of supervision, control, programs and support came and went through legislative provision, but the problems of youth and crime remained.

The idea that education in its various forms, along with alternative provisions of treatment for the young people would control delinquency, was, by the 1960's and

1970's accepted as not the answer. As many researchers noted, it was at last being accepted that the problems were not entirely the fault of youth. Keeping young people busy through education, activities and vocational development was not keeping pace with the social and cultural changes that were occurring throughout Australia and other developed societies. Unemployment was, as some researchers argued being viewed as an unavoidable consequence of change. However, the educational component of policy development, so prominent throughout the early decades of the twentieth century as a deterrent to crime, once again surfaced as a major policy initiative through the publication of the Mayer Report, with its focus on providing young people with skills to prepare them for the employment market. A focus that re-emerged at the end of the century, despite having lost its impetus as a major deterrent to crime in the 1960's and 1970's.

Whether the recommendations by the Carney Report that programs and support should be available to young people both inside and outside institutions, to assist them develop the skills necessary to achieve an independent life, can, as some other researchers have suggested be associated with other policies as a form of social control through legislation has yet to be assessed. However, an effective remedy to reduce crime is unlikely to result from the recommendation put forward by the Mayer Report. As overseas studies have shown, competency based skills similar to those proposed by the Mayer Report have not been as successful as initially hoped by the policy makers of the day for the general population. For the young offender, who in many instances may exhibit problems in educational achievement and in other areas of their personality, the situation could well be beyond the recommendations put forward by the Carney Report to assist them, unless the programs can be designed to meet specific needs exhibited by individuals. Before this can occur, the specific needs and problems exhibited by young people need to be understood and identified, along with any deterrents that can overcome the variables that influence the behaviour they exhibit.

CHAPTER 3. WHAT CAN BE DONE TO PREVENT FURTHER OFFENDING?

The prevention of delinquency continues to be a concern for many societies and the questions being asked are, can the courts prevent further offending and is there a relationship between unemployment and delinquency? The Carney Report noted of those who do offend, very few continue to offend into adulthood. A view supported by O'Connor and Tilbury (1986) who concluded, juvenile offending does not inevitably lead to an adult career. Proposing three levels of Intervention Orders designed to divert young offenders away from the formal system of justice and hopefully recidivism, the Carney Report acknowledged that when young people do become involved with the justice system there needs to be set standards whereby the punishment does not exceed the gravity of the crime. While the report recognized that sentencing guidelines should be designed to minimize the necessity to place young people into custodial sentences, it also acknowledged that for those young people who do become involved and where it is considered that a community based sentence is not appropriate, a custodial sentence at a Youth Training Centre is an option available to the courts.

To answer the question can the courts prevent further offending, consideration needs to be given as to what structural influences and constraints need to be in place in society to prevent delinquency. Because according to Colthart (1996), how to assist young people and divert them away from anti-social and criminal activity is an increasingly debated question in most western societies.

3.1. Can The Courts Prevent Further Offending?

Imposing a custodial sentence upon a young person is in itself controversial. If one accepts that the function of the courts is to implement the law, its responsibility according to O'Connor (1990) is " to dispense justice to the victim, offender and the community along with satisfying calls for punishment, retribution and rehabilitation" (p.12), then one needs to balance this with the view put forward by Shelves (1990) who

concluded that, "rehabilitation is no longer seen as an achievable goal for young people sentenced to Youth Training Centres" (p.12). Ray and Downs (1986) noted from their study that young people who were placed in an environment for detaining young offenders believed they gained status in being labeled a delinquent. They concluded that individuals perceived the label as aiding in their identification and strengthened their cohesion within the group. Giordano, Cernkovich and Pugh (1986), found that the development of solidarity and the desire to satisfy peer expectations, resulted in the participation of delinquent and deviant activities by some young people as a way of helping to isolate themselves from rejection and ridicule by society once back in the community.. However, Mukhergee and Wilson ((1990) argued that, "the rehabilitation of juvenile offenders still remains the preferred objective of the overwhelming majority of the community" (p.56). The focus being, argued the researchers, "less on long terms of confinement for juvenile offenders and more on programs and treatment that will help youth become abiding citizens" (p.56). With respect to these views, one needs to consider the view put forward by Cohen (1985), that many young people had failed to respond to the non-custodial forms of intervention in the 1970's. It is ironic argued O'Connor (1990), that "the child savers who campaigned for the children's courts in the early twentieth century and the reformers of the 1970's, all placed great faith in the court system as a method of effectively transforming the treatment of young offenders" (p.13). However, as a report by the DHSS (1990) noted, court decision can only be as good as the evidence upon which they are based.

The level of poverty, suffering and abuse cannot be ignored in responding to juvenile crime. O'Connors and Tilbury (1986) found that "for a considerable number of young people interviewed, offending was a direct result of misery, oppression at home and the lack of a legitimate source of income or accommodation outside the home. Offending was an inevitable consequence of being forced to live on the streets" (p.16). Therefore to develop an understanding of youth that is based on the reality of young people's

lives, one is required to move beyond the discipline boundaries and the dualities that are imposed by traditional disciplines, and focus more on the connections and links between different aspects of young people's lives. Given the centrality of the judicial system and its role of dealing with and responding to crimes committed by young offenders, it is, argued O'Connor and Tilbury (1986), not surprising that the courts are "not conducive to prevent further offending" (p.14). With many young people ending up living on the streets as a result of being ejected from families because of problems, the researchers concluded that "attempts to toughen up the system through harsher penalties will fail to prevent further offending, such deterrents have been tried and failed" (p.15).

3.2. The Dilemma of Placement.

Having discussed the proposals put forward by the Carney Report to divert young people away from the formal justice system, it is also acknowledged that if a custodial sentence is administered, all be it as a last resort, then programs should be available within the placement center to enable young people develop the skills that will assist them achieve independence in the community after they have been released from their period of incarceration.

While the Carney Report recommended that young people should only be committed to a period of incarceration as a last resort in order to "minimize stigma", it also noted that for those who do end up with a custodial placement, the government has a primary responsibility for the care and protection of each individual. It concluded that "young people under state care should be provided with the same education opportunities as young people in the community, including a diverse range of curriculum choices".. it also noted the "need for practical assistance and programs designed to assist young people reintegrate into the community prior to their release, with agencies funded to provide and develop further programs to assist the reintegration process of young people into the community" (p.58).

The Carney Report covered the total perspective of welfare services and institutional practices, highlighting the need for an in-built policy of prevention through the provision of pre-institutional service and support for families. However, it also emphasized that when a young person is placed into a government facility, the physical and developmental needs of that young person must be met through a wide range of life skills, educational diversity and community support programs. This link would, they argued, assist the young people with the process of reintegration back into the community after being released. The report noted that such a continuum in the provision of institutional and community support programs would minimize the disadvantage faced by young people with institutional backgrounds in the labour market compared with other young people in the community.

A study carried out by Stein and Carey (1986) looked at the hopes, expectations and experiences of young people after they left institutional settings. Of the forty five participants in they study, fifty percent has spent between five and eighteen years in the care of local authorities in the United Kingdom. Many of the young people had experienced several care situations and care givers. Some had entered care at a young age as a result of family difficulties, had returned home only to be re-admitted into an institution in their teens as a result of criminal activities. Hansen (1979) also referred to the significant number of young people admitted into institutions who had previously experienced traditional care placements that had failed. These young people had, argued the researcher, exhibited behaviour and functioning that resulted in them being suspended or excluded from community services facilities. The view put forward by Monkman (1971) that there exists a need for some " continuity in the process of care" (p.327), is also supported by the Warner Report (1992), that noted the "high proportion of deprived, difficult and disturbed adolescents in residential institutions which would probably form an even larger proportion in the future" (p.165). The necessity for a link

in the provision of community and institutional services was supported by Mayer (1955) who argued that residential treatment was not an entity in itself, but a link in the total treatment process which included pre-institutional as well as post-institutional services. The link between the young person placed in a facility because they are 'at risk', and the young person whose 'at risk' behaviour has resulted in them being placed in an institution by the courts, has, according to Parker (1981) been overlooked. The result he argued has been a lack of efficient planning to meet the needs of both categories of person.

Dinnage and Pringle (1969) concluded that "physical separation and prolonged stay in an institution does not necessarily lead by themselves to character defects" (p.127). However, Dimmock (1993) did note that young people who had been in institutional facilities featured highly in studies of runaways, the homeless and the unemployed. He also concluded that "many have few, if any qualifications, although many are likely to have been disadvantaged before care, there is evidence that the care experience itself can further disadvantage them in such areas as leisure, education and training" (p.36).

3.3. The Residential Task.

The recommendations put forward by the Carney Report that detention facilities develop programs for life skills along with a diverse range of curriculum choices, places upon Victoria's Youth Training Centres the responsibility to provide programs to meet the needs of young people who exhibit deviant and anti-social behaviours. It also places upon the centres, the need to provide educational and vocational programs that will provide young people with the skills necessary to enable them compete in the employment market upon being released from their period of detention. For an institution to provide such a comprehensive array of programs geared to meet the needs of individuals on both a practical and therapeutic level, it would, argued Butlin (1975), need to have "a management structure flexible enough to allow for alterations in therapy, but not so flexible that the institution's structure becomes too flimsy to contain

the therapy. To provide any treatment in a residential setting, it is necessary to have a good flexible management structure within which a thought out theoretically based therapeutic program can be contained" (p.286). Strict discipline and regimental control will only temporarily succeed in outwardly containing the deviant and anti-social behaviour exhibited by many of its residents. This view was supported by Moos (1975) and Taylor and Alpert (1973), who argued that, conforming behaviour in a situation that demands conformity and implies enforcement is an unreliable indicator of future behaviour. However, Brown and Christie (1981) concluded, " if you provide the right environment and encourage the development of the right skills, you will produce desirable behaviour in place of undesirable behaviour, you can educate someone out of crime" (p.5).

Several studies have researched programs and therapy in residential settings. Maier (1975) and Cohen (1986) reviewed group therapy, while Algozzine and Sherry (1981); Smith and Wilcots (1982) and Cullinan, Lloyd and Epstein (1983) were all concerned with educational issues and the low level of educational achievement of children in care situations. However there is, argued Mayer (1977), "often little positive relationship between diagnosis of the problem and the treatment recommended" (p.75). To develop programs to meet the diverse needs of young people in Youth Training Centres that will assist them develop the life skills as recommended by the Carney Report, is argued Pavlak (1983), a complex process. The planning and delivery of such programs requires strategic assessment and evaluative techniques to address the interrelationship of variables that could influence the type, duration and intensity of the program design.

The diversity of each program would, argued Pavlak (1983), need to be multidimensional to compensate for both psychosocial development and educational deficits. Such programs would also he argued, need to support the highest range of behaviours and deficits within each individual's repertoire, while at the same time, fostering individual development. Because, as Larson (1988) noted, young offenders exhibit a higher prevalence of learning disabilities, hyperactivity and substance abuse, along with a deficit in the ability to solve problems.

To enable individuals develop life skills, it is necessary to utilize many capacities such as intellectual, emotional and physical capabilities. The importance of considering the holistic or 'whole person' approach when determining a program of skills to assist an individual achieve independence in the community has been noted by Jaques (1970). The researcher pointed out the difficulty of dividing people into different parts such as physical, mental, psychological, social and economic. She argued that the human development process is so dynamic that each of its continuing stages can influence the next. A thorough investigation of case histories could provide foundation data on which to design programs to meet all the needs of an individual, while addressing other problems that the researcher argued can cluster together. However, before one can design a program, it is necessary to consider and understand the research surrounding the development of individual behaviour.

3.4 Are Delinquent Behaviours Influenced by Unemployment?

The problems faced by young people who tried to enter the employment market after they have spent several years in institutions were highlighted by Stein and Carey (1986). The researchers noted that the young people in their British study displayed erratic patterns of behaviour caused by depression that resulted in poor time keeping, and ultimately caused the dismissal of many from their place of employment placement. Of the forty-five young people who participated in the study, several had never had a job of any kind and referred to the "boredom and depression of being unemployed that led to further depression and even guilt" (p.95). Wright and Headlam (1976), found that unemployed youth had difficulty dealing with large amounts of unstructured time and consequently, the result was often apathy, poor self-esteem and destructive behaviours. A study undertaken by Read and Alder (1988) that involved young offenders who had been released from Victoria's Youth Training Centres also supported the difficulties faced by young offender after they leave a custodial placement. The researchers concluded that institutionalism did have a profound effect on the employment prospects of young people released from Youth Training Centres. Findings from the study highlighted the deficits exhibited by the young people in the

areas of social and interrelationship skills that contributed to the inability of the young people to maintain a working relationship. Stein and Carey (1986) noted that the young people in their study also had to cope with "the negative qualification of being an offender and its contributing difficulty in the employment market" (p.95).

Another issue of concern highlighted by Read and Alder (1988) was the feeling of stigmatization felt by many young people who also felt that it contributed toward the difficulties they experienced in gaining and/or retaining employment positions. Goldberg (1973), referred to the view held by educators and their allies in industry that the criminal careerist has little or nothing to offer the labour markets. While this label cannot be given to all young offenders, a view supported by the Carney Report that noted, very few young offenders continue with a criminal lifestyle into adulthood, anyone with a criminal history does, argued Griffiths (1991), face difficulties in gaining employment. The researcher concluded, "significantly more young people with a history of offending have low educational levels, unstable backgrounds, poor social skills, low self-esteem and have been previously institutionalized" (p.48). All these factors she argued, affect the ability of young people to obtain employment. Further to this she concluded, the experience of institutionalization can have a negative impact on young people developing social behaviours and decision making skills while promoting anti-social behaviours.

However, a longitudinal study conducted in the United Kingdom over a twenty year period known as the Cambridge Study concluded that, while offending amongst young people aged sixteen to eighteen years old was three times higher while they were unemployed compared to them being employed, young people continued to commit crimes even after they had secured employment. The reason for this, the study found, was that the offences being committed were for material gain. The only difference noted in the criminal activity carried out by the young people was related to the status

of the jobs the young people held, the higher the status level of the job, the lower the crime level. While the researcher noted that the findings drawn from the study were inconclusive, he concluded that "there is no reason why unemployment should not have an effect upon crime, and no reason why crime should not have an effect upon the employment chances of youth" (Nash, 1996, p.44).

3.5.Conclusion

Issues raised in the chapter surround the variables and structures within society, and the questions whether such structures and variables can impact upon delinquent behaviour. Reference was made to the Carney Report and its recommendation to implement programs and support in an attempt to divert young people away from criminal activity. A dilemma that, as previously noted has existed in many societies for decades.

As to whether the structural constraint used by society in the form of the court process and the justice it administers can impact upon continued offending, the conclusions put forward by various studies are inconclusive.

Some researchers such as O'Connors and Tilbury (1989), supported the view put forward by the Carney Report, that juvenile crime is not necessarily a long term career option for many. Yet despite this, the literature noted the stigma that surrounds the young offender in the employment market. The chapter referred to the pessimistic view put forward by Shelves (1990), that rehabilitation of the young offender once sentenced to a detention centre was unsuccessful. Some researchers noted that such a placement only acted to reinforce the cohesiveness of the group. While such a view was not, argued Mukhergee and Wilson (1990) supported by the community at large, such a placement, while the preferred option, should be part of a total treatment package. One view that was agreed upon was, that, irrespective of what option the courts chose to implement, tougher penalties were not the answer to reducing youth crime.

An issue that was conclusively supported was that programs and treatment were the way to proceed, providing the background and circumstances of each individual was thoroughly assessed. All the studies agreed that previous experiences by the young people often initiated their life of crime, or at least provided the impetus for them to continue. The chapter noted that if a custodial placement is chosen, it was important to provide ,ograms to enable the young people develop the skills that they needed to effectively function in society. It was this task by the residential institutions that was acknowledged by all the studies as an extremely complex process. Complex not only in relation to identifying the skills necessary to meet the deficits exhibited by the young people, but to provide a supportive and flexible environment in which to administer the programs. Also noted was the importance of continuity in the programs between institutions and post-institutional services.

In relation to the question whether there is a relationship between unemployment and delinquency, it was previously noted that some researchers regarded the connection as unavoidable. However, the studies referred to in this chapter found that the attitudes of the employers did little to improve the employment chances of the young offender. Consequently, such attitudes, coupled with the associated problems exhibited by the young people in their skills deficits, which ultimately impacted upon their ability to maintain any employment position they may have secured, did have a negative impact upon the ability of a young person with a criminal background to enter the employment market. And as noted, an abundance of free time often resulted in many problems, including destructive behaviours.

However, before one can identify the programs for individuals who exhibit specific deficits, it is necessary to consider the issues that can influence an individual's behaviour. To achieve this, it is necessary to consider the on-going debate that surrounds the heritable and non-heritable influences upon an individual's personality and behaviour exhibited.

CHAPTER 4. PERSONALITY TRAITS: HERITABLE OR NON-HERITABLE.

4.1. Is Delinquent Behaviour Pre-disposed?

Juvenile crime has always been and continues to remain a social problem, representing according to Swenson and Kennedy (1995), "an astronomical cost to society in damage to property, persons and treatment of the offenders themselves" (p.565). However, according to Sarris, Winefield and Cooper (2000) there exists little knowledge about specific behaviour problems and social skills deficits of adolescent offenders. This situation exists despite the continued discussion that surrounds troublesome youth and, according to Wyn and White (1997), the apparent relationship between biological and social processes. A situation that the researchers argued, is one of the most significant issues that confront the area of youth research. However, according to Sarris, Winefield and Cooper (2000) most research has focused on the general behaviour problems of anti-social youth. A situation that according to Johnson (1993), has developed because it "provides a useful summary of juvenile delinquency as a set of concerns about the activities of young people" (p.96).

Arguing that behaviour is engaged in on the basis of a calculation of all the factors that might influence the outcome, Wyn and White (1997) concluded that, young people will engage in offending behaviour if appropriate social controls are not in place to dissuade them from making the wrong choice. It is, the researchers concluded, related to the concept of 'risk taking' after making a "rational assessment of their chances of getting away with something" (p.68). Heaven (1994) on the other hand proposed that an assessment can be made as to why some people become involved in risk taking behaviours. It can, he argued "be measured in young people as a personality trait that can be associated with delinquency" (p.198). He also concluded that the problem areas associated with delinquency are located either in the individual as a deficiency, or within family relations. But whatever the reason, if the resultant behaviour deviates from the 'norm' as set down by society, then, according to Goffman (1963), an individual becomes labeled as deviant, and thereafter is stigmatized. A situation that is

unacceptable, according to the Carney Report when it noted the need to minimize the stigmatization of young people. A situation that according to the report, often resulted as a consequence of young people having served a custodial sentence. Nevertheless, the debate referred to by Wyn and White (1997) that surround the relationship between biological and social processes continues. And as it does so, questions remain unanswered as to what programs can best meet the specific needs of young people who exhibit the behaviour problems and social skills deficits referred to by Sarris, Winefield and Cooper (2000).

The intensity that surround the debate as to why heritable differences should be regarded by some as more important than non-heritable differences remains, according to McCrae and Costa (1996), unclear. Eysenck (1981) believed that it is the heritable argument that makes the individual different. He later argued that it is the personality that is responsible for extroversion and intractability of criminals and delinquents (Eysenck 1977). Shoemaker (1984) argued that an essential component of the biological approach to delinquency is that such behaviour is caused by some mechanism internal to the individual. This connection between organic and physiological factors and conditioning has, he argued, "been the subject of much theoretical and research interest" (p.31).

Research carried out by Glueck and Glueck (1950) that matched five hundered delinquent boys with five hundred non-delinquent boys on age, general intelligence, national origin and residence in under privileged neighbourhoods, concluded, the delinquent sample were less suggestible and less neurotic than the non-delinquent sample. But as a group, the delinquent sample had more emotional conflicts and were less adequate with respect to dealing with their deep rooted personal dynamics than the non-delinquent. In later research, they concluded, "while delinquency is caused by a combination of environmental, biological and psychological factors and associated with such characteristics as high levels if inadequacy and emotional instability, there is no

such thing as a delinquent personality" (Glueck & Glueck, 1956, p.17). A study by Edwards (1996), also measured the differences between a delinquent and non-delinquent control group. He concluded from the self-reported measurement data that the delinquent group participated in delinquent acts at a rate of eighty four percent compared to twenty nine percent for the control non-delinquent group. The researcher found that while limited opportunities experienced by the delinquent group resulted in frustration, alienation and a failure by them to achieve goals, as a group they also identified more aversive stimuli in their environment compared to the control group. In reviewing the rebellious behaviour exhibited by the delinquent group, he concluded, the behaviour exemplified a weak commitment to conventional norms, and the individuals believed that they would not lose by deviating from the social norms and therefore were more likely to participate in delinquent activities. In other words, as Wyn and White (1997) argued, that individuals embrace the concept of risk taking and engage in offending behaviour because appropriate controls are not in place to dissuade them. However, Heaven (1994) correlates the argument of risk taking to negative, unsocial and unacceptable behaviours. He argued that, "a single common factor accounts for problem behaviours and unconventionality in personality and social attitudes" (p.202). While Schauss (1981) argued, if delinquency is to be more fully understood and more effectively controlled, then more needs to be understood regarding the operation of the biochemical reactions on behaviour either independent of, or in conjunction with environmental factors.

Mills (1987) argued that developmental research reveals conclusively that at birth, children do not have a mind-set that pre-disposes them toward delinquency or any other form of deviant behaviour. In fact, he argued, they have a natural interest to learn and the ability to act mature in a common sense non-delinquent way. He also argued that they have a natural desire to use and expand their abilities in legitimate pro-social

directions. Furthermore, he concluded that the bulk of developmental research supports the conclusion that this natural state of healthy functioning includes a high capacity for learning new behaviours and skills. Mowrer (1950) argued that there are two basic learning processes. One he calls problem solving that occurs when a primary or secondary drive is reduced, the other he calls conditioning. Eysenck (1960), also attempted to exemplify the relationship between conditioning and personality through the use of learning theory. In later research he argued that the point in the conditioning that characterizes the introvert is social discomfort (Eysenck 1967). While Burgess and Akers (1966) concluded that, criminal behaviour is learned from groups that provide a source of reinforcement to the individual, Rodzinowicz (1966) argued, that to accept that criminal behaviour is learned, is too simplistic and simplifies the influence of individualistic factors.

While Willerman, Loelin and Horn (1992), noted that genetic studies suggest that the anti-social personality may be moderately heritable, at least as indicated by the Psychopathic deviate scale of the MMPI, Clerkley (1982) noted that according to the American Psychiatric Association (1994), the anti-social personality represents a cluster of personality traits that include, irresponsible and unreliable behaviours, egocentrism, impulsivity, an inability to form lasting relationships, superficial social charm and a deficit in such social emotions as love, shame, guilt and empathy. And according to Millon (1996), it is possible to differentiate between these traits in terms of their relative developmental level based on three criteria. This differentiation can be determined, argued the researcher, by the degree of self-focus, egocentricity and adaptive strategies used to satisfy needs. Gallagher (1990) concluded that people who experience negative emotions such as anxiety and depression, are more likely to appraise stressful situation as threats rather than as challenges. Swenson and Kennedy (1995) also found that such people are less likely to have positive treatment outcomes from intervention programs. However on the other hand, Watson, David and Suls (1999) argued, that people who experience high extroversion rely more on problem

focused coping strategies and view problems more as challenges. A group of people who, according to Wyn and White (1997), could make a rational assessment of situations and view risk taking merely as a challenge. People who, according to Watson and Hubbard (1996), are more likely to take action and engage in positive thinking and seek social support. The ability to identify such specific personality determinants is, argued Suls, David and Harvey (1996) important because it would provide interventionists with the ability to pre-dispose people to use certain strategies that could determine their ability to cope. This in turn, the researchers argued, could assist in the development of programs to meet individual needs. But as Buss and Grieling (1999) argued, individual differences can emerge from a variety of heritable and non-heritable sources, and evidence from behavioural genetics studies of personality strongly suggest that both are important.

4.2. Self-esteem: Is it Linked to Deviant Behaviour?

The ability to engage in positive rather than negative thinking can argued Kernis, Brown and Brody (2000), impact upon our optimal psychological functioning. It is therefore not surprising to understand the view put forward by Anderson (1994), that low self-esteem has been implicated in such diverse psychological functioning as delinquent behaviour. While research has surrounded the association between family characteristics and delinquency, Peck, Laws and Mills (1987) support the view that delinquency appears to be related to a common set of social psychological variables, of which self-esteem is one. A view supported by McFarland and Ross (1982), who also argued that failure and success affected pride and could be highly associated with self-esteem.

Brennan (1980), noted that adolescents who were forced to leave home and who also suffered from low self-esteem also suffered from an increased sense of powerlessness

and exhibited increased delinquent behaviours. However, Benda (1990), rejected the argument that "people are homeless and experience certain problems as a result of a long evolving history of deviance" (p.39). This assumption he argued, is "based on the theoretical perspective that homelessness is primarily the result of choice and consequence which has evolved from such deviant behaviour as crime and drug use" (p.39). If one accepts the conclusion of several studies that have connected self-esteem to such behaviours as, substance abuse (Higgings, Clough & Wallerstedt, 1995); anxiety and depression, (Tennen & Hertzberger, 1987); anger, hostility and aggression, (Kernis, Grannemann & Barclay, 1998), and relationships; (Griffin & Bartholomew, 1994), then, argued Roberts and Monroe (1992), unstable self-esteem is a diathesis for depressive symptoms among individuals with an abundance of everyday adversities. A situation that is, argued Rosenberg (1986), reflected in the short term through experiences. A view also supported by Baumgardner, Kaufman and Levy (1989), who found situational factors could lead to changes in self-evaluation. Coopersmith (1967) argued, a person's self-esteem, while remaining constant over a period of several years could change in certain circumstances. He concluded, "sudden and drastic changes in a· person's situation temporarily inflate or deflate self-esteem, this in turn impacts upon an individual's behaviour" (p.3). This view also supports the theory put forward by Barnett and Gotlib (1988) that, "aversive events may precipitate depressive symptoms, especially among individuals with fragile or vulnerable self-esteem" (p.119). It is such fragility in one's level of self-esteem that can, according to Anderson (1994), have implication in such diverse psychological functioning as delinquent behaviour. The view that self-esteem can fluctuate has been discussed for decades with James (1890) having referred to self-esteem as a barometer reacting to one's emotions. The extent to which self-esteem fluctuates has been the subject of investigations by Savin-Williams and Demo (1983). The researchers concluded that self-esteem fluctuates only slightly

around a general stable self-esteem. The stable base-line from which such fluctuations can occur depends, according to Wells (1988) upon with whom individuals were interacting along with the interpersonal context of such social contacts. However, Watson (1998) argued that, "while self-esteem is an important variable that has been related to many psychological disorders, it has not been sufficiently researched in relation to personality disorders" (p.402). He concluded from his study that there was a lack of relationship between low self-esteem and antisocial, narcissistic personality disorders. However, the view put forward by Bennett (1988), was that narcissism is positively related to self-esteem through the need for dominance, power and exploitation. A view also supported by Raskin, Novacek and Hogan (1991) who argued that, while narcissism can represents a form of self-esteem regulation, exploitation and entitlement are some behaviours that narcissists use to protect themselves from self doubt and depression. Thus, if one accepts the argument put forward by Beaumeister, Smart and Boden (1996), that early inflated or fragile high self-esteem, when coupled with an ego threat can set the stage for a wide range of aggressive and anti-social behaviours, including delinquency, then one can understand the view put forward by Wink (1991), that high self-esteem may be counter-productive if it is associated with narcissism, anti-social or other delinquent behaviours.

4.3. Conclusion.

Issues discussed in this chapter surrounded the arguments put forward that relate to the reasons why some individuals behave in a manner that is considered by many to be deviant. Discussions surrounded the long-standing argument relating to the biological and social processes, the heritable versus non-heritable factors that influence behaviour. Issues considered included the argument put forward by Wyn and White (1997) that young people engage in offending behaviour out of choice. The implication being that they make a rational assessment of the situation and all the relevant factors associated with risk taking. On the other hand, Heaven (1994) argued that many behaviours exhibited by young people and associated with delinquency can be measured as a personality trait. And consequently is of the opinion that such problems are located

either in the individual as a deficiency or within family relationships. However, Mills (1987) categorically supported research that revealed there is no pre-disposition toward delinquency or any other form of deviant behaviour. He even suggested that the human natural state is for one to act in a mature non-delinquent way, and that humans have a natural ability to act in a pro-social manner. On the other hand, Willerman, Loelin and Horn (1992) argued that genetic studies support the view that anti-social behaviour may, in the very least, be moderately heritable. Some research supported the view that behavioural traits could be differentiated by using specific criteria. If such a view can be supported, it could, as noted, be invaluable to the success or otherwise of intervention programs. Because, having the ability to differentiate specific characteristics and their associated behaviours, would enable the development of programs to be designed to meet specific objectives that in turn, could target individual needs and deficits.

The skills content of programs to meet individual needs is an area of research proposed by the current study. It will be carried out in an attempt to evaluate the effectiveness of the programs that are offered in Victoria's Youth Training Centres, and their relevance to assisting young people reintegrate back into the community after being released from a custodial placement.

The psychosocial variables, many of which according to Peck, Laws and Mills (1987) can influence self-esteem were also issues considered in the chapter. The issues were viewed in relation to their influence upon an individual's behaviour. Although Watson (1998) supported the view that self-esteem could be related to psychosocial disorders, he refuted the suggestion that it is related to personality disorders. He argued that the assumption could not be supported through evidence. However, Bennett (1988) argued that there did exist a relationship between self-esteem and such personality disorders as narcissism, the need for power, dominance and exploitation. Behaviours, according to Raskin, Novacek and Hogan (1991) that are exhibited by individuals as a consequence of their need to protect themselves against self doubt and depression.

The studies reviewed in this chapter are inconclusive as to which is the dominant factor in influencing behaviour, heritable or non-heritable characteristics. While some researchers viewed the whole debate as irrelevant to the actual outcome, others such as Buss and Grieling (1999) argued that both are important.

The current study will consider any affect the programs offered in the Youth Training Centres may have upon the self-esteem of young people during their period of incarceration. It will also evaluate any changes that may occur in the self-esteem of the young offenders after leaving the Youth Training Centres during a period of reintegration back into the community. Consideration will be given to any fluctuation that may occur in an individual's self-esteem as a consequence of the changed circumstances that have resulted from the period of incarceration. The study will assess the theory put forward by Coopersmith (1967) that "sudden and drastic changes in a person's situation temporarily inflate or deflate self-esteem" (p.3).

As noted previously, one of the complex tasks of the residential setting is to determine a program to meet individual needs. Having considered the studies in this chapter, the identification of programs and their process of implementation could be crucial to the whole rehabilitation process of the young offender. One of the main responsibilities of an institution is to develop programs that will meet the needs of its residents.

CHAPTER 5. DEVELOPING THE PROGRAMS TO MEET NEEDS .

5.1. The Identification of Skill Deficits.

Having considered the arguments that surround the heritable and non-heritable factors of delinquent behaviour, along with the affect that self-esteem may have upon behaviour, further issues that need to be considered are how can the programs be designed to best meet the needs of individuals who exhibit an array of complex individual characteristics. If one accepts the view previously mentioned by Mills (1987) who supported the research that concluded, there is no pre-disposition toward delinquency or any other form of deviant behaviour, then the focus of program development and implementation in the institutions could be purely based on replacing existing behaviours with new behaviours and skills. Because, according to Mills (1987), an individual has the natural ability to learn new behaviours and skills. However, if one accepts the view that problems are, as noted by Heaven (1994), located either in the individual as a deficiency or within family relations, then the process becomes more complex. Such a process would then need to consider the view put forward by Suls, David and Harvey (1996), that is, specific personality determinants could be targeted through programs aimed at specific skill development.

The implementation of programs to target specific skills that will reduce the propensity by young people to engage in delinquent and deviant activities, has, argued Semmens (1990) been organized around the belief that young people develop the skills through such activities as, employment and educational programs, social interaction and relationship skills as well as leisure management skills. However, as O'Connor (1990) argued, the approach to reduce young people's participation in delinquent behaviour by supplying them with some missing factor from their social or physical environment assumes that certain reinforcements such as a job, education, self-esteem, values or moral conscience are the missing links. A view also supported by Agnew (1985), who concluded that delinquency assumes the absence of certain external constraints or limits

on the behaviour of the offender. The absence of which could be why Wyn and White (1997), supported the theory that young people make the choice to engage in behaviour if appropriate controls are not in place to dissuade them .

Walters and White (1989) supported the use of a variety of techniques, rituals and discussions to be used to monitor, analyze and dispute the offender's criminal belief. They argued that such a process would assist the learner to identify and abandon thinking patterns that have previously misguided their behaviour. The researchers concluded that, cognitive therapy programs, rewards through positive reinforcement combined with punishment, based on operant conditioning programs would effectively teach social skills, provide values, clarify thinking and offer cognitive restructuring. However, Kelley (1993) argued, that while these learning and social process theories may be on the right track, they appear to lack the understanding that replacing bad thoughts with good thoughts, altering the frequency, intensity or duration of pro-criminal thoughts and relationships or strengthening positive beliefs with regard to primary socialization, all miss the point. They do not, the researcher argued, result in any transformation at the level of understanding, "offenders merely move in and out of a belief system while staying exactly at the same level in their thinking...the process only works to reinforce the level of understanding that creates the problem of delinquency in the first place" (Kelley, 1993, p.451). A process, according to Mills (1990) that is ultimately the result of the ego and insecurity fostering and maintaining all forms of dysfunctional behaviours.

Before a program can be designed to meet the needs of an individual, the first service is to define the skill deficit of each individual. To achieve this outcome, Rubins and Roessler (1979) put forward a sequential procedure for using evaluative data for client goal setting in the rehabilitation planning process. The authors felt that for professionals to make a 'proper fit' of programs to meet the needs of clients, a thorough understanding of clients during the assessment phase is required. In designing individual treatment plans they emphasized the need for five types of examination

during the assessment phase. These were, the intake interview, the general medical examination, a medical specialist examination (optional) a psychological examination and the exploration of vocational objectives. Such an approach would, the researchers argued, focus on the client's work attitudes, behaviour and skills as they relate to potential vocational roles. A process that should, the researchers concluded, "facilitate activities which move the client from the exploration to the selection of vocational objectives" (p.39). Such a comprehensive assessment would provide what Strickland (1969) regarded as a process of vocational rehabilitation comprehensive enough to deal with the clustering problems of the human being's holistic nature. A total vocational rehabilitation program should also incorporate what Cooper and Harper (1979) referred to as work adjustment skills. These skills are considered necessary to assist the client succeed in the work location, the skills are: the ability to work independently, appropriate response to supervision, the ability to get along with others, good work persistence and adequate frustration tolerance. These skills are also highlighted in the Mayer Report (1992) as competency based skills. Once comprehensively executed, a vocational rehabilitation program should argued Wright (1980), be a service that helps clients overcome and adjust to their functional limitations. Such a service could then avoid what Sohoni (1977) referred to as, a situation where the provision of services related to one aspect of a person's functioning without considering other aspects of their independence can result in a failure of the rehabilitation effort.

5.2. Transfer of Skills

The assessment of an individual to determine his or her existing and anticipated level of functioning is, argued White (1981), "one of the most difficult of residential tasks" (p.21). However, the acquisition of further skills is, argued Logan (1990), highly specific to experience and therefore the transfer of those skills can vary in terms of the specificity of the skills. He argued that unless an event has been experienced during training, the transfer of skills relating to that event would be restricted. This view was not supported by Anderson (1993) who argued that skill knowledge is abstract and can be applied beyond the experience of training.

Determining a course of treatment for young people with problems can present difficult diagnostic and case management decisions. In a residential setting, a young person can be helped twenty-four hours a day, seven days a week. However, Taylor and Alpert (1973) questioned the lasting effects of such treatment once the young person had left the residential placement. A view supported by Moos (1975) who concluded, "treatment oriented programs whereby residents show maximum in-house improvements may not be the same programs that achieve maximum results on community functioning criteria such as parole performance" (p.127). This view was also supported by Mills (1987), who argued, that the positive results of programs achieved for 'at risk' youth in a controlled environment, have not been shown to generalize to a natural setting, "the failure of programs to attend to influences in the post-release environment permit the undoing of gains made within the programs" (p.327). Roberts (1999) argued that a failure to attend to this process would inhibit the young people from coping with events and prevent them rising above adversities. Williams (1972) argued that, keeping people adjusted to work situations that are not similar to the real work environment probably only prepares them for sheltered employment. Therefore, an important issue to consider when developing programs in institutional settings is to design programs that will develop skills individuals can transfer from the supported environment into community situations. And, if as Modcrin and Rutland (1989) argued, that the aim of developing skills is to ensure the successful integration of individuals into the community after their training period, then one must consider the view put forward by Wells and Miller (1993), that the teaching of the skills in the first place is all a question of timing.

5.3 When to Intervene with Skill Training.

Intervention programs for young adolescents exhibiting internalizing behaviour such as anxiety or depression tended to show less favorable treatment outcomes argued Swenson and Kennedy (1995), because adolescents exhibiting these behaviours tended

to view situations more as threats rather than as challenges. Therefore, intervention programs are less likely to have positive outcomes in situations where the adolescent is suffering from anxiety and depression, and attribute the failures they exhibit to themselves. However, in relation to externalizing behaviours such as aggression, treatment success was more favorable, argued the researchers, when they attributed the behaviour to themselves. Therefore, a critical element in providing successful intervention strategies for aggressive adolescents is, argued Wells and Miller (1993), timing.

The problem this causes is to ascertain when to teach self-management and when to provide the techniques to assist young people develop the strategies to manage their aggression and anger. An appropriate time would be as noted by Swenson and Kennedy (1995), when the young person is ready to accept and attribute the aggressive behaviour as their own responsibility. For many adolescents, highly aggressive behaviour is, argued Briere (1987) a daily life event and beyond their capability of altering without assistance. For intervention techniques to be successful, they must have the potential to maintain a greater power in social situations then do the alternative aggressive options that they use. For the aggressive, deviant adolescent, appropriate environmental conditions that can act as the control level as referred to by Wyn and White (1997) must, according to Wells and Miller (1993), allow the young person the freedom to tolerate negative environmental conditions, without exhibiting anti-social behaviours.

The important influence that self-esteem has in relation to cognition, has been highlighted by such researchers as Campbell, Trapnell, Heine, Katz, Lavellee and Lehman (1996) and Showers and King (1996). The researchers argued that self-esteem is associated with both the content and structure of self-belief and therefore consistently predicts patterns of thinking about one's own behaviour. Blaine and Crooks (1993) found that, the self-serving bias that characterized people high in self-esteem involves taking credit for one's own successes and denying the responsibility for one's failures.

Therefore the importance of timing is argued Swenson and Kennedy (1995), crucial to determine when an individual is high in self-esteem and exhibiting minimal anxiety or depression. This would make it possible to assess the individual's emotional ability to externalize their thoughts and aggressive behaviours and attribute the responsibility for the anti-social behaviours they exhibit to themselves, and thereby maximize the successful outcome of intervention.

5.4. Facing the Challenge

The Carney Report recommended that, "detention facilities develop a wide range of programs to develop life skills along with improved training programs that foster a community development role" (p.58). O'Connors (1990), noted that the deficits or dysfunctions experienced by many young people while still within the care-taking capacity of a family, through educational experiences or through the social environment, all contribute to the need for intervention programs, as much as to compensate for the individual's personality and social deficits. While young people cannot be protected from the stress of aversive life events, they can argued Roberts (1999), "be provided with the skills to cope with such events and hopefully rise above the adversities" (p.53).

To identify and focus upon specific skill deficits and their positive development involves a comprehensive process of assessment. Such a process would argued Briere (1987), assist individuals to gain a set of skills to provide them with the potential to maintain a greater power in social situations than do alternative aggressive or anti-social behaviours. Goldstein, Sprafkin and Gershaw (1976) argued, programs that focus on the explicit teaching of social skills could function as an optimal treatment approach for such adolescents, because desirable functional skills missing from their character could be successfully taught. Manster (1977) concluded that life skills which all young people must successfully master at school, work, in the community, with peers, family and authority figures are a complex series of personal and interpersonal

skills. These skills, the researcher argued, cover the realms of love, sex and peer relationships and include such social skills as listening, conversation and joining in. While the skills needed to deal with one's feelings are the ability to manage fear, express affection and understand the feeling of others, skills necessary for coping with stress are also necessary and will enable a person to deal with embarrassment and respond appropriately to failure. Goldberg (1973) argued that boys charged with delinquency frequently suffered from a deficit of simple social skills such as a lack of punctuality, persistence in routine and an inability to get along with others. He argued that paramount to developing self determination is a need for programs which modify this pattern of erratic behaviour, that is itself, frequently a symptom of an underlying personality disorder. While unreal expectations regarding one's ability to perform give rise to impulsiveness and a lack of stability often resulting in a lack of emotional control (Goldberg, 1973), this deficit can, according to Wright (1980), prevent young people interacting with individuals and groups in an acceptable manner. Read and Alder (1988) also noted from their study that many young offenders exhibit a deficit in social skills that in turn affected their community interaction with other young people. The researchers concluded that the young offenders lacked social skills of an elementary nature, including how to interact with others, maintain working relationships and how to behave appropriately in a social context.

5.5. Implementing the Program.

Impoverished social skills can be equated in stature according to Hops, Finch and McConnell (1985) with deficits to primary psychiatric symptoms. Whether labeled social skills training, anger management or behaviour modification, eliminating anti-social behaviours through pro-social skills training needs to be promoted in young people exhibiting such deficits. Acceptable social behaviour is argued Wright , Butler and Aldridge (1968), the degree to which an individual is able to meet and conform to personal and social standards set by the community. This may be achieved through a structured program designed to assist young people interact with individuals and groups

in an acceptable manner. The authors put forward the view that structured learning is a skills training approach developed to use with adolescents and other skill-deficient groups. It would address such behaviours as aggression, withdrawal, immaturity, unacceptable attitudes and emotions, all of which the researchers argued, involve a different pattern of social interaction and skill development. Kadzin (1987), supported this form of intervention for mild levels of dysfunctional behaviours, arguing that some young people have been treated with positive results. However, he also argued that severe levels of dysfunction are relatively immune to treatment options, a view also supported by Feldman, Caplinger and Wadarski (1983). The researchers concluded from their study that, no form of group treatment was appropriate for severely dysfunctional youth.

One of the first theories to treat deviance as learned behaviour which is possible to unlearn, was proposed by Sutherland (1939). He proposed that deviant behaviour, the motivations and the techniques learned via interactions with other primary groups could be unlearned through group learning techniques. Akers (1977) expanded the theory to specific learning process of behaviour modification and respondent conditioning through rewards and punishment. Changes could be achieved, the researcher argued, through group interactions or on an individual level. He argued that approval or disapproval through positive and negative responses were the important factors that determined behaviour. However, the implication for the utilization of this theory, whereby the focus is on the responses one receives, along with the methods put into place to control individual responses, would require young people on the program to be equipped with skills to perform responses to situations where the approval or disapproval was not an immediate factor in determining the individual's exhibited behaviour.

The progress made in understanding the relevance and usefulness of skills training has argued Shepherd (1990), enabled one to predict the outcome of rehabilitation programs. So despite the view put forward by Shelves (1990) that "rehabilitation is no longer seen

as an achievable goals for young people sentenced to Youth Training Centres " (p.12), the recommendation put forward by the Carney Report that Youth Training Centres are to provide the programs to meet the needs of young offenders, puts forward the challenge to at least attempt to provide programs to rehabilitate the young people. While the modification of the physical and social environment may provide an arena in which young people could make a rational choice regarding their behaviour, creating what Wyn and White (1997) referred to as an environment in which young people can make choices as to whether or not they should become involved in offending behaviour, as Mills (1987) concluded, positive results in such a controlled environment have not been shown to generalize to a natural setting. Nevertheless, Brown and Christie (1981) are of the opinion that, "if you provide the right environment and encourage the development of right skills, you will produce desirable behaviour in place of undesirable behaviour, you can educate someone out of crime" (p.5).

5.6. Social Skills.

Hops, Finch and McConnell (1985) equated social skills deficit with primary psychiatric symptoms, while Gratham and Elliott (1989) concluded, social skills deficits can be associated with a range of other skill deficits and the onset of emotional and behavioural problems. But whatever the reason, Sarris, Winefield and Cooper (2000) concluded from their study that, "social skills intervention programs were needed for young offenders" (p.22). The researchers argued that, through social skills development, intervention programs could target specific behaviour problems and skill deficits. The acquisition of social skills development is, argued Loeber and Dishion, (1984), essential by the time an individual reaches adolescence as it is the time when they are expected to have developed a variety of academic work and interpersonal skills. Failure to refine such skills, the researchers concluded, will have a detrimental effect on the individual's functioning and later adult adjustment.

5.7. Social Skills development through Cognitive Problem Solving .

One of the most successful programs with individuals is, according to Hawkins, Jenson, Catalano and Wells (1991), Cognitive Problem Solving Social Skills Training. This view is supported by Roberts (1999) who argued, "the identification of cognitive and social risk factors supports the use of cognitive behaviour strategies in prevention programs" (p.55). Although Hollins and Trower (1988) had previously argued that cognitive processing, while essential to successful social functioning, has yet to produce convincing evidence of long-term effectiveness and generalization to real life situations, Cnaan, Blankertz, Kessinger and Gardner (1989) concluded, behaviour is guided by thinking with the primary principle being the core determinants of emotions, motives and behaviours. The reaearchers concluded that is it all a conscious process, because people plan goals and these goals often affect behaviours, thus supporting the theory that all thoughts are a complex development of rational thinking. But, to accept the theory that behaviour can be guided by providing individuals with mental skills as opposed to providing them with practical skills does, argued Werner (1979), assume that each individual has the resources of strength and courage to strive for such a level of functioning and achieve the goal of self-actualization.

5.8. Functional Skills.

Goldberg (1973) argued, the skills an individual must have in order to achieve functional independence are those necessary to carry out essential daily activities, along with the ability to commit oneself to achieve desired objectives. However, Wright (1980) concluded that, functional independence also required an emotional control that would enable an individual to interact with others on both a group and individual level. Therefore the criteria of program content can be seen as relevant to developing functional skills to enhance independence if the skills promote a level of self care, self-determination and emotional control that promote one's physical, mental and emotional capabilities and enable an individual to function at a level to successfully complete daily activities.

5.9. Functional Skills and Vocational Rehabilitation.

Wehman, Kregal and Barcus (1985) argued, the application of a functional skills approach to vocational training stresses the development of skills used in the locally available employment opportunities, rather than teaching skills based on convenience in terms of the availability of instructors. They concluded that the training should not continue indefinitely, but that it should have a clear list of goals and objectives directed toward the acquisition of skills that can be used across a variety of settings.

People frequently lose their jobs argued Arden (1988), not necessarily because of an inability to do the job, but rather because of skill deficits in the emotional and interpersonal area of functioning. There is he argued, little relationship between 'work therapy' and competitive employment despite the outcome of vocational training generally, being considered by many, to be placement in a financially remunerative position in the least restrictive environment. A vocational rehabilitation program that includes counselling, interview skills, coaching and job development skills, while focusing on many relevant areas does not appear to place a major emphasis on work adjustment such as placement in an actual working environment (Jones, 1986). What is needed argued Arden (1988), is a total vocational rehabilitation package that includes not only work related issues such as punctuality, teamwork, communication and following directions, but also how one uses free time, understands nutrition, exercise and promotes further educational skills, along with housing and financial concerns. In short, he proposed a psychosocial vocational rehabilitation program that focuses on employment retention whereby the trainees have developed the ability to work successfully and cope simultaneously with the stresses of independent living.

There is argued McGurrin (1994) sufficient data to assert that vocational rehabilitation programs have provided some benefits to some client groups. A program of vocational rehabilitation intervention can be argued "positively affect the rehabilitation outcomes of recidivism" (p.49). However to achieve this, the program needs to address the

cumulative effects of functional deterioration and the increasing social withdrawal often experienced by many individuals suffering a skills deficit. Such behaviours the researcher suggested, can result in a lack of motivation, lack of goal directedness, helplessness, an entrenched fear of failure, difficulties in establishing and maintaining relationships, low self-esteem, poor judgement skills, poor work habits along with poor job-finding and job retention skills (McGurrin, 1994). This view was upheld by Stein and Carey (1986) who had found that the young people in their study exhibited problems in personal adjustment, frustration, feelings of inferiority and rejection. These, along with the negative feelings and attitudes exhibited toward them by others, impaired their ability to deal effectively with people in the work place. While the utilization of environmentally based training is essential, the successful transition of an emotionally disturbed individual requires the integration of two components (Weham, Kregal & Barcus, 1985). These are the researchers argued, the application of cognitive training to assist individuals with any emotional deficits they may have that could inhibit the application of functional skills. While Mayer (1992), recommended that a set of competency based skills were necessary to prepare young people for the work force, specific job skills are often required. While such skills should, argued Cooper and Harper (1979) focus on attitudes and behaviour, specific skills should also be developed that relate to particular vocational roles. A view supported by Wehman, Kregal and Barcus (1985), who argued that both would enhance the transition process from a restricted to a community environment.

5.10. Educational Skills.

While functional vocational skills programs develop practical skills around which many adult employment life styles are formed, educational programs provide skills that can provide an individual with a course of study aimed at them achieving a specified goal. These programs can be geared toward a vocational goal through the acquisition of a recognized qualification. In conjunction with the traditional curriculum, educational programs can also develop skills that facilitate functional independence

through basic literacy and numeracy skills while promoting an awareness to such issues as substance abuse and social skills development through the provision of an array of services designed to support individual and interactive behaviour. While education may be considered by many to be the key determinant of opportunity, the Mayer Report (1992) acknowledged that it has also disadvantaged many young people, who, through behaviour and academic problems are often prevented from continuing their education in a traditional environment. It is such a group of young people that the Carney Report recommended should be catered for through detention centres with, "educational programs covering a diverse range of curriculum choices" (p.58). However as Stein and Carey (1986) found, the value of educational qualifications necessary to obtain employment was often dismissed as irrelevant or a waste of time by the young people who participated in their study.

Education in general has, argued Driers and Cicconi (1988) "failed to address the diversity of student characteristics and needs" (p.3). This view is supported by Gallup (1985), who concluded that, there were basic skills that schools were not promoting. These skills he argued, included the ability to gain achievement at work, reaching for and attaining further education, coping with non-work along with coping and taking advantage of leisure time and successful participation in community activities. The educational environment should, the researcher concluded, promote experiences and attitudes toward work that assist young people understand their positive or negative feelings about work. This could then counteract what Hawkins, Jensen, Catalano and Wells (1991) referred to as the most common cause of job loss, unacceptable personal behaviours in the work place.

5.11. Non-Functional Leisure and Recreational Skills.

Non-functional leisure and recreational skills are necessary to complete the total rehabilitation process. They are skills that provide the individual with the capacity to constructively manage time after essential tasks have been completed. The role of non-

functional skills within the total rehabilitation model covers such disciplines as art, dance, music, sport and recreational activities. They are, argued Epperson, Witt and Hitzhusen (1972), skills an individual can participate in for pursuits that broaden life experiences. These skills, argued Wright and Headlam (1976) provide an individual with the ability to participate in social and recreational opportunities. The researchers noted from their study that unemployed youth have difficulty dealing with large amounts of unstructured time. They concluded that, constructively used, spare time could provide individuals with social and recreational opportunities to counter apathy and the destructive behaviour often associated with disaffected youth. Therefore argued Driers and Cicconi (1988), it is important to provide individuals with skills that will enable them take advantage of, and successfully participate in, community activities.

The conclusion that participation in sporting and recreational activities will deter young people away from delinquent behaviour was reached by Mason and Wilson (1988) and supported by Compton (1994). The researchers noted the growing body of anecdotal and empirical evidence that acknowledged the positive effects that participation in sport and recreational activities had upon 'at risk' young people. This conclusion, argued Layman (1974), is not surprising, considering that the participation in such activities has an important part to play in physical and psychological development. He concluded "the acquisition of motor skills can contribute toward meeting the basic psychological needs of safety and self-esteem in young children. Sport and recreational activities have the potential for promoting mental health and helping to reduce delinquency" (p.403). Colthart (1996) concluded that an extensive review of the literature relating to the effects of sport, camping or other outdoor activities involving 'at risk' youth found that in the short term there had been a decrease in recidivism and delinquent acts, an increase in social and interpersonal skill, and decreased feelings of hopelessness and boredom reported by the participants.

5.12 Conclusion.

Reviewing the studies that have surrounded the debate about the development of characteristics that may influence behaviour, the development of programs can become a complex process. Whatever school of thought the designer supports, whether it is the view that individuals have the ability to learn new skills because they have no pre-disposition, or, whether personality traits and family relations impact upon the individual's character and contribute toward the behaviour they exhibit, one thing is certain, if the last resort is implemented by the courts because a custodial placement is justified, then the primary purpose of placing the young people in an institution must be to provide them with some form of rehabilitation.

The process of providing young offenders with skills considered in the chapter, is not only to provide them will new skills, but to ensure the skills they are taught can be transferred and utilized in the community to assist them deal with the challenges they may face during their process of reintegration. To ensure this occurs, one consideration that was highlighted was the importance of timing.

The model of implementation of the programs aimed at developing the skills that the young people required, was in itself controversial. Supplying the missing link, as one researcher phrased it, through various rituals including cognitive therapy programs are dependent upon an individual's ability to restructure his/her thinking process. However, one thing is certain, all studies support the view that programs must be geared to meet individual needs, with the process of assessment being carried out at the start of the placement.

The process of assessment was referred to in the chapter as a challenge that institutions must face. An acknowledged method of assessing an individual's needs was put forward by Rubins and Roessler (1979), along with skills identified by Cooper and Harper (1979) that an individual would need to survive in the work place. The Carney Report recommended that the skills developed should enable a young person to achieve independence in the community. The chapter also noted the need that the programs

must compensate as much for an individual's personality and social deficits, as for developing their educational and vocational skills. To implement a program aimed at promoting programs to meet an individual's characteristic deficits, a structured process was considered by many researchers to be an appropriate method. This would, many argued, enable the individual to interact with others and develop behaviours that would be more acceptable to society. While all the skills could be developed within the safety of the institutional environment, it was also noted that skills developed in such a controlled environment are not always transferred to other situations successfully. This view was supported by Mills (1987) and others, who argued, that skills taught in one environment may not necessarily be useful in another. Therefore, the ability for young people to transfer the skills is an issue upon which the whole rehabilitation process could depend. As a failure to utilize the skills taught in the institutional environment in the real world, could impact upon the young people making an informed judgement about a situation as to whether or not they should get involved as noted by Wyn and White (1997). However, what the chapter did note was the elimination of such anti-social behaviours with skills that could counteract the deficits can be a difficult process, especially as such deficits are often equated with psychiatric symptoms. A variable considered important when determining an appropriate time to implement the programs.

As mentioned in the dialogue, understanding the relevance and usefulness of specific skills can enable an accurate prediction of the success or otherwise of the rehabilitation process. It will be the behaviour exhibit by the young people in the community during their process of rehabilitation that will determine whether they achieve independence or recidivism. The assessment process used by the Youth Training Centres at the start of the detention period of the young offenders to identify any deficits in their skills, is an area that the proposed study will consider. Also of interest are the programs offered in the Youth Training Centres whether the skills based content of the programs is sufficient to develop the skills of the young people to enable them succeed in the

employment market. It was also noted in the chapter that the development of skills in one environment, does not necessarily mean the skills can be transferred to another situation. Another area to be considered is whether the skills developed by the young offenders during their period of incarceration can be transferred by them and utilized in the community to assist them with the process of reintegration.

The Carney Report recommended that programs and support should be available in the community to assist the young offenders with the process of integration. It is therefore necessary to consider during the study the process of transition and the programs necessary to provide the recommended support.

CHAPTER 6. THE PROCESS OF TRANSITION FOR 'AT RISK' YOUTH

6.1. The Process of Transition.

Read and Alder (1988) concluded that, institutionalization had a profound affect upon the employment prospects of young people. The researchers argued that the problems they faced were often compounded by deficits in other areas such as educational attainment and psychosocial skills. A view supported by Griffiths (1991), who found similar deficits were common for many young people who have a history of offending. Therefore it is understandable that young offenders will experience multiple challenges as they leave Victoria's Youth Training Centres and attempt to reintegrate back into the community.

Without adequate preparation or established linkages to facilitate the transition process, many will fail or fall through the cracks of any support programs that are available in the community to assist them with the process. Yet, according to Parker (1981), the planning surrounding the process of transition whereby a young person leaves an institutional environment is overlooked. This occurs, he argued, irrespective of whether the placement was a result of them being placed there because they were 'at risk' or whether the placement was a result of the 'at risk' behaviours they exhibited.

White (1981) commented, "there can be little doubt that the preparation of young people for leaving residential institutions is one of the most crucial elements of the residential task" (p.21). He noted that the young people, while reintegrating back into the community face the pressure of finding accommodation, adjusting to a new job or to the strain of unemployment. A study by Godek (1976) of young people who had spent a considerable amount of time during their lives in government institutional and care facilities found that upon leaving compulsory care, many either tried to return to the residential placement or looked for an alternative form of institutional life. He interpreted this behaviour by the young people as an inability by them to sustain an independent existence due to maladjustment and immaturity.

The problems associated with young people having spent several years in institutions or care facilities through being considered to be, 'at risk' at a young age, were also highlighted by Stein and Carey (1986). Of the forty-five participants in their study, fifty percent had spent between five and eighteen years in the care of local authorities in the United Kingdom. The researchers found that many had experienced several care situations and care givers. Some had returned home only to be re-admitted into an institution in their teens as a result of their involvement in criminal activities. Many of the young people believed that their behaviour had deteriorated as a result of their experiences and admitted they had become anti-authority. Many of the young people interviewed by Stein and Carey (1986) were of the opinion that, upon leaving the residential environment, they would have the opportunity to renew damaged family relationships. However as the researchers found, the general tendency was that the period of time spent by the young people in the care placements made the separation more lasting and entrenched. Although forty percent lived with some member of their natural family upon leaving the placement, the percentage had decreased to twenty five percent within two years. This led the researchers to comment, "the most remarkable feature of the young peoples' lives during the study was the amount of moving they did from one new address to another" (p.87). Godek (1976) also discovered young people to be very mobile once out of care. The reason for the transient lifestyle was he believed, a result of accommodation, financial and employment problems.

Stein and Carey (1986) found the majority of the young people in their study, upon leaving care, never expected or wanted contact with community agencies, however they did initiate contact with agencies dealing specifically with finance and housing issues. It appeared from their comments that a shortage of money and the fluctuation they experienced between jobs and government financial benefits made long term planning and the setting of goals, impossible. The expectation by most of the young people that they would achieve an independent life was, according to Such, Utting and Lambert (1981), largely contradicted by their dependence on welfare agencies for help and support. A conclusion also reached by Bachrach (1984), who noted that the young

people in his study regarded the necessity by them to continue to receive support was an indication of their own inadequacy. Such, Utting and Lambert (1981), found that the young people in their study measured their own independence into the community as being successful if they could stay out of trouble and achieve, "the basics of secure employment, a stable relationship and a decent home" (p.48). Such criteria being difficult to achieve according to Mulvey (1977) who concluded from his study that "two thirds of the sample were suffering from depression and anxiety with almost the same percentage involved in delinquency after leaving the institutions who had been place there because of it" (p.28).

However, de-institutionalization argued Shoenfeld (1975), is an attitude that places a great emphasis on freedom, independence, individuality and interaction in a free society. However, as Stein and Carey (1986) concluded, "the dominant independent message of managing on your own and coping by yourself negated the significance of independence" (p.158). There exists a need concluded Brown (1984), to create a continuity from dependency to moderate independence with full physical and psychosocial independent living being the ultimate goal. However, individual members of any community have varying degrees of inter-dependency upon others within that society as a whole. Therefore, independence through rehabilitation quite simply means not being dependent upon any other person, an absolute condition argued Brown (1984), that cannot be attained. While a high level of self-care is important, humanitarian interrelationships cannot be overstated. The promotion of independence through rehabilitation is, argued Wright (1980), intended more than anything else to help individuals help themselves. This ideal could be achieved if all services were professionally coordinated and if recipients were made aware of all the facilities and programs that are located in the community to provide them with the support and assistance they may need during the rehabilitation process.

The low status attached to interpersonal skills by the institutions in the preparation of the young people to leave the care-placement and re-enter the community was,

concluded Stein and Carey (1986), detrimental to the rehabilitation process. The researchers found that, "young people giving as well as taking, getting on with others, negotiating with support agencies or anyone else where interpersonal and relationship skills were required was difficult" (p.158). The key ingredient to developing programs in the community appears to be, argued Semmens (1990), the availability of resources to continue the development of skills and training activities through employment programs, social relationships and leisure pursuits. Programs, the researcher argued, that had been initiated in the institutions and continued into the community. It is through this process he concluded, that social development strategies could be linked to mainstream community life and social situations, and prepare the young people for the reality of integration. The type of environment that could support such programs is, argued Linhorst (1988), one where existing skills are nurtured and further developed in an atmosphere where its members feel needed, have the opportunity to achieve success and where they can apply their skills to foster the development of relationships and stated goals.

6.2. Community Based Group Programs.

The Carney Report recommended that detention facilities should provide programs that could assist young people reintegrate back into the community, and that support services in the community should be funded to assist them with the transition process. This active reciprocity of relationship between residential institutions and the community could, if professionally coordinated engineer social change as well as individual change. This process could then break the cycle referred to by Miller (1964), where institutionalized patterns of behaviour continue to be compliant or hostile outside such environments. The successful process of transition by young people is argued Campbell and Basinger (1985), dependent upon such common factors as the sociological environment, role model influences, personal drive, and economic conditions.

The career development and training needs of young people in general may be seen to have been served by the development of competency based educational training skills such as those recommended by the Mayer Report (1992). However, the report paid little attention to the preparation and development of skills for delinquent youth to assist them enter the employment arena, despite as Pavlak (1983) argued, they are a group who also exhibit other problems often associated with delinquent behaviour. Problems that according to Griffiths (1991), impede young people at both an educational and employment level. According to Araza (1991), a standardized community based group program is unlikely to meet the needs of all young people in the same group. This is he argued, because the primary basis of the participation and program selection would not have resulted from a thorough and comprehensive assessment of each individual's needs.

A study by Collis and Griffin (1993) of a community group program in Mt Gambier, South Australia, that was specifically designed to meet the needs of young people who displayed an array of anti-social behaviours, concluded, "the failure of the program to retain participants leads us to examine the nature of community based group intervention programs for young offenders" (p.26). The Mt Gambier Program, funded by the Department of Employment, Education and Training aimed to provide specific goals through the development of skills aimed at conflict resolution, assertiveness training, work skills, budgeting, health awareness, communication and relationships skills, along with leisure activities to provide the young people with "an awareness of their position in society, and to assist them develop confidence in living independently" (Collis & Griffin, 1993, p.25). However, the researchers concluded, some individual factors among participants such as substance abuse and impending custodial sentences preclude a community based group program as the most appropriate intervention. This view was supported by Feldman, Caplinger and Wodarski (1983), who argued, some factors that inhibit success and preclude a community based program as the most appropriate to assist with the integration process are substance abuse and impending

custodial sentences. Putnins and Harvey (1992) also concluded that, "participation in such deviant behaviours as alcohol and drug abuse are common among young offenders" (p.28). The negative effects such a group can have on the successful outcome of a program was noted by Kazdin (1987). The researcher concluded, "if pro-social peer influences are to be fostered, it is critical that the peers do not consist solely or primarily of other deviant youth" (p.194). However, as Collis and Griffin (1993) noted, this could be difficult to achieve because of the way participants are allocated to such groups on a problem basis and because of the way funding is targeted to specific groups. While Semmens (1990), argued that, the objective of programs in the community is to prevent the anti-social behaviour exhibited by some young people re-occurring, he concluded that, "on the basis of statistical data, it is predicted that certain behaviour will occur or re-occur in a particular section of the youth population" (p.23).

Alder and Polk (1995) noted from their study that the behaviour of some participants actually deteriorated as a result of their participation in such programs. They concluded that, if the aim of the programs was to divert deviant behaviour, they were ineffective, a view also supported by Lipton, Martinson and Wilks (1975). The researchers concluded after reviewing several studies that related to recidivism, that programs for groups of young people who exhibited severe undesirable behaviours do not have a lasting impact on a significant proportion of participants. However, Coates, Hiller and Ohlin (1978) argued to the contrary. While the researchers concluded that undesirable behaviour can be managed by programs if the programs are designed to meet individual needs through identified objectives, Stroul (1989) argued that, community support programs irrespective of whether they are on a group or individual level, should be designed to be responsive to individual needs as defined by the client.

6.3. Programs to Meet Individual Needs: Psychosocial Intervention.

As previously mentioned, designing programs to meet individual needs can depend upon the body of research that one supports. If one supports Mills (1987), then programs are designed with the understanding that the individual has the ability to act

in a pro-social manner. However, if one supports Heaven (1994), then the process becomes more complex as both individual differences and family relations need to be considered as an array of psychosocial variables can be involved. As noted by Spaniol, Zipple and Cohen (1991), the field of psychosocial rehabilitation is fairly new, yet it has been challenged with the task of reviewing, modifying, changing and adapting many of its policies and practices.

While Denhoff and Pilkonis (1987) argued that psychosocial rehabilitation appears to positively affect recidivism, the delivery of this type of program should, argued Cnann, Blankertz, Messinger and Gardner (1989) be guided by the principle that people are viewed as being motivated by the need to master their own environment. The value placed upon client self-determination has, the researchers argued, had several implications for the delivery of psychosocial rehabilitation services in the community because, "it places upon the client the rights, ability and knowledge to make decisions" (Cnann, Blankertz, Messinger & Gardner, 1989, p.65). One implication that should be avoided the researchers argued, is that rehabilitation practitioners should avoid doing things in the 'best interest' of clients. Instead, clients should be encouraged to make their own decisions and to experience the consequences of those decisions as a means of moving toward independence. The dilemma the rehabilitation practitioner has when choosing between the client's best interest and client wishes does, argued Dill (1987), often result in a conflict of interest. Individual psychosocial rehabilitation programs should, concluded Rutman (1986), be organized along egalitarian lines to the extent that the rehabilitation practitioner is not required to have all the answers, but rather encourages active give and take interactions that can lead to mutually developed goals and decisions.

6.4. Rehabilitation: Evaluation and Coordination.

Trantow (1970) defined evaluation as "essentially an effort to determine what changes occur as the result of a planned program by comparing actual changes (results) with desired changes (stated goals) and by identifying the degree to which the activity (the planned program) is responsible for the change" (p.3). In essence, evaluation involves not only the question as to how one is doing, but also an answer compared to what? An informal approach to evaluating program effectiveness is through contact with clients, their friends, relatives and co-workers as well as other professionals who have independent contact with the client. Each of these sources argued Trantow (1970), has a unique perspective on the client's progress and can provide an overall picture of the perceived effectiveness of the rehabilitation program and the level of independence achieved by its recipients. However, as Sherwood and Bitter (1972) pointed out, such a form of evaluation could create an overall effect of the program that was non objective and consequently irrelevant to the actual effectiveness of the program in its own right.

Since the beginning of the Twentieth Century and the funding of the numerous private and social organizations, the field of human services has followed a pattern of specialization in an attempt to cope with the complexities of problems. Consequently, the effective coordination of service providers and programs has become a challenge. As a result of governments at both federal and state levels leaving welfare matters to private charitable organizations, the situation that developed in Victoria was referred to by the Carney Report as an "essentially laissez faire system of child welfare and protection" (p.2). Yet despite this situation being acknowledged by the committee, the report still recommended that, "service delivery in the community should not be exclusively the province of government and specialist service providers" (p.18).

Javitz (1970) noted the many problems that resulted from such a partnership between public and private service provider. In his study he found that services were fragmented and agencies tended to be set up for their own needs rather than those of the client. He

referred to the lack of coordination between the agencies and the problems that consequently developed were in the area of policy implementation, service delivery and accountability. Lorenz (1973) also concluded that, "some of the issues of control and accountability that have long plagued the relationship between private and public sector providers have been personnel, practice, philosophical orientation and communication: (p.264). Throughout Australia, welfare originated from pioneers acting as volunteers responding to what they saw as a particular social problem. Victoria developed statutory children services only when it became clear they were beyond the capacity of voluntary organizations (Holbrook,1990). The researcher also noted how voluntary organizations throughout Australia continued to play an active role either structurally or as agencies of provision in the inter-war depressions years. He concluded that this reliance on the voluntary sector created a separate and often un-coordinated system of welfare provision.

Recognizing the historical aspect of welfare provision, it is understandable how this inheritance, together with the reluctance of both state and federal governments to accept the reality of the need for a universal welfare service, has resulted in a situation that Jamrozik (1983) referred to as a, "political issue, generating considerable interest and on-going debate" (p.67). With such a situation existing, it puts forward the question, if the Carney Report acknowledged that all aspects of child welfare, including general service delivery, the treatment of young offenders and the protection of children from various forms of abuse had an "absence of clear and coherent philosophy to serve as a foundation for the delivery of service and planning" (p.2), why did it propose that "welfare is the responsibility of the community as a whole and not exclusively government or specialist service providers" (p.18).

A study carried out into Victoria's voluntary child protection agencies by the Department of Social Work, Monash University (1977) concluded, that a symbiotic

relationship had developed between the state and the voluntary agencies. The researchers found each side dependent upon the other in that the state needed someone to undertake the work that it was not carrying out itself, while the private agencies had to derive most of the funding from the state. They found a situation whereby only a few of the agencies could provide a coherent philosophy of care and statement of goals. Munro (1982) also explored some conceptual problems inherent in youth policies. She pointed out that the links between federal and state governments, regional bodies and some local initiatives were variable, under developed and lacked an overall conceptual framework. She also noted how some local and regional attempts to integrate resources to meet local needs were met with obstacles because of the institutional rigidities of programs funded by different federal and state departments. Obstacles that in turn she argued, resulted in an absence of the mechanisms that occur when departments liaise.

Ainsworth (1990) noted that, although Australia is rarely represented in the major child and youth care forums in the northern hemisphere, there are similarities with other countries that have a federal system of government where sovereign states carry the major responsibility for policy and service delivery. The United States of America and Canada, like Australia, provide services at a state and local level with some funding derived from central government initiatives. In America, the state and federal rehabilitation systems do not directly provide a comprehensive service, therefore the coordination of various agencies is essential for effective rehabilitation efforts. Structurally the American service system is a network comprising of both private and public agencies. The public agencies operate the policies and programs by funding agencies at the local level through government grants and the purchase of service contracts. The system is vocationally based and support is provided to assist clients perform adequately in a productive role (Gellman, 1973). However to ensure success, he argued that referrals should be coordinated by professional personnel who work with

the rehabilitation service providers to meet the comprehensive needs of clients. But he concluded, a peculiarity of Australia is the "arbitrary division between (child care) federal and (child welfare) state" (Gellman,1973, p.20). He acknowledged the importance of services that are sponsored by the government authorities and delivered by voluntary, non-profit organizations and religious bodies, which in all countries have an historic involvement in the child and youth care fields. However, the researchers also noted that, "the inter-relationship of service provision by voluntary agencies with those that were provided by statutory authorities made for an increasingly complex service delivery system" (p.21).

In Victoria, as in all Australian states, the autonomy of individual states impact upon providing a universal and coordinated service. While the independence individual states have in relation to legislating policies and implementing services, can be viewed as a virtue, there exists no clearly defined effective leadership or authority for the provision of services at a federal level. A need to provide guidelines and support for policies and their implementation to a nation's population was highlighted in the United Kingdom in 1975. The Social Welfare Commission noted that the development of social policy and practice implementation at the local government level received a low priority. Consequently, stimulus, support and coordination was provided by the Department of Health and Social Security to overcome the shortcomings of local authorities and the fragmentation of services throughout the United Kingdom. However, involvement is not always sufficient to ensure policy becomes practice, as Packman (1986) found, the problems of integrating components of service policies, service practice and resource policies at a local level placed doubt on the implementation of central government policies. She noted the sense of confusion that resulted when policy was not acknowledged, but conceded this was partly due to the elusiveness of the policies themselves. She referred to "the professional bloody mindedness and refusal to acknowledge the relevance or even the existence of policies" (p.13). She concluded that, " it was naive to consider that policy could be swiftly

identified and understood by the staff. Grasping policies was a matter of trying to capture something that was multidimensional, constantly moving and, furthermore, something that often appeared ghostly and insubstantial in outline and detail" (Packman, 1986, p.13). All this can result in a situation that Gelman (1974) denoted as "ideology without the resources to implement policies and plans do little to alter the existing state of affairs" (p.726).

The success of a rehabilitation program relies upon the availability of funds and the quality of resources. The Carney Report proposed that funding would be available to provide programs in the community to assist the young offenders further develop the necessary skills to assist them with the process of reintegration into the community after they were released from a custodial placement. However, Smith (1990) concluded, "financial constraints and competing demands for limited resources has an impact upon the size of the leaving care and outside support budget, therefore, discretionary obligations to resource young people as they leave institutional settings are unlikely to be sufficient to meet the extent of the demands" (p.8). The failure to provide programs in the community that will assist the young people to transfer the skills they may have developed in the Youth Training Centres, and to have the opportunities to utilize them, to overcome such outside variables as unemployment, accommodation problems, financial and relationship issues may well render the skills developed in the centers redundant.

6.5. Conclusion.

The issues addressed in this chapter surrounded the preparation and transition process of young people as they leave institutional environments and begin the process of reintegration back into the community. Many studies noted the difficulties faced by this group who, as a direct result of having received a custodial sentence are marginalized in the community and thereafter referred to as young offenders. Young people who, apart from having been identified as young offenders, also face the

problems associated with educational failure and social skills deficits. Problems that, as the studies have showed, further disadvantage this group of young people from gaining employment opportunities and achieving meaningful relationships.

Researchers such as Parker (1981), noted the lack of preparation and planning that occurred for the transition process where young people leave an institutional environment to live in the community. This lack of preparation occurred despite the fact that several researchers acknowledged that it was crucial to the successful reintegration of the young people.

The chapter referred to the problems faced by the young people as they tried to adjust to life in the community. For some the experience was too traumatic and they tried to return to the protection of the institutions. For others, their transient lifestyles and continued dependency upon agencies for financial and accommodation issues negated their expectations of what independence would mean. However, as previously noted in the literature, independence means having the skills to manage a variety of situations. This chapter noted how research has shown the low status that is attached to interpersonal skills by institutional environments.

While the Carney Report recommended that programs should be funded in the community to assist young offenders with the process of reintegration, the studies noted how some problems that have existed in the past, have affected the successful provision and implementation of programs. Many problems were shown to have resulted from the historical partnership that has existed in Victoria and other states in Australia. Problems associated with coordination, accountability and the implementation of programs when both the public and private sectors have been responsible for the provision of services was a focus of many studies.

While the design of community based programs, geared to meet the needs of a group of people, many of whom exhibit complex skill deficits and have a transient lifestyle is, to

say the least, challenging, the evaluation of such programs is in itself a task. The evaluation of the programs to determine whether desired goals have been achieved, along with the mode of service delivery has been shown by several researchers to be a complex and currently, an unresolved issue. Some researchers noted that many of the problems resulted because of the different levels of government involved in the provision of services and policy implementation. The resultant situation lacking an overall conceptual framework of desired outcomes and accountability.

The recommendation by the Carney Report that service delivery should not be exclusively the province of government and specialist service providers could create problems for the young people leaving Victoria's Youth Training Centres. The support they may require, and expect under the legislation to assist them transfer and utilize the skills they developed through the programs offered in the centres may be less effective than they may have anticipated. The proposed study will consider whether the skills developed by the young people while in one of Victoria's Youth Training Centres, can be transferred into community situations and utilized to assist the young people manage issues they may be faced with during their process of reintegration. Or whether the new skills, many of which were previously absent in their repertoire, are ineffective in assisting them deal with such outside variables as unemployment, accommodation and relationship issues. The inability by the young people to utilize the skills could place them in a position whereby they may have difficulty achieving independence in the community upon their release from a custodial sentence.

The study will also determine whether support programs are available in the community to assist the young people with the transition process, and more to the point, whether the young people seek out and accept any support that is available. As the studies have shown, many young people once out of a care environment did not want to have contact with agencies other than those that were responsible for financial and accommodation services.

CHAPTER 7. SUMMARY OF THE LITERATURE AND AIMS OF THE STUDY.

7.1. Summary of the Literature.

The literature reviewed the Carney Report that was regarded by many, at the time, as Victoria's first rigorous examination of the child welfare system. The committee referred to the report as a 'blueprint' for the development of child and family welfare service in Victoria. As noted, in the literature, despite its severe criticism of policy implementation through the services that were, at the time, being provided in Victoria by the government department responsible, its recommendations were fully adopted and became the Children and Young Persons Act (1989). The focus of the report was to meet the needs of the different clientele the services were sanctioned to support. As noted in the literature, for the first time the distinction was set out between those who were placed in care for their protection, and those who were there as a result of their behaviour.

A focus of the recommendations set out in the report relating to young people who had become involved with delinquency, was to divert them away from the formal justice system and hopefully, recidivism. Setting out certain criteria for the successful implementation of the recommendations, the report noted, that in circumstances where the justice system believed it was justified in imposing a custodial sentence upon a young person, then it was the responsibility of the government to ensure that the institutional placement would provide programs to assist young people develop life skills. The report also emphasized the importance of programs in the community that could support the young people after they had been released from their period of detention. Support that could, in conjunction with their newly developed skills, assist them to achieve independence in the community and hopefully reduce recidivism.

However, the literature also noted that legislation and programs to manage the problem of youth crime had been a matter of concern for over one hundred years. Throughout the decades of the twentieth century, several Australian states, including Victoria, had initiated several committees if enquiry that proposed various methods of control through programs of education and rehabilitation, in an attempt to find an answer to such questions as, how to divert young people away from criminal activity and what structural constraints would effectively reduce recidivism?

As noted in the literature, youth crime has always been, and continues to be a serious problem. It noted that the policy initiatives developed by various governments that set out strategies to deal with youth and delinquency could be traced back to the nineteenth century. A time when services were developed to deal with disaffected youth and other problems that were associated with population growth. Also noted was the expansion in the first two decades of the twentieth century of educational provision to include secondary education. It was this, as many commentators noted, that many policy makers hoped would resolve the problem of youth and non-conformity. The major emphasis of the 1930's was planning and state intervention, and although the notion of 'future citizenship' was still a prominent part of many related policy areas during the 1940's, as noted, the Second World War altered the relationship between the commonwealth and the states in two particular areas: first the preparation of the young for future work and careers, and secondly, the aspects of leisure and recreation which related to the participation of young people in community activities.

As the literature noted, by the 1950's the youth issue was seen more in terms of individual adjustment, guidance and opportunity. However, with higher education still at the forefront of youth policy in most Australian states, the focus was on both the formal and social development of young people, in anticipation of resolving the 'youth problem' by way of social control. Education was increasingly being viewed as the answer to the perceived cultural problems and as a means of providing the young with

opportunities for the future. But, as noted by many researchers, the hope that education as a form of cultural development could provide an answer to the youth problem, began to dissipate as social and cultural changes became more evident. Although the change brought about a call for more community involvement and less institutional care, it was soon realized that this alone would not solve the problem of youth delinquency, and the 1980's saw a return to the more conventional forms of custodial treatment.

As noted in the literature, the call for a more educated and flexible workforce has seen current policies again focus on education and training. The Mayer Report (1992), argued that young people need to develop key competency skills to enable them to successfully participate in the world of work. It also acknowledged that young people who exhibit behaviour problems, or those who are considered to be 'at risk' may not complete their schooling in a regular setting. In such circumstances, the report recommended other opportunities should be available to assist the young people develop the necessary skills. However, as noted, the report stated that the skills could be developed through the "already established guidelines within the training sector" (p.8). It must therefore be presumed that the Mayer Report is of the belief that the existing system, which has already failed many young people, could now work in their favor.

The literature highlighted the concerns and criticisms that have arisen relating to vocational education and competency-based qualification from overseas. Although the alignment of education with the needs of industry was referred to by many researchers as a major initiative, the literature also noted the link between the emergence of qualifications, political interest and the rising levels of youth unemployment. With youth unemployment having been particularly problematic in the closing decades of the twentieth century, youth programs had been introduced by successive Australian governments, but they had little impact upon the problem. With the studies undertaken in the United Kingdom relating to competency based vocational education qualifications having been less than optimistic, the success of such a policy initiative in Australia is, as the literature mentioned, yet to be measured.

As noted in the literature, an aim of the Carney Report was to divert young people away from the criminal justice system. But as also noted, from the early twentieth century to the reformers of the 1970's, faith had been placed in the judicial system as a means of effectively transforming the behaviour of young offenders. The literature noted the constraints that are placed upon the courts that regulate the justice they can deliver which is guided by the evidence presented at the time. Many studies highlighted that of those young people who do find themselves before the formal justice system, many are victims of poverty, homelessness or oppression, as well as victims of debated controversy over unemployment as a contributor to criminal behaviour. But as noted, the findings were not conclusive regarding the latter, although it cannot be dismissed as coincidental that studies have associated offending with education and employment failure.

Acknowledging that young offenders do not necessarily continue to offend into adulthood, the literature also noted that in general, public opinion supports the rehabilitation of juveniles, despite researchers such as Shelves (1990), arguing to the contrary. However, the literature did question the ability of the courts to prevent further offending with the justice and sentences it administers. But as shown, the courts still remain the official forum in which justice must be seen to be done, not only in terms of justice being delivered upon the offender, but as justice served toward the community and the victim. It was the question of justice being delivered upon the offender that many supported the view that tougher penalties were not the answer. However, all conclusively supported the view that an individual's background and individual circumstances must be taken into consideration when justice is administered. Because, as noted in the literature, it was often a young person's background or prevailing circumstances that initiated their life in crime or in the very least, contributed toward its continuance.

Noted throughout the literature and supported through the vision of the Carney Report, was the view that a custodial sentence should not be a place where young people are placed to serve a sentence without every effort being made to divert them away from continued criminal activity. The literature noted that the whole purpose should be to rehabilitate young people through programs designed to develop skills that will enable them to achieve independence in the community. Also highlighted were the reasons why some people become involved in deviant behaviour in the first place. The literature considered the on-going debate that has surrounded the controversial argument whether behaviour is a consequence of heritable or non-heritable characteristics.

While the literature noted the views put forward by such researchers as Eysenck (1981) and Heaven (1994), of which both support the personality link to deviance, other researchers such as Glueck and Glueck (1950) were not convinced that such a link exists. Edwards (1996) on the other hand, argued along the same lines as Wyn and White (1997), who stated that young people would exhibit offending behaviour if there were no controls in place to dissuade them.

While the literature noted the view put forward by Schauss (1981), that to fully understand and effectively control delinquency, there is a need to have a better understanding of the biochemical reactions on behaviour independent of, or in conjunction with environmental issues, others ignored the debate altogether. Researchers such as Mills (1987) were noted as having argued that there is no mind-set that pre-disposes anyone at birth toward delinquency. The researchers view was that delinquent behaviour could be controlled through pro-social directions and training. While Mowrer (1950) and Eysenck (1960) also proposed that such learning theory could effectively work in conjunction with conditioning and personality, Rodzinowicz (1966) argued, that to accept that criminal behaviour is learned or can be unlearned, is too simplistic.

Whatever the reason, many researchers conceded that some symptoms associated with delinquency such as depression and its association with hostility and anxiety are alarming, especially when one considers the increasing numbers of youth who are devoid of familial support through homelessness, and whose lack of problem solving skills, conflict resolution techniques and relationships skills have been found as prevalent amongst young offenders.

Of particular interest was the vast amount of literature that refers to self-esteem and its inextricable link to personality. Having been connected through studies to unemployment, educational achievement, substance abuse, anxiety, depression, anger, hostility and interpersonal relationships, it is not surprising that the stability of an individual's self-esteem has received great interest for over a hundred years with such researchers as James (1890), Coopersmith (1967), Anderson (1994), Baumgardner, Kaufman and Levy (1989) and Roberts and Monroe (1992). While the literature presented evidence to support the theory that unstable self-esteem was a diathesis for depressive symptoms, along with many studies that supported the concept that self-esteem is sufficiently important to be viewed by many researchers as the key to self-worth, it is a concern if one considers the view put forward in the literature by Wink (1991), that, if self-esteem can be linked to narcissism, it could be counter productive.

The literature noted that the promotion of education or other programs, led researchers such as O'Connor (1990) and Agnew (1985), to conclude that delinquent behaviour is considered by some to be the result of some missing factor that could be replaced through a program or skill. This approach was considered to be suspicious by Walters and White (1989), who argued that it used techniques, rituals and discussions to monitor, analyze and dispute an offender's criminal beliefs. This view was highlighted in the literature in reference to the proposed studies that referred to the use of therapies and counseling to develop social skills, which if missing from a young person's repertoire was considered by many researchers to contribute toward delinquent behaviour.

However, while the long standing debate continues to surround the interaction between heritable and non-heritable forces and social processes upon behaviour, researchers such as Wyn and White (1997), continue to support the view that young people will engage in offending behaviour if appropriate controls are not in place to dissuade them. But, as the literature noted, it is not the presence of appropriate controls to prevent offending behaviour occurring that are needed, but support to assist the young people achieve positive outcomes. The literature noted the studies that highlighted the problems faced by young people who have a background of care and the stigma associated with being labeled a young offender. Stein and Carey (1986) and Read and Alder (1988), all identified the problems associated with young people who exhibited a deficit in the area of social skills development. Deficits in such areas as communication, interrelationships, emotional control, as well as problems with immaturity and negative attitudes that contribute as much, if not more, toward the problems young people have in finding and maintaining employment.

The dilemma faced when the courts choose the "last resort" option, whereby a young person is placed into a custodial environment was discussed. However, also noted was the responsibility placed upon the institution by the Carney Report, to provide the necessary educational and life skills programs to enable the young people develop skills to assist them with the process of re-integrating back into the community after being released from a custodial placement. It appears that several researchers support the need for a 'link' to be established between pre-institutional and post-institutional services. This continuance in the process, could support the young people who have previously experienced more than one placement prior to being placed in a custodial institution as a result of their own deviant behaviour. But the failure to provide a continuity between the placements in relation to a sequential planning program to meet the individual's changing needs has resulted in a failure which, according to Parker (1981), has continued to be overlooked.

One area of the literature considered the need for the holistic approach to be adopted when planning a program to meet individual needs. Accepting that the task of meeting the needs of residents on both a practical and therapeutic level is a complex process for any institution, the problem of transferring tasks from one environment to another was discussed. Although some researchers argued that behaviour in one environment does not necessarily predict the behaviour will occur in another, Brown and Christie (1981), were more optimistic and believe that young people can be educated out of crime if the right conditions are provided. The necessity to have the right conditions and to consider all the variables relevant to each individual was highlighted by Rubins and Roessler (1979). They proposed an evaluative data collection process during the initial assessment phase at the admission stage of a placement. The process should, they argued, consist of five separate criteria, and to adopt a total approach to the rehabilitation process it was considered necessary to include a vocational component. Cooper and Harper (1979), considered the proposed criteria necessary to enable individuals develop work adjustment skills such as; the ability to work independently, accept supervision, communicate with co-workers, to remain on task and cope with frustration.

Of particular interest was the skills considered necessary to assist individuals overcome each perceived social skills deficit and the programs available to promote the achievement of the identified skills. Of particular interest was the view put forward by Wells and Miller (1993), and the importance of an individual's readiness to respond successfully to treatment intervention. With self-esteem and its connection to cognition having been highlighted by researchers such as Campbell, Trapnell, Heine, Katz, Lavellee and Lehman (1996), and its relationship to enable individuals to take credit for their own success, the importance of the timing of intervention was regarded as crucial. The literature noted that such a process should take place at a time when an individual's anxiety and depression was at a minimum, as this would maximize the ability of individuals to acknowledge failures.

The promotion of functional vocational rehabilitation was viewed in the literature as necessary, not only to promote functional work skills around which many practical skills are formed and provide the basis for on-task productive employment and living activities, but as a total package of psychosocial rehabilitation involving time keeping, teamwork, inter-relationship skills, health, financial and housing issues. The literature noted the importance of leisure as a contributing factor in the decrease of recidivism and the seriousness of delinquents acts, along with its role in increasing the total well-being of the individual. Regarded as non-functional, these skills, along with educational programs and functional vocational skills would make up the total package of psychosocial rehabilitation. Which as the literature noted, could provide individuals with all the skills necessary to assist them work successfully, relax meaningfully and cope with independence in the community.

Mentioned were the problems faced by young people who, having spent time in institutional settings, are faced with integrating back into the community. Also mentioned were the problems that have arisen in the past when support networks have failed to adopt a coordinated approach to service delivery. The historical aspect of welfare service provision was reviewed in relation to its reliance upon the voluntary sector, along with the fragmentation that occurred in both Australian states and overseas in the support, delivery and evaluation of services. In view of the Carney Report and its recommendation that welfare is the responsibility of the community as a whole and not exclusively the province of government or specialist service providers, the past does not present an optimistic outlook for the future in relation to the provision of services and support in the community for young people leaving Victoria's Youth Training Centres..

As noted in the literature, despite program support being available to assist young people as they attempt to achieve independence, many fail or fall through the cracks of the system. Researchers such as Read and Alder (1988) and Stein and Carey (1986) all

noted the problems young offenders experience in the employment market. These problems are exacerbated by the educational and psychosocial issues that Griffiths (1991) found are common with young people who have an history of offending. Yet as the literature noted, despite the fact that many young people fail to successfully integrate into the community after being released from an institution, the process of preparing them for their transition into the outside world is overlooked. The problems faced by the young people in the community in relation to accommodation, finance and employment can result in many seeking to return to the protection of an institution, which in many situations is associated with criminal activites. This process is interpreted in the literature by some researchers as an inability by young people to sustain an independent existence due to maladjustment and immaturity. The transient lifestyle of the young people highlighted in the literature was in contrast to what many of them expected when they were preparing to leave the institutions. Many anticipated that a return to the community would mean a reconciliation with their families, however, as the literature noted, for many it was an expectation that did not materialize.

The Carney Report recommended that agencies should be funded in the community to provide support and programs to assist the young people with the process of integration and to achieve independence. However, as noted, the studies found many young people never expected or wanted contact with community agencies other than with those that could deal with such issues as accommodation and finance. Also note was the view that total independence is a state of mind, as dependence on others is a natural form of existence. But to have the ability to interact with others in a way where one can depend upon them and retain one's own independence requires refined intercommunication skills. A skill found to be a common deficit with young people who have experienced institutional environments.

Accepting that the diverse needs of a group exhibiting such an array of problems as those exhibited by young offenders, the literature acknowledged that 'one program

approach fits all' would be inappropriate to meet the needs of the young people in the community. While some researchers argued that the issue was whether the programs met identified needs, other discussed the problems that are associated to a lack of coordination by the various service providers. All intervention programs offer some advantages, the key appears to be in the management of the programs. If professionally administered and coordinated they could provide the young people with an optimum chance of achieving independence. But as noted, the issues of service delivery to young people in the community are complex. In a field where it is almost impossible to define a service to meet everyone's needs, there are a few concepts that have emerged in the literature that need to be considered when developing programs and delivering services. The complex characteristics exhibited by some individuals make it clear that a large number of service options are necessary. But above all, individuals must feel that the process is empowering and should provide them with opportunities to change desired goals in response to changing situations if they so require. However, as the literature noted, the success of any program depends upon sufficient funds being available, the quality of resources and the social climate. This, along with the already mentioned variables such as the voluntary versus the public aspect of service provision have historically, as noted by the Carney Report, created a laissez-faire system in Victoria.

The literature mentioned how a lack of mutual vision and philosophy resulted in the fragmented provision of service delivery and resource competence. While the majority of the recommendations put forward by the Carney Report were incorporated into the Children and Young Persons Act (1989), there was a failure to adopt a proviso in relation to the accountability and evaluation of services or service providers. This can only provide a loophole in the system whereby, argued Jamrozik (1983), "the development of concepts do not necessarily mean new practices, and new practices do not necessarily mean new functions" (p.69).

7.2. Issues Raised in the Literature.

An issue raised in the literature was, that despite concern being shown for over one hundred years, youth crime has continued to be a problem for many societies. Irrespective of intense political interest, numerous policies and several programs, young people continue to exhibit behaviour that is detrimental to others and costly to society. The justice system has implemented sanctions and rehabilitation programs in an attempt to divert young people away from crime, but they have shown to have had little success.

In situations where custodial placements have been implemented by the courts, the outcomes noted in the literature were depressing. Young people who were released into the community were found to be achieving less than acceptable levels of independence. The stigma they carried with them as a result of their background, coupled with the identified deficits that many exhibited in their social, educational and emotional skills area contributed to them facing an uncertain future, and often resulted in them returning to criminal activities or seeking a return to some other form of protected environment.

The failure by the institutions to provide programs to develop both functional and inter-personnel skills, considered necessary for the young people to achieve independence in the community, along with the lack of support they needed to assist them during the process of integration, is an issue of concern. Therefore, despite the recommendation by the Carney Report that such support should be available in Victoria, an issue that could be of particular concern for the young people leaving Victoria's Youth Training Centres, is that of community support and programs that the Carney Report believed should not be the responsibility of government departments and specialist services alone. Several researchers focused on the particular problems and issues that arise out of the situation where both public and private organizations are responsible for the delivery of services.

The above issues give rise to a number of questions:

Are the programs provided in Victoria's Youth Training Centres developed to meet the individual needs of the young offenders who are placed there by the courts?

What criteria do Victoria's Youth Training Centres use to determine the skills based content of the programs they offer?

Can the skills that have been gained by the young people through the programs, be transferred by the young people into the community to assist them with the process of reintegration after they have been released from custody?

Are the skills developed by the young people in the Youth Training Centres appropriate to assist them overcome such outside variables as unemployment, accommodation, financial and relationship issues?

Is the self-esteem of the young people affected by their period of incarceration or by their period if reintegration once they are back into the community?

Are there programs as recommended by the Carney Report in the community to assist the young people with the process of rehabilitation, and if so, are the young people aware of them and do they access them?

7.3. Aims of the Study.
The importance of individual treatment plans were noted in the literature, an aim of the study was to determine whether these are developed by the Youth Training Centres to meet the needs of each individual upon the commencement of their period of incarceration.

Another aim was to consider what criteria is used by the Youth Training Centres to determine the skills based content of the programs they offer.

The importance of self-esteem was referred to in the literature in relation to its relevance to successful psychological functioning. An aim of the study was to consider its importance in relation to the sample of young offenders and any effect it may have on the successful acquisition by the young offenders of the skills promoted in the Youth Training Centres. And also, do the self-esteem of the young offenders fluctuate after they have been released from their period of detention.

It was also an aim of the study to consider what relevance the skills developed by the young people in the Youth Training Centres had in assisting them achieve independence in the community.

CHAPTER 8. METHODOLOGY

The issues discussed have raised many questions covering a wide perspective and have also highlighted a number of areas that require investigation. The study, research design and procedures outlined in this chapter have evolved from the issues discussed in the literature review.   The study was conducted in two phases and involved a longitudinal stage. This method was considered necessary to provide an overall perspective of the issues involved. A descriptive design enabled the collection of detailed information to be gained regarding program planning, program content and subsequent effect. These data, along with the administration of tests repeated on three occasions provided relationships among a relatively large number of variables. Phase one was carried out on the premises of three Victorian Youth Training Centres. The aim being to address the self-esteem of young offenders along with the planning and process of programs offered at the Youth Training Centres.   Phase two, the longitudinal component was carried out in the community six months after the trainees had been released from their period of detention. The aim of phase two of the study was to determine whether the skills and experiences to which the trainees had been subjected during their period of detention had assisted them achieve independence in the community, or whether outside variables influenced their achievement of independence.

It was necessary to collect and analyze data that could systematically determine relationships amongst a relatively large number of variables. Central to the study was the existence of any fluctuations in the self-esteem scores exhibited by the trainees. A comparison was made with scores from when the sample began their period of custody to the time of them being released. It could then be determined if the period of incarceration had any effect upon the self-esteem scores.   The study took place with the full cooperation of the trainees and the Department of Health and Community Services Victoria. (Currently the Department of Human Services). The department,

along with the adult Parole Board of Victoria, have the responsibility placed upon them by the courts to detain and supervise young offenders in Victoria's Youth Training Centres.

A synopsis of the study project was submitted to the Standing Committee for Ethics in Research on Humans Monash University for their full consideration, along with a formal application to the Humanities Committee for their support. Approval for the research project was received from both committees.

8.1 Statement of Hypotheses.

The study put forward five research questions adduced from the theoretical investigations in the literature. In formulating questions it must be remembered that the sample is not random, but a significant sub-set of the relevant population. To this extent, conventional statistical tests of significance are of limited relevance. The hypotheses presented below are couched in positive terms in accordance with Horrowitz (1974).

Phase 1 Youth Training Centres.

Hypothesis 1

Individual needs of the trainees are taken into consideration when determining a program as measured on criteria set out by Rubins and Roessler (1979).

A test of this hypothesis requires that the five kinds of intake examination as determined by Rubins and Roessler (1979) be considered during the assessment process. Also it was required to ascertain whether the information collected was considered during the compilation of the programs for the trainees at the commencement of their detention period.

The five kinds of intake examination are as follows:

1. The intake interview.

2. The general medical examination.

3. A medical specialist examination (if necessary),

4. A psychological examination.

5. Vocational objectives.

Data necessary to test this hypothesis were collected from personal files, assessment reports, observation and assessment meetings and Youth Training Centre Case Plan Sheets. These appear as (Appendix 1. Form A2). The development of (Appendix 1 Form A1), Check list for the existence of Individual Treatment Plans is described later.

Hypothesis 2.

The functional, non-functional, educational and vocational skills necessary for independent living as measured on criteria set out by Wright (1980); Goldberg (1973); Epperson, Witt and Hitzhusen (1972) and Cooper and Harper (1979) are provided in the content of programs delivered at Victorian Youth Training Centres.

A test of this hypothesis required the study of four different levels of criteria that determine the existence of functional, non-functional, educational and vocational skills. Data collected would determine whether the program content contains skills regarded as relevant to achieving independence. Personal observations, interviews conducted by the researcher and program files were used to collect the data. The development of instrument (Appendix 1 Form A3), Skills Based Content to collect the data is described later.

Hypothesis 3.

There is a change in client self esteem after being subjected to the programs offered in Victorian Youth Training Centres, and a decrease within six months of them being released into the community.

It was hypothesized that programs would have an effect upon the trainees' self esteem during the period of detention and again after they had been released into the community. Data were collected using a standardized instrument of self-esteem. The instrument appears as (Appendix i Form A 4) Coopersmith Inventory. SEI. (1987). A description of this instrument appears later. In order to test this hypothesis, the instrument was self administered by the trainees at the start and conclusion of their detention·period, it was also mailed to each of the sample who continued to participate in phase 2 of the study. To test part of this hypothesis, data were analyzed in conjunction with the data collected from the second administration of the test. Any changes recorded over the period of detention would determine if the programs were having an impact upon self-esteem. Any changes recorded during the period of reintegration into the community would determine if the skills developed while in the institutions, could be utilized by them during their process of transition to assist them achieve independence and improve their perceptions of their self-worth.

Phase 2 Life in the Community.

Hypothesis 4.

Skills gained through participation in the programs offered in Victoria's Youth Training Centres are relevant to achieving independence in the community.

A test of this hypothesis required the collection of data that could determine any relationships between the programs offered in the Youth Training Centres, the skills gained and subsequent effect upon the trainees achieving independence in the community. The subjective evaluative data provided by the trainees were collected using questionnaires. It related to their own personal perceptions of the skills gained while in the Youth Training Centres, along with the ability to successfully transfer them into the community to assist them achieve independence.

Development of the instrument used, (Appendix 2 Form B1) Program Evaluation Sheet (Client) will be described later. The instrument was mailed to each of the sample who continued to participate in phase 2 of the study.

Hypothesis 8.

Psychosocial issues as measured by Kravetz (1973) influence young people achieving independence in the community irrespective of the skills promoted through the programs offered in the Youth Training Centres.

A test of this hypothesis required data which could measure the influence psychosocial variables have upon an individual achieving independence in the community. Data were collected using the instrument which appears as (Appendix 2 Form B2) Rehabilitation Needs and Status Scale. This instrument was based on a standardized test instrument using criteria set out by Kravetz (1973). The criteria measure the influence of psychosocial variables in relation to client rehabilitation in the community. A description of this instrument appears later. The test instrument was mailed to each of the sample who continued to participate in phase 2 of the study.

8.2. Type of Study.

The data were collected through questionnaires, observation, interviews and validated test instruments. The study was conducted over two phases and included a longitudinal component. Phase one was carried out in the sample Youth Training Centres and involved three collection stages. The first was during the assessment period at Youth Training Centre 'A', where all trainees were placed pending an assessment to determine the most appropriate placement for each individual. Data collecting instruments, Check list for the existence of Individual Treatment plans and the Coopersmith Inventory, SEI, (1987) were used. The second stage occurred after the trainees had been transferred to Youth Training Centres 'B' or 'C' to serve their detention period. The

instruments Centre Case Plan Sheets, Skills Based Content and Checklist to determine functional, non-functional, educational and vocational programs were used. During the third stage data were collected using the Coopersmith Inventory. SEI. (1987). This instrument was self administered by the sample prior to their release.

Phase two, the longitudinal component of the study was conducted in the community six months after the sample had been released from detention. Three data collecting instruments were mailed to the sample who continued to participate in this phase of the study. The instruments were, Program Evaluation Sheet (client), Rehabilitation Needs and Status Scale and Coopersmith Inventory SEI. (1987).

8.3 Data Collecting Instruments.

Checklist for the existence of Individual Treatment Plans.

As no measurement scale was available to determine the existence of individual needs when programs are planned, criteria previously discussed in the literature by Rubins and Roessler (1979) were taken into consideration when the measurement instrument was designed. The five components considered necessary to determine whether individual needs are met include; the intake interview, the general medical examination, a specialist medical examination (if necessary), a psychological examination and vocational objectives. The instrument identified the emotional, educational, social and vocational objectives for each trainee along with the activities to achieve these objectives. The data collected related to such details as, name, age, address, previous care placements and perceived release date. This information would enable sample identification for the collection of follow-up data.

Coopersmith Inventory SEI (1987).

The purpose and rationale put forward by Coopersmith (1987) for the test design was that, " the instrument was designed to measure and evaluate attitudes toward the self in

social, family and personal areas of experience. The term self-esteem refers to the evaluation a person makes, and customarily maintains of him/her self. Overall, self-esteem is an expression in attitudes that a person holds towards the self" (p.1). While he argued that self-esteem is significantly associated with personal satisfaction and effective functioning, a view shared by many personality theorists, clinical and social psychologists, "it did not constitute proof, only consensus, therefore the belief needed to be tested empirically" (p.2). The instrument was selected as a valid measure of self-esteem and contains 25 items with a choice of two responses to each item.

Centre Case Plan Sheets.

Centre case plan sheets are the instruments used by the Youth Training Centres to maintain records for each trainee. They provide a detailed background on each trainee and are constantly updated during the trainee's period of detention. Information from these sheets were used by the researcher when completing the data collecting instrument, Individual Treatment Plans.

Skills Based Content. Checklist to determine functional, non-functional, educational and vocational programs.

No measurement scale was available to determine the existence of the skill content of programs. Therefore, criteria previously discussed in the literature by such researchers as, Wright (1980); Goldberg (1973); Epperson, Witt and Hitzhusen (1972) and Cooper and Harper (1979) were taken into consideration when the instrument was designed. The instrument listed the programs offered at the sample centres, along with the skills content of each program that is considered necessary to have successfully participated in the programs. A cross check of the two lists of components was carried out during observations and interviews with skilled trade personnel at the Youth Training Centres.

Program Evaluation Sheet (Client).

The instrument was designed in the absence of an existing measurement scale to gather subject-evaluated data. A subjective evaluation by each of the sample provided data that related to their own perceptions of the programs to which they were subjected while at the Youth Training Centres. The instrument provided for the collection of data identifying the programs to which each trainee had been subjected to while at the centres, along with their own perceptions of each program's relevance to assisting them achieve independence in the community after their release from detention. Data were also collected relating to skills the young people considered as relevant for independence, and whether such skills were perceived to have been gained by them while at the centres. The instrument also included data regarding the young people's awareness and use of community support services, along with a section where each individual could relate his own assessment on the period of detention.

Rehabilitation Needs and Status Scale.

Using items from several research instruments, including several items used to measure problems in living as determined by Wright and Remmers (1960); Shostram (1968) and Reagles (1969), the instrument was designed by Kravetz (1973). It was based on the following criteria as determined by Maslow (1952):

1). Items had to be related to benefits, activities and experiences that lead to, or reflect the gratification and frustration of the client's needs.

2). Items had to be related to these benefits, activities and experiences in such a manner as to form scales that measured the extent to which client needs were gratified or frustrated.

3). The benefits, activities or experiences associated with the items had to be relatively modified through services.

4.). The benefits, activities and experiences referred to can be related to the programs by the young people in the study had been subjected to while at the youth training centres.

The construction and validation of the rehabilitation data was based on the response approach, referred to by Torgenson (1958) as one that "ascribes variations in reaction to stimuli to both variation in the subjects and to the stimuli" (pp.46/47). The stimuli being the responses suffered by the young people in respect to their reaction to psychosocial issues in the community.

The instrument contained 53 items covering three needs based categories. The first two, Safety and Security and Love and Belongingness, include issues that relate to survival and stability, social, personal and family relationships. The third needs category of Self-esteem covers respect, competency and confidence and relate to the issues of employability and leisure pursuits. The associated skills of mastery, adequacy, co-operation and teamwork are the skills promoted through the programs offered at the Youth Training Centres. The sample were instructed to choose the response most appropriate to them. A classification of each item relating to each of the three needs categories appear in the appendices as Appendix D.

8.4 Criteria for the Selection of the Sample.

The aim was to select 100 male young offenders who were detained by the courts at Victoria's Youth Training Centres. A minimum length of six months custody was required as a selection criterion. This was to ensure an adequate time span for the programs to affect skill development and self esteem. Subjects were aged between 17 and 21 years. This was the age range set by the courts for placement of the young offenders at the sample Youth Training Centres.

8.5. Sample.

The sample consisted of 100 male trainees who were placed by the courts at Youth Training Centre "A" for classification. The sample were the first 100 male offenders aged between 17 and 21 years to be detained by the courts for a minimum period of six

months following the commencement of the study. The number of young people who participated in phase two of the study are described in further detail later. All trainees are initially placed at Youth Training Centre "A". This process is to enable an assessment process to be conducted prior to the trainees being transferred to other centres to serve their period of detention. The centres are described below. No restriction were placed on other demographic variables in relation to the sample. At the time of collecting the sample, no young offender with an aboriginal background was on remand in the Youth Training Centre whose age made them eligible to be part of the sample. Female trainees were omitted from the study due to the small numbers in detention.

8.6. Field of Study.

The sample consisted of three government run Youth Training Centres.

Youth Training Centre "A". This centre is situated in a metropolitan area, it has a population which varies between 70 and 100 trainees. The centre has a remand section, training facilities, an educational unit and a classification section.

The Remand Section; Youth Training Centre "A".

The remand centre is a holding facility for young offenders for whom the courts refused an application for bail, and who are maintained under security conditions pending court appearances. Young offenders aged between 17 and 21 years, the sample population, were removed to the classification section of Centre "A" for assessment, a process carried out over a period of ten days. After completion, all information was presented at a case conference meeting and a placement for the trainee was determined. Depending upon a vacancy at the preferred placement the trainee was transferred to either Centre "B" or "C" to complete the sentence imposed by the courts.

Youth Training Centre "B"

This centre was situated in country Victoria on a property covering two thousand seven hundred acres and catered for male offenders aged between 17 and 21 years of age. After the conclusion of the study, the center was closed, however it remained open for the full duration of the study. It consisted of a farm that was leased to the prison service and provided work for some trainees. The centre concentrated on extensive trade training and community projects. Trade training facilities included a paint shop, a building and construction workshop, a fully equipped garage for motor mechanic skills, a metal trades workshop, facilities to learn horticulture, along with a kitchen and laundry to promote functional independent living skills and vocational opportunities. The post-compulsory school age of the trainees was reflected in the limited on-campus educational programs, however educational facilities in the community were utilized. A constructive use of leisure was encouraged both inside and outside the center, with local community facilities regularly utilized to compliment in-house recreational activities.

Youth Training Centre "C".

This centre was also situated in country Victoria, and catered for a similar population to centre "B". The centre offered a high employment based training programs and a similar range of skills as center "B", other than farm work. Again, educational facilities are limited with off-campus further education programs encouraged. The centre has a high degree of community involvement and community based projects, with participation encouraged in many sporting and recreational events.

8.7. Techniques for collecting data.

The study was conducted over a two-year period. This was necessary as the sample were recruited during phase one of the study over a period of several months through the classification process at Youth Training Centre "A". The remaining two year period was taken up by the completion of sentences and the six month rehabilitation period back in the community.

In order to take into account the changes anticipated in the trainees caused by the period of detention and the skills based programs, several visits were made to the sample Youth Training Centres during the detention period of the sample. During this time the use of personal files, attendance at classification meetings, interviews, observational assessments, questionnaires and validated test instruments provided the data for phase one of the study. Phase two consisted of a longitudinal study, during which time test instruments and an evaluative questionnaire were administered by mail to the trainees.

8.8. Phase One: Collection if Data in the Youth Training Centres.

The classification procedure meetings involved a written assessment of each trainee being presented by a designated welfare worker from Youth Training Centre "A". The process had the advantage of providing current information regarding the trainee's social and emotional well being, along with details of the sentence imposed by the judicial system. It was from these meetings that the sample population was recruited. The primary purpose of the intake interview was to gather a social history from the client. This was focused comprehensively on the client's physical, psychological, intellectual and vocational functioning. The intention of the gathered data was to assist in the development of programs relevant to meet individual needs.

Personal files were used to determine the existence of Individual Treatment Plans. Individual Case Plan notes compiled by the Youth Training Centres provided a comprehensive assessment of the intake interview, along with insight into details considered important when programs were planned for the trainees. As no standardized test instrument was available, criteria identified in the literature by Rubins and Roessler (1979), were taken into consideration when designing the instrument check list for the existence of Individual Treatment Plans.

The literature identified the skills necessary to develop life skills, Wright (1980); Goldberg (1973); Epperson, Witt and Hitzhusen (1972); Cooper and Harper (1979). Observation and interviews with Youth Training Centre personnel relating to program content provided the data to determine whether program content was relevant to the skills considered necessary to assist young people achieve independence in the community. As no measurement instrument was available, criteria identified in the literature were taken into consideration when designing the instrument, Skills Based Content Checklist to determine functional, non-functional educational and vocational programs.

Coopersmith Self-esteem Inventory SEI (1987).

The literature highlighted how client behaviour could change, often determined by a drastic change to circumstances. To consider any effects such changed circumstances or the programs had upon the trainees and their perceptions of themselves, the instrument was self administered by the trainees on three separate occasions. It was designed to measure and evaluate attitudes toward the self in social, family and personal areas of experience. The instrument is an accepted measurement of self-esteem. The instrument was self administered by the trainees at the start of their detention period at Youth Training Centre "A", prior to their release at the Youth Training Centre to which they had been placed to serve their sentence, and again during phase two of the study when it was forwarded to the sample population who continued to participated in phase two of the study through the mail.

8.9. Phase Two: Life in the Community.

This part of the study was conducted by way of a longitudinal study in the community. It was carried out after the sample had been released from the Youth Training Centres for a period of at least six months. The data collected were to determine whether skills gained by the trainees while at the Youth Training Centres were transferable into the

community to assist them achieve independence. Or, whether psychosocial variables influence the outcome of successful independence irrespective of skills acquired through the programs promoted at the Youth Training Centres. Three data collection instruments were administered by mail throughout Victoria to the sample population that agreed to continue with phase two of the study.

Program Evaluation Sheet (client).

The instrument was designed in the absence of an existing measurement scale, as no standardized test instrument or previous research regarding the perceptions of young offenders released into the community, were available. It was used to gather evaluative data in relation to the trainees' own perceptions of the programs and skills to which they had been subjected while at the Youth Training Centres. The data were also used to determine whether the skills promoted through the programs are considered to be relevant, by the trainees, in assisting them achieve independence in the community. Data were also collected regarding the trainees' awareness and use of services and support in the community to assist them with reintegration.

In order to determine whether the skills gained from programs considered relevant to assist clients achieve independence in the community during the process of rehabilitation, were obliterated by psychosocia! issues in the community, data were collected using a standardized test instrument Rehabilitation Needs and Status Scale, designed by Kravetz (1973).

8.10. Ownership of Data.

During the preliminary discussions with potential members of the study and Youth Training Centre personnel, explanation of the instrumental base and supervisory details of the research was given regarding the criteria used for selecting the sample, the voluntary aspect of participation and that of confidentiality of the sample was assured. The data remains the property of Monash University.

8.11. Techniques of Interviewing.

There are various ways of observing and getting close to people being interviewed that range from complete participation to complete observation (Gold, 1958). In this study, a combination of both was used. The classification meetings held at Youth Training Centre "A", were the first contact the researcher had with the potential sample. Attendant at the meetings were the senior welfare officers from all three Youth Training Centres. The nominated welfare worker from the Classification Section of Youth Training Centre "A", the worker responsible for presenting an initial assessment report on designated trainees under their supervision, the government psychologist responsible for the sample training centres and the researcher (observation only).

The Classification meetings provided the introductions between the researcher and the trainees. These resulted in the first interviews taking place at Youth Training Centre "A". These initial interviews were spread over a period of six months. At first it proved difficult to obtain rapport with many of the young people, as they tended to distrust all representatives of authority. The initial interaction of the trainees was often treated with suspicion, as the researcher was seen as part of the establishment. However relaxed conversation, explanation of the study, the background of the researcher and the fact that the researcher had children the same age as the trainees created an environment whereby it was accepted that the researcher understood the pressures on young people in the community. This proved to be an effective means of breaking down the interview-interviewee barrier.

The researcher felt that empathy, a willingness to listen to the young people without judgment, along with the multiple visits and interviews to the sample centres throughout the trainees' detention period, produced a much greater interest and involvement by the trainees. A relationship that would have been difficult to achieve by an interviewer with no common ground, just an individual collecting data on a "one off" basis. The second and third interviews held during phase one of the study were conducted at two different locations, Youth Training Centres "B" or "C".

The interviews involved a preliminary settling down period over a cup of coffee in the recreation room with several trainees. A valuable component of the process, as for many of them the country location resulted in few visitors.

8.12. Organization of Interviews.

All preliminary interviews took place at Youth Training Centre "A" after the classification process, but before the trainees' were re-located to Youth Training Centre "B" or "C" to serve their detention period. Subsequent follow up interviews for phase one, and the necessary observation of programs were conducted at the Youth Training Centres placement of the particular trainee being interviewed. To enable a comprehensive assessment of programs, several visits involved an overnight stay at the country centres. The longitudinal phase of the study was preceded by a telephone call to each trainee who could be contacted. The sample who agreed to continue to participate in phase two of the study, were forwarded all data instruments through the mail six months after each trainee had been released from detention.

The first interview/data collection visit for phase one of the study at Youth Training Centre "A", involved an introduction to the study and signed agreement from each trainee who agreed to participate. Initial conversations were often unrelated to the data collection, but provided an atmosphere of trust which probably contributed to the overall commitment by the trainees' to participate in the study. The first Coopersmith Inventory SEI (1987) was completed by each of the sample. Data from personal files were collected to complete the test instrument Individual Treatment Plan Sheets. Details were taken from personal files relating to each trainees' recommended placement. This information was necessary for the researcher to follow up visits and collect further data.

The second interview/data collection visit was at Youth Training Centre "B" or "C", approximately one month after each trainee's placement. Data was collected using the Youth Centre Individual Case Plan. These forms provided additional information for the completion of data collecting instrument Individual Treatment Plans. Observations and interviews with Youth Training Centre personnel provided data to complete instrument Skills Based Program Content. There was no time limit placed on interviews or observations, they were regulated by the daily routine of the institutions and personnel duties. The third interview/data collection visit was determined by the detention period of each trainee. A visit was made to each trainee approximately two to three weeks prior to their release, this often involved several trainees where release dates coincided. The second Coopersmith, SEI (1987), was completed by each of the sample.

Phase two of the study involved a telephone call to each of the sample where contact was possible. This occurred six months after their release back into the community. One of the characteristics of a longitudinal component, is that due to variables beyond an investigator's control there is usually a substantial attrition rate of the sample Over a period of time, this study was no exception. Recidivism, young people exercising their option to withdraw from the study, the transient lifestyle by some of the released trainees, thirty-four of the original sample group were eliminated from phase two of the study. Of these, twenty trainees had re-offended within six months of being released from the Youth Training Centres and had returned to a detention placement. This information was gained from family or other persons who responded to the researcher's initial contact with the young people during phase two of the study. Eight of the original sample could not be traced, with their whereabouts also unknown to their families. The option to withdraw from phase two of the study was enacted by six of the original sample. The remainder, sixty-six of the original sample continued to participate in phase two of the study. This attrition, apart from the disadvantage of a reduced sample size, was significant as it provided insight into the lifestyle of the sample population.

Data collecting instruments, Appendix 1 Form A4, Appendix 2 Form B1 and Appendix 2 Form B2 were mailed to each of the remaining sample with an enclosed stamped addressed envelope for the returned response. Where appropriate, further contact by telephone was made fourteen days later. This was followed up with another telephone call to collect outstanding data where necessary.

8.13. Data Analysis.

The general purpose of the study was to determine whether programs offered in Victorian Youth Training Centres include a skills based content regarded as necessary to assist young people achieve independence in the community. It was also to determine whether any skills gained from the programs are transferable into the community to the assist young people achieve independence, or whether the achievement of independence is determined by outside variables that take precedence over skills gained from the programs offered at the Youth Training Centres. The researcher used an evaluative approach that is related to defining overall objectives. Referred to as a systems analysis, the approach is based on the concept that neither a whole or a part of a system can be evaluated without first defining the objective of the system (Kravetz 1973). Any agency that carries out a rehabilitation process by serving individuals with physical, mental or special limitations is a system. It has been defined as "a set of parts coordinated to accomplish a set of goals" (Churchman, 1968, p.29). The researcher argued that the difficulty with evaluating programs is that long-term success can become dependent upon environmental factors. While initial goals may include economic independence, they may well spread beyond this to incorporate such objectives as client satisfaction and independent living. The influence of environmental factors can impact upon the individual to the point that independent living becomes the goal, irrespective of economic independence (Churchman, 1968).

The analysis of data collected using Checklist for the existence of Individual Treatment Plans, and Case Plan Sheets were used to determine whether the programs to which the

trainees were subjected while at the Youth Training Centres were based on individual needs. The criteria previously mentioned, set out by Rubins and Roessler (1979) determined whether, if met during the intake interview/process, individual needs could have been considered as having been met during the program planning process. Analysis of the data provided the necessary information to determine, under the criteria, whether needs were being met. Analysis of data collected using Appendix 1 Form A3 were used to determine whether programs offered at the sample Youth Training Centres had a skills based content. An evaluation of the programs was carried out through interviews and observations. Using a skills approach, analysis of the data were organized by a cross reference with the skills considered necessary for independence, with the programs offered. Observation of each program offered at the centres, along with interviews with skilled personnel provided the professional opinion in relation to the skills necessary for the programs to have been considered as having been competently carried out. For example, the skills considered necessary by the professional trades people at the centres for the trainees to carry out the duties in the carpentry workshop program were routine, punctuality, work independence, equipment procedures, appropriate responses to supervision, safety awareness, group interaction, individual interaction, frustration tolerance, cooperation and teamwork. This process was carried out using the skills based content for all programs offered at the sample Youth Training Centres.

Analysis of test instrument Coopersmith Self-esteem Inventory SEI, (1987) that was administered on three separate occasions, provided the data that measured the self-esteem of the sample. The data were crucial at both phases of the study. During phase one it provided data that reflected the self-esteem levels of the trainees over the detention period. The data collected during phase two of the study were crucial to the final analysis of the effectiveness of the system approach to rehabilitation. Analysis of the data collected from the three stages of administration of the instrument enabled a

comparison to be made between the start and completion of the trainees' detention period during phase one. It also provided data to determine changes in the trainees' self-esteem from the conclusion of their detention period to the six month period of rehabilitation in the community. On this basis, the results validated the outcome of change, if any, of the trainees' self-esteem in response to the temporary exposure to a situation.

The adult form as used in the study was specifically adapted to be administered to young people over the age of 15 years whose lives are not closely bound to their parents (Coopersmith, 1987). This situation was applicable to the sample in the present study. While the researcher argued that, "there are no exact criteria for high, medium or low levels of self-esteem. Self-esteem can vary with the characteristics of the sample, the distribution of scores and theoretical and clinical considerations" (p.8), the researcher did note the normative score of the Adult Coopersmith (SEI) (1987) is 76, with a standard deviation of 18.8. This provided the guidelines and determined the criteria and cut off score for comparing the normative adult population. The median score of the sample will determine criteria and the cut off for deciding low scoring for a comparison of the sample population. The scoring process for the instrument provided for the scoring of negative items to be scored positive. For example, item 1; 'Things usually don't bother me' will be scored with a positive 'like me', while item 13, 'Things are all mixed up in my life' will be scored negative 'unlike me'. A total of 25 items provide a maximum score of 100 with all positive responses multiplied by 4.

Analysis of the data from the first and second stages of administration provided the necessary information to determine whether programs offered at the Youth Training Centres had a positive effect upon the self-esteem of the trainees. Analysis of the data collected during the second and third administration provided the information to determine whether any positive gains achieved through the programs in the Youth Training Centres could be maintained six months after the trainees had been released back into the community.

Analysis of data collected using Program Evaluation Sheet (Client), provided a subjective evaluation by the trainees of the programs and skills promoted at the Youth Training Centres. The data provided the trainees' own perceptions relating to the existence of any relationship between the skills necessary for independent living and the skills based programs promoted at the centres, to assist them achieve independence in the community. Data were also collected in relation to the trainees awareness and use of support agencies in the community, to assist them with the rehabilitation process.

Analysis of test instrument Rehabilitation Needs and Status Scale, provided data that highlighted problems faced by young people striving for independence in the community during the process of rehabilitation. The instrument designed by Kravetz (1973), provided data which would determine whether the basic need of survival, stability, social, personal and family relationships through the needs based categories of Safety and Security and Love and Belonging, would take priority over the needs category of Self-esteem as a result of environmental influences in the community.

Analysis of the data from the three categories, Safety and Security, Love and Belonging and Self-esteem provided scores for the three needs groups. The Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS), Nie, Bent and Hull (1970), was used to cross tabulate the scores between the three categories. This enabled the theory put forward by Maslow (1952), to be examined. The theory being that, one group of needs tended to dominate another group when both were not satisfied. He argued that individuals primarily gratify the most basic needs groups of Safety and Security and Love and Belonging. Analysis of the scores provided data to determine whether the basic needs of Safety and Security and Love and Belonging would be met before the less basic need of Self-esteem would be satisfied. .

The scoring process for the instrument, Rehabilitation Needs and Status Scale provided for the scoring of 53 items with a choice of four response categories for each item. For the purpose of item analysis, the ordinal constructed instrument was assigned a priori weight of 1 to 4 to each of the four response categories for all 53 items. For example, question 2; "How many jobs have you had and maintained in the last six months" This item is assigned to the category of self-esteem (as it denotes confidence in maintaining employment) provided the responses as, a) 1, b) 2, c) 3 or more, d) none, did not work. The last response, d) none, did not work, is given a weight of one, as it is judged to indicate the lowest degree of confidence and thereby having a negative impact upon self-esteem. The first response possibility, that the individual had only one job in the last six months is deemed to indicate the highest degree of self-esteem and awarded a weight of four. Having had two jobs in the last six months scored a weight of 3, with three or more jobs scoring a weight of 2. In this way each response category for each item received a weight score from one to four. The maximum score for each needs category for each of the sample population that remained in phase two of the study was 264. By summing the weights of individual responses to all items in one needs category, a total score indicated each individual's level of satisfaction for the specific needs category. Having completed this for all three categories, Safety and Security, Love and Belonging and Self-esteem, the data provided three composite scores. These were then analyzed to determine the theory put forward by Maslow (1952), and mentioned above.

However, there is a need to be aware of the claim by Maslow (1970), that is, an individual might only have a limited awareness of his needs. The reported changes regarding these by each of the sample may not truly indicate the actual changes that may have taken place as a result of programs. However, they will indicate what the sample population perceived to have taken place (Maslow, 1970).

CHAPTER 9 RESULTS OF THE STUDY.

9.1. Hypothesis 1.

Individual needs of the trainees are taken into consideration when determining a program as measured by criteria set out by Rubins and Roessler (1979).

The literature highlighted five kinds of intake examination as necessary to exist to ensure that treatment plans could be measured as catering to meet the individual needs of clients. They are as follows:

1). The intake interview.

2). The general medical examination.

3). The medical specialist examination (if necessary).

4). A psychological examination.

5). Vocational objectives.

As mentioned, all young offenders aged between 17 and 21 years of age who are sentenced by the courts to serve a period of detention at one of Victoria's Youth Training Centres, are sent to Youth Training Centre "A" for assessment. Over a period of ten days information is gathered and presented at weekly assessment meetings. Upon arrival at Youth Training Centre "A", each trainee is allocated a key worker, a member of the Youth Training Centre staff who has the responsibility to compile and present a report to the assessment meeting.

9.2. The Assessment Meeting.

Weekly meetings held at Youth Training Centre "A" were attended by the trainee, the allocated key worker, the officer in charge of the assessment section, officers in charge of both Youth Training Centres "B" and "C", along with the department psychologist responsible for the centers.   The weekly meetings determined the placement of trainees either at Youth Centre "B" or "C".   The information considered at the meetings included personal files, previous record of convictions, court reports, psychiatric and psychological assessment and the assessment report prepared by the key worker. The report was a combination of an evaluative assessment based on observations of a

trainee's behaviour over the assessment period of ten days, along with information gained from personal files and interviews held with the trainee. It should be noted that some information in the report related to the key worker's own perceptions of situations observed over the assessment period, observations judged by the worker to have a significant bearing on the final decision of placement.

During the researcher's attendance at the assessment meetings, the relationship between the key worker's assessment and recommendations generally had a direct link with the decisions of placement for the trainees. However, on the occasions that the relationship between the recommendations and decision of placement were weak, it can be concluded that intervening variables, such as overcrowding at the preferred placement or a trainee's previous placement had an important effect upon the final decision. Or, that the assessment meeting decisions, merely influenced by the assessment report and its recommendations, reached different conclusions on the basis of the same information. When the relationship between the recommendations and decision of placement were strong, it could be assumed that the intervening variables were not significant and that the assessment meeting personnel accepted the recommendation for placement made by the key worker. It must be clarified that the placement decision did not restrict the choice of vocational and leisure activities available to the trainees, as this process was completed upon each trainee's arrival at Youth Training Centre "B" or "C". It was accepted by all personnel involved that the task of determining the activities were influenced by the individual's ability to perform the potential skills. The personnel involved focused on each trainee's work attitudes, behaviour and skills when matching potential vocational, educational and leisure activities offered at the centres. The extent to which these objectives were analyzed is determined from the data collected through interviews with the trainees and data from personal files. The data is then transferred onto the case plan sheets. The comprehensive information documented on the case plan sheets show the complexity of the decision process and the volume of idiosyncratic factors considered. The researcher's interviews with the sample concluded, that an updated social history was recorded onto existing files during intake interviews with the key workers. This information was then used in the preparation of reports for the assessment meetings. The intake interview was a compulsory part of the

assessment process for all trainees as was the general medical examination. A medical specialist examination, considered as optional and to be carried out only if regarded as necessary, was not followed up for any of the sample after the compulsory medical examination was completed. A psychological examination was carried out only on the recommendation of the courts, with follow up counselling sessions being dependent upon the Youth Training Placement. The distance from the metropolitan area to Youth Training Centre "B", was considered too far for the psychologist to visit on a regular basis. In some situations this was a consideration when placement was determined. Vocational, educational and leisure objectives were considered during the assessment period, however the process was not finalized until after the trainees had been transferred to Youth Training Centre "B" or "C". In general, the training programs enabled the trainees to proceed at their own pace under the guidance of qualified professional supervision.

The data which appear as Figure 1 partially supported hypothesis one, that individual needs were taken into consideration during the preparation of programs in relation to the criteria set out by Rubins and Roessler (1979).

Figure 1. Trainees undergoing Individual Needs Assessment

Percentage of Trainees undergoing Individual Needs Assessment.
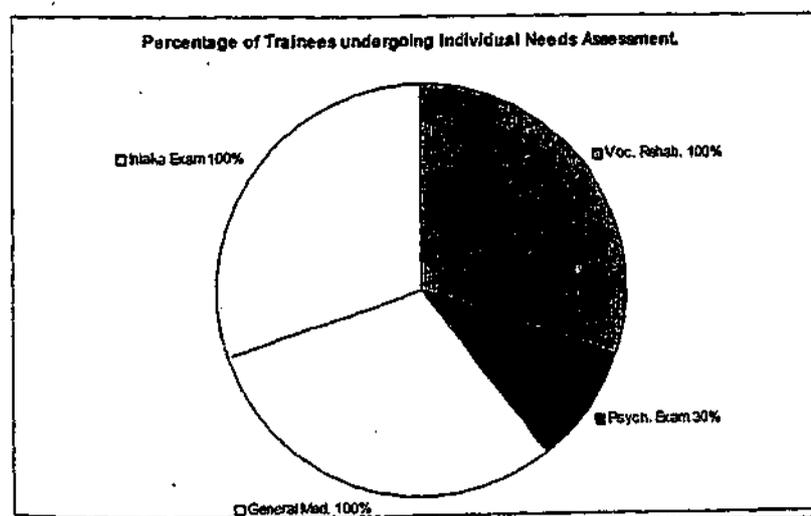
9.3. Hypothesis 2

The functional, non-functional, educational and vocational skills necessary for independent living as measured on criteria set out by Wright (1980); Goldberg (1973); Epperson, Witt and Hithusen (1972) and Cooper and Harper (1979) are provided in the content of programs delivered at Victorian Youth Training Centres.

A variety of programs were offered at the Youth Training Centres. While the vocational and educational activities, once finalized with each trainee were fairly rigid, opportunities existed for extra curricula activities. Leisure activities were flexible and trainees could, if they so wished, utilize many options during their period of detention. Trainees who wished to improve their educational qualifications could do so through a number of courses available through the education center. Basic education courses were specifically geared for those trainees who had not fully mastered the skills of reading, spelling, written expression or mathematics, while electives covered photography, computer studies, poetry, art/craft and community radio involvement. For the more capable trainees who wished to improve their level of education, a number of courses were available through correspondence with outside Technical and Further Education Colleges (TAFE). Such courses covered year 10 and 11 Mathematics, Literacy and Trade Mathematics.

While all the programs were offered with the aim of developing a sense of personal achievement, attitude and relationships to assist the trainees develop the skills identified as promoting independence, the core vocational programs, identified as painting, motor mechanics, horticulture, carpentry, metal workshop, catering, laundry work and farm work also promoted tasks that would asssit the young people develop specific skills relevant to each program . The Youth Training Centres offered a wide range of recreational activities at both an individual and team level. Many competitive events were arranged between teams within the centers and the outside community. Football, basketball and volleyball utilized local community resources. While encouragement was given to evening hobby groups within the centers, such activities as roller-skating, horse riding and the cinema were optional activities. The camping and

other outdoor adventure programs operated with the assistance of professionals who volunteered their services. Frequent activities included, White Water Rafting, Bush Camping in Queensland, Rock Climbing, Abseiling, Yachting and other related water safety programs. The programs were offered as part of the leisure component of the total process and although they were available to the sample population at least once during their period of detention, not all the trainees chose to utilize the option. However, all the programs were developed to promote a sense of trust and cooperation, to enable the trainees experience success, develop confidence and improve self-esteem.

A comprehensive extract of client participation, evaluation and experiences documented by some of the trainees who did participated in the adventure activities during the data collection period, appears in the appendices as Appendix C. Prominent throughout the extracts are the expressions of emotions experienced by the trainees. Many feelings such as enjoyment, fear, security, achievement, trust and willingness to participate in challenging experiences were expressed by the young people, who, for the first time in their lives felt they had achieved something by persisting with the challenge, helping others, forming meaningful relationships and communicating with others. These new perceptions expressed by the trainees, along with the skills necessary to accomplish the tasks, provided the young people with a sense of purpose, confidence in the future and a new-found belief in themselves which overshadowed their feeling of rejection by society. All this was summarized by some of the trainees as having " been achieved without the aid of drugs".

The extracts highlight the development of interpersonal and psychosocial skills, along with the trainees' ability to express their feelings and emotions. Skills referred to in the literature as necessary, but often deficit with young people who have experienced periods of institutional life. The feelings that the trainees expressed through the extracts of their experiences appear to promote feelings of support, success and well being that have been achieved incidentally through the outdoor activity programs, as structured interpersonal skills development programs were not offered in the centers.

9.4. Results.

The data presented as figure 2, identifies the programs offered at the Youth Training Centres and their classification as either functional/vocational; non-functional/ leisure or educational. The data highlights the skills considered necessary for an individual to achieve independence, along with the percentage of skills that each program required before it can be deemed that an individual has successfully participated in the program.

Of the fifteen core programs shown in figure 2, eight were categorized as functional/ vocational options. These included; paint shop, motor mechanic, horticulture, carpentry, metal trades, laundry work, catering and farm work. Six were promoted as non-functional/leisure pursuits and included, football, basketball, volleyball, rock climbing, water sports and camping. One program was classified as promoting educational skills, as defined by the Carney Report. A variety of educational curriculum areas were covered through the on and off campus facilities. The skills considered necessary for an individual to achieve independence in the community, as previously determined in the literature, were twelve separate skills. These included; routine, punctuality, work independence, hygiene, cooking, safety awareness, appropriate communication, group interaction, individual interaction, frustration tolerance, cooperation and teamwork.

As the data shows, catering required a skill achievement level of 100% of independent skill attainment, while farm and laundry work required 92% skill achievement. The remaining functional/vocational programs all required a skill attainment level of 84%. All these programs were a compulsory part of the vocational rehabilitation process and all except one of the trainees participated in one of the options on a full time basis. Education was optional, and as the data shows, only one trainee was involved with educational studies on a full time basis. The remaining programs, all non-functional/leisure pursuits, as the data shows, involved a substantial percentage of skill attainment.

Observational assessment, discussions with the Youth Training Centre skilled personnel, plus written and verbal information from the trainees provided the data necessary to complete the instrument Skills Based Content Checklist. The data collected which appear as figures 2 and 3, highlighted the inter-relationship of independent living skills with several programs offered at the centres. For example, the paint shop, motor mechanic, carpentry, horticulture and metal trades, all required the skills of routine, punctuality, work independence, safety equipment procedures, appropriate communication, group interaction, individual interaction, frustration tolerance, cooperation and teamwork for the trainees to have been regarded as having successfully participated in the programs.

The data presented in figure 3 shows the relationship between the percentage of programs offered in the centres and the percentage of skills considered necessary for independent living. The data shows that only 7% of the programs required 100% of the skills deemed necessary for independent living. The data also shows that 14% of the programs required a 59% skill level, 20% required 76% skill level, while 33% of the programs offered required 84% of the skills considered necessary for independent living.

The data appears to indicate that hypothesis 2 can be supported and that the functional, non-functional, educational and vocational skills necessary for independent living are provided in the content of the programs delivered at Victoria's Youth Training Centres.

Figure 2. Functional/Vocational, Non-Functional/Leisure and Educational Programs

Programme	Cooking	Routine	Punctuality	Work - Independence	Hygiene	Safety	Communication	Group - Interaction	Individ - Interaction	Frustration Tolerance	Cooperation	Team work	Skills Content of Prog
Paint shop		•	•	•		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	84%
Motor Mechanics		•	•	•		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	84%
Horticulture		•	•	•		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	84%
Carpentry		•	•	•		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	84%
Metal Trades		•	•	•		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	84%
Catering	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	100%
Laundry		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	92%
Farm Work		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	92%
Camping	•	•		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	92%
Football		•	•			•	•	•	•	•	•	•	76%
Basket Ball		•	•			•	•	•	•	•	•	•	76%
Volley Ball		•	•			•	•	•	•	•	•	•	76%
Education		•	•	•			•	•	•	•	•	•	76%
WaterSports						•	•	•	•	•	•	•	59%
Rockclimbing						•	•	•	•	•	•	•	59%

Percentage of Independent Skills that each Program required for successful participation

Figure 3. Relationship between the percentage of Programs offered and the percentage Skills required for successful participation.

Percentage of programs   Percentage of skills necessary for successful participation
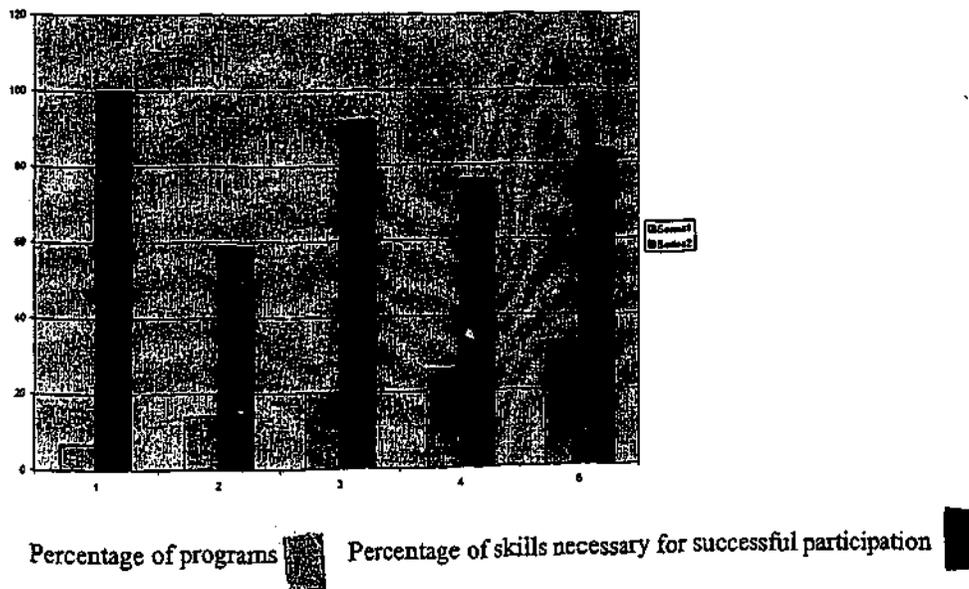
9.5. Hypothesis 3.

There is a change in client self-esteem after being subjected to the programs offered in Victoria's Youth Training Centres, and there is a decrease within six months of leaving the centres and being released into the community.

The aim of this section of the study was to explore the association between the subjects' self-esteem and the programs to which they were subjected during their incarceration and their subsequent release back into the community. A change in self-esteem was expected after the subjects underwent the training programs offered in Victoria's Youth Training Centres. This expectation was consistent with the aims of the programs and objectives put forward by the Carney Report. Further it was expected that the pressure of living in society would lead to a significant decrease in the trainees' self-esteem within a six-month period of leaving the program.

To determine a conclusion to hypothesis 3, The Coopersmith Inventory (SEI) was administered to the full sample on two occasions, with the reduced sample completing the instrument for a third time during their process of reintegration into the community. The first inventory was administered at Youth Training Centre "A" during the assessment period and again at the conclusion of the period of detention at Youth Training Cen... "B" or "C". The third administration was completed by the sample who continued to participate in phase two of the study. The instrument was forwarded through the mail to the sample population six months after they had been released from their period of detention. As previously mentioned, thirty four of the original sample failed to complete phase two of the study. Consequently, part of the hypothesis was determined with the remaining sample of sixty six young people who completed the two phases of the study. The attrition by some of the sample resulted in the formation of two groups. Sub-group "A" were the group of sixty six young offenders who completed the two phases of the study and sub-group "B", the thirty four young offenders who failed to continue with phase two of the study.

Because of the substantial size of sub-group "B" it was considered necessary to test each group separately. Data were analysed from sub-group "A" at the start and conclusion of their period of detention and compared with data collected six months after their release back into the community. The data relating to sub-group "B" were analysed at the start and conclusion of their period of detention.

9.6. Results.

The mean scores for the sample using for all three testing occasions are presented in Table 1. There was a change in self-esteem of 11.8 points in the whole group between the commencement and completion of the training program, it was clearly statistically significant (t (99) = -5.91, p< .001). There was no significant change in the mean self-esteem scores of sub-group "A" (t (65) <1, n.s.) between the completion of the program and the follow up six months later. With the formation of the two sub-groups, it is worth noting that differences were found where none were expected. There was a statistically significant difference (t (65) = -10.05, p< .001) in sub-group "A"s mean self-esteem scores between the commencement and completion of the program with a change in self-esteem of 17.59 points. However, with sub-group "B" there was only a slight change (t (33) <1, n.s.) in their self-esteem scores between commencing and completing the program which was not statistically significant.

The results only partially supported research expectations and raised a number of important questions and the need for further research. There was a change in the whole group's self-esteem after being subjected to the programs offered in Victoria's Youth Training Centres, however, the expected decrease in client self-esteem within six months of being released into the community was not supported by the data collected from the sample who continued to participate in phase two of the study. The implications for further research will be discussed in a later chapter. However, some important questions were raised:

Firstly, why was there no improvement in self-esteem after the trainees underwent the training programs offered in Victoria's Youth Training Centres?

Secondly, why did sub-group "A" exhibit a noticeable change of 17.59 points in self-esteem scores during their period of detention compared to almost none for sub-group "B"?

Thirdly, why did the pressure of living in society for the six months following their release from detention not result in a significant decrease in sub-group "A"s self-esteem? As the results noted, the self-esteem remained constant at the levels recorded at the time of the trainees' exit from detention for this sub-group.

Finally, what factors caused the difference in the effect on self-esteem between the two emergent sub-groups, the programs or the period of detention? An explanation will be offered for the discrepancies between the two groups of offenders in the discussion to follow.

Table 1. Self-esteem scores as recorded using Coopersmith SEI.

Recorded self-esteem scores at entry to the Y.T.C.

	N.	Mean	S.D.
Total group	100	56.60	16.18
Sub-group "A".	66	57.83	14.20
Sub-group "B"	34	54.00	17.90

Recorded self-esteem scores at exit from Y.T.C.

	N.	Mean	S.D.
Total group	100	44.80	16.84
Sub-group "A"	66	40.24	11.70
Sub-group "B"	34	53.53	17.50

Recorded self-esteem scores for sub-group "A" in the period 6 months

After their were released.

	N.	Mean	S.D.
Sub-group "A"	66	40.32	11.70

9.7. Hypothesis 4.

Skills gained through participation in the programs offered in Victoria's Youth Training Centres are relevant to achieving independence in the community.

The aim of this study was to determine whether young people found the programs to which they had been subjected while in detention relevant to them achieving independence in the community. Data collected using Program Evaluation Sheet (client), were a subjective evaluation by the young people regarding their own perceptions. This provided a client orientated perspective to the process of rehabilitation. Data were also collected regarding the young people's awareness and use of, support and programs in the community to assist them achieve independence. The data collecting instruments were forwarded by mail to the sample who continued to participate in phase 2 of the study. The response recorded was for the sixty six of the sample who continued to participate in the study.

9.8. Results.

Data analysis of Item one of Appendix 2 Form B1, relating to the trainees' own participation as to the relevance of the programs offered in Victoria's Youth Training Centres in assisting them achieve independence in the community are presented as figures 4 and 4a.

Significantly more subjects (chi square = 13.63 (1), $p < 0.05$) found the programs relevant to assist them achieve independence in the community. Of the data returned, 63% of the sample found the vocational programs in which they had participated were relevant to assisting them achieve independence, compared to 29% who found the programs as useful. These figures were significantly higher than the 8% who regarded the vocational programs in which they had been involved as being of no use to assist them achieve independence. Of the non-functional/leisure programs, 76% of the sample found them useful in the community compared to 24% who considered them to be of no use.

Figure 4. Client perception of the relevance of the Functional/Vocational Programs offered at the centres.

63% Relevant

29% Useful

8% No use
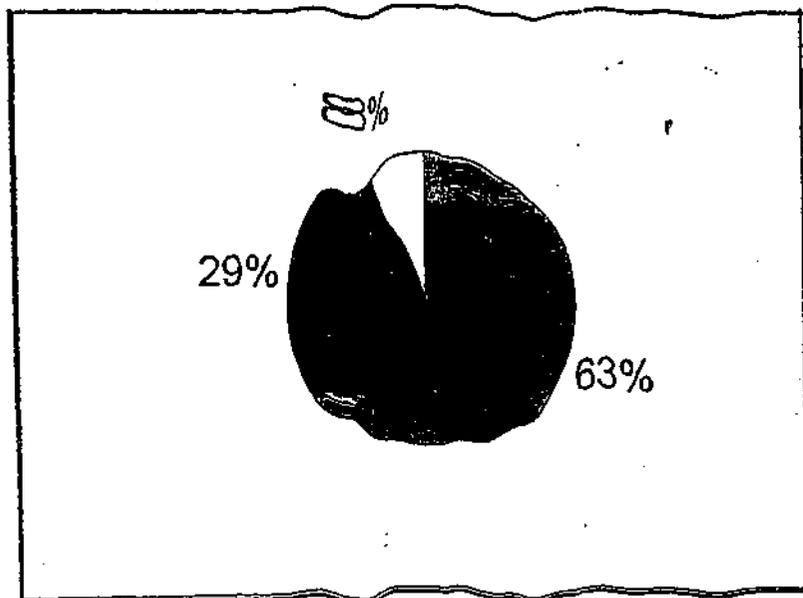
Figure 4a. Client perception fo the relevance of the Non-functional/Leisure Programs offered at the centres.

76% Useful

24% No use
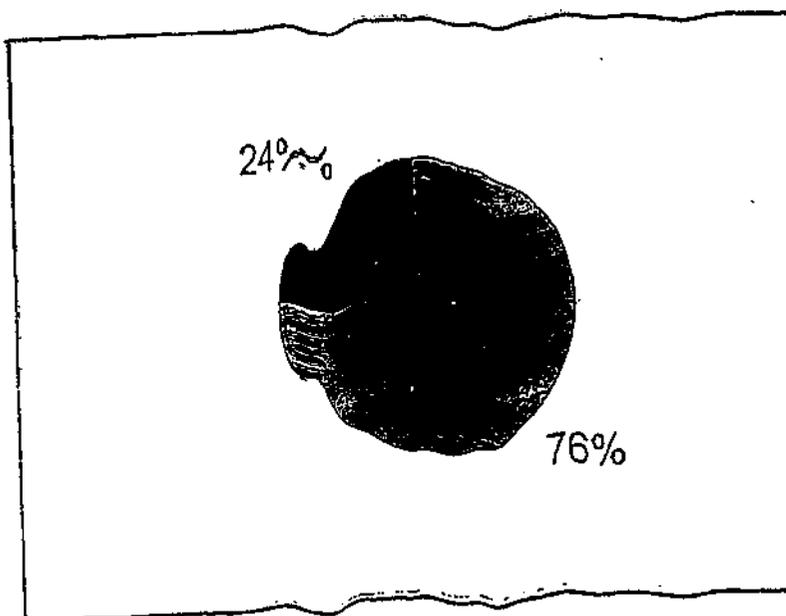
Analysis of data pertaining to item two of Appendix 2 Form B2 and the skills of cooking, routine, punctuality, ability to work independently, hygiene, safety awareness, communication, group interaction, individual interaction, tolerance, cooperation, teamwork and educational skills, were found by all of the sample who continued to participate in the study as necessary to achieve independence in the community. However, as shown in figures 4 and 4a, some of the sample did not consider that the programs offered in the centres promoted their own independence in the community. The explanation for this could be that these young people failed to associate the skills content necessary to have been successful in the programs in which they participated, and considered relevant by the criteria set out in the literature, as being relevant to their own achievement of independence in relation to the activities they found themselves in. For example, no trainee considered the skills necessary to participate in the leisure/adventure activities as relevant to the skills considered necessary to promote independence in the community, despite the data presented in hypothesis 2 showing the high percentage of skill content that existed in such activities. As table 2 shows,, despite the non-functional/leisure programs being optional, all trainees participated in the programs.

Table 2 Client Evaluation of the Programs Offered at the Youth Training Centres to Promote Independent Living.

Program Title	Relevant	Useful	No Use
Motor Mechanic	7	-	-
Horticulture	5	-	-
Carpentry	7	-	-
Laundry	10	-	-
Kitchen	14	-	-
Farm	-	6	5
Metal Trade	2	4	-
Paint Shop	-	5	-
Educational	-	1	-
Leisure Activities	-	50	16

The data pertaining to item three of Appendix 1 Form B1, as to whether the young people gained the skills while at the centres is shown in figure 5. As the data shows, 73% of the responses acknowledged that the young people had gained the skills while at the centres, while 27% believed they already possessed the relevant skills prior to their period of detention.

Figure 5. Client achievement of skills.
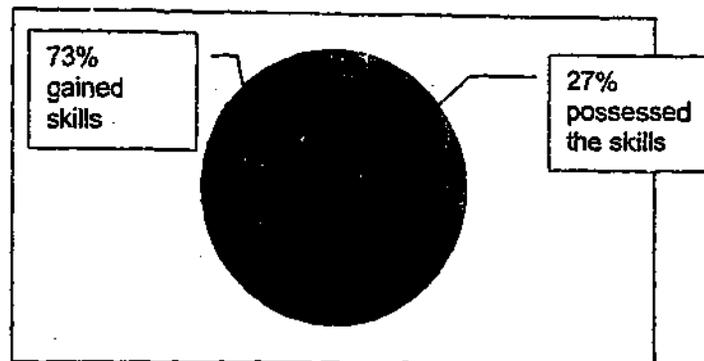
In response to item four, the Commonwealth Employment Agency, (C.E.S) and the Social Security Department were the only agencies sought out by the young people for assistance. Data relating to item 5, the existence and use of other community agencies or support networks were not recorded on the returned instruments by the sample population. It was therefore concluded that the sample were either unaware of other support networks, did not seek out their assistance or were reluctant to admit that they continued to seek support from outside agencies. The response to item six recorded all the sample who participated in phase 2 of the study were eager to remain on the outside once released. However, several young people expressed the opinion that life inside was not as bad as they had expected. The most negative comments related to the feelings of loneliness and isolation often resulting from a lack of visitors.

The data appears to partially support hypothesis 4, that the skills gained through participation in the programs offered at Victoria's Youth Training Centres are relevant to achieving independence in the community, as significantly more young people found the skills they gained through participation in the programs as relevant to their life in the community.

9.9. Hypothesis 5.

Psycho-social issues as measured by Kravetz (1973) influence young people achieving independence in the community irrespective of the skills promoted through the programs offered in the Youth Training Centres.

The aim of this part of the study was to determine whether psychosocial issues have an over riding influence when it comes to achieving independence in the community. Based on Maslow's (1952) concept, that basic human needs fall into specific hierarchical groups in order of priority, the three needs categories used were, first, Safety and Security, second Love and Belongingness, and third, Self-esteem. Maslow (1952) theorised that one group of needs would proceed to dominate over another group if not being satisfied. His view being, that an individual will gratify the most basic needs first, after which the less basic need would emerge full strength. Once minimal satisfaction of the dominant basic need had been achieved, it would no longer limit the satisfaction of the other needs in the hierarchical chain. While he argued that satisfaction of one need increases the probability that another will be satisfied, the aim of hypothesis 5 considered whether the basic need of survival through the needs categories of Safety and Security and Love and Belonginesss would take priority, and once satisfied the third needs category of Self-esteem would become dominant. Using criteria set down by Kravetz (1973) and based on Maslow's theory, the skills deemed necessary for independent living and offered at the Youth Training Centres fall within the category of Self-esteem. Therefore the programs and skill development offered at the centres would only influence young people achieving independence in the community after the needs categories of Safety and Security and Love and Belongingness had been satisfied.

For the purpose of the hypothesis psychosocial behaviour is defined as one's conscious behaviour and ability to live in a community rather than alone. Data collected using the Rehabilitation Needs and Status Scale will consider whether outside variables influence an individual's achievement of independence irrespective of the skills promoted in the

Youth Training Centres. The instrument was forwarded through the mail to the sample that continued to participate in phase 2 of the study.

Being aware of the claim by Maslow (1970) that an individual might have only a limited awareness of his needs, along with the researcher's lack of control over the conditions that constrain the awareness of gratification and deprivation, the direct report of changes regarding these by each of the sample population may not truly indicate the actual changes that may have taken place as a result of the programs and skills to which the sample population were exposed during their period of detention. However, it will indicate what the sample population perceive to have taken place.

9.10. Results.

A standard multiple regression was performed between self-esteem as the dependent variable and Safety and Security and Love and Belonging as the independent variables. The results of evaluating the assumptions of normality, outliers, linearity and homoscedasticity of residuals indicated no violations. (R), (the multiple correlation) for the regression was significantly different from zero, $F(2,63)=25.096$, $p<0.001$. Only safety/security contributed significantly to prediction of self-esteem ($P<0.05$). The two independent variables in combination predicted 44.3% (42.6% adjusted) of the variability of the subject's self-esteem. Although love and belonging did not contribute significantly to the regression, post hoc evaluation of the correlation revealed that it was significantly different from zero, $F(1,64)=11.91$, $p<0.001$). Apparently the relationship between self-esteem and love and belonging is an indirect result of the relationship between safety and security and self-esteem.

Analysis of the data revealed that 80% of the sample who continued to participate in the study continued to be unemployed six months after their release from the Youth Training Centre. Therefore, to determine whether this variable affected the hypothesis, the data was further analysed to determine any difference between the employed and the unemployed sample in relation to Maslow's theory that the basic need of survival through the needs category of Safety and Security and Love and Belonging would take priority over the needs category of Self-

esteem despite the young people having successfully developed skills promoted through the programs offered at the Youth Training Centres and deemed necessary to achieve independence in the community. The data which appear as figure 6 relate to the sample and their employment status six months after being released from custody, and the effect their employment status had upon the rehabilitation needs and status scale.

These data appear to support hypothesis 5 that psychosocial issues as measured by Kravetz (1973), influence young people achieving independence in the community irrespective of the skills promoted through the programs offered in the Youth Training Centres. It can be argued that the lower self-esteem scores of the 80% of the sample who continued to be unemployed six months after being released from detention were influenced by the failure of the group to obtain employment, thereby failing to utilize any skills developed through the programs. It can also be argued that the slightly higher self-esteem scores recorded for 20% of the sample who were employed six months after being released from detention were influenced by their ability to utilize the skills developed at the Youth Training Centres and maintain a position in the workforce..

Figure 6. Rehabilitation Needs and Status. Unemployed/Employed Status of Sample six months after release from detention..
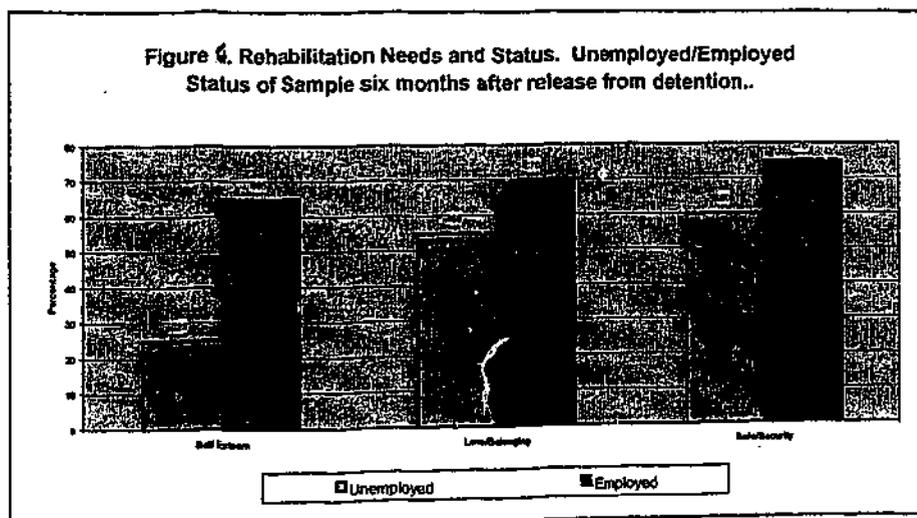
CHAPTER 10. DISCUSSION: RESEARCH FINDINGS AND THEIR IMPLICATIONS.

10.1 Research Findings and Implications.

As indicated in the literature review, the study was designed to check whether the Carney Report had been effective. The recommendations put forward by the report stated that programs and support offered in Youth Training Centres and thereafter in the community should be designed to provide young offenders with the skills necessary to assist them with the process of reintegration back into the community.

The study began with an examination of young offenders as they commenced a period of detention at one of the sample Youth Training Centres. This progressed to a follow-up study carried out in the community six months after the offenders had been released from custody. One of the characteristics of a longitudinal study is the attrition rate of respondents over time and this study was no exception. Although the outcome put forward a pessimistic view that resulted in the emergence of two groups from the original sample, this development did not cause a problem regarding the findings of the study. To the contrary, it provided insight into the underlying problems faced by the sample. It highlighted the lifestyle of a group that can be considered a relevant factor in the study findings, thereby supporting the need for further research.

The study attempted to answer such questions as:

Did the programs offered in Victoria's Youth Training Centres promote skills that are determined as necessary to enable the trainees achieve independence in the community after their release from detention?

Were the programs considered relevant by the trainees themselves in assisting them achieve independence in the community?

Would the period of detention impact upon the self-esteem of the trainees, and would there be any change after they had been released back into the community?

Were the programs geared to meet individual needs, and were the skills learned in the Youth Training Centres transferable into the community?

Would the skills developed at the Youth Training Centres be redundant when influenced by outside variables such as unemployment, financial and relationship problems often faced by young people in the community?

What programs, support or agencies exist in the community to assist young people over come such problems?

Are the young people aware of the support and do they access it?

The findings of this study relating to the initial process of assessment where it was considered whether individual needs were being met in order to determine a program for each trainee using criteria set out in the literature by Rubins and Roessler (1979), were strong. The report presented at the assessment meetings relating to each trainee was comprehensive and included background information collected from records and interviews. While no specialist medical examination was carried out, possibly because the general medical examination found the health of the trainees satisfactory, psychological examinations were carried out upon thirty trainees at the request of the courts. Of those young people who did undergo a psychological examination, follow-up was treatment determined by the youth training placement. The restricted recommendations placed upon such assessments cannot relate to the failing of Youth Training Centre "A" to carry out full intake assessments. The responsibility must lie with the courts and their process of recommendation. However, the geographical placement of one Youth Training Centre did have an influence on the regularity of follow up therapy sessions by the trained psychologist for those trainees who had undergone such an assessment. This failure by the psychologist to provide on-going treatment for the trainees who were considered by the courts to be in need of such a service, could be considered a shortcoming in the total treatment process.

The findings of the study suggested that the programs offered in the centres did meet the criteria that determines the development of independent skills as set out in the literature. However, the lack of positive effect the programs presented in relation to the self-esteem of the trainees was a surprising result in view of the fact that programs had been designed to meet individual needs. The programs had no significant positive influence on the self-esteem of the trainees while at the Youth Training Centres. This finding was despite the positive attitude toward the programs recorded by the trainees from the data collected during the follow-up study.

Several studies in the literature noted the issues that surround the integration of young people into the community after leaving an institutional environment. The longitudinal component of this study was carried out in the community six months after the young offenders had been released from Victoria's Youth Training Centres. The objective was to determine whether the skills developed through the programs offered in the Youth Training Centres would provide the young offenders with skills that would assist them with the process of re-integration and independence, or whether outside variables such as unemployment, accommodation, financial and relationship issues would override the young people's ability to utilize the skills they had developed.

In relation to the data that examined the trainees' own perceptions about the programs offered, a significant majority of the trainees acknowledged that they had gained the skills while at the centres, and all the trainees agreed that the skills promoted through the programs were necessary to assist an individual achieve independence. With respect to the programs categorized as functional/vocational, again, a significant majority found the programs to which they had been subjected were either relevant or useful to assist them achieve independence. It must be noted that the small percentage of young people who found the vocational program to which they had been subjected to be of no use to them in the community, all participated in the farm duties. This perception of the program could be related to the fact that these young people were, upon being released, residing in the metropolitan area.

All the young people who continued to participate in phase two of the study had participated in some form of non-functional/leisure activity. While a significant number found the programs to be useful for community life, almost one quarter regarded them to be of no use to promoting independence. This was despite the fact that the data showed the skills content of the non-functional/leisure programs offered in the centres was relevant to the life skills deemed necessary to achieve independence in the community as recommended by the Carney Report. An explanation for this could be, that the young people failed to associate the skill content of the leisure programs with the skills necessary to achieve independence through participation in the work force. Because, as the data showed, all the programs that were classified as relevant by the young people to life in the community, were classified as functional/vocational programs. The skills developed through such programs, as previously noted, also promoted specific skills relevant to each activity.

Such findings question the recommendations put forward by the Mayer report (1992), and its quest for people to develop the key competency skills referred to in the literature review. It can be accepted that such skills may, as argued by the report, provide a foundation for a multi-skilled, flexible and adequate work force that, as the report suggested, would enable people to effectively participate in the world of work. However, in relation to the findings of this study, despite the young people having developed similar skills to those promoted by the Mayer Report, the opportunities to utilize them in the community were not forthcoming. The situation that many of these young people found themselves in was similar to that noted in the literature by Field (1995), who argued that the new vocational training programs had little relevance to the different employment situations in which young people found themselves. So despite having developed the skills regarded as relevant for independent living and appropriate to meet the requirements of a highly skilled work force, the young people in this study failed to utilize them, possible through a lack of employment opportunities.

The literature review noted that many young offenders had achieved poor educational standards, and that education was regarded as irrelevant by a large number of young people who had experienced institutional placements. The findings of this study were no exception. Only one of the sample participated on a full-time basis in the educational programs with the aim of achieving qualifications, despite an array of programs being available through the centres and through off campus facilities.

The literature noted the problems that Stein and Carey (1986) found that impeded young offenders achieving independence in the community after they had been released from a period of detention. It appears that the finding from this study were similar, with many of the young people having a transient lifestyle, relationship breakdowns along with problems associated with accommodation, finance and employment opportunities. The vocational and leisure programs, while acknowledge by the sample as being beneficial in the skills they promoted at the centres, were systematically organized activities. The centres created a positive atmosphere for the trainees to practice risk taking and inter-relationship skills. However, the lack of leisure counselling, programmed inter-personal skill based activities, follow up psychological counselling for those who had received a psychological examination as recommended by the courts, along with the absence of pre-organized community vocational opportunities to assist the young people integrate into the workforce could explain a failure by them to transfer the skills into the community and utilize them to integrate into the community. While the sample regarded the skills as useful, they did not regard them as relevant to their own community based needs. An explanation could be that the consistent organized use of vocational and leisure time under the guidance of skilled personnel provided an atmosphere of competence and productive outcomes, which in a community environment, could be short lived. As Mills (1987) noted in the literature, "the positive results of programs achieved for at risk youth in a controlled environment have not been seen to generalize to a natural setting...the post release environment permits the undoing of gains made within the programs" (p.327).

In relation to the outcome of the trainees achieving independence once they had been released from a custodial sentence, the research findings found that their independence

was largely met with a continued dependency upon two main government agencies, the employment service and social security department. These were the only two agencies referred to by the young people in the returned data. Consequently, the evaluation of programs in the community as recommended by the Carney Report in respect to their impact as a rehabilitation service outcome, cannot be measured for lack of data. It cannot be clearly defined from the findings, whether the young people in this study were aware of any services and chose not to access them, were unaware of any services that were available to assist them, or, refused to acknowledge in the returned responses their continued dependency on any support other than government welfare agencies. These are services that are available to all the community who qualify for their assistance.

While for the majority of trainees it was their first experience of incarceration and for some their first offence, many had a history of juvenile offences and community based orders. While all were eager to remain on the outside, several expressed the opinion that the reality of a custodial sentence was not as bad as they had expected. The most negative comments related to the incarceration, concerned the feelings of isolation and loneliness, a finding that could have contributed toward the unexpected decrease in the self-esteem scores for group "A" during the detention period. Coopersmith (1967), explained such change as being exposed to a temporary situation whereby rejection and punishment result in lowered self-esteem. While the lack of improvement in the young people's self-esteem six months after being released back into the community is an issue that requires further research, one explanation could be related to the continued isolation and failure by some of the group to become involved in activities or find employment in the community. As shown in figure 6, the minority of sub-group 'A" who were employed did show an increase in their self-esteem in relation to the Maslow Rehabilitation Needs and Status Scale in conjunction with the other basic needs of Safety/Security and Love/Belonging. However in general, the level of self-esteem for the total sub-group "A" as measured by the Coopersmith Self-esteem Inventory (1987),

remained the same despite the significant number who found the skills developed through the programs either relevant or useful for community life. It must be noted, that all scores measured for sub-group "A" and "B" and as a total group were below those for the general population as referred to by Coopersmith SEI (1987), because, as the researcher argued, "self-esteem scores can vary with the characteristics of the sample, the distribution of scores and theoretical and clinical considerations"(p.8).

When Bradburn (1960) referred to Maslows (1952) theory, he noted that the best predictor of psychological well-being was the difference between positive and negative affect. Positive affect seemed to be related to the activities and experiences that gratified the less powerful of the two basic needs of safety and security and love and belongingness. The less powerful according to Maslow (1952) is love and belongingness. Using this assertion, such an association was not made with the findings of this study in relation to the trainees and their social involvement, frequency of interaction with friends and their relative degree of sociability, as the apparent relationship between self-esteem and love and belonging was an indirect result of the relationship between safety and security and self-esteem. However, Maslow's description of what happens when the more powerful needs of safety and security is satisfied is that it would reduce the negative effect of the less powerful needs and thereby enhance overall psychological well being.

The data collected highlighted problems in the areas of interpersonal tensions, anxieties and unemployment that in turn, created an impact upon self-esteem. The research findings support the need for psychosocial skills training to be included in the programs offered by the Youth Training Centres, with psychological counseling and follow-up sessions not being overlooked because of the distance of the centres. Programs that focus on interpersonal skill development through structured sessions, could provide all the trainees with similar insights into their emotional feelings, such as those provided through the extracts by the trainees who did participate in the outdoor adventure

programs offered in the centres. While it appears from the data presented from this study that it will take more than the skills based programs, as recommended by the Carney Report and promoted in Victoria's Youth Training Centres, to assist young offenders overcome the handicap they face while trying to achieve independence in the community, a more structured approach to psychosocial skills training could provide them with some of the skills to counteract the negative effects resulting from interpersonal tensions and anxiety.

10.2. Summary

The study findings presented a depressing outlook for the sample. Despite the positive attitude shown by the young people regarding their improved skill acquisition, eighty percent of the sample that continued to participate in phase two of the study, remained unemployed six months after their release from detention. The skills gained by the trainees through participation in the functional/vocational and non-functional/leisure activities with which they were involved while detained at the Youth Training Centres, were not transferred into the community to assist them achieve independence after they had been released. The unemployed, the transient lifestyle, along with the number of young people who had returned to some form of detention within six months of being release from the centres, is cause for concern, and puts forward the need for further study.

It is accepted that both the vocational and leisure activities within the Youth Training Centres were structured and organized. It is also acknowledged that financial restraints in the community through unemployment or low paid employment contribute towards a lack of motivation that can contribute toward a failure by the young people to participate in activities. However the findings of this study has put forward several questions that require further research:

Why did the programs offered at the Youth Training Centres have no positive impact upon the self-esteem of the trainees during their period of detention?

Why was there no significant improvement in the total group's self-esteem after they underwent the training programs offered by the Youth Training Centres?

Why did sub-group "A" exhibit a noticeable drop in self-esteem scores during their period of detention?

Why did the pressure of living in society during the six months following their release from detention not lead to another decrease in the self-esteem scores of sub-group "A"?

What factors caused the opposite effects on the self-esteem of the two emergent sub-groups?

Why was there a discrepancy in the self-esteem scores between sub-group "A" and sub-group "B" even though they were exposed to the same programs?

What impact upon self-esteem scores resulted from the failure by the Youth Training Centres to follow up therapy sessions for the thirty percent of trainees who had received a psychological examination as a result of recommendations put forward by the Courts?

Was the fact that sub-group "A" suffered a decrease in self-esteem scores during their period of incarceration the result of the isolation they suffered while in detention?

Why did the self-esteem scores as measured by the Coopersmith Self-esteem Inventory remain the same six months after sub-group "A" had been released from detention?

Would the self-esteem scores for sub-group "A" have improved if a transition program of support had operated prior to the trainees' date of release into the community.

At this point there also appears to be a need to put forward some explanation through an integrated discussion.

CHAPTER 11. INTEGRATED DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION.

11.1. Issues for Discussion.

There has been minimal previous research in the area of the vocational and social rehabilitation of the young offender. The findings from the present study were relatively depressing, however the research put forward some unexpected conclusions. The emergence of two distinct groups from the original sample highlighted the underlying problems that exist in one minority group, young offenders. Twenty of the original sample of one hundred trainees had re-offended and returned to an institutional environment within six months of being released from their Youth Training Placement. Eight of the original sample could not be traced by the researcher, with their whereabouts unknown to their families. A finding that supports the transient lifestyle of this minority group and referred to by Godek (1976).

The discrepancies between the two groups that emerged during the study puts forward the need to consider the theory noted in the literature by Eysenck (1962). The researcher concluded, "the findings seem to indicate a predicted relation between conditioning and introversion is not entirely absent" (p.301). He later argued that some people are conditioned more readily than others because of the inherited differences in their physiological functioning. People who are conditioned easily acquired more inhibitions than others. These inhibitors result in an individual's behaviour being more bashful, tentative and uneasy in social situations. This social discomfort results in introverted behaviour, and introverts have a tendency to condition more easily than extraverts (Eysenck, 1967). The defects in the autonomic nervous system are, he further argued, responsible for extroversion and intractability of criminals and delinquents (Eysenck, 1977).

While research by Glueck and Glueck (1951), and referred to in the literature, concluded, "there is no such thing as a delinquent personality" (p.17), it can be argued

in relation to the current research findings that sub- roup "B" did exhibit what Glueck and Glueck (1950) referred to as the de'...quent mode. The implications from such an association being that, sub-group "B" were less suggestible and less neurotic than sub-group "A". This suggestion could explain the failure of the detention period to have any significant impact upon the self-esteem of sub-group "B". And consequently, their continued recidivism could be related to their emotional conflict and personal dynamics. This view could be considered as opposed to the view put forward earlier in the literature by Wyn and White (1997), that young people engage in offending behaviour if appropriate social control are not in place to dissuade them from making the wrong choice. Instead, the status, cohesiveness and reinforcement found within a group, and referred to in the literature, by such researchers as Ray and Downs (1986), Goridano, Cerkovich and Pugh (1986) and Burgess and Akers (1666), could have contributed toward the consistent level of self-esteem exhibited by sub-group "B" during their period of detention.

The reason for the recidivism exhibited by 64% of sub-group "B", (20% of the original sample), could be consistent with what Mowrer (1950), referred to as the two basic learning processes, problem solving and conditioning. He argued that fear or anxiety is not an inhibiting function, but a reinforcement. Sub-group "A" on the other hand, whose self-esteem scores showed a decrease from the start to the conclusion of their detention period, along with no significant increase after their release into the community, could be described as the "non-delinquent" group. This group of young people being more suggestible and more distraught as a result of their experience of detention, as Coopersmith (1967) argued, through being exposed to punishment. Such a view would suggest that sub-group "A" were more controlled by fear, which in turn acted as an inhibitor of behaviour. The opposite reaction by sub-group "A" compared to sub-group "B", in terms of the theory put forward by Mowrer (1950), could be explained through the concept that fear and anxiety did not act as an inhibitory function for sub-group "B", but instead more as a drive, aiding their identification and status as noted by Ray & Downs (1986).

To consider the question posed in the literature, what can be done to prevent further offending? It was acknowledge that the Carney Report noted that very few young people continue to offend into adult life, a view also supported by O'Connors and Tilbury (1986). In relation to the current study, sub-group "A", the group of young people who were still living in the community six months after being released from their period of detention, the custodial sentence imposed upon them by the courts could well prove to be an effective deterrent from further offending. Their decreased self-esteem while in the detention centres could have been their reaction to the rejection and punishment as a result of their circumstances, as noted in the literature by such researchers as, Rosenberg (1986), Baumgardner, Kaufman and Levy (1989) and Coopersmith (1967). On the other hand for sub-group "B", the detention period could well be one of the many custodial placements that these young people will be in and out of over the coming years. For them it could be attributed to what Godek (1976) referred to as, the need to return to an alternative form of institutional care. It appears from the findings of the current research that there existed two distinct groups of young offenders.

This conclusion leaves many questions unanswered by the data collected in the current study, opening up the need for further research. Issues and concerns that have resulted from this study surround the issue of recidivism that the data from this study failed to address:

What factors influenced twenty percent of the original sample to re-offend within six months of being released from detention, when eighty percent had not?

What social or background issues can be identified as prominent in the group of re-offenders as opposed to the rest of the sample?

Did the re-offending group return to the institutional environment as a result of their inability to sustain an independent existence due to maladjustment and immaturity as referred to by Godek (1976)?

Do community influences encourage re-offending, or as suggested by Glueck and Glueck (1950) do the less suggestible, less neurotic delinquent sample have more emotional deep-rooted conflict?

Do young people re-offend simply because appropriate social controls are not in place to dissuade them making the wrong choice as suggested by Wyn and White 1997)?

11.2. Problems Experienced During the Research.

Throughout the research project and during phase two, it was not only the young people's transition from a custodial sentence and their ability to manage an independent life in the community that was being evaluated, but the underlying assumption that for many it was just another turning of the residential/welfare wheel. The objective of using a systems approach referred to in the literature was to assess the acquisition of skills gained, along with the possibility of them assisting the young people break the cycle of disadvantage. This sample, unlike other research samples, was consumed by distrust of authority and anyone associated with it, and as previously mentioned, the researcher was initially viewed with suspicion and distrust. From the start a sizing up process was going on as the responses during the initial interview were guarded and careful. However open non-judgmental discussions created an atmosphere of trust that in turn precipitated full cooperation from all the trainees involved in the study. This atmosphere avoided what Bozarth, Rubins and Krauft (1971) referred to as "a total lack of commitment on the part of the participants" (p.1). A noticeable factor by the second interview was acceptance of the researcher by all other trainees at Youth Centres "B" and "C". The sample group had discussed the study with other trainees and had concluded that the researcher could be trusted. An initial problem experienced was the distance and number of visits required to collect the data from the country centres. This problem was overcome by the provision of overnight accommodation within the centres. There were occasional problems where discord within the Youth Training Centres cut short activities and the resultant increased security affected the routine within the centre and the collection of data.

The reduced sample who participated in phase two of the study could have ultimately created a problem in relation to the data sought for the project. However, it was felt that the decreased number of participants highlighted other issues relevant to the sample. Overall, given the sample population and the limited previous research into young offenders achieving independence in the community after their release from a period of detention, it was felt the study provided data and unanswered questions which highlight the need for further research in the field.

The researcher considers that the observations and interview techniques used provided a great deal of information that could assist future program development. The criteria used and data presented could overcome the existing process whereby clients and programs are based on broad generalizations rather than on the complex reality where clients have to take responsibility for decisions and outcomes in many diverse situations. It is argued that the study contributed an insight into the problems that arise when political concept is associated to the actual reality of implementing legislation. The Carney Report was referred to as a "blueprint" in welfare provision. However, in reality, the study has provided data that has shown that the connection between concept, implementation and practical application of ideas and recommendation require more than good intentions and legislation.

11.3 Conclusion.

The study sample was drawn from young offenders placed in Victoria's Youth Training Centres by the courts. Its aim was to determine whether the programs offered in the centres, along with the programs and support in the community that the Carney Report recommended should be set up, did provide programs that would assist the young offenders develop skills that would assist them with the process of integration into the community upon their release from detention. The aims of the study placed limitations upon the sample and data collection. Young Offenders as a group per se were not studied but rather the effects upon them and their ability to achieve independence by utilizing the skills developed through the programs to which they

were exposed while at the Youth Training Centres. It was not possible to study a control group of young people who had not offended, as it was not ethical or possible to place them in institutions to undergo the programs being offered. Likewise, such programs as those offered in the Youth Training Centres were not to the researchers knowledge being offered in the community to the general population. To study a control group who are considered to be 'at risk' or marginalized in the community through such variables as education failure, dysfunctional relationships, unemployment and previous criminal histories would require the participation by a group, in programs of similar content and duration as those offered in the Youth Training Centres.

The results of this study provided a glimpse into the lives of a group of young people who, despite policies aimed at decreasing the problem of delinquency, have as a group, continued to plague society for over a century. However the young offender in the community cannot be viewed in isolation as they are still in general, a part of a larger group of youth. Despite the fact that many of the sample who continued to participate in phase two of the study continued to depend on government agencies, their commitment to independence was strong, unlike twenty percent of the original sample who had returned to an institutional environment through re-offending. This expectation of independence was maintained by sub-group "A", despite a situation whereby past experiences and difficult relationships had placed them in a vulnerable position often greater than for other people of their age. A group identified in the literature by Stein and Carey (1986) as also suffering from the "negative qualification of being an offender with its contributing difficulties in the employment market" (p.96). They are also a group who have suffered a breakdown in the established routes during the transition between childhood and adulthood. And consequently, their reintegration into the community after a period of custodial care, singles them out as a discrete category where social issues have a particular effect upon them.

In general, the youth of today are in a state of crisis throughout the world. Economic and social changes coupled with international recession have resulted in the traditional means of transition to adulthood through entry into vocational options in the work force, are for many, no longer available. Cheated of their expectations and ill prepared for the changed circumstances in which they find themselves, many experience problems of alienation, social disaffection and some, destructive behaviour. These experiences can permanently affect their future lives as adults, leading to a large and permanent minority whose attachment to a society that has offered them nothing is marginal. The issue is how to engage these young people into socially valued and personally beneficial activities that will provide options for them to be more confident and responsible members of society. Programs that assist individuals develop the necessary skills for effective participation in decision making and problem solving to deal with such issues as continuing education, seeking and maintaining employment, skills training, housing, health and law issues along with the appropriate use of leisure and recreation could address this.

However, as Semmens (1990) argued, in order to connect young people to mainstream life it is better that social development strategies are linked to mainstream community life and social institutions. Programs in custodial centres and follow up programs outside in the community often result with participants wearing a label and feeling stigmatised. Delinquency prevention would possibly be enhanced by curing some social ills, and for this reason programs must be linked to social development policies and programs where effective services realistically meet the needs of the young offender, as well as the community through programs incorporated into general service delivery. However, efforts to improve services and their outcomes will fail if it is not recognised that a far-reaching systems change is needed. No longer is it enough to think in terms of starting a new program or re-directing the efforts of a specific agency or service provider. The changes need to be within the community, based on a progressive set of values and shared vision which focuses on accountability for inter-system advocacy and program direction. A system that devotes energy and resources to

community education, public relations and the development of a common consensus that change is needed. If young offenders are to successfully integrate into the community after being released from a custodial sentence, the community must support and participate in a systems change.

Community integration means that employment opportunities, housing and social support services should be available, visible and easily accessible. For this to occur community leaders must not only endorse these goals but also advocate for resources. However, the recommendation by the Carney Report that "welfare is the responsibility of the community as a whole, and not exclusively the province of government and specialist services" (p.18), again leaves services in the hands of the non-government, voluntary sector.

An implication from this study and one that was raised during the literature review, was whether delinquent behaviour could be controlled through the development of skills through programs that encourage "behaviours to change according to circumstances and situations" (Shoemaker, 1984, p.133). The difficulties most young offenders exhibit go well beyond delinquency. As Larson (1988) noted, young offenders also exhibit a higher prevalence of learning disabilities, hyperactivity and substance abuse, along with a deficit in the ability to solve problems. These deficits would inhibit their ability to analyse conditions of social control and make a calculation on the basis of the facts before they make an informed decision on whether or not to take the chance and engage in what Wyn and White (1997) referred to as, offending behaviour that will occur if controls are not in place to dissuade them. The necessity to make such informed decisions are paramount to assist young people integrate into the community and avoid making damaging choices through participating in such deviant behaviours as alcohol and drug abuse that, according to Putnins and Harvey (1992), "are common among young offenders" (p.28).

While it must be acknowledged that individuals are ultimately responsible for their own behaviour, in general, youth policies reflect the culture, economic situation and major concerns of the state or country of origin. Youth unemployment, education and training are of national concern, especially in a climate of worldwide recession. Long-term economic and social changes have led to a re-assessment of the accepted patterns of provision over previous decades. The literature noted how educational and welfare policies have been interrelated for several decades in an attempt to meet both the educational and social needs of young people. To meet the changing needs in the work place, transition programs will need to assist young people to build on existing and develop new skills needed for work and social life. They should provide a foundation for lifelong learning in formal and informal settings, whereby such skills as problem solving, critical thinking and the flexibility to manage change are promoted. Education Queensland proposes to "develop vocational education and training clusters where groups of schools collaborate with employers, business groups and the community to promote school and industry links for the benefit of students undertaking vocational programs and making the transition to work" (p.19). However it is accepted that to be fully effective, such expanded participation and attainment needs to be accompanied by other reforms. The school curriculum needs to be developed to reflect the changing market for the qualification to be attained and the synergies between the relevant pathways and options to vocational education training developed.

It is far too simple to take seriously current catch phrases such as access, success, equal opportunity and school retention, all anticipated to be achievable through the school curriculum and the Mayer Report's competency based vocational skills. Existing disparities in opportunity for students arising from the distribution of wealth and other demographic variables will get worse unless there is a dedication to an equity principle that gives everyone a chance at the same outcomes. One must not become overwhelmed with the idea that the promotion of competency based vocational qualifications will provide everyone with an equal chance. The list of skills promoted

by the Mayer Report as competencies young people need to have in order to be successful in the world of work are similar to those promoted in Victoria's Youth Training Centres. Unfortunately the labour market demands evidence of individual performance and attainment, which may or may not follow from instituting a competency based program. The young people identified as being at risk are those who are unable to use the opportunities that exist to develop the skills they have. Their poor academic performance or unacceptable behaviours often exclude them from what Ashton and Sung (1991) referred to as "the link between the education system and the labour market which is dominated by a small apprenticeship system that provides a highly structured status passage for the minority who are successful in the competition for entry to it" (p.40). For those young people for whom competency based vocational education can work, there needs to be collaboration between all partners such as governments, employers, agencies and participants to ensure all roles and responsibilities are coordinated.

The Carney Report, regarded by many as Victoria's first vigorous examination of the child welfare system was referred to as a 'blueprint' for the development of child and family services. Setting out the distinction between those in need of care and those who needed to be in care, the young offender, the report focused on diverting young people away from the formal justice system and hopefully recidivism. For those young people who do end up in a custodial placement, the report recommended that programs should be developed to assist them develop life skills and that programs in the community should assist them with the process of integration after being released from their period of detention. For the young offender striving for independence in the community, the creation of a transition program linked to vocational and competency based training programs could provide them with realistic work environmental conditions and expected behaviours. Because, as noted in the literature by Williams (1972), keeping people adjusted to work situations that are not similar to the real work situation probably only prepares them for sheltered employment. This is a situation that could be viewed as existing in the Youth Training Centres where work routines are

provided for the trainees, but do not prepare them for community opportunities. There is also a need to address what Moos (1975) referred to as the community variables that influence young people using the skills developed in institutions to assist them achieve independence. In other words, there is a need to prepare the community to allow the young people utilize their newly developed skills.

On their own, individual strategies are inappropriate for dealing with social problems, even if in the short term they may be easier than social development programs and structural change. In the long term, reliance upon correctional institutions for change is even more problematic, because they are outside the mainstream of social institutions and participants wear a label, feel stigmatised and have re-entry problems upon program completion. Despite the quality of the programs, the skills promoted and developed by the young people, or the professional skill of the staff at the Youth Training Centres in delivering the programs, they do not, as the study has shown enable individuals achieve independence in the community, as they do not provide a protective role in the long term against environmental adversities such as those that influence psychosocial independence. An effective rehabilitation program for those with the self-determination to achieve it, will require a competent and well coordinated transition plan with on-going accountability and evaluation. Such a process could assist and counteract the nature and effect of the many elements that exist in the community that impact upon a young persons striving for independence.

It could be argued that the Children and Young Persons' Bill (1989), the legislation that was a result of the recommendations put forward in the Carney Report, provides for a comprehensive community based service with support to the family unit, the rights of all children and the young offender in the community. The reality is that such support is not visible to the young offender in the community. Despite the obligatory responsibility set out by the legislation, it would be naive to assume that legislative reform would lead to major development or any extension to community support services, when the Victorian government is, like many other countries, budgeting their

allocation of resources in all areas of public welfare. As Australia, like many other developed countries reach the new century, the problems associated with youth can only increase. As government policy is measured against the yardstick of budget restraint the connection between scarce resources, demand and statutory responsibility become a burden upon the public purse. Consequently the lack of support, inadequate accommodation and unemployment can only increase the probability of young people becoming disadvantaged and drifting into crime.

It is agreed that the overall objective of any program is to effect some change. The study proposed that the overall objective of the skills based programs promoted at the Youth Training Centres were to effect desirable change, the outcome of that change being the integration of young people back into the community after being discharged from a period of detention imposed upon them by the courts. The outcome was not as clear cut as philosophised by the Carney Report (1984). Young offenders such as those depicted in this study are in many ways the optimum candidates for potential change. Among the young people who leave Victoria's Youth Training Centres every year there would be a large group who have important experiences to offer, good and bad lessons that could provide the necessary data for policy makers, professional service providers and training agencies. Data relating to exactly what it is that currently prevents young offenders achieving an independent life in the community. However, the collection of such data would extend beyond the scope of this research to the breeding grounds of disruptive and delinquent behaviour.

REFERENCES.

Adey, W.J. (1938) South Australian Parliament Report of the Committee appointed to the Government to Inquire into Delinquent and other Children in the care of the State. Parliamentary Papers. Vol.2.

Agnew, R. (1985). Social Control Theory and Delinquency. A longitudinal Test. Criminiology Vol. 23. pp.47-61.

Ainley, P. & Corney, M. (1990). Training for the Future. The Rise and Fall of the Manpower Commission. London, Cassell.

Ainsworth, F. (1990). Australian Child and Youth Care: a Personal Perspective. Youth Studies, Australia. Vol. 1, (2). pp.20-23.

Akers, R. (1977). Deviant Behaviour: A Social Learning Approach. Loss Angeles: CA: Wadsworth.

Alder, C. & Polk, K. (1985). Diversion Programmes. In: D. Borowski & J. Murray (eds) Juvenile Delinquency in Australia. Methuen, Sydney.

Algozzine, B. & Sherry, L. (1981). Issues in the Education of Emotionally Disturbed Children. Behaviour Disorders. Vol. 6. pp. 223-237.

Anderson, E. (1994). The Code of the Street. Atlantic Monthly. Vol.1. (273), p.81.

Anderson, J.R. (1993). Rules of the Mind. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Araza, J. (1991). Anti-social Children and Adolescents. A Risk Assessment Inventory And Diagnostic Manual. Juvenile and Family Court Journal. pp.11-31.

Arden, J.B. (1988). Psychosocial Vocational Rehabilitation.: The Next Step. Psychosocial Rehabilitation Journal. Vol. 12, (1). pp.61-65.

Ashenden, D. (1989). Targets for Social Justice. The Bulletin of the National
Clearinghouse for Youth Studies. Vol. 3. pp.7-10.

Ashton, D. & Green, F. (1996). Education, Training and the Global Economy.
Cheltenham, Edward Elgar.

Ashton, D.N. & Sung, J. (1991). Labour Markets and the Life Course Patterns of Young
Adults in Great Britain. In: The Life Course and Social Change: Comparative
Perspectives. (ed). W.R. Heinz, Deutscher Studien Verlag. Weinheim.

Bachrach, L. (1984). The Homeless Mentally Ill and the Mental Health Service.
An analytic Review of the Literature. in. H.R. Lamb (ed). The Homeless
Mentally ill. pp.11-53. Washington D.C. American Psychiatric Association.

Bantick, C. (1992). Finn and Vocational Education. Education Monitor Vol.3, (1).
pp.10-13.

Barnett, P.A. &, Gotlib, I.H. (1988). Psychological Functioning and Depression.
Distinguishing Among Antecedents, Concomitants and Consequences.
Psychological Bulletin Vol. 104. pp.97-126

Baumeister, R.F., Smart, L. & Boden, J.M. (1996). Relation of Threatened Egotism
To Violence and Aggression. The Dark Side of High Self-esteem.
Psychological Review Vol. 103. pp.5-33.

Baumgardner, A.H., Kaufman, C.M., & Levy, P.E. (1989). Regulating affect
Interpersonally when Low Self-esteem leads to Greater Enhancement.
Journal of Personality and Social Psychology. (56), pp.907-921.

Benda, B.B. (1990). Crime, Drug Use and mental Illness. A Comparison of Homeless
Men and Women. Journal of Social Service Research. Vol 13, (3). pp.39-60.

Bennett, J.B. (1988). Power and Influence as Distinct Personality Traits: Developments and Validation of a Psychometric Measure. Journal of Research in Personality (22). pp.361-394.

Bessant, B. & Spaull, S.D. (1976). The Politics of Schooling. Pitman, Melbourne.

Blaine, B. & Crocker, J. (1993). Self-esteem and Self Serving Biases in reactions To positive and negtive events. An Integrated Review. In. R.F. Baumeister (ed). Self-esteem: The Puzzle of Low Self-regard. pp. 55-85 New York, Plenum.

Bozarth, J.D. & Rubin, S.E., Krauft, C.C. (1971). Client Counsellor Interactions, Patterns of Service and Client outcome. Arkansas Research and Training Centre: University of Arkansas Rehabilitation Centre.

Bradburn, N.M. (1960). The Structure of Psychological Well-being. Aldine: Chicago.

Brennan, T. (1980). Mapping the Diversity among Runaways. Journal of Family Issues. Vol. 1, (2). pp. 189-209.

Briere, J. (1987). Predicting Self-reported Likelihood of Battering Attitudes and Childhood Experiences. Journal of Research in Personality. Vol. 21. pp.61-69.

Brown, B.J.& Christie, M. (1981). Social Learning and Practice in Child Care. Oxford: Pergamon Press.

Brown, B.J. (1984). Functional Skills in Programs for Students with Severe Handicaps. Wisconsin: Madison University, Rehabilitation Research Institute.

Burgess, R.L. & Akers, R. (1966). A Differential Association; Reinforcement
Theory of Criminal Behaviour. Social Problems. Vol. 14. pp.128-147.

Buss, D.M. & Grieling, H. (1999). Adaptive Individual Differences. Journal of Personality,
Vol. 67, (2). pp. 209-243.

Butlin, E. (1975). Institutionalization, Management Structure and Therapy in
Residential Work with Emotionally Disturbed Children.
British Journal of Social Work. Vol. 5, (3). pp.283-295.

Campbell, P.B. & Basinger, K.S. (1985). Economic and Non-economic
Effects of Alternative Transitions through School to Work.
Columbus: National Centre for Research in Vocational Education.
The Ohio State University.

Campbell, T.D., Trapnell, P.D., Heine, S.J., Katz, I.M., Lavellee, I.F.
& Lehman, D.R. (1996). Self-concept Clarity. Measurement,
Personality Correlates and Cultural Boundaries. Journal of
Personality and Social Psychology. Vol. 70. pp.141-156.

Carney, T. (1984). Child Welfare Practices and Legislation Review.
Government Printers, Melbourne.

Carrick, J.L. (1979). A Comprehensive Policy for Transition from School to Work;
Statements served by the Minister for Education, 22 November, 1979.
London. HMSO. Government Printers.

Carson, E., Jamrozik, A., & Winefield, T. (1998). Unemployment- Economic Promise and
Political Will. University South Australia. Australian Academic Press,
Brisbane.

Children and Young Person Bill (1989). Amended Act. No. 56. Reprinted July 1993.
Melbourne, Victoria.

155.

Churchman, C.W. (1968) The Systems Approach. New York: Dell Publishing.

Clerkley, H. (1982). The Mask of Sanity.New York, New American Library.

Cnaân, R.A., Blankertz, L., Messinger, K. & Gardner, J. (1989). Psychosocial
        Rehabilitation: Towards a Theoretical Base. Psychosocial Rehabilitation
        Journal. Vol. 13, (1). pp.33-55.

Coates, R.B., Hiller, A.D. & Ohlin, L.E. (1978) Diversity in a Youth Correctional
        System. Ballinger, Cambridge, MA.

Cohen, N.A. (Sept.1986). Quality of Care for Youths in Group Homes.
        Child Welfare, LXV. Vol. 5, pp.481-494.

Cohen, S. (1985). Visions of Social Control. Polity Press, Cambridge, U.K.

Collis, M. & Griffin, M. (1993). Developing a Course for Young Offenders.
        Youth Studies. Australia. Vol. 12. (3). pp.25-29.

Colthart, N. (1996). At Risk Youth Participation in Sport and Recreation.
        Youth Studies. Australia. Vol. 15. (4). pp.31-36.

Compton, J. (1994). Community Demands and Social Responsibility.
        Leisure Management . New Zealand. Autumn, pp. 27-28.

Cooper, P.G. & Harper J.N. (1979). Issues in the Development of a Case
        Weighting System. Journal of Applied Rehabilitation
        Counselling. Vol. 10, (1), pp.7-11.

Coopersmith, S. (1967). The Antecedents of Self-Esteem. Consulting
        Psychologists Press. Palo Alto: CA. 94306.

Coopersmith, S. (1987). Self-Esteem Inventories, (SEI). Consulting
        Psychologists Press. Palo Alto: CA. 94306.

Cullinan, D. & Lloyd, J., Epstein, M. (1983). Behaviour Disorders of
Children. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Denoff, M.S. & Pilkonis, P.A. (1987).The Social Network of the Schizophrenic:
Patient fand Residential Determinants. Journal of Community Psychology.
Vol. 15. (1). pp.228-244.

Department of Health and Social Security (1990). The Care of Children. Principals and Practice
In, Regulations and Guidance. London: HMSO. Government Printers.

Dickey, B. (1980). No Charity there: A Short History of Social Welfare in Australia.
Nelson, Melbourne.

Dill, A.E. (1987). Issues in Case Management for the Chronically Mentally Ill.
In. D. Mechanic (ed). Improving Mental Health Services.
What the Social Sciences can tell us. New Directions for Mental
Health Services. No. 36. San Francisco; Josey Bass. pp.61-70.

Dimmock, B. (1993). Working with Troubled and Troublesome Young People in
Residential Settings. Lancashire: Health Publications Unit.
Open University. School of Health and Welfare.

Dinnage, R.& Pringle, M.L.K. (1969). Residential Child Care, Facts and
Fallacies. London: Longman Press.

Driers, H.W. & Cicconi, J.K. (1988).Career Guidance: The Missing Link in
Educational Excellence and Work Transition. Journal of Career
Development. Vol. 15. (1). pp.3-13.

Edwards, W.J. (1996). A Measurement of Delinquency Differences Between a
Delinquent and Non-Delinquent Sample. What are the Implications?.
Adolescence. Vol. 31 (124), pp.973-989.

Elliot, D.S., Huizinga, D. & Ageton, S. (1985). Explaining Delinquency and Drug
        Use. Berverly Hills. Sage.

Epperson, A., Witt, R. &, Hitzhusen, G. (1972). Leisure Counselling and
        Aspects of Leisure Education. Illinois: Springfield.

Esland, G., Flude, M. & Sieminski, S. (1999). Education Training and the Future of Work II:
        Developments in Vocational Education and Training. Open University,
        Press, London.

Eysenck, H.J. (1960). Reminiscence, Extraversion and Neuroticism.
        Perceptual Motor Skills, 11, pp. 21-22.

Eysenck, H.J. (1962). Conditioning and Personality .British Journal of Psychology,
        Vol. 53, pp. 299-305.

Eysenck, H.J. (1967). The Biological Basis of Personality Springfield: Charles, C. Thomas.

Eysenck, H.J. (1977). Crime and Personality. (3rd ed). London: Routledge &
        Kegan Paul.

Eysenck, H.J. (1981). A Model for Personality. Berlin: Springer-Verlag.

Feldman, R.A., Caplinger, T.E. & Wodarski, J.S. (1983). The Effective Treatment
        Of Anti-social Youth. Prentic Hall, Englewood Cliffs, N.J.

Field, J. (1995). Reality Testing in the Work Place. Are National Vocational
        Qualifications Employment Led? In: P. Hodgkinson, & M, Issit (eds).
        The Challenge of Competence and Professionalism through Vocational
        Education and Training. London Cassell.

Finn, D., (1987). Training without Jobs. London, Macmillan.

158.

Finn Report The. (1991). <u>Young People's Participation in Post Compulsory Education And Training.</u> Report of the Australian Educational Council Review Committee.

Fowler G. (1979). <u>The Politics of Education.</u> In. G. Bernbaum (ed). <u>Schooling in Decline.</u> Basingstoke, Macmillan.

Fraser, B. (1991). <u>Alternatives to Unemployment Some Outcomes of the Transition Education Program.</u> Youth Studies Australia. Vol. 10, (3). pp.50-53.

Gallagher, D.J. (1990). Extraversion, Neuroticism and Appraisal of Stressful Academic Events. <u>Personality and Individual Difference.</u> Vol. 11, pp. 1053-1057.

Gallup, A.M. (1985). 17th <u>Annual Survey of the Public's Attitude Towards the Public Schools. A Joint Project of the Gallup Poll and Phi. Delta Kappa.</u> Princetown, N.J. The Gallup Organization.

Gelman, S.R. (1974). Periodic Review of Mentally Retarded Residents. <u>Social Work,</u> Vol. 19, pp.726-729.

Gellman, W. (1973). <u>Fundamentals of Rehabilitation.</u> In J.K. Garrett., E.S. Levine, (Ed.), <u>Rehabilitation Practices with the Physically Disabled.</u> New York: Columbia.

Giordano, P., Cernkovich, S.A. & Pugh, H.D. (1986). Friendship and Delinquency. <u>American Journal of Sociology.</u> Vol. 91. pp.1170-1202.

Glueck, S.& Gleuck, E. (1950). <u>Unravelling Juvenile Delinquency.</u> New York: Harper Bros.

Glueck, S.,&Glueck, E. (1956). <u>Physique and Delinquency.</u> New York: Harper Bros.

Godek, S. (1976). Leaving Care. <u>Barnado Social Work Papers.</u> (2). London.

159.

Goffman, E. (1963). <u>Stigma: Notes on Management of Spoiled Identity.</u>
Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall.

Gold, R.C. (1958).   Roles in Sociological field observations. <u>Social Forces.</u>
Vol. 36,   pp. 217-223.

Goldberg, R.T. (1973). The Rehabilitation of the Juvenile Delinquent.
<u>Rehabilitation Literature.</u>   Vol. 34, (3). Pp, 66-75.

Goldstein, P., Sparfkin, R.& Gershaw, W.J. (1976). <u>Skill Training for Community Living.</u>
<u>Community Living. Applying Structured Learning Therapy.</u>
Elmsford, New York: Pergamon Press.

Govan, E.S.L. (1951). <u>Public and Private Responsibilities in Child Welfare in New</u>
<u>South Wales.1788-1887.</u> Chicago: University Press. Ph. D. Thesis.

Gratham, F.M. & Elliott, S.N. (1989). Social Skills Deficits as a Primary Learning
Disability. <u>Journal of Learning Disabilities.</u> (22). pp.120-124.

Green, A. (1990). <u>Education and State Formulation. The Rise of Education</u>
<u>Systems in England, France and the United States of America.</u>
London, Macmillan.

Griffin, D.W. & Bartholomew, K. (1994). Models of Self and Others. Fundamental
Dimensions Underlying Measures of Adult Attachment. <u>Journal of</u>
<u>Personality and Social Psychology.</u> Vol. 67, pp.430-445.

Griffiths, J. (1991). Young Offenders and Employment. A Policy Analysis.
<u>Youth Studies. Australia.</u> Vol. 10, (4). pp.47-51.

Hansen, D. (1979). <u>Why are they in Childrens Homes.</u> An Across
Childrens Homes Intake Study. Canberra: ACT.

Hawkins, J.D., Jensen, J.M., Catalano, R.F. & Wells, E.A. (1991). Effects
of a Skills Training Intervention with Juvenile Delinquents.
Research on Social Work Practice. Vol. 1. pp.107-121.

Heaven, P. (1994). Contemporary Adolescence and Social Psychological Approach.
MacMillan, Melbourne.

Hickock, M. & Moore, R. (1990). TUEI, Vocationalism and the Crisis of Liberal
Education. In: Flude, M. & Hammer, M. (eds). The Education Reform
Act of 1988. Lewes. Falmer Press.

Higgins, P.B., Clough, D.H. & Wallerstedt, C. (1995). Self-esteem of Pregnant
Substance Abusers. Maternal Child Nursing Journal. Vol. 23, pp.75-81.

Hobbs, N. (1975). The Future of Children. Jossey Bass, San Francisco.

Holbrook, A. (1990). Apathetic Parents and Willful Children. Vocational
Guidance in the 1930's. in: M. Theobald, & R.J.W. Selleck (eds).
Family, School and State in Australian History. Allen & Unwin,
Sydney.

Hollins, C.R. & Trower, P. (1988). Handbook of Social Skills Training.
Oxford, Pergamon Press.

Hops, H., Finch, M. & McConnell, S. (1985). Social Skills Deficits. In: P. Bornstein,
& A. Kazdin (eds). Handbook of Clinical Behaviour Therapy with
Children. Homeward, IL: Dorsey Press. pp. 543-598.

Hutton, W. (1995). The State We're In. London. Cape.

Jaggs, D. (1986). Neglected and Criminal. Foundations of Child Welfare Legislation
in Victoria. Centre for Youth and Community Studies. Melbourne: Philip
Institute of Technology.

James, W. (1890). Principles of Psychology. Vol.1. New York. Henry Holt.

Jamrozik, A. (1983). Evaluation in Welfare; Specific Means for Uncertain Ends. In
J. Jarrah (Ed.) Child Welfare Current Issues and Future Directions.
University Social Research Centre. N.S.W.

Jaques, M.E. (1970). Rehabilitation Counselling, Scope and Services.
Boston: Houghton Mifflin.

Javitz, J.K. (1970). Government and Rehabilitation Agencies: A Creative Partnership.
Journal of Rehabilitation, Vol. 36, (2), pp.10-11.

Johnson, L. (1993). The Modern Girl. Guirlhood and Growing up. Allen and Unwin, Sydney.

Jones, E.I. (1986). Social Adjustment, Vocational and Employment Services
for the Chronically Mentally Ill. (S.A.V.E.S). A System-Integrated
Model. Psychosocial Rehabilitation. Vol. 10. (2). pp.47-54.

Kazdin, A.E. (1987). Treatment of Anti-social Behaviours in Children. Current
Status and Future Direction. Psychological Bulletin. Vol.102, pp187-203.

Kelley, T.M. (1993). Neo-Cognitive Learning Theory: Implications for Prevention and Early
Intervention Strategies with "At Risk" Youth. Adolescence. Vol.28 pp.439-400

Keep, E. & Mayhew K. (1994). The Changing Structure of Training Provision. In,
T. Buxton; P.Chapman & P. Temple (eds). Britain's Economic Performance.
London, Routledge.

Kernis, M.H., Brown, A.C. & Brody, G.H. (2000). Fragile Self-esteem in Children
And its Association with Perceived Patterns of Parent-Child
Communication. Journal of Personality. Vol.68, (2). pp.225-252.

Kernis, H.H., Grannemann, B.D. & Barclay, L.C. (1998). Stability and the Level of
Self-esteem as Predictors of Anger Arousal and Hostility.
Journal of Personality and Social Psychology. Vol. 56, pp.1013-1023.

Kravetz, S.P. (1973). Rehabilitation Needs and Status, Substance, Structure
and Process. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. Wisconsin:
Madison University. Rehabilitation Research Institute.

Lake, J. & Williamson, J. (1986). Pinten Enterprises, Pingelly: A Case Study.
In: B.J. Fraser (ed). School Development Through Transition Education:
Some Western Australian Case Studies. Education Department of Education.

Larson, K.A. (1988).A Research Review and Alternative Hypothesis Explaining
The Link Between Learning Disability and Delinquency.
Journal of Learning Disability. Vol. 21, pp.357-369.

Layman, E.M. (1974). Contributions of Exercise and Sport to Mental Health and Social
Adjustment. In: J.R. Johnson, R. Warner, & E.R. Buskirk (eds) Science and
Medicine of Exercise and Sport. (2nd. Ed.) Harper & Rowe, New York.
Harper & Rowe, New York.

Liebau, E., & Chisholm, L. (1993). Youth, Social Change and Education.
Issues and Problems. Journal of Educational Policy. Vol. 1., pp.3-8.

Linhorst, D.M. (1988). The Development of a Program Evaluation System for
Psychosocial Rehabilitation Centres. Psychosocial Rehabilitation
Journal. Vol. 2. pp.15-41.

Lipton, D., Martinson, R. & Wilks, J. (1975). The Effectiveness of Correctional
Treatment. Praeger, New York.

Loeber, R. & Dishion, T. (1984). Boys who fight at Home and School. Family
Conditions Influencing Cross-setting Consistency. Journal of
Consulting Clinical Psychiatry. Vol. 52. pp759-769.

Logan, G.D. (1990). Repetition Priming and Automaticity. Common
Underlying Mechanisms. Cognitive Psychology. Vol. 22, pp.1-3.

Lorenz, J.R. (1973). Rehabilitation Services. Public versus Private Sector. Journal
Journal of Rehabilitation, Vol. 32, (9), pp. 258-274.

Maier, H.W. (1975). Learning to Learn and Living to Live in Residential Treatment.
Child Welfare Vol. LIV. (6), pp. 406-419.

Manster, G.J. (1977). Adolescent Development and the Life Tasks. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Marginson, S. (1992). Education as a Branch of Economics. The Universal Claims
Economic Rationalisation. Melbourne. Studies in Education. Cited in: M. Sargent.
Sociology for Australia. (2nd eds). Longman Cheshire.

Maslow, A.H. (1952). The S-1 Test. A Measure of Psychological Security in Security.
Consulting Psychological Press. Palo Alto.

Maslow, A.H. (1970). Motivation and Personality. (2nd ed.). New York: Harper.

Mason, G. & Wilson, P. (1998) Sport, Recreation and Juvenile Crime. Australian
Institute of Criminology. Canberra, Australia.

Maunders, D. (1983). History of Youth Organizations in Australia. Philip Institute. Melbourne.

Mayer, E. (1992). Putting General Education to Work. The Key Competencies Report.
The Australian Education Council and Ministers of Vocational Education,
Employment and Training. Sands Mc Dougal Printing (Aust). Pty. Ltd.

Mayer, M.F. (1955). The Role of Residential Treatment for Children. American Jouranl
Of Orthopsychiatry. Vol.25. pp.667-668.

Mayer. M.F. (1977). Group Care of Children. Crossroads and Transitions. New York:
Child Welfare League of America. pp. 75-76.

McCrae, R.R. & Costa, P.T. Jr. (1996). Towards a New Generation of Personality Theories. Theoretical Contexts for the Five-factor Model. In. J.S. Wiggins (ed). The Five-factor Model of Personality: Theoretical Perspectives. pp.51-87. New York, Guilford.

McFarland, C.& Ross, M. (1982). Impact of Casual Attributions on Affective Reactions To Success and Failure. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology. Vol. 43. pp.937-946.

McGurrin, M.C. (1994). An Overview of the Effectiveness of Traditional Vocational Rehabilitaion Services in the Treatment of Long Term Mental Illness. Psychosocial Rehabilitation Vol. 17. (3). pp.37-54.

Miller, D. (1964). Growth to Freedom. London: Tavistock Press.

Millon, R. (1996). Disorder of Personality. DSM-IV and beyond (2nd ed). New York, John Wiley & Sons.

Mills, R. (1987). Relationship between School Motivational Climate, Teachers Attitudes, Student Mental Health, School Failure and Health Damaging Behaviour. Paper presented at the American Educational Research Association Annual Conference, Washington, D.C.

Mills, R.C. (1990). Substance Abuse, Dropout and Delinquency Prevention The Modello. Homestead Gardens Public Housing Early Intervention Project. Paper presented at the 9th Annual Conference on the Psychology Of Mind, St. Petersburg, FL. Of mind, St. Petersburg, FL.

Minister of Public Instruction. (1941). New South Wales Department. Report of The Minister of Public Instruction for the period 1 July 1937- 30 June 1940. New South Wales Government Printers, Sydney.

Modcrin, J.. & Rutland, A. (1989). Youth in Transition: A Summary of Service. Psychosocial Rehabilitation Journal. Vol.12, (4). pp.3-18.

Monash.(1977). The Training of Child Care and Youth Officers. A Report to the Director General of Social Welfare. Clayton, Victoria: Monash University. Department of Social Work.

Monkman, J.A. (July 1971). Continuity of Short Term Residential Care for Children achieved Through using Professionals based in the Community. American Journal of of Orthopsychiatry. Vol. 41. pp.327-328.

Moos, R.H. (1975). Evaluating Correctional and Community Settings. New York: Wiley

Mowrer, O.H. (1950). Learning Theory and Personality Dynamics. New York: Ronals Press.

Mukherjee, S.& Wilson, P. (1990). Public Attitudes in Dealing with Youthful Offenders. Youth Studies. Vol.9, (2). pp.225-252.

Mulvey, T. (1977). After Care - Who Cares?. Concern, Vol. 26. p.26-28.

Munro, A. (1982). Youth Transition and Youth Policy. A Rationale. Melbourne Officer of Youth Affairs.Munson , Rubenstein (1985).

Nash, J.B. (1996). Unemployment. A Cause or a Consequence of Delinquency. Youth Studies Australia. Vol. 15, (3). Pp. 43-47.

National Fitness Council (1962). General Meeting Minutes 15 March 1962. Melbourne.

Neglected and Criminal Children Act. (1864) No, 216. Melbourne, Victoria.

Nie, N.H., Bent, D.H.& Hull, C.H. (1970). Statistical Package for the Social Science. U.S.A.: McGraw. Hill.

O'Connor, I. (1990). Can the Children Court Prevent Further Offending. Youth Studies Australia. Vol.1 (3). pp.12-17.

O'Connor. I. & Tilbury, C. (1986). Legal Aid Needs of Legal Aid Needs of Youth. AGPS. Canberra, Australia.

Packman, J. (1986). Who Needs Care? Oxford, London: Blackwell.

Parker, R.A. (1981). Caring for Separated Children. London: McMillan.

Pavlak, M.F. (1983). Developing a Career Guidance Program for Delinquent Youth.

Peck, N., Laws, A., & Mills, R.C. (1987). Dropout Prevention. What We Have Learned. Coral Gables, FL: University of Miami, Centre for Dropout Prevention.

Picton, C. & Boss, P. (1981). Child Welfare in Australia: An Introduction. Sydney: Harcourt, Brace and Jovanovich.

Putnins, A.L. & Harvey, S.J. (1992). Alcohol Abuse Among Young Offenders. The Medical Journal of Australia. Vol. 156, pp.753-755.

Queensland State Education (2000). 2010. Office of Strategic Planning and Portfolio Services, Queensland Government.

Raskin, R., Novacek, J. & Hogan, R. (1991). Narcissism, Self-esteem and Defence Self-enhancement. Journal of Personality. Vol. 59, pp.19-38.

Ray, M.C. & Downs, W.R. (1986). An Empirical Test of Labeling Theory Using Longitudianal Data. Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency. Vol. 23, pp.169-194.

Read, H. & Alder, C. (1988). Job Retention and Youth from Youth Training Centres. (YTC'S). The Bulletin of the National Clearinghouse for Youth Studies. Vol. 7. (1). pp.2-6.

Reagles, K.W. (1969). _Rehabilitation Gains of Clients in an Expanded_
Vocational Rehabilitation Program. Doctoral dissertation,
Madison: University of Wisconsin: Microfilm No. 69-22, 460.

Roberts, J.E. & Monroe, S.M. (1992). Vulnerable Self-esteem and Depressive Symptoms:
Prospective Findings Comparing Three Alternative Conceptualizations.
Journal of Personality and Social Psychology. Vol. 62, pp.804-812.

Roberts, C.M. (1999). The Prevention of Depression in Children and Adolescents.
Australian Psychologist. Vol. 34, (1). pp. 49-57.

Robinson, P. (1996). _Rhetoric and Reality: Britain's New Vocational Qualifications._
London Centre for Economic Performance.

Rodzinowicz, L. (1966). _Ideology and Crime._ New York: Columbia University Press.

Rosenberg, M. (1986). Self-concept from Middle Childhood through Adolescence.
In: J. Suls & A.G. Greebmwald (eds). _Psychological Perspectives_
On the Self. Vol.3, pp.107-135. Hillsdale, N.J; Erlbaum.

Ross, E.M. (1976). The Coordination of Rehabilitation Services. _Journal of Applied_
Rehabilitation Counselling. Vol. 7, (1). pp. 22-26.

Rubins, S.E.& Roessler, R.T. (1979). Diagnostic and Planning Guidelines for the Vocational
Rehabilitation Process. _Rehabilitation Literature._ Vol. 40, (2). pp.34-39.

Rutman, I.D. (1986). Editorial Comment. _Psychosocial Rehabilitation Journal._ Vol. 10, (2).
pp.1-2.

Sargent, M. (1983). _Sociology For Australia._ 2nd. Eds. Longman, Cheshire.

Sarri, A., Winfield, H.R. & Cooper, C. (2000). Behaviour Problems in Adolescence.
A Comparison of Juvenile Offenders and Adolescents Referred to
A Mental Health Service. _Australian Journal of Psychology._ Vol. 52.
(1). pp.17-22.

Savin-Williams, R.C. & Demo, D.H. (1983). Situational and Transituational Determinants of Adolescent Self-feelings. Journal of Personality And Social Psychology. Vol. 44, pp.824-833.

Schauss, A. (1981). Diet, Crime and Delinquency. California: Berkley.

Semmens, R. (1990). Individual Control or Social Development Youth Studies. Australia Vol. 9, (3). (pp.23-29).

Shelves, C. (1990). Reforms in Juvenile Justice. Youth Studies. Vol 9. (3). Pp.18-21.

Shepherd, G. (1990). A Criterion Oriented Approach to Skills Training. Psychosocial Rehabilitation Journal. Vol 13. (3).

Sherington, G. & Irving, T. (1989). Youth Policies in Twentieth Century Australia. The Bulletin of the National Clearing House for Youth Studies. Vol 8. (3). pp.11-17.

Sherwood, D.M.& Bitter, J.A. (1972). Contract Packages. Journal of Rehabilitation Vol. 38, (5). pp. 31-33.

Shoemaker, D. J. (1984). Theories of Delinquency. An Examination of Delinquent Behaviour. Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University. New York: Oxford University Press.

Shoenfeld, E. (1975). De-institutionalization - Community Alternatives. In: K. Mallik., S. Yuspeh., J. Mueller (Eds.) Comprehensive Vocational Rehabilitation for Severely Disabled Persons. Washington D.C.: Washington University. Medical Centre.

Shostram, E. (1968). Personal Orientation Inventory (POI) A Test of Self Actualization. (2nd Printing). San Diego: California. Educational and Industrial Testing Service.

Showers, C.J. & King, K.C. (1996). Organizing of Self Knowledge Implications for Recovery from Sad Moods. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology. Vol. 70. pp.578-590.

Smith, C.& Wilcots, B. (1982). Current Issues in Behaviour Disorders. Iowa: U.S.A. Department of Public Instruction.

Smith, P. (1990). Implementing the Childrens Act 1989). Dartington Social Research Unit.

Sohoni, N.K. (1977). Social Barriers and Community Attitudes Concerning the Disabled. International Rehabilitation Review, XXVIII, Vol.1. p.4.

Spaniol, L., Zipple, A. & Cohen, B. (1991). Managing Innovation and Change in Psychosocial Rehabilitation. Key Principles and Guidelines. Psychosocial Rehabilitation Journal. Vol. 14. (3). pp.27-38.

Spilsbury, M. Morale, J. & Evans, C. (1995). Employers' Use of the New Vocational Qualification System. Institute of Employment Studies Report 293. Brighton Institute of Employment Studies. U.K.

Stein, M.& Carey, K. (1986). Leaving Care. Oxford, London: Blackwell.

Strickland, B. (1969). Philosophy, Therapy, Practice, Continuum: A point of view. Counsellor Education and Supervision, Vol. 8, (3). pp.165-175.

Stroul, B.A. (1989). Community Support Systems for Persons with Long Term Mental Illness. A Condeptual Framwork. Psychosocial Rehabilitation. Vol. 12. (3). pp. 9-26.

Such, Utting, & Lambert. (1981). Out of Care; Come of Age. Unpublished Research Paper for the National Childrens Bureau. London.

Suls, J., David, J.P. & Harvey, J.H. (1996). Personality and Coping. Three Generations Of Research. Journal of Personality. Vol. 64. pp.711-735.

Sutherland, C. (1939). Principles of Criminology. Philadelphia. J.B. Lippincott.

Swenson, S.W. & Kennedy, W.A. (1995). Perceived Control and Treatment Outcome with Chronic Adolescent Offenders. Adolescence. Vol. 30. (119), pp.565-578.

Taylor, D.& Alpert, S. (1973). Continuity and Support Following Residential Treatment. New York: Child Welfare League of America.

Tennen, H. & Herzberger,S. (1987). Depression, Self-esteem and the Absence of Self-protection Attributional Biases. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology. Vol. 52. pp.72-80.

Tierney, L.J. (1972). Child Welfare in Retrospect. Sydney: The Proceedings of the first National Child Care Conference.

Torgenson, W.S. (1958).Theories and Methods of Scaling. New York: Wiley.

Trantow, D.J. (1970). An Introduction to Evaluation Program Effectiveness and Community Needs. Rehabilitation Literature, Vol.1, (1). pp. 2-9.

Van Krieken, (1991). Children and the State: Social Control and the Formation of Australian Child Welfare. Allen & Unwin, Sydney.

Wallace, C. & Kovacheva, S. (1995). Youth Studies. London Macmillan.

Walters, G.D. & White, T.W. (1989). The Thinking Criminal: A Cognitive Model of Lifestyle Criminality. Criminal Justice Research Bulletin. Vol. 4, (4). Pp.1-9.

Warner Report, The, (1992). Choosing with care: The report of the Committee of Inquiry into the Selection, Development and Management of Staff in Childrens Homes. London: HMSO.

Watson, D.C. (1998). The Relationship of Self-esteem, Locus of Control and Dimensional Models to Personality Disorders. Journal of Social Behaviour and Personality. Vol.13. (33). Pp. 399-420.

Watson, D.,David, J.P. & Suls, J. (1999). Coping Efforts in Daily Life: Role of Big Five Traits and Problem Appraisals. Journal of Personality. Vol. 67, (2). pp. 265-294.

Watson, D. & Hubbard, B. (1996). Adaptional Style and Dispositional Structure: Coping in the Context of the Five-factor Model. Journal of Personality. (64). pp.737-774.

Wehman, P., Kregal, J. & Barcus, J. (1985). From School to Work: A Vocational Transition Model for Handicapped Students. Exceptional Children. (52). pp.25-37.

Wells, A.J. (1988). Variations in Mother's Self-esteem in Daily Life. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology. (55). pp.661-668.

Wells, D. & Miller, M.J. 1993. Adolescent Affective Aggression: An Intervention Model. Adolescence. Vol. 28, (112). pp.781-790.

Werner, H.D. (1979). Cognitive Theory. In: F.S. Turner (ed). Social Work Treatment: Interlocking Theoretical Approaches. pp.243-272.

White, K. (1981). Moving on: A Review of In Care and Into Work. Social Work Today. Vol. 13, (5), p.21.

Willerman, L., Loehlin, J.C. & Horn, J.M. (1992). An Adoption and a Cross-fostering Study of the Minnesota Multi-phasic. Personality Inventory (MMPI), Psychopathic Deviate Scale. Behaviour Genetics. Vol. 22, pp.515-529.

Williams, A. (1972). Efficacy of Psychiatry. Psychological Bulletin. pp.447-456.

Williams, T. (1987). Participation in Education. Research Monograph
Vol. 30. ACER, Melbourne.

Williams, S. & Ruggatt, P. (1998). Contextualising Public Policy in Vocational Education
and Training. in: A. Jamrozik, & Nocella, L. (eds) The Sociology of
Social Problems. Theoretical Persepectives and Methods of Intervention.
Cambridge, Melbourne. Cambridge University Press.

Wink, P. (1991). Two Faces of Narcissism. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology.
Vol. 61. pp.590-597.

Wolf, A. (1995). Competence and Assessment. Buckingham Open University Press.

Wright, G.N., Butler, A.J.& Aldridge, M.J. (1968). Rehabilitation Information Series.
Wisconsin: Madison University. Rehabilitation Research Institute.

Wright, A.F.& Headlam, F. (1976). Youth Needs and Public Policies. Melbourne:
Department of Youth, Sport and Recreation.

Wright, G.N.& Remmers, H.H. (1960). Manual for the Handicapped. A Problems
Inventory. Lafayette, Indiana: The Purdue Research Fund.

Wright, G.N. (1980). Total Rehabilitation. Madison University, Wisconsin:
Little Brown & Co.

Wyn., J. & White, R. (1997). Rethinking Youth. George Allen & Unwin. Sydney.

Young, J. (1981). Thinking Seriously about Crime. Some Models of Criminology.
In; M. Fitzpatrick, G. McLennan, & J. Lawson (eds). Crime and
Society: Readings in History and Theory. Routledge & Kegan
Paul, London.

Appendix 1. Form A 1.

Checklist for the existence of Individual Treatment Plans.

Appendix 1. Form A1. Check list for the existence of Individual Treatment Plans.
(Sheet 1)..

Y.T.C. Placement.....................   Name...........................

Identification No..............

Age.............   Reason for Placement.........................

Address...............................

....

Telephone . No.................

Length of Placement   Yrs..........Months..........

Date of Release.....................

Previous placements...

C.S.V. Care orders............................

Custodial Sentence...........................

Y.T.C.....................   Prison / Remand ....

Appendix 1 Form A1 (Sheet 2).

Items to be considered during intake...

1) Intake Interview with client.   date...... ....

2) General medical examination carried out   Yes.   No.

3) Specialist medical examination carried out.   Yes.   No.

4) Psychological examination carried out.   Yes.   No.

5) Vocational objectives (requested by the client)

....

....

6) Previous vocational experience.................................

....

7) Suggested programs.

Therapeutic / Counselling......

                Group therapy   Individual therapy

Social activities   ....

                ....

Eductional Programs   ....

                ....

Vocational Skills programs

                ....

                ....

Program evaluation and review date   ....

Youth Training Centre Individual Case Plan Sheets.

Appendix 1 Form A 2. Youth Training Centre

Individual Case Plan Sheets.

INDIVIDUAL CASE PLAN -- (I.C.P.)

Date Arrive : .. /.../... **Client File**#____-__-_
NAME: Surname: Given Names:

DOB: [/ /] AGE: YRS MTHS

Residing with whom, prior to admission? Name:
                                         Address:
                                                    P/Code   Ph: ( )

Nationality: Racial Background eg. Koorie
                                                                Vietnamese.
Languages Spoken: Greek. ETC.

Section Placement: CASEWORKER (Keyworker):

Current Sentence: /12

Further Court Apps: (Include Court, Offences, Date if known:)

Have Current Offences **Breached**=- **Boads,Probation,YAO/CBO** etc:

Estimated Release Date: REVIEW: PAROLE:
                            REMISSIONS:

First WEEKEND LEAVE DUE: Date

Details of Weekend Leave Accommodation: NAME:
                                         Relationship:

                                         ADDRESS:

                                                            P/Code

CLIENTS EXPECTATIONS LANGI KAL KAL PLACEMENT:

CLIENTS EXPECTATIONS & GOALS FOR FUTURE:

KEY AREA	GOALS	ACTION REQUIRED	DATES/ TIMELINES	PRIORITY High,Med, Low.	COMMENTS

176.

VOCATIONAL ASSESSMENT

NAME:

D.O.B: ____ / ____ / ____

CASE MANAGER:

KEY WORKER: ·

Eligible for JOB START? **YES/NO** Registered with CES? **YES/NO** Currently/Recently on Social Security? **YES/NO** Has CLIENT completed any Pre-Employment Training Groups? **YES/NO** (Details below)	Age RD / /
	6/52 W/R Start ____ / ____ / ____

TYPE OF WORK, CLIENT REQUIRES FOR WORK RELEASE/RELEASE? ·

APPRENTICESHIP: YES/NO   TRAINEESHIP: YES/NO   OTHER: YES/NO

PREVIOUS WORK HISTORY: (include Job, Employer, Length of time,
Apprenticeship, Skills training)

ACCOMMODATION FOR WORK RELEASE?   YES/NO

PARENT/S ADDRESS: (or alternate accommodation for Work Release)
{Include Name}

TELEPHONE: (   ) _____

WHEN REQUIRED BY KEY WORKER, CLIENT AND E.A.P. OFFICER

This sheet should be faxed immediately to EAP Office in
Supervising Region.

RSONAL DEVELOPMENT/LIFE SKILLS

E:

ESSMENT:

N REQUIRED BY CASEWORKER, CLIENT &/or OTHERS:

LEISURE/RECREATION ASSESSMENT

NAME:

PREVIOUS LEISURE/RECREATION INTERESTS:
(include Memberships of any Clubs)

ASSESSMENT:

VE ASSESSMENT

re Schedule: es:	Booked Yes/No	COMMENTS

LEAVE DETAILS

NAME:

WEEKEND LEAVE

Eligible 1st WEL: ...../...../.....

ACCOMMODATION DETAILS: *Name*   *Relationship*

Address:

P/Cade>
Phone:(   )

Alternative Accommodation:

OTHER SIGNIFICANT INFORMATION:

Other Persons in Residence?

Description of Home Environment ?

Likely Level of Supervision? (Type of Adult Authority)

CLIENTS Attitude to Tempory Leave Arrangements?

WEL CONTRACT, Explained and signed by Trainee:
Contract to be placed in ICP.

Education ASSESSMENT   DOA / /

Name:

Education TESTING:

    Assessed READING Level:

    Assessed MATHS Level:

RECOMMENDATIONS from TESTING: ....

GENERAL EDUCATION ASSESSMENT:

EDUCATION BACKGROUND: (include Year completed & School)

RECOMMENDATIONS BY EDUCATION STAFF.

ACTION BY CASEWORKER(KEYWORKER).

Compiled by.........................

/   /

Regional Contacts: (To be completed by SECTION SYO on day of trainees arrival. * These areas to be completed by CASEWORKER (KEYWORKER).)

Part A.:

CSV- Y.S.U. (Youth Supervision Unit / Country Region)

YSU/Region:
Office:
Address:

      Ph: (.)   Fax: ( )
Contact Person:

Date Contacted: ...../...../......

*Parole Officer: Name: *Date P.O. appointed:...../...../...

OFFICE of CORRECTIONS:
Region:
Office:
Address:
Ph: ( )   Fax: ( )
Contact Person:
Date Contacted: ..../...../.......

Part B.:

For TRAINEES with 'KOORIE' Classification:

Aboriginal Legal Service   Date Contacted ...../...../.....

Ballarat & District Aboriginal Co-Op.   -   - ...../...../.....

Aboriginal Youth Support Unit   -   - ...../...../......

Ballarat CJP's (via B/rat CSV)   -   - ...../...../.....

ACTION REQUIRED:
Requests made for relevant INFORMATION to be supplied to support
overall I.C.P.

SUMMARY SHEET:

INITIAL PROBLEMS INDICATED: (AREAS OF CONCERN -- Peer pressure, WEL's, Drugs/Alcohol, Health, Education, Peer acceptance, social skills, etc.)

COMMENTS BY OFFICER Compiling Initial Assessment: (Include Positive & Negatives as indicated.)

Signature.................................... Date ...|....|...

Compiled by:.................................

Education Assessment	......|....|......
Form Completed	YES/NO
Form on ICP:	...|....|......

Health Assessment	......|....|......
Form Completed	YES/NO
Form on ICP:	...|....|......

Date ...|....|...

Employed at:................ ...|...|... Section Allocation................................

FAMILY   ASSESSMENT
Family Details:

Mother's Name: _____   Father's Name: _____
     Address: Address:

         P/Code   P/Code
         Ph: ( )   Ph: ( )
         Occupation: Occupation:
If either or all of the above is not relevant, Enter Step-Parent &/or Guardians.

If NO home phone No: EMERGENCY CONTACT PERSON   Name   Ph:( )

SIBLINGS:
Name: Relationship: Age: Address: Ph:

Other significant Persons:
Name: Relationship: Address: Ph:

Has TRAINEE contacted Parents since arrival LKK:
   Details:

Have PARENTS been advised of Location & Visiting Procedures:
   Details:
Expecting VISITS from:

FAMILY ASSESSMENT: (Support/Background):
(Level of family contact, Conflicts / breakdowns ,extended family, Significant Relationships eg
friends/G.friend) ,

OFFENDING HISTORY:

CURRENT OFFENCE/S:

COURT: Date: ...../...../.....   Total Sentence: /1

Circumstances Surrounding Offence/s:

Offending HISTORY & PLACEMENTS:
    (including Probations,Wardship. Adult/Junior YTC etc)

ATTITUDES to OFFENDING:

Other Factors Involved: (eg: Drugs/Alcohol,etc)

ACTION REQUIRED:

INDIVIDUAL CASE PLAN

CASE NOTES SHEET

NAME:

CASE MANAGER:

KEY WORKER:

DATE	COMMENTS	SIGN

MONTHLY PROGRESS AND REVIEW SHEET
ACTION PLAN AND DIARY.

MONTH:

DATE	PROGRESS OF GOALS IN KEY AREAS	COMMENTS

Summary of case plan progress. Caseworker recommmendations.
Recommendations for LEAVE. Trainee behavior. Trainee Bank Balance.

Caseworker Signature.

Appendix 1. Form A.3.

Skills Based Content to Determine Functional, Non-Functional, Educational and Vocational Programs.

Appendix 1. form A.3.

Skills Based Content Checklist to Determine Function, Non-Functional, Educational and Vocational Programs.

Programme	Cooking	Routine	Punctuality	Work - Independence	Hygiene	Safety	Communication	Group - interaction	Individ - interaction	Frustration Tolerance	Cooperation	Team work	Skills Content of Prog
Paint shop													
Motor Mechanics													
Horticulture													
Carpentry													
Metal Trades													
Catering													
Laundry													
Farm Work													
Camping													
Football													
Basket Ball													
Volley Ball													
Education													
WaterSports													
Rock climbing													

Appendix 1. Form A4.

Coopersmith Self-esteem Inventory Data Collection Instrument (S.E.I.).

Coopersmith Inventory

Stanley Coopersmith, Ph.D.
University of California at Davis

Please Print

Name _____ Age _____

Institution _____ Sex: M ___ F ___

Occupation _____ Date _____

Directions

On the other side of this form, you will find a list of statements about feelings. If a statement describes how you usually feel, put an X in the column "Like Me." If a statement does not describe how you usually feel, put an X in the column "Unlike Me." There are no right or wrong answers. Begin at the top of the page and mark all 25 statements.

| | x4 = | |
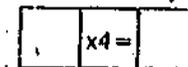
Me	Me	
☐	☐	1. Things usually don't bother me.
☐	☐	2. I find it very hard to talk in front of a group.
☐	☐	3. There are lots of things about myself I'd change if I could.
☐	☐	4. I can make up my mind without too much trouble.
☐	☐	5. I'm a lot of fun to be with.
☐	☐	6. I get upset easily at home.
☐	☐	7. It takes me a long time to get used to anything new.
☐	☐	8. I'm popular with persons my own age.
☐	☐	9. My family usually considers my feelings.
☐	☐	10. I give in very easily.
☐	☐	11. My family expects too much of me.
☐	☐	12. It's pretty tough to be me.
☐	☐	13. Things are all mixed up in my life.
☐	☐	14. People usually follow my ideas.
☐	☐	15. I have a low opinion of myself.
☐	☐	16. There are many times when I would like to leave home.
☐	☐	17. I often feel upset with my work.
☐	☐	18. I'm not as nice looking as most people.
☐	☐	19. If I have something to say, I usually say it.
☐	☐	20. My family understands me.
☐	☐	21. Most people are better liked than I am.
☐	☐	22. I usually feel as if my family is pushing me.
☐	☐	23. I often get discouraged with what I am doing.
☐	☐	24. I often wish I were someone else.
☐	☐	25. I can't be depended on.

191.

Appendix 2. Form B 1.

Program Evaluation Sheet (Client).

(Appendix 2. Form B1.Program Evaluation Sheet (Client)

Identification No...................

The following questionaire is designed to gather information and your views on the programs in which you were involved while at the Youth Training Centre., along with the support you have received in the community since your release.

Item 1

While you were detained at the Y.T.C. in which of the following programs were you involved.

Plese tick the most appropriate statement relating to each program in relation to its relationship with your current life in the community .

	Relevant	Useful	No Use

Vocational Programs:

Motor Mechanic Workshop

Metal Workshop

Horticulture

Carpentry

Paint Shop

Catering

Laundry Work

Farm Work

Catering

Leisure Activities

Volley Ball

Basket Ball

Football

Water sports

Rock climbing

Camping

Others (please specify)...............

Educational Programs

Literacy

Mathematics

TAFE Course

Appendix 2 Form B.1. Program Evaluation Sheet (Client) Cont'd.

Item 2..

Which of the following skills do you consider necessary for you to achieve independence
In the community?

Academic qualifications...........

Cooking...............................

Communication......

Punctuality...........................

Work independently................

Safety awareness regarding equipment.........

Ability to get along with people in a group

Tolerance with other people........................

Co-operation..

Teamwork..

Item 3.

Of the skills you listed above, did you gain any of these skills while at the Y.T.C.?

     Yes.   No.

Item 4.

What Community Agencies have you contacted since your release?

Please tick: Community Employment Services

          Social Security Department

          Others (Please list)

Item 5

What other support agencies are you aware of in the community to assist young people life
yourself adjust to life in the community?

Please list

Item 6

In your own words how would you describe your experience at the Y.T.C.

Appendix 2. Form B 2.

Rehabilitation Needs and Status Scale.

Appendix 2 Form B.2. Rehabilitation Needs and Status Scale.
Please circle one response for each question.

1. Which the following best describes what you are presently doing?

a. Employed for wages or salary.

b. Casual employment.

c. Job training government scheme.

d. Un-employed.

2. How many different jobs have you had and maintained in the last six months?

a. 1.

b. 2.

c. 3 or more.

d. None, did not work.

3. Once you have a job, how much trouble do you have keeping it?

a. None.

b. A little.

c. Very much

d. Impossible.

4. If the work you prefer becomes available, what would be your chances of getting such a job?

a. Very good.

b. Quite good.

c. Not so good.

d. No chance..

5. How much trouble do you usually have finding a job?.

a. None.

b. A little

c. Some

d. A lot

6. How often do you feel pleased about having done something important.

a. Very often.

b. Often.

c. Sometimes.

d. Never

Appendix 2. Form B2. Rehabilitation Needs and Status Scale (Cont'd).

7. How often are you uncertain about decisions you make?.

a. Never

b. Sometimes

c. Usually

d. Very often.

8. How often do you worry about people you have trouble with?.

a. Never

b. Sometimes.

c. Often

d. Very often.

9. How often are you dissatisfied with yourself?.

a. Never

b. Sometimes.

c. Often

d. Very often.

10. How often do you feel depressed or very unhappy?.

a. Never

b. Sometimes.

c. Often

d. Very Often..

11. How often do you do things just to kill time.

a. Never.

b. Sometimes

c. Often

d. Very often

12. How often are you able to solve your own problems?.

a. Very often

b. Often.

c. Sometimes.

d. Never.

Appendix 2 Form B 2. Rehabilitation Needs and Status Scale (Cont'd).

13. How often do people ask for your advice?

a. Very often.

b. Often

c. Sometimes

d. Never.

14. How often do you feel proud because someone has complimented you?.

a. Very often.

b. Often.

c. Sometimes.

d. Never.

15.How often do you feel upset because someone has criticized you?.

a. Never.

b. Sometimes.

c. Often

d. Very often.

16. How often do things happen to make you angry?.

a. Never

b. Sometimes.

c. Often.

d. Very often.

17. How often do you think people fail to show you the respect they should?

a. Never.

b. Sometimes.

c. Often.

d. Very often.

18. How often do you have trouble getting along with friends?.

a. Never.

b. Sometimes.

c. Often.

d. Very Often.

Appendix 2 Form B. 2: Rehabilitation Needs and Status Scale.(Cont'd)..

19. How satisfied are you with your social life?.

a. Very satisfied.

b. Satisfied.

c. Dissatisfied

d. Very Dissatisfied.

20. How often do you feel lonely or cut off from other people?.

a. Never.

b. Sometimes.

c. Often.

d. Very often.

21. Thinking of visits, telephone calls or letters, how often do you get in touch with relatives?

a. Very often

b. Often

c. Sometimes

d. Never.

22. How often have you thought that you are not the kind of family member that you would like to be?.

a. Never.

b. Sometimes.

c. Often

d. Very often.

23. How often does your family accept you as you are?

a. All the time

b. Often

c. Sometimes

d. Never.

24. How often do you think you are treated badly by people?

a. Never

b. Sometimes

c. Often

d. Very often.

Appendix 2 Form B 2 Rehabilitation Needs and Status Scale (Cont'd).

25. How often do you treat other people badly?.

a. Never.

b. Sometimes:

c. Often.

d. Very often.

26. How often do you get together with friends?.

a. Very often.

.b. Often.

c. Sometimes.

d. Never.

27. How often do you spend time alone?.

a. Never.

b. Sometimes.

c. Often.

d. Very often.

28. How often when you need help, can you find someone?.

a. Very often.

b. Often.

c. Sometimes.

d. Never.

29. How often do you have trouble expressing your feeings?.

a. Never

b. Sometimes

c. Often.

d. Very often.

30. How often do you worry about getting along with your family?. .

a. Never.

b. Sometimes.

c. Often.

d. Very often.

Appendix 2 Form_B 2. Rehabilitation Needs and Status Scale (Cont'd).

31. How often has your family failed to help you when you needed help?.

a. Never.

b. Sometimes.

c. Often.

d. Very often.

32. How often do you feel people can be trusted?.

a. Very often.

b. Often.

c. Sometimes.

d. Never.

33. How often do you worry about your future?.

a. Never.

b. Sometimes.

c. Often.

d. Very often.

34. How often do you go to pieces under pressure.?.

a. Never.

b. Sometimes.

c. Often.

d. Very often.

35. How sure are you about the kind of work you would like to do?.

a. Very sure

b. Fairly sure

c. Not sure

d. Very unsure

36. How often do you feel restless?.

a. Never.

b. Sometimes.

c. Often.

d. Very often.

Appendix 2 Form B2. Rehabilitation Needs and Status Scale . Cont'd).

37. How often do you get together with friends (visiting your home or theirs)

a. Very often.

b. Often.

c. Sometimes.

d. Never.

38. How often do your major problems make you feel inferior?.

a. Never.

b. Sometimes.

c. Often.

d. Very often.

39. How often are you bothered by nervousness or tenseness?.

a. Never.

b. Sometimes.

c. Often.

d. Very often.

40. How often do you worry about not having enough money.

a. Never.

b. Sometimes.

c. Often.

d. Very often.

41. Which of the following statements describes your present financial situation

a. Very good.

b. Good.

c. Adequate

d. Poor

42. Generally speaking, how often do you speak to your family about daily events?

a. Very often.

b. Often.

c. Sometimes.

d. Never.

Appendix 2 Form B.2. Rehabilitation Needs and Status Scale (Cont'd).

43. Do you ever feel that your background makes it difficult for you to make friends?.

a. Never.

b. Sometimes.

c. Often.

d. Very often

44. How many people do you know whom you feel you can talk to about personal problems

a. Several.

b. Some.

c. A few.

d. None.

45. How often do you like spending time with your family?.

a. Very often.

b. Often.

c. Sometimes.

d. Never.

The following questions are to be answered only if you are employed or enrolled in a vocational training program.

46. How often have you change your job since leaving the Youth Training Centre..

a. Never.

b. Once.

c. Twice.

d. Three or more times.

47 How often does your present job or training allow you to make decisions on your own.

a. Very often.

b. Often.

c. Sometimes.

d Never.

48. How often do you feel you are doing a good job at work, or training as you would like to do.

a. Very often.

b. Often.

c. Sometimes.

d. Never.

Appendix 2 From B.2 Rehabilitation Needs and Status Scale (Cont'd).

49. How often do you feel you really enjoy your job or training?

a. Very often.

b. Often.

c. Sometimes.

d. Never.

50. How often does your present boss or trainer tell you that you have done a good job?
a. Very often.
b. Often.
c. Sometimes.
d. Never.

51. What are the chances of you remaining in your present job or training position?
a. Very good
b. Good
c. Do not know
d. Poor.

52. What are the chances of promotion in your present job?
a. Very good.
b. Good.
c. Do not know
d. Poor.

53. How does your present job compare to jobs you have had in the past?.
a. Much better.
b. A little better.
c. Just the same
d. Not so good.

54. What are the chances of you remaining in your present job or training.
a. Very good.
b. Good.
c. Do not know.
d. Poor.

Appendix A..

Explanation Statement

Explanatory Statement

To whom it may concern

This statement is to explain a research project in which we are inviting you to take part. It is a study of young people detained in Victorian Youth Training Centres by order of the Courts. The project will be carried out by Mrs. Joan Churchill to gain a Ph.D. The project will be supervised by Dr. L.Bartak, Faculty of Education, Monash University.

The study will be conducted in two phases:-

Phase 1.

The purpose of phase one of the study is to examine the programs offered in Victoria's Youth Training Centres and to consider their relevance in assisting young offenders gain the skills necessary to assist them achieve independence in the community.

Phase 2.

The purpose of phase two is to conduct a longitudinal study with the young people who have been subjected to the programs offered in the institutions, and determine how relevant the skills to which they were subjected while in detention are in the community, or whether outside variables, such as social, economic or unemployment problems obliterate any skills gained when it comes to achieving independence in the community after being discharged from custody after a period of at least six months.

It is anticipated that the results of the study will assist the institutions to assess the programs they are providing.

If you agree to become involved in this study, you will be required to participate in a 15 minute interview while at Turana Assessment Centre. This will be followed by another 15 minute interview at the conclusion of your Youth Training Centre placement. After your release into the community, a survey will be forwarded to you to be completed.

All information obtained in this study will be kept strictly confidential to Dr. L. Bartak and J. Churchill. No identifying data, such as names, addresses or case histories will be maintained on record. Names will be required only for identification purposes for the longitudinal follow up study.

Upon completion of the project, the findings of the study will not include any information about individuals, the data will refer only to a study group.

If you agree to take part in the study, it is understood that you would be free to change your mind at any stage of the project and may withdraw for any reason. At any time during the study or after, I will be available should you have any concerns. I can be contacted through the superintendent of the Youth Training Centre where you are or have been detained.

I thank you for your support.

Joan Churchill

....

Appendix B..

Information Access and Consent Form

Information Access and Consent Form.

Title of Research Project.

From Vagabond to Carney. A study of the programs available to young offenders in
Victoria's Youth Training Centres in relation to their
relevance in assisting young people reintegrate back into
the community after being discharged from custody.

Investigator

I .... Have fully explained the aims, risks and procedures of the

research project to ....(Trainee).

Signed... Y.T.C...............................

Permission to obtain access to personal files.

I .... (Please print name).

Of (Address) ....

....

Telephone Number.. (......) ....

agree for Dr. L. Bartak and Mrs. J. Churchill to have access to any information
confidential or otherwise available at the Youth Training Centre to use for purposes of the
research project.

I understand that I am free to withdraw from the project at any time and have the
opportunity to have a staff member of the Youth Training Centre present while the
project is explained to me.

Signed... Date..............................

Witnessed by...................................

Officer in Charge Youth Training Centre..

Appendix C.

Data Collected Relating To The Personal Experiences of the Trainees During The Leisure And Recreational Programs Offered At The Youth Training Centres.

Appendix C. Data collected relating to the personal experiences of the trainees during leisure and recreational programs offered at the Youth Training Centres.

Outward Bound in Queensland.
Michael

" I was sent to North Queensland on an Outward Bound course. I experienced more to what my life was.' To mix with such a different variety of people and to get along with them so well gave me a sense of security. I had always felt rejected from society, but Outward Bound and the experiences I encountered took that rejection away. The best thing was giving myself to others, I learnt that helping others was the best feeling in the world. It has broadened my outlook towards life, it made me realize that there are so many enjoyable things out there to do. I truly believe this experience has built my character into somebody who can achieve anything I set my mind to do. I have learnt more about life and the feeling of myself that I never thought were there...."

Rock climbing and Abseiling in the Grampians.
Jamie.

" It looked hard, I started to climb, it was a great feeling. I got to the top, I was happy with myself.... I got rescued on Sunday morning, it was fun in a way, but frightening at the start. I started to go down but it was a different feeling to the other climbs. I was 50 feet in the air, I said, " something is wrong" I was only connected by one rope... I later heard that everyone thought I was very cool under pressure, but inside I was scared and nervous, but pleased with myself that I did it..."

Rodney.

" I thought going on the rock climbing camp had to be better than sitting doing nothing all weekend. When I got there, I thought "Have I done the right thing". The first climb made me nervous and scared as I got to the top. After a few climbs I felt a bit more confident with myself and thought if other trainees can do it, so can I. I felt a real sense of achievement".

John

" When I arrived at the camp it felt good to be out somewhere without being told what to do. I was pretty nervous about the climb, but when it started I felt good., I never thought I would be able to do something like that... I was getting a high out of life, something I've never got without using drugs. It felt good I had achieved something. One of the most important things was I had more trust in the staff and other trainees, all of us had trust in each other".

Darren

"I went to the Grampians rock climbing, it was good we all had responsibilities. The first climbs were fantastic, but the harder climbs were really putting the pressure on. When I got back from the camp, I was a bit depressed because I had such a good time being out in the bush doing things I had never done before. The relationship between me and the other guys was very good, we were really open and trusting with each other.

Brett.

"I didn't want to climb when I saw it, but I went up and was pleased with myself. It was real good looking at the bush, I felt free. I was having a good time without drugs and not taking cars. I was pleased with myself, and my mum and dad would have been pleased with me if they knew"

Tony

" I was scared but I said to myself "just do it". I was full of nerves, but I made it. When I was done I was really happy with myself, I proved I could do things. The rock climbing was the best thing I've ever done and the first thing I've done for myself. I know I've messed up my life in the past, but I'd rather do climbs than 'burgs'.."

Royal Talbot Rehabilitation Hospital.. Abseiling day
Brendon

" A few trainees went to the Talbot Amputee Hospital to help the patients abseil down the wall. It was good helping people do something, it taught me a lot and gave me a sense of achievement. I've done something for somebody else instead of only thinking of me, and they trusted me with their lives without question, it knocked me out..".

Gavin

" We went to the Royal Talbot to help other people, it was hard work winching them up the wall, but the enjoyment they got out of it was worth it. When I first got there I thought I wouldn't know how to communicate with these people, but I wanted to help so much, I tried my best. Despite their disabilities they had a go and that made me feel good inside, it gave me a sense of achievement. I thought I wouldn't feel anything, but I did. It was a top day and I'd do it again any day".

Work camp at Snake Island, Welshpool.
Chris.

" It was great to wake up in the morning and look around to see the birds, parrots and all the birds. I gathered up some fence posts and threw them in the trailer, then I went and "wacked" a couple in the ground. The camp was really good for me, it had shown me there is more to life than drugs, crime and all that stuff.. It has shown me how to respond to other people's feelings".

Michael

" The camp was like being back in the cowboys days, so fresh and peaceful. Everything became so clear.. I felt full of energy even though I'd been locked up for a year. It showed me that even though I had done wrong in the past, it didn't mean that people didn't care. It's hard to explain the sunrise at that place, but all night we sat around the fire with "brews", it was so good, no pressures. It's hard to explain the good feeling, and without using drugs, I loved every minute of it".

Appendix D.

DataCollected And Classification Of Items In The Needs Based Categories Of Safety/Security, Love/Belonging, Self-esteem.

Rehabilitation Needs and Status Scale

Data Collected and Classification of Items in the Needs based Categories of Safety/Security: Love/Belonging: Self-esteem.

Item.	Response Category.				Total	Needs Category.
	A.	B.	C.	D.	Score	
1	15	-	-	51	111	Self- Esteem
2	45	-	8	13	121	Self- Esteem.
3	29	11	26	-	129	Self- Esteem.
4	-	-	46	20	112	Self- Esteem.
5	46	19	1	-	87	Self- Esteem.
6	-	-	38	28	104	Self- Esteem.
7	3	13	50	-	179	Self- Esteem.
8	1	6	58	1	191	Love/Belonging..
9	6	24	36	-	162	Self- Esteem.
10	32	15	18	1	120	Love/Belonging.
11	7	34	25	-	150	Love/Belonging.
12	-	1	65	-	133	Self- Esteem.
13	-	-	35	31	101	Self- Esteem.
14	-	-	40	26	106	Self- Esteem.
15	15	20	31	-	148	Self- Esteem.
16	24	19	23	-	131	Love/ Belonging
17	-	16	50	-	182	Self -Esteem.
18	-	1	43	22	175	Love/ Belonging

Item.	Response Category				Total	Needs Category
	A.	B.	C.	D.	Score	
19	-	48	18	-	180	Love/ Belonging
20	4	18	43	1	173	Love/ Belonging
21	1	12	40	13	133	Love/ Belonging
22	2	31	31	2	165	Love/ Belonging
23	8	31	14	13	166	Love/ Belonging
24	2	7	57	-	187	Love /Belonging
25	2	15	49	-	181	Love /Belonging
26	-	33	33	-	165	Love /Belonging
27	1	25	40	-	172	Love/Belonging.
28	-	6	59	1	138	Love /Belonging
29	16	43	7	-	123	Love /Belonging
30	1	6	48	11	201	Love /Belonging
31	5	8	17	36	216	Love /Belonging
32	-	2	63	1	133	Love/Belonging
33	4	10	51	1	181	Safety /Security
34	5	29	32	-	159	Safety /Security
35	6	26	28	6	166	Safety /Security
36	-	-	38	28	104	Safety /Security.
37	4	41	21	-	149	Love/Belonging.
38	-	16	50	-	148	Love /Belonging
39	4	15	20	27	202	Safety/Security
40	6	22	35	3	167	Safety /Security
41	29	32	5	-	108	Safety /Security
42	-	-	1	65	67	Love/Belonging
43	-	1	37	28	105	Love /Belonging
44	-	4	50	12	206	Love /Belonging
45	-	8	51	7	133	Love /Belonging