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REVIEW OF THE CROSS-SECTIONAL FIELD OF OUTDOOR
CAMPS, RESILIENCY, AND JUVENILE DELINQUENCY

A Project
Presented to the
Faculty of
California State University,
San Bernardino

In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Master of Arts
in
Education:
Environmental Education

by
Omar Taha Safie

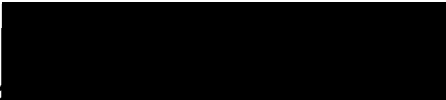
March 2005

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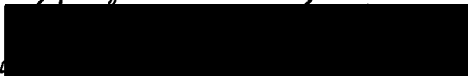
A Project
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Omar Taha Safie
March 2005

Approved by:



Dr. Darleen Stoner, First Reader



Dr. Thom Gehring, Second Reader

March 15, 2005

Date

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ABSTRACT

Juvenile crime is an issue that is on the rise in the United States, while programs focused on the rehabilitation of juvenile offenders decreases. Successful outdoor camp programs are being threatened by decreased funding and an increased focus on the control of juvenile delinquents. However, the field of resiliency seems promising in bringing the focus of juvenile justice programs back to rehabilitation. By properly infusing outdoor camp programs with resiliency education, new programs can be created that are even more successful than previous ones. However, before this can occur further research must be done in these two fields, and in the non-existent cross-sectional field of research. This paper is a literature review of the present state of research in both fields and the cross-section of the two. By presenting background information on juvenile delinquency, evaluating the present research in the field, and identifying what is lacking in the present body of research, the goal is to become a springboard for further research.

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DEDICATION

I would like to dedicate the completion of this thesis to my family; the most important people in my life. To my parents, for all that they sacrificed to help me reach my goals and to provide an environment that was loving and caring. To my brother, who has always been there to provide a happy distraction and knowledgeable support. Finally, my wife, the reason I look forward to every day, and the reason why I strive to be a better man. My accomplishments would mean very little without my family there to share it with.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Today we are at a cross-road in the field of juvenile justice. Across the United States crime is on the rise among juveniles with an arrest rate increase of 22% in recent years (Granello & Hanna, 2003). In many major cities across the United States more and more juveniles are being placed in correctional facilities (Granello & Hanna, 2003). With it being such an alarming issue many members of society, such as the former General Colin Powell, have attempted to face the issue head on (Cassel, 2001).

The fact that crime can have many indirect effects on society in general makes juvenile delinquency a societal issue that needs to be addressed in ways that take into account the difficulty of rehabilitating and educating such youth (Brier, 1994). Learning disabilities, puberty, and environmental factors are considerations that must be taken into account for the proper rehabilitation of juvenile delinquents (Brier, 1994). There are many incarceration facilities assigned to this task, but as stated by Brier (1994), they are not geared toward the rehabilitation and education of many juvenile delinquents,

such as those with learning disabilities, that require specific attention. In order to compensate for the lack of focus of these traditional incarceration institutions, many alternative programs have been proposed and created. These alternatives include, but are not limited to, programs emphasizing residential treatment, community based approaches, outdoor camps, and adventure.

The reason for so many different types of programs is because there are many different causes for juvenile delinquency. The many psychological causes are rooted in mental illness, disability, or psychological trauma brought on by circumstances or events in the juvenile's life. Similarly, environmental causes stem from social isolation, lack of resources, and the drive to survive. As a result, the treatment programs in existence are as complex and many sided as the causes of delinquency (Trojanowicz, Morash, & Schram, 2001).

As an alternative to juvenile institutionalization, environmental programs, or outdoor camp programs as they are more commonly known, are seen as a way to successfully rehabilitate juvenile delinquents. These programs are seen as a good alternative because they are centered on the individual needs of the juvenile delinquent (Brier, 1994). As a promising alternative to juvenile incarceration, the

research behind outdoor camp programs needs to be addressed and compared to the research behind typical juvenile institutions. This paper reviews the research behind programs geared toward the incarceration of juvenile delinquents and contrasts it with the research behind outdoor camp programs. The benefits of outdoor camp programs are discussed, and considerations are examined for using resiliency in conjunction with outdoor camp programs to fortify the rehabilitation process.

Research on juvenile delinquency is important because it provides information that can be used for the rehabilitation of juvenile delinquents. With a lack of knowledge, poor methods of identifying at risk youth will become common place use. For example, in the past it was presumed that individuals with low Intelligence Quotient (I.Q.) scores would inevitably turn to delinquency. In such cases, the only option would be to control delinquents and separate them from the general public. However, we now know that this is not the case, and low I.Q. levels are only generally correlated to delinquent behavior. A low I.Q. score is not a predictor, but a general characteristic of delinquent youth (Menard & Morse, 1984).

In addition, many sociologists in the 1970s and 1980s believed that the increase of women, especially mothers, in the workforce would increase juvenile delinquency. Over the years, juvenile delinquency has increased but it has not been related to mothers in the work force. Research has shown that the increase of working mothers does not have a significant effect on juvenile delinquency. However, the research does indicate that the increase in working mothers has resulted in decreased supervision, which may or may not lead to increased delinquency (Vander-Ven, Cullen, Carrozza, & Wright, 2001).

It is important to study juvenile delinquency because it provides the necessary knowledge for creating rehabilitation programs that address all aspects of juvenile delinquency. Through research conducted from the psychological and sociological perspectives, program coordinators are able to at least identify the necessary aspects of a good rehabilitation and prevention program. In an article by Cassel (2001) four major categories of improved self-esteem, internalized locus of control, positive peer relationships, and education were identified as necessary for the proper rehabilitation of juvenile delinquents. Studies like this provide the necessary

information for creating and conducting successful
juvenile rehabilitation programs.

CHAPTER TWO
JUVENILE JUSTICE SYSTEM

From the ages of 12 to 18, teenagers are going through many different psychological, emotional, and physical changes (Brier, 1994). Depending on any number of different environmental and internal factors, youth can develop varying degrees of antisocial behavior (Trojanowicz et al., 2001). In some cases, antisocial behavior can reach levels that necessitate court intervention and can even lead to juvenile incarceration. Many of these antisocial behaviors, such as fighting and acting out, are connected to learning disabilities such Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (Brier, 1994). However, many juvenile detention facilities are not concerned with this connection and remain focused on the control of these individuals rather than the rehabilitation or education of these juvenile delinquents (Brier, 1994).

In addition to the issue of improperly aligned institutional programs, there is also an issue of limited alternatives to incarceration (Rees, 2000). Within California there are only four State run vocational outdoor camp programs (CYA Locations Map, n.d.). Located

in the mountain region of Northern California, these outdoor camp programs are geographically isolated from the majority of the juvenile delinquent population (CYA Locations Map, n.d.). Those juvenile detention facilities that are not isolated are focused on gaining greater control over the inmates within the facilities (Rees, 2000). The situation is only worsened by the fact that public funding for programs geared toward the rehabilitation of juvenile delinquents has decreased inversely to the funds spent on procuring more beds and detention facilities (Rees, 2000). As a result current policies are geared toward the incarceration and punishment of juvenile delinquents rather than rehabilitation.

CHAPTER THREE

VARYING PERSPECTIVES ON JUVENILE DELINQUENCY

To gain a better understanding of the current juvenile justice system, it is important to look at the different perspectives explaining the causes of juvenile delinquency. As stated previously, the issues surrounding juvenile delinquency are multi-faceted; some are rooted in psychology, while others are rooted in sociology. By understanding the many perspectives regarding the causes of juvenile delinquency, a better picture of the research on juvenile delinquency can be obtained.

Sociological Perspective

Sociologists were the first to study delinquency in both a general and scientific manner (Trojanowicz et al., 2001). These early sociological studies focused on the lack of environmental control as the root of delinquent behavior. In order to deal with this lack of control, authorities were quick to develop programs that controlled delinquents, and, to this day, the majority of juvenile justice programs are directed toward the control of delinquents (Trojanowicz et al., 2001).

Despite the early emphasis of sociologists on control, further research has directed the sociological

perspective toward focusing on social structure, anomie, cultural transmission, and the differential association of delinquents (Trojanowicz et al., 2001). From this perspective we are to examine how the environment directs the choices individuals make, and, in the case of juvenile delinquency, we are to further examine how the environment directs an individual toward criminal behavior (Kamptner, 2003). In other words, juvenile delinquency is a result of the social structure and how it exerts pressure on juveniles to engage in delinquent behavior. The driving force behind juvenile delinquency from this sociological view is the strain and frustration that develops from an individual wanting what the societal structure can not provide (Trojanowicz et al., 2001).

Recent sociological studies have indicated that areas of low socioeconomic status have been found to have higher levels of delinquency as a result of economic and social strain (Agnew, Brezina, Wright, & Cullen, 2002). By not having the economic and social means to satisfy wants the individual develops strain (Agnew et al., 2002). In other words, he/she becomes frustrated that they are not able to obtain what is portrayed as being successful in the media and the environment. The result is socially deviant behavior directed toward obtaining what they do not have.

In terms of socially deviant behavior, delinquency can develop in many different ways, and one way is anomie; a feeling of disconnect from the mainstream culture. In the case of juvenile delinquents, there is a disconnect from mainstream, positive peer groups (Trojanowicz et al., 2001). As a result of this isolation, there is no positive support during times of difficulty, resulting in violent outbreaks, such as the school shootings in Columbine (Kumpfer & Alvarado, 2003). This type of delinquent behavior is very difficult to correct and identify, and violent outcomes are inevitable.

Two other mechanisms through which delinquent behavior forms in juveniles are cultural transmission and differential association. Differential association theory states that criminal behavior is learned through intimate interaction and communication within close personal groups (Trojanowicz et al., 2001). In areas of high economic deprivation, there is greater social disorganization resulting in less positive and goal affirming resources available to juveniles (Hoffman, 2002). With nothing left, juveniles turn to the negative resources prominent in their environment to obtain what they want or need. Differential association does maintain that learning must occur, and, with the infusion of more positive

opportunities and resources into the environment, a particular individual may not develop delinquent behavior (Hoffman, 2002).

Related to differential association, cultural transmission is easily connected to the learning of criminal behavior. This theory states that criminal activity is learned and then transmitted from one group and generation to another (Trojanowicz et al., 2001). Again, delinquent behavior is learned through the environment. In the case of cultural transmission, it is learned from close peer groups. Since it is learned, with the guidance of positive peer groups, the delinquent behavior can be unlearned (Trojanowicz et al., 2001)

The connection between all of these sociological theories is important because they indicate that at least one major cause of delinquent behavior is the environment in which it occurs frequently. Lack of social means, poor supervision, and lack of resources, both economic and social, are strong indicators of socially disorganized communities and prerequisites for delinquency behavior (Agnew et al., 2002; Hoffman, 2002; Kumpfer & Alvarado, 2003; Trojanowicz et al., 2001). In such an area, juvenile delinquency is a part of life because it is the prominent behavior available for obtaining what the individual

wants. With a lack of positive role models and resources, delinquent behavior is learned and transmitted to other groups and from generation to generation. However, it is not the only perspective which explains delinquent behavior.

Psychological Perspective

Closely connected to the sociological perspective is the psychological perspective. In many cases, the psychological perspective refers to the view that events in the life of an individual progresses in stages that are directed by internal forces rather than external forces associated with the sociological perspective (Trojanowicz et al., 2001). In the case of juvenile delinquency, delinquent behavior is the result of unconscious drives and their oppression, operant conditioning, modeling, and cognitive development (Trojanowicz et al., 2001). All of these psychological theories are directed toward explaining delinquency from a perspective that pinpoints the causes and pathways of delinquency within the individuals themselves.

From the psychological perspective, delinquency is perceived as being a result of individual developmental problems (Trojanowicz et al., 2001). In this view it is

important to note that psychological and physical development, and disruptions that alter the normal stages of development can create opportunities for deviant behavior to take root (Trojanowicz et al., 2001). If not recognized, this deviant behavior can result in criminal activity and delinquent behavior later on in life (Burke, Loeber, Mutchka, & Lahey, 2002).

Sigmund Freud theorized that development proceeded through sexual stages of development, and in these stages of development the unconscious demands of the individual must be met. In each stage there is a trade-off between these unconscious drives and the demands presented to the individual by the world. If the trade-offs are met in a way that is beneficial to the individual, there is no problem. However, delinquent behavior arises when there is an over-emphasis on the suppression of these unconscious desires. While it has never been expressly stated that this suppression causes delinquent behavior Trojanowicz et al. (2001) stated that this theory of development can result in behavioral disorders that most likely includes delinquent behavior.

In addition to the psychoanalytical theory proposed by Freud, another view of delinquency that is related to developmental stages is operant conditioning. In

Trojanowicz et al. (2001) Hans Eysenck stated that delinquent behavior, just like all other behavior, is a result of biological makeup and training. Despite its roots in sociology as well as biology this theory focuses on operant conditioning, which states that an individual that lives in a certain environment is psychologically conditioned by day-to-day acts into a certain type of behavior. As a result, an area that is frequented with criminal activity is a place where it is more likely that an individual will be conditioned to commit delinquent acts (Trojanowicz et al., 2001). In this case, the psychoanalytical theory is the cause of delinquent behavior, and the operant conditioning theory could be a possible mechanism through which delinquent behavior is passed on.

Another psychological theory that attempts to describe how delinquent behavior emerges is cognitive development theory. In this theory, development is again seen as occurring in stages, but the focus is on the cognitive development of the mind and how it directs the daily lives of an individual (Trojanowicz et al., 2001). When cognitive development is interrupted for some reason, it can stop altogether or continue in an altered manner (Trojanowicz et al., 2001). For example, consider a child

in a poor environment whose development had been interrupted by a traumatic event, such as the loss of a father. The development of the child has been altered, but depending on the resiliency of the child and the extent to which positive influences are present in the environment, the child may recover completely or not. However, during this traumatic period of development the child can be negatively influenced, making the child more susceptible to delinquent behavior and activity.

Cognitive development theory provides a mechanism through which delinquent behavior can result, and modeling is another example of how delinquent behavior can be spread. This theory states that delinquent behavior present in the family, society, or even the media is mimicked by the child, allowing delinquent behavior to be passed on from person to person, and group to group (Pettit, Laird, Dodge, Bates, & Criss, 2001). Just as a child sees positive behavior and models it, a child can see negative behavior and model it (Farrington, Loeber, Yin, & Anderson, 2002). Depending on the levels of negative or positive involvement and influence the parents and peer groups have on the individual during development, a child can develop delinquent behavior as a result of their direct or indirect involvement (Farrington et al.,

2002). In order to decrease the likelihood of delinquent behavior developing, parents and positive influences need to be present in the lives of children (Matherne & Thomas, 2001).

Links between Both Perspectives

From the point of view of both the sociological and psychological perspectives the environment plays an important role in the development of delinquent behavior, and in both perspectives the societal structure has a direct effect on the development of delinquent behavior. In areas of low socioeconomic status, there are higher levels of economic deprivation and disorganization (Agnew et al., 2002). In this type of environment the presence of delinquent behavior presents a strong influence on an individual, and, if not mitigated, can lead to delinquent behavior. Whether the causes of delinquent behavior are external (sociological) or internal (psychological), the environment plays a key role in the development of delinquent behavior (Trojanowicz et al., 2001).

Sociological and psychological research has also helped to assess the benefits of prevention and rehabilitation programs. Research conducted by Keating, Tomishima, Foster, and Alessandri (2002) assessed the

benefits and success of mentoring programs in preventing delinquent behavior in at risk youth. They determined that positive influences, where there may have not been any previously, are good ways for at-risk youth to model positive behavior instead of delinquent behavior (Keating et al., 2002). In addition, it has been noted that these positive influences counterbalance, at least in part, the negative influences presented by peer groups (Liu, 2000). These mentoring and prevention programs are based on sound research, but there must be more studies conducted to extend the research into the realm of successful juvenile prevention and rehabilitation programs.

The concern here is that current juvenile detention facilities have predominantly focused on the placement of those with similar backgrounds together in order to better control them. By doing so, these typical institutions do not take into account the environment that, according to both perspectives, affected the individuals. By maintaining juvenile delinquents in an environment that is similar in population demographics to that which attributed to the onset of delinquent behavior in the first place, little focus is being placed on the environmental aspects of juvenile delinquency. Future

research and policy needs to take into account the role
the environment plays in juvenile delinquency.

CHAPTER FOUR

OUTDOOR CAMP PROGRAMS

Definition of Environmental Education

Before examining any outdoor education or alternative program it is important to first define outdoor education and the umbrella under which it falls, which is environmental education. Environmental education has been defined by professionals in many different ways, but the best definition is that environmental education aims to produce a citizenry that is knowledgeable of the environment and its problems, aware of the tools and skills necessary to solve these problems, and motivated to bring about those solutions (Stapp et al., 1969). Environmental education focuses on the environment and a necessity to take care of it; however, outdoor education is slightly different.

Definition of Outdoor Education

The main focus of outdoor education is to use resources outside the classroom to teach what is best taught outside the classroom (Taylor & Disinger, 1997). The difference between outdoor education and environmental education is that outdoor education occurs exclusively outdoors. The key is that outdoor education may contain

elements of environmental education, but its main draw as applied to the juvenile justice system is that it changes the physical environment in which the education is happening. Under the veil of outdoor education there have been many different types of programs, such as camp programs, adventure programs, and community programs, but for the basis of this paper, only outdoor camp programs will be discussed as a viable alternative to juvenile incarceration.

Reasons for Outdoor Camp Programs

Learning disabilities, puberty, and various other causes for juvenile delinquency add to the myriad of reasons that make the rehabilitation and education of such youth difficult. There are traditional ways of dealing with juvenile delinquency, but as stated by Brier (1994), these facilities are not geared toward rehabilitation, education, and the learning disabilities that contribute to the causes of juvenile delinquency. As a result, many alternative programs have been developed for the rehabilitation of juvenile delinquents. These alternatives include, but are not limited to, residential treatment, community based, camps, and adventure programs. Many of these programs provide an alternative to

institutionalization by removing juveniles from the environment that contributes to their delinquency (Comer, 1985).

As an alternative to juvenile incarceration, outdoor camp programs focus on the environmental factors associated with the onset of juvenile delinquency (Comer, 1985). Although there are other alternatives to juvenile incarceration, such as residential treatment, community based programs, and adventure programs, the difference between these programs and outdoor camp programs is that outdoor camp programs seek to alter the environment in which the delinquent behavior originated (Comer, 1985). By altering the physical environment and placing greater emphasis on relationships that can protect an individual from developing delinquent behavior, program directors can focus on the specific needs of the individual juvenile delinquent (Brody, Dorsey, Forehand, & Armistead, 2002; Comer, 1985). By creating a program environment that is comforting and supportive an individual can develop resilient traits and be able to rehabilitate (Brody et al., 2002). In addition, this allows program directors to focus on any learning disabilities or psychological scars that might have contributed to the delinquent behavior of the juvenile (Brier, 1994).

General Comparison of Outdoor Camps to Typical Juvenile Incarceration Facilities

To determine how successful outdoor camp programs are it is important to examine the recidivism rates of individuals that go through these programs compared to those that do not. Recidivism is a measure of how many individuals return to the court system after being released. Recidivism at typical juvenile incarceration facilities range from 50% to 60% at a two-year follow-up (Comer, 1985).

As an alternative to juvenile incarceration, outdoor camp programs must be compared to juvenile incarceration facilities. Of those juveniles that participated in various outdoor camp programs there is an 11% to 46% recidivism rate (Comer, 1985). The recidivism rates of their demographic counterparts in typical juvenile incarceration facilities were 42% to 73% (Comer, 1985). By comparison, it appears that outdoor education programs have been more effective in decreasing the recidivism rates of juvenile delinquents.

However, this general comparison does not discuss the reasons behind the differences. It is not clear what caused the differences in recidivism rates. To further analyze the differences, it is important to determine

which specific components of the outdoor camp programs were unique and which were not. The type of blatant number comparison that Comer (1985) used has its purpose, but without further discussion of the key factors behind the differences, a true comparison can not be done. With this type of information, future researchers do not have anything more than a general reference point for creating and testing outdoor camp programs. Policy and curriculum starting points are not available. However, there is research that provides the information lacking in what Comer (1985) stated.

CHAPTER FIVE
COMPARISON OF ALTERNATIVES TO JUVENILE
INCARCERATION

Examination of Scared Straight

Before examining examples of outdoor camp programs, it is important to examine at least one non-outdoor camp program. It is important to do this in order to have a comparison point. By examining another alternative to juvenile incarceration, a better understanding of the benefits of outdoor camp programs can be gained. In this case, we will be examining the Scared Straight program of the 1970s (Petrosino, Turpin-Petrosino, & Finckenauer, 2000).

The Scared Straight program existed as a prevention program designed to decrease the progression of at-risk youth to juvenile delinquency and criminal behavior. A group of inmates serving life sentences at a New Jersey State prison conducted the Juvenile Awareness Program to deter at-risk youths from criminal behavior. This program introduced more than 8,000 juveniles to criminals who were serving a life sentence in State prisons. The goal was to have this specific prison population scare the at-risk youth from becoming juvenile delinquents. This one day event was intended to alter the lives of the at-risk youth

that participated in the program. However, that was not the case (Petrosino et al., 2000).

The program appeared to be successful in reducing criminal behavior in the more than 8,000 juveniles that participated in the program, but upon further research it was determined to be greatly unsuccessful. Within the first six months of the program, there was very little evidence of deviant behavior among those that participated in the program. However, at a two year follow-up, an alarming number of those that participated in the program were caught in criminal acts. These ranged from truancy to burglary and assault, as well as a few cases of violent assault and murder. There was no difference in those that participated in this program when compared to members of the same population that did not. Furthermore, results indicated that an increased number of juveniles came into contact with lifetime criminals that they would not have normally come in contact with, and, as a result, criminal behavior had increased in program participants (Petrosino et al., 2000).

The Scared Straight program stands as an example of a failed alternative to juvenile incarceration for the purposes of delinquency prevention and rehabilitation (Petrosino et al., 2000). This program was not properly

planned out and tested, but was strongly supported by political leaders (Petrosino et al., 2000). As a result, the program was not established on the basis of properly aligned policy. In addition, it did not take into account the many environmental factors that were associated with juvenile delinquency; instead, the program was focused on short-term and very visible results (Petrosino et al., 2000). However, by understanding how Scared Straight worked, a better understanding can be gained of what not do.

Examination of the Nokomis Challenge Program

The Nokomis Challenge Program (NCP) took place in 1989 as an alternative to the traditional training schools for medium and low-risk youths, and was implemented by the Michigan Department of Social Services. The program was designed for juvenile delinquents 14 years or older. It was a 12 month program comprised of three months of residential camp and nine months of community based services. During the nine month period the juvenile had returned to his/her own community, and upon completion of this last part of the program there was to be no further communication and support from the program (Deschenes & Greenwood, 1998).

The sample for this study was comprised of 97 youths from the NCP, and 95 similar youths from traditional training school programs. The results of the study indicated that there were only financial benefits from this program. The NCP cost \$60,500 per student as compared to the \$83,400 per student for the traditional state training schools. Despite the cost decrease, the NCP was only equally as effective as the Michigan State training schools in reducing recidivism among juvenile delinquents. However, it did have the benefit over Scared Straight that it did not increase criminal activity (Deschenes & Greenwood, 1998; Petrosino et al., 2000).

The results of this study indicated that short-term residential programs have no significant effect on recidivism rates, especially when the juvenile is released back into the same environment. NCP attempted to take the environmental factors associated with juvenile delinquency into consideration, but it appears that it did not go far enough. Similar programs should take into account the length of the actual camp portion of this program, as well as its overall length. By altering the environment for longer periods of time, it is possible that different results could be obtained. In addition, appropriate population targeting may increase the success rate of both

the camp and community aspects of the NCP (Deschenes & Greenwood, 1998).

Examination of the Hope Center Wilderness Camp

The Hope Center Wilderness Camp (HCWC) was created by Robert C. Lanier to give juvenile campers a non-punitive environment that placed considerable emphasis on the areas of health, safety, education, and therapy. Those admitted to the program had to be between 12 and 17 years old, emotionally disturbed, but not mentally retarded. The juveniles admitted may or may not have been adjudicated youth with violent or nonviolent offenses. One of the most important aspects of HCWC was the Plan of Service agreement created in conjunction with the camper (Clagget, 1990).

The Plan of Service was a contract that outlined all aspects of the juveniles individualized rehabilitation program. This contract was created by camp counselors with considerable input from the juvenile delinquent and his/her parents. Upon the creation of this program, the juvenile was given the opportunity to review the contract, and then sign it, making it binding. As a result, campers had to complete their Plan of Service contract 100% before

they could be released from the camp facility (Clagget, 1990).

The structure of the program was comprised of living groups of campers and counselors. Each group was responsible for itself as well as for each member of the group in all aspects. This included physical and mental health, support, the maintenance of shelter, the preparation and procurement of food, and education. In addition, the ultimate completion of each individual's Plan of Service was intertwined with each individual's living group (Clagget, 1990).

With so much built in positive interaction, corporal punishment and punitive actions were not allowed to occur. As a result, positive and supportive environment among campers and camp staff was created and maintained. Along the same lines, physical restraints could only be used to protect the camper from injuring himself or others. All campers were required to attend school year round and have their Plan of Service reviewed every 90 days in order to assure that any necessary modifications needed in service were made. Campers were strongly encouraged to communicate with one another and with staff, and all members of the program were involved in the review process and release of campers from the program. As a result, duration varied

from eight to 18 months with an average stay of 14 months, and an aftercare program that lasted at least six months after release with the option of more time being added if it had been deemed necessary (Clagget, 1990).

The HCWC altered the environment of the campers for a long period, unlike NCP and Scared Straight. HCWC results showed that 85% of ex-campers did not recidivate during the initial six month period of release; however, there was no further contact with the individuals after this point (Clagget, 1990). When compared to typical juvenile recidivism rates that can be as high as 73%, the apparent success of this program is evident (Clagget, 1990; Comer, 1985). However, there is still a strong difference between HCWC and NCP and an even more apparent difference between HCWC and Scared Straight.

Comparison of Scared Straight, Nokomis
Challenge, and Hope Center
Wilderness Camp

HCWC focused on a long-term residential base from which to launch their program (Clagget, 1990). NCP was a short-term residential program that was, at best, five months shorter (Deschenes & Greenwood, 1998). In order to assess how much of an impact this actually had on the success of the program, future research should focus on

maintaining all other aspects of such residential camp programs constant while only altering the duration of the program.

When compared to Scared Straight, two major differences are evident; the first is the alteration of the environment, and the second is duration of intervention (Clagget, 1990; Petrosino et al., 2000). Scared Straight was not a residential program aimed at separating the juvenile delinquent from the environment in which the delinquency originally occurred (Petrosino et al., 2000). In addition, Scared Straight was only a one day intervention, while HCWC was long-term (Clagget, 1990; Petrosino et al., 2000). These differences could have easily contributed to the success of HCWC and the lack of success of Scared Straight, but this type of conclusion cannot be made without directly comparing both programs while maintaining similar experimental conditions.

With the basic comparisons between HCWC, NCP, and Scared Straight it is clear that the environment in which the rehabilitation occurs is key, and, from the relative success of HCWC and NCP when compared to Scared Straight, it is even more evident that the outdoors may have some use in the rehabilitation of juvenile delinquents. In addition, the duration of an intervention is very

important in creating a program that has a lasting, long-term, positive effect. It appears, at least in the study conducted by Clagget (1990), that HCWC is a program that accomplishes this. However, new generations of legislators, looking for more punitive solutions to crime that are more visible to the community, are strongly bent on reviving unsuccessful programs such as Scared Straight (Petrosino et al., 2000).

CHAPTER SIX

RESILIENCY

Importance of Resiliency

The predominant problem is that juvenile delinquents can become repeat offenders leading them into a life of criminal activity (Bullis, Yovanoff, Mueller, & Havel, 2002). However, there is a small subset of juvenile delinquents that steer away from a lifetime of criminal activity and become positive contributors to society (Compas, Connor-Smith, Saltzman, Thomsen, & Wadsworth, 2001). The key to their success is resiliency, defined as the ability to bounce back from adversity (Vasquez, 2000). If it is possible to extrapolate the key characteristics that are found in resilient juvenile delinquents, it should be possible to teach and instill these traits as a rehabilitation tool specifically designed for juvenile delinquents (Catalano, Berglund, Ryan, Lonczak, & Hawkins, 2002).

As can be seen in HCWC, camp programs aim to decrease the likelihood that a juvenile delinquent will fall back into delinquent behavior after being released by increasing internal locus of control and raising self-esteem (Clagget, 1990; Deschenes & Greenwood, 1998). Since

many traditional juvenile incarceration programs do not focus on such aspects of rehabilitation, outdoor programs have this to aid in the rehabilitation of juvenile delinquents (Brier, 1994). Furthermore, the effectiveness of outdoor camp programs can be enhanced by the infusion of resiliency being used as a rehabilitative tool.

Although the use of resiliency as a rehabilitative tool is promising, research in the field is lacking (Flannery et al., 2003). Current research is merely focused on what resiliency is and how it relates to the developmental process (Hart, Hofmann, Edelstein, & Keller, 1997; Johnson, 1997). Specific research has focused on how it is fostered within the developmental process of children (Catalano et al., 2002). As a result, the research fields of resiliency and juvenile delinquency have not really been integrated. There is even less research on how resiliency could benefit outdoor education programs. The best way to understand resiliency is to compare and contrast the varying views of how resiliency comes to exist within an individual. However, before we can do this comparison we must first understand what constitutes an adverse situation through which a child can be resilient.

Defining Resiliency

The majority of resiliency definitions are based on the adversity that must be overcome in order to be resilient (Vasquez, 2000). As a result, there can be a majority of adverse situations that an individual must overcome in order to be resilient. By structuring the definition of resiliency on the contextual framework of adversity, three major areas of focus surface; the social environment, physical environment, and familial and peer relationships (Carr & Vandiver, 2001). By understanding these three areas of developmental focus for adversity, a better understanding of what resiliency is will become evident.

Adversity in the Social Environment

The social environment is one form of adversity an individual may face (Kumpfer & Alvarado, 2003). As related to juveniles, delinquency occurs in certain social groups. When away from home, juveniles engage in certain activities depending on the social environment. In certain social environments delinquent behavior and criminal activity may be necessary in order to be a part of the social group (Hart et al., 1997). In extreme cases criminal activity may be a necessary choice for survival (Hart et al., 1997). When confronted with adverse

environments, juveniles with a lack of social resources and choices can become trapped by the delinquent social environment, resulting in many adverse and negative situations related directly to the social environment an individual chooses (Masten & Coatsworth, 1998).

Adversity in the Physical Environment

Similar to the social resources an individual needs to survive, there are physical resources that an individual requires for proper development. When the physical environment is lacking in the positive resources that aid in the productive and positive development of an individual, an adverse situation can arise. An area that lacks sufficient after-school programs, parks, and libraries will not provide sufficient resources for positive alternatives to delinquent behavior. A juvenile that is surrounded by vacant lots, condemned buildings, and a lack of job opportunities will not have very many places to turn to. Similar to the social environment, a juvenile may find it necessary to behave in a delinquent manner in order to acquire the necessary physical resources they desire or need for survival (Masten & Coatsworth, 1998).

Adversity in Familial and Peer Relationships

Familial and peer relationships are very closely related to the social environment in which an individual develops. However, the difference is that these are close relationships that exist within the life of the juvenile. Positive and supportive family members aid in the healthy development of the juvenile and help to guide him/her away from the adversity that exists within the social and physical environments (Kumpfer & Alvarado, 2003).

Peer relationships can aid the juvenile in the same way (Li, Stanton, Pack, Harris, Cottrell, & Burns, 2002). Adversity occurs when one or both of these relationships provide little or no positive reinforcement for the juvenile, opening the door for the child to follow the negative role models available in the environment (Li et al., 2002). Examples of such negative role models are abusive or neglectful parents, gang members, and peers that abuse drugs.

Definition of Resiliency as it Relates to Juvenile Delinquency

The importance of the social and physical environments, and familial and peer relationships is evidenced by the delinquent behavior that can arise when these three areas of development are lacking in some way

for the juvenile (Compas et al., 2001). It is this lacking, or risk factors, that an individual must overcome in order to develop properly and to be resilient (Catalano et al., 2002). In order to develop in a healthy manner individuals must learn to cope with certain stressors that occur in life from a lack of resources, or the presence of stressful life events (Carr & Vandiver, 2001). Therefore, in order to provide a better understanding of resiliency and its connection to juvenile delinquency, the definition of resiliency must include adversity (Masten, 2001).

Resiliency has been defined as the ability to cope with adverse situations with the help of supportive and productive environments. In the case of juvenile delinquents, the specific elements which lead to the delinquent behavior must be addressed. Despite the fact that the body of research does not define resiliency as it relates to juvenile delinquency, it does outline important characteristics of resilient juvenile offenders. One specific study that attempted to define resiliency and delinquency was conducted by Carr and Vandiver (2001).

Carr and Vandiver (2001) identified three protective factors that counter the risk factors, or adverse situations, associated with juvenile delinquency. These were personal, familial, and environmental risk factors.

Resilient juveniles maintained positive temperamental characteristics in the face of these factors, such as achievement oriented attitudes in adolescence. Resilient familial characteristics included positive and supportive parents and family members. Resilient juveniles also existed within an environment characterized by many informal, but very supportive relationships beyond the family (Carr & Vandiver, 2001).

Although the Carr and Vandiver (2001) study is key to identifying characteristics common to resilient juvenile offenders, it was very limited in its sample size, and it did not suggest ways in which this resiliency could be taught or used in the rehabilitation of juvenile offenders. In addition, it did not identify the ways in which the results could be used to enhance current juvenile rehabilitation programs. However, with further research, the results of this study could be used to enhance such programs.

According to Carr and Vandiver (2001), resiliency in juveniles can be characterized by positive and supportive personal, familial, and environmental factors. Li et al. (2002) further supported this characterization of resilient juveniles by identifying the same protective factors in a study done with African American adolescents

involved in gangs. Certain types of adverse situations lead to specific types of juvenile delinquency, or vice versa (Li et al., 2002). In their study resiliency and adversity became circular definitions, where either one could lead to the other (Li et al., 2002). In other words, resiliency is defined by the adversity an individual had to face in the past, and adversity is defined by the manner in which an individual gained resiliency. The benefit of this article is that resiliency, adversity, and delinquency are seen as integral parts of one another which cannot be properly studied if segregated from one another. However, this study continued the trend of not identifying the ways in which a juvenile delinquent develops resiliency, and what is necessary to teach resiliency and use it as a rehabilitation tool to diminish juvenile delinquency.

Using Resiliency as a Rehabilitation Tool

Resiliency and adversity are defined through the many personal, familial, and environmental factors that are found among juvenile delinquents (Carr & Vandiver, 2001). The next step is to determine how to use this information as a rehabilitation tool for juvenile delinquents, and whether resiliency can be taught. Furthermore, it is

important to identify ways in which resiliency can be used to enhance the most successful juvenile rehabilitation programs.

Since the definition of resiliency is dependent on the environment, whether it is social or physical, teaching resiliency and maintaining the environment in which it can flourish is very difficult. In order to teach how to achieve resiliency, the environment must be altered in order to promote one, or all, aspects of resiliency (Flannery et al., 2003). This concept of altering the environment to promote change in an individual is similar to that of concepts behind outdoor camp programs (Comer, 1985). However, this alteration must be done successfully and maintained for a long period of time to promote change (Clagget, 1990).

A good example of successfully altering the social environment was presented by Flannery et al. (2003). In their study, the violent, aggressive, non-cooperative, and unsupportive social environments of certain peer groups were altered to create an environment more conducive to positive human development. By integrating group work and creating a supportive environment they were able to decrease the influence of delinquent peer groups. In doing so, they were able to decrease aggressive behavior. By

increasing the number of positive resilient factors and decreasing risk factors associated with at-risk juveniles, Flannery et al. (2003) were able to foster at least one aspect of resiliency; positive and supportive social environments.

One limitation to the Flannery et al. (2003) article is that these researchers did not apply the experiment to a similar demographic of juvenile delinquents. In addition, there was no long-term analysis of the success of the program, or a comparison with a similar group of resilient juvenile delinquents. By not doing such comparisons, it is very difficult to see if the altering of social environments will have the same effect on juvenile delinquents as it did with their sample of at-risk youth (Flannery et al., 2003).

Another example of using resiliency as a rehabilitation as well as a prevention tool is the creation of positive and supportive parent-child relationships (Kumpfer & Alvarado, 2003). By creating family relationships that are focused on monitoring, supervision, and communication, a supportive parent-child relationship can form (Kumpfer & Alvarado, 2003). With proper parent education, this type of protective factor can help prevent juvenile delinquency and aid in the

rehabilitation of juvenile delinquents (Carr & Vandiver,
2001).

CHAPTER SEVEN

CURRENT STATUS OF RESILIENCY AND THE JUVENILE JUSTICE SYSTEM

Despite the positive results of using resiliency to tailor successful programs for at-risk youth, the United States justice system has not used resiliency in similar programs for juvenile delinquents (Bullis et al., 2002). Instead they have maintained their focus on incarceration, control, and release (Rees, 2000). The problem with this program is two-fold. First, it does not teach or incorporate any of the protective resiliency factors (Bullis et al., 2002). By maintaining the individual within the same physical and social environment, the risk factors for delinquency are increased and the protective factors associated with resiliency are decreased (Flannery et al., 2003). It is true that research in using resiliency as a rehabilitative tool is fairly new, but in order to determine if it will be more successful and less expensive than the current system, attempts at using it must be made.

Second, the juvenile justice system does little aftercare upon the release of an individual (Bullis et al., 2002). By releasing the individual into the same environment in which the initial delinquent act occurred,

it is likely that he/she will commit another criminal offense (Johnson, 1997). Without proper education, monitoring, and communication the same risk-factors as before come into play, and the individual must do what he/she knows in order to survive (Li et al., 2002). Without a supportive social environment the chance for resiliency is low, and the chance for recidivism is high.

Currently, research has become stagnant by focusing on the characteristics of resiliency and the factors associated with juvenile delinquency. Resiliency itself is a fairly new area of study that has been examined only for the last 20-30 years (Carr & Vandiver, 2001). However, the research in this field will aid in identifying the factors that characterize resiliency. This is the first step in determining how to use resiliency as a rehabilitation tool (Pasternack & Martinez, 1996). It is important to not remain in the identification stage of research, but also move toward research that examines the ways in which resiliency can be used as a rehabilitative tool.

Juvenile delinquency, on the other hand, is not a new field of research and has been studied and researched in the fields of biology, psychology, sociology, and criminology. There is plenty of research about the causes of juvenile delinquency and equally as many programs

geared toward either the control or the rehabilitation of juvenile delinquents. The current field of juvenile delinquency research needs to move forward and focus on rehabilitative methods and the infusion of resiliency into current successful programs.

The research area that is most lacking is the existence of programs that incorporate resiliency into the rehabilitation of juvenile delinquents. Resiliency has been used in a limited manner in the rehabilitation of adult offenders, but very little research exists on the use of resiliency in juvenile offenders (Rees, 2000). It is important to grasp resiliency and use it as a rehabilitative tool because it instills within the juveniles themselves the ability to overcome adversity (Vasquez, 2000). Rather than just isolating them from the general population, the juvenile delinquent can become a productive part of society.

CHAPTER EIGHT

CONCLUSION

Importance of Continuing Research on Outdoor Camp Programs

Researchers have proven the success of outdoor camp programs in comparison to typical juvenile incarceration facilities (Clagget, 1990; Deschenes & Greenwood, 1998). However, this proven success has not lead to an increase in outdoor camp programs being used as an alternative to juvenile incarceration. This is important to consider because it is contrary to the research in the field. With the promise that outdoor camp programs show as an alternative to juvenile incarceration, the reasons behind the this lack of growth must be examined.

Despite the trend, research has shown that long-term outdoor camp programs are a viable alternative to juvenile incarceration. They are less expensive and more effective at reducing juvenile recidivism rates (Clagget, 1990; Deschenes & Greenwood, 1998). Research in support of successful programs, such as HCWC, must be continued (Clagget, 1990). In time, such research can lead to the development of a framework that characterizes what is necessary to develop a successful juvenile rehabilitation program.

Importance of Continuing Research on Resiliency as a Rehabilitation Tool

The reason resiliency is such an important part of juvenile rehabilitation is because the risk factors associated with the causes of delinquent behavior are similar to the adversity faced by resilient individuals (Novick, 1998). If rehabilitation does not occur, many juvenile delinquents face lifetimes of criminal activity (Lynam, 1997). Therefore, continuing research in the field of resiliency as it relates to juvenile delinquency is a necessity. Although there is much research on juvenile delinquency and resiliency as individual fields of research, there is little research at the intersection of the two fields.

In addition, there is an evident connection between delinquency and resiliency. In many cases the existence of certain protective factors leads to resiliency, while the lack of the same factors leads to delinquency (Carr & Vandiver, 2001). In much of the research, this connection has been identified, but little research has been done to meld the two for the purpose of enhancing juvenile rehabilitation programs. One reason is that teaching resiliency is a long and involved process (Carr & Vandiver, 2001). In order to teach resiliency, the social

and physical environments must be altered, and that altered state must be maintained for a considerable period of time (Richardson & Nixon, 1997). This is difficult to accomplish with juvenile delinquents because they are housed in detention facilities that are filled with individuals who are also juvenile delinquents. In order to alter the social environment, the entire juvenile justice system must be altered (Robertson, Harding, & Morrison, 1998).

Research has shown that it is possible to alter the social environment enough to promote the protective factors that instill resiliency (Griffin, Botvin, Scheier, Diaz, & Miller, 2000). In addition, resiliency can be instilled through the alteration of familial and peer relationships (Griffin et al., 2000). Since the factors associated with resiliency have been identified in previous research, it is possible to create programs that teach resiliency.

The major obstacle in teaching resiliency to juvenile delinquents is the juvenile justice system itself (Haney, 1997). Juvenile offenders are mainly between the ages of 12 and 18, and in order to conduct research on them, permission is necessary (Haney, 1997). In addition, juvenile delinquents are housed in facilities that seek to

control their aggressive behavior rather than change it (Brier, 1994). These two issues combined make it difficult to implement research programs aimed at teaching resiliency. In essence, a shift must occur within the juvenile justice system to focus on rehabilitation, education, and research rather than control. By doing this, research will become a necessity in the creation of programs geared toward rehabilitation. If this shift does not occur, juvenile delinquents will have to find their own path to resiliency.

Connection between Resiliency and Outdoor Camp Programs

As stated earlier, outdoor camp programs are focused on the rehabilitation of juvenile delinquents (Clagget, 1990). By altering the physical and social environment of the juvenile delinquent, outdoor camp programs aim to increase the likelihood of rehabilitation and decrease the likelihood of recidivism (Comer, 1985). In similar studies done by Carr and Vandiver (2001), properly altering the social and physical environments can increase the protective factors available to a juvenile and increase the chance of resiliency. Both fields of research focus on altering the environment of the individual, and both

fields have been found to have positive results. The next logical step would be to combine the two fields of study.

Since both fields focus on altering environments as a way of achieving success, the two fields should meld together well for research purposes. By combining the two fields, programs can be created that focus on combining the benefits of teaching resiliency and the success of outdoor camp programs at rehabilitating juvenile delinquents. However, this has not yet occurred, and further research needs to be done on the feasibility of such a combination.

For the purposes of meeting the needs of juvenile delinquents, it is important that research continue allowing programs to be created that are based on sound research. Outdoor camp programs have shown promise in meeting the needs of juvenile delinquents, but there is much more that needs to be done. Resiliency is an effective tool in instilling an internalized sense of control in at-risk youth and has been proven to increase self-esteem. However, future research must make an effort to enhance outdoor camp programs with resiliency education.

In addition, the simple fact that there are many different types of juvenile treatment programs

necessitates the need for a comprehensive and thorough process of evaluating the success of any juvenile rehabilitation program. Just as the federal government's No Child Left Behind mandate has instituted standards that must be met by all students, schools, and school districts, there must also be a comprehensive set of standards to meet for juvenile rehabilitation institutions. It is not enough to say that a program works or does not work; it must meet standards based on sound research and the needs of the individual juvenile delinquents.

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