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Philadelphia College of Osteopathic Medicine

Department of Psychology

PROBATION OFFICER ROLE ORIENTATION, HELPING ALLIANCE, AND
PROBATIONER READINESS FOR CHANGE: THE IMPACT ON JUVENILE
OFFENDER RECIDIVISM

By Wendy E. Wild

Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Psychology

July 2011

PHILADELPHIA COLLEGE OF OSTEOPATHIC MEDICINE
DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY

Dissertation Approval

This is to certify that the thesis presented to us by Wendy Wild
on the 24 day of May, 2011, in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree of Doctor of Psychology, has been examined and is
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Abstract

The aim of the present study was to investigate the individual and collective influences of officer role orientation, the helping alliance, and probationer readiness for change on the reduction of recidivism rates among juvenile offenders. Archival data from a sample of 33 officers and 314 juvenile probationers were examined. Data included an officer demographic form, a probationer demographic and recidivism form, the Subjective Role Orientation and Strategy Scale, the Dual Role Inventory-Revised Probationer Version, and the University of Rhode Island Change Assessment. Results demonstrated that the sample of probation officers overwhelmingly adopted a balanced approach to supervision. This limited a further utilization of this variable for prediction purposes. Probationers who reported a more positive helping alliance with their officers evidenced lower recidivism rates of probation violations and new charges. Readiness for change scores were higher if violations had been handled by the probation department, if increasingly punitive sanctions were evident, and/or if the probationer evidenced a perceived problem or psychological diagnosis. The findings suggest probation departments could benefit from training officers to recognize and strengthen the helping alliance with their probationers, from utilizing sanctions issued by the probation officer to increase readiness for change, and from assisting probationers in identifying an internalized problem that results in internal motivation.

Table of Contents

List of Figures or Illustrations.....ix

List of Tables.....x

Chapter 1.....

 Statement of the Problem.....

Chapter 2.....3

 Literature Review.....3

 The Juvenile Justice System.....3

 Flow of juvenile justice intervention.....4

 Demographics and prevalence rates.....7

 Mental health needs.....9

 Recidivism.....10

 Theoretical Support for the Topic as Well as the Relevant Constructs....11

 Role orientation.....11

 Role orientation within specialty courts.....15

 Working alliance.....16

 Readiness for change.....21

 The Present Study.....23

Chapter 3.....25

 Hypotheses and Research Questions.....25

 Statement of the Hypotheses.....25

 Helping alliance hypotheses.....25

THEORETICAL FACTORS IMPACTING JUVENILE OFFENDER RECIDIVISM vi

Subjective role orientation hypothesis.....	25
Readiness for change hypotheses.....	25
Interaction hypotheses.....	26
Justification for Each Hypothesis.....	26
Justification: helping alliance hypotheses.....	26
Justification: subjective role orientation hypothesis.....	27
Justification: readiness for change hypotheses.....	27
Justification: interaction hypotheses.....	28
Chapter 4.....	30
Methodology.....	30
Overview.....	30
Design and Design Justification.....	30
Participants.....	30
Recruitment and Procedure.....	31
Plan for Informed Consent Procedures.....	32
Procedures for Maintaining Confidentiality.....	33
Measures.....	33
Subjective role orientation and strategy scale.....	33
Dual-role inventory – revised - probationer version.....	33
University of Rhode Island change assessment.....	34
Officer demographics survey.....	35
Probationer demographics and recidivism survey.....	35

THEORETICAL FACTORS IMPACTING JUVENILE OFFENDER RECIDIVISM vii

Data Preparation.....	36
Analysis of Risk and Benefit Ratio.....	37
Chapter 5.....	38
Results.....	38
Descriptive Statistics.....	38
Results Summarized around Hypotheses.....	40
Helping alliance hypotheses.....	40
Subjective role orientation hypothesis.....	40
Readiness for change hypotheses.....	41
Interaction hypotheses.....	41
Recidivism as a Function of Probationers' Level of Supervision.....	42
Exploratory Analyses of the DRI-R.....	43
Officer factors.....	43
Probationer factors.....	44
Exploratory Analyses of the URICA.....	45
Officer factors.....	45
Probationer factors.....	46
Exploratory Analyses of the SROSS.....	47
Chapter 6.....	49
Discussion.....	49
Overview of Findings.....	49
Characteristics of the Sample.....	50

THEORETICAL FACTORS IMPACTING JUVENILE OFFENDER RECIDIVISM viii

Officer Role Orientation.....	52
The Helping Alliance.....	53
Readiness for Change.....	55
Interaction of the Helping Alliance and Readiness for Change.....	58
Recidivism as a Function of Probationers' Level of Supervision.....	60
Application to Probation Departments.....	62
Limitations.....	63
Limits of the design.....	63
Limits of the specific findings.....	63
Suggestions for Further Study.....	65
Summary and Conclusions.....	65
References.....	67
Appendices.....	72
Tables.....	73
Non-copyrighted Measures.....	81
Officer Demographic Survey.....	81
SROSS.....	82
Probationer Demographic Survey.....	84
URICA.....	88

List of Figures or Illustrations

Flow of the Juvenile Justice System.....72

List of Tables

Table 1: <i>Officer Demographic Data</i>	73
Table 2: <i>Probationer Demographic Data</i>	74
Table 3: <i>Probationer Psychological Diagnoses</i>	75
Table 4: <i>Probationer Supervision Descriptive Statistics</i>	76
Table 5: <i>Probationer Recidivism Data</i>	77
Table 6: <i>Descriptive Statistics of the DRI-R, SROSS, and URICA</i>	78
Table 7: <i>Correlation between DRI-R and Recidivism</i>	79
Table 8: <i>Correlation between URICA and Recidivism</i>	80

Chapter 1

Statement of the Problem

Juvenile probation departments are charged with the duty to rehabilitate juvenile offenders according to the principles of Balanced and Restorative Justice (BARJ). Broadly speaking, BARJ principles aim to make as certain as possible the following: 1) community protection – ensure the communities’ protection from further victimization; 2) accountability – restore the damage incurred as a result of the crime to the direct victim of the crime and to the community, and 3) competency development – ensure the adoption of competencies to enable the youth to become a productive member of society (Lopez & Russell, 2008). Probation officers are therefore charged with a dual-role both as a supervisor/enforcer and as an agent of change for the development of competencies. Unsuccessful probation interventions result in increased monetary and safety costs to the community. Snyder and Sickmund (2006), reporting in the United States Department of Justice National Report on Juvenile Offenders and Victims, demonstrate that 12 to 55% of offenders are treatment refractory, suggesting a need for improved juvenile delinquency interventions.

As agents of change, it is of interest how officers balance their dual role in order to best promote offender change (Fulton, Stichman, Travis, & Latessa, 1997). Within psychological research, the working alliance between therapist and client has been identified as a salient factor in positive treatment outcome (Harvath & Symonds, 1991). Additionally, the level of readiness for change with which a client enters treatment also greatly affects the working alliance and treatment outcome (Fitzpatrick & Irannejad,

2008; Hiller, Knight, Leukefeld, & Simpson, 2002; Rochien, Rude, & Baron, 2005).

Consequently, determining the role of alliance, the readiness for change, and the officer role orientation in probation services would inform probation departments and might improve the effectiveness of intended probation interventions. The aim of this study is to 1) examine the impact of probation officers' subjective role orientation on recidivism; 2) investigate the impact of the helping alliance on recidivism; 3) examine the impact of probationers' readiness for change on recidivism, and 4) determine the interaction of subjective role identification, helping alliance, and readiness for change. The findings of this study can serve to inform probation departments' employment screenings and training modules to increase the effectiveness of their intervention efforts.

Chapter 2

Literature Review**The Juvenile Justice System**

The rise of the juvenile justice system in the United States occurred in the 19th century and was founded on the principle that children were not developmentally established in their cognitive capacity and moral reasoning, as compared with adults (Snyder & Sickmund, 2006). Forty-eight of the fifty states had established juvenile courts and/or probation services by 1925. The initial focus of the juvenile system was to rehabilitate juvenile offenders into productive citizens through treatment, as opposed to administering pure punishment. The procedural processes of the juvenile system have evolved and formalized over time, with its main functions alternating between treatment and punishment. Today, some juvenile codes largely reflect a treatment orientation, others a punishment orientation, but most seek to establish a balanced approach.

The most commonly asserted philosophy of state juvenile courts, including Pennsylvania, is the Balanced and Restorative Justice model (BARJ) (Snyder & Sickmund, 2006). BARJ principles place emphasis on three primary interests: 1) community protection – ensuring the safety of the public; 2) accountability – restoration of damages to the victim and the community, and 3) competency development – development of skills to ensure the juvenile becomes a productive member of the community (Snyder & Sickmund, 2006). State statutes dictate the age limits defining juvenile jurisdiction. Generally, in most states, including Pennsylvania, juvenile courts maintain jurisdiction over individuals under the age of 18 at the time of offense, arrest, or

referral to the court. The length of jurisdiction for offenses occurring prior to the offender's 18th birthday can be extended beyond age 18 in most states if deemed necessary, typically ending on the 21st birthday of the individual.

Flow of juvenile justice intervention. The following discussion outlines the flow of juveniles through the processing system of juvenile offenders. The research is derived from the United States Department of Justice National Report on Juvenile Offenders and Victims (Synder & Sickmund, 2006). A visual flow chart, which depicts the discussion, can be found in Appendix 1. Most juvenile offenders enter the legal system through law enforcement agencies. Law enforcement processing varies from state to state and even between communities within a state, evidencing local practices and traditions. At the time of arrest, law enforcement officers make the decision to send the case for further proceeding or to divert the case out of the system. The decision is generally made after speaking to the offender, the victim, the offender's parents, and reviewing any previous records or charges. In 2003, 20% of cases were handled within the police department and resulted in release (Snyder & Sickmund, 2006). Seven of 10 arrests, however, resulted in referrals to the juvenile courts (Snyder & Sickmund, 2006). The remaining 10% of cases were referred for criminal prosecution or to other agencies (Snyder & Sickmund, 2006).

Probation departments and/or the district attorney's office is responsible for performing an intake to determine whether or not to dismiss the case, handle the case informally, or request formal intervention by the juvenile courts (Snyder & Sickmund, 2006). The intake officer must first determine if there is sufficient evidence to prove the

allegation. If evidence is lacking, the case is dismissed. If sufficient evidence is present, the intake officer must determine if the case can be handled informally or if formal intervention is warranted. Almost half of cases referred to probation departments are handled informally. Juveniles receiving informal probation consequences must typically admit to the charges voluntarily and agree on specific terms of supervision. The conditions are typically outlined in a “consent decree” and include such terms as victim restitution, school attendance, counseling, and curfew. Probationers are then supervised for a prescribed period of time on “informal probation.” If the probationer abides by the outlined conditions, the case is dismissed. If the probationer violates the conditions, the case is then referred for formal processing at an adjudication hearing and formal probation.

If the case is handled formally, two types of petitions can be filed: a delinquency petition requesting an adjudication hearing or a petition requesting a waiver hearing to transfer the case to criminal court (Snyder & Sickmund, 2006). A delinquency petition states the charges and requests the youth’s adjudication, making him or her a ward of the court. Adjudication differs from criminal court where an offender is convicted and sentenced. At an adjudication hearing the facts of the case are presented, witnesses are called, and, in most cases, a judge determines the outcome of the case. If detainment is deemed necessary at a detainment hearing, the juvenile can be detained until the adjudication hearing. Juvenile courts can also waive the case to criminal court if the youth is deemed not amenable to treatment in the juvenile system, has been adjudicated several times, or the crime is of significant severity.

Upon adjudication, probation staff develops a disposition plan. Disposition planning is informed by an assessment of the youth, available support resources, and programs (Snyder & Sickmund, 2006). The court may also order psychological assessments to determine treatment needs. At the disposition hearing, probation offers a recommendation to the court. The court can order formal probation in the community or in residential treatment, typically including aftercare supervision when released from placement. Formal probation supervision can include additional requirements such as counseling, restitution to the victim, and restitution to the community. The length of supervision can be defined or open-ended, in which case the court requests periodic updates on the youth's progress. After successful completion of the supervision requirements, the court terminates the case and discharges the youth from court supervision. In 1999, four of ten delinquency cases resulted in probation; most of these cases consisted of property crimes (Puzzanchera, 2003). In 2000, formal supervision was the most severe disposition ordered in 63% of cases in which the youth was adjudicated delinquent (Snyder & Sickmund, 2006). More severely, 24% of juveniles were ordered to a residential treatment facility in 2000. Length of stay in a residential treatment facility can be for a defined or an undefined length of time; in the latter case, periodic updates are ordered to review the youth's progress. Residential treatment facilities can be publicly or privately owned and can range from a secure, prison-like setting to a group home setting. When treatment requirements and/or lengths of stay are met, juveniles are typically assigned to aftercare services similar to formal probation. If the juvenile does not comply

with aftercare services, he or she can be re-committed to the same or to another residential treatment facility.

Status offenses, those offenses of which only a juvenile can be found guilty such as truancy, running away from home, alcohol possession, and curfew violations, are often handled in a consistent manner as delinquency cases (Snyder & Sickmund, 2006). However, these cases can be handled as delinquency cases or dependency cases. Unlike typical delinquency cases, those for which an adult could be charged, approximately half of status offense cases come to the attention of the court through child welfare agencies rather than through law enforcement agencies. States often respond by providing connections to social services. Status offenses do not warrant residential placement unless the juvenile violates a valid court order.

Demographics and prevalence rates. Uniform crime reports are voluntarily reported by thousands of law enforcement departments and provide an approximation, albeit low, of the number of crimes brought to the attention of the police (Snyder & Sickmund, 2006). In 2003, for youth between 10 and 17 years of age, 2, 220,300 juvenile crimes were reported to police agencies. Sixty-eight percent of reported arrests were committed by youth aged 16 to 17. Females accounted for 29% of reported offenses and males accounted for the remaining 61%. In terms of racial demographics, 71% of offenders were Caucasian, 27% Black, 1% American Indian, and 2% Asian. Hispanic or Latino ethnicity is not classified by uniform crime reports, because Hispanics or Latinos may be of any race. However, in 2003, 92% of Hispanic youth age 10-17 were racially classified as white. Violent crime, including murder, non-negligent homicide, forcible

rape, robbery, and aggravated assault totaled 92,300 arrests or 4% of all arrests. Property crime, including burglary, larceny-theft, motor vehicle theft, and larceny, accounted for 463,300 arrests or 21% of all arrests. 'Other' arrest categories and number of arrests are: non-traffic crimes (379,800), larceny-theft (325,600), simple assault (325,600), drug abuse violation (197,100), disorderly conduct (193,000), liquor law violations (136,900), curfew and loitering (136, 500), runaway (123,600), vandalism (107,700), and burglary (85,100); these were the ten crimes accounting for the greatest proportion of arrests.

In 2002, United States juvenile courts handled 1,615,400 delinquency cases, an average of 4,440 delinquency cases per day (Snyder & Sickmund, 2006). Person crimes (387,500), property offenses (624,900), drug law violations (193,200), and public order offenses (409,800) describe the nature of juvenile offenses reaching the attention of the courts. In one of five cases referred to the court, the juvenile is detained between the referral to the court and his or her disposition hearing. In 2002, six of ten cases were petitioned for adjudication (934,900). Of those 934,900 cases, seven of ten (624,500) cases were adjudicated. From 1985 to 2002, the number of cases in which a juvenile was adjudicated rose by 85%. Residential placement or formal probation was ordered in 85% of cases in which the juvenile was adjudicated delinquent.

Recent changes and trends are evident within the population of juvenile offenders (Snyder & Sickmund, 2006). Juvenile arrests for violent crimes, including murder, rape, aggravated assault, and robbery have decreased from 1980 to 2003. Juvenile arrests for property crimes have also decreased from 1998 to 2003. Additionally, arrest rates for weapons law violations declined from 1993 to 2003. The number of females entering the

criminal justice system has increased from 1980 to 2003. Violent crime and drug arrests among juveniles increased from 1980 to 2003, as the overall arrest rate fell. Juvenile arrest rates for arson and simple assaults increased from 1980 to 2003. Racial demographics suggest a disproportionate number of delinquency cases involve black juveniles. Petitions for adjudication have risen by 80% from 1985 to 2002 as formal case proceedings increased. The number of adjudications also rose 85% during the same period of time, reflecting an increase in formal punitive action.

Mental health needs. Psychiatric disabilities ranging from severe mental health disorders to adjustment disorders, substance abuse, and conduct disorders are highly prevalent among the offending juvenile population. A metaanalysis of 25 psychiatric studies of 16,750 incarcerated adolescents indicated that 3% of juveniles in detention had a psychotic disorder, and 11% of males and 29% of females had a diagnosis of major depressive disorder (Fazel, Doll, & Langstrom, 2008). Attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) was evident in one in ten males and one in five females. Conduct disorder was prevalent among males and females at a rate of more than 50%. Furthermore, research indicates that the minority of juveniles met criteria for just one mental health disorder (17% females, 20% males), but the majority of juveniles met criteria for more than two disorders (57% females, 46% males) (Feldstein & Ginsburg, 2006). Even when substance abuse disorders and disruptive behavior disorders are controlled for, 34% of females and 24% of males still met criteria for more than two mental health disorders. Additional research suggests that 92% of juvenile males and 97% of females met criteria for at least one psychological disorder, and 32% of males and

60% of females met criteria for three or more conditions (Drerup, Croysdale, & Hoffmann, 2008). These statistics indicate prominently that psychological disorders are prevalent among incarcerated juveniles at a rate more than three times higher than the general population and highlight the need for enhanced diagnostic and intervention efforts (Skeem, Francis, & Loudon, 2006).

Recidivism. Recidivism is defined by the repetition of criminal behavior, potentially reflecting arrest, court referral, adjudication, residential placement, and/or change in rehabilitation status within a given period of time (Snyder & Sickmund, 2006). No national statistic exists for juvenile offenders, because juvenile systems vary significantly from state to state. The Virginia Department of Juvenile Justice conducted a study in which 27 participating states reported recidivism data on juveniles released from state facilities. The measure of recidivism included rearrest, rereferral to court, reconviction /readjudication, or reincarceration/reconfinement. In a twelve month follow-up, the average across studies based on type of recidivism was as follows: rearrest, 55%; rereferral to court, 45%; reconviction/ readjudication, 33%; reincarceration/reconfinement based on delinquent/criminal offenses in the juvenile and adult systems, 24%; reincarceration/reconfinement based on all offenses in the juvenile and adult systems, 25%; and reincarceration/reconfinement based on delinquent offenses in the juvenile system, only 12%. Many jurisdictions around the country report success measures rather than recidivism to demonstrate that the juvenile system works, reporting such data as non-recidivism, restitution collected, community service hours logged, and successful program completions. Despite the success measures, it is clear from this study

that 12 to 55% of offenders are treatment refractory, suggesting a need for improved juvenile delinquency interventions. The current study sought to investigate the impact of probation officer role orientation, the helping alliance, and probationer readiness for change on the intended outcome of probation: reduction of recidivism. Ultimately, the aim was to inform the enhancement of services provided to juvenile offenders by informing probation departments on how to best evoke behavioral change.

Theoretical Support for the Topic as Well as the Relevant Constructs

Role orientation. Pennsylvania probation officers, pursuant to The Juvenile Act 42 Pa.C.S. Sec. 6301 et seq. (2005), are required to: 1) make investigations, reports, and recommendations to the court; 2) manage and examine complaints or charges of delinquency or dependency for the purpose of court proceedings; 3) supervise and assist a child placed on probation or under protective supervision of the court; 4) make referrals to private or public agencies when appropriate assistance is needed; 5) take into custody or detain a probationer or dependent if there is a reasonable cause to believe a client is a danger to himself or herself, will abscond jurisdiction, or has violated the terms of supervision, and 6) perform all other functions designated by The Juvenile Act or by order of the court. The language included in the statute highlights the duality of a probation officer's function. Law enforcement mandates including *investigate*, *manage*, *supervise* and *detain* stand in stark contrast to helping directives such as *assist* and *appropriate needs*. The juvenile justice system as a whole strives to adhere to the principles of BARJ. Of considerable interest, then, is how probation officers 'balance'

their roles as supervisor/enforcer and as agents of change/support during their day-to-day interactions with probationers, supervisors, and the court.

The duality of probation officers' roles requires them to make certain the conditions of probationers' supervision are followed, as well as to serve as an 'agent of change' (Dietrich, 1979). When demanded to serve as an agent of change, the supervisory role of a probationer officer can be thought of as becoming closer to that of a therapist or rehabilitator. Because officers are typically trained at the Bachelor's degree level without the necessity of therapeutically relevant education, Dietrich warns that the duties of probation officer should not extend beyond their range of competencies to such duties as counseling. Furthermore, Dietrich draws attention to the power component inherent in the probationer and probation officer relationship that is not present in the typical therapeutic alliance between therapist and client. Because of this, the author encourages probation officers to foster and balance their role in a manner consistent with a case manager rather than a therapist.

When the role of an officer is conceptualized both as a helper and an enforcer, the necessity of balancing support and control is highlighted. Dutch researchers, van Drenth and de Hann (1999) postulated the concept of 'caring power,' which emphasizes the idea that "care" can be a manner in which to exercise power (Svensson, 2003). Caring power, which is to be exercised in a spirit of kindness, has as its goal, doing what is right for the individual being helped. In this light, both support and punishment can be utilized to help the individual depending on the demands of the situation. The structure of caring power is developed through interactions between probationer and officer. When the goals of

each actor are congruent, support is easily exercised; however, when the goals of each actor are in opposition control is likely utilized. In order to foster a relationship founded on caring power, it is imperative that the officer strives for a congruent relationship with the probationer.

Probation officers who work in intensive supervision programs receive extensive training on the principles of effective interventions beyond that of regular supervision officers (Fulton, Stichman, Travis, & Latessa, 1997). Effective interventions include the following principles: 1) intensive behavioral interventions for high risk offenders; 2) programmatic structure and clear behavioral contingencies; 3) positive reinforcement; 4) matching of offender learning style and personality style with officer traits and affiliation to program goals; 5) interpersonal sensitivity; 6) monitoring of offender change; 7) relapse prevention planning, and 8) high levels of advocacy. In sum, these principles stress the need for both structure and support.

Officer attitudinal research has categorized officers according to a social work, balanced approach, or law enforcement orientation (Paparozzi, n.d., as cited by Fulton, Stichman, Travis, & Latessa, 1997). Recidivism data found that social work oriented officers had significantly higher rates of new arrests and lower technical violations; law enforcement oriented officers had significantly higher rates of technical violations and lower rates of new arrests, and balanced officers had significantly fewer rates both of technical violations and of new arrests. These findings suggest that a balanced approach is optimal for short-term risk control and long-term behavioral changes.

An evaluation of attitudinal differences between intensive supervision program officers participating in extensive training and regular supervision officers was conducted to evaluate the extent to which officers adopted a balanced approach to supervision (Fulton et al., 1997). The authors utilized the Subjective Role Orientation and the Strategy Scale (SROSS) to evaluate the officers' approaches to supervision. Results were consistent with hypotheses, indicating that intensive supervision program officers were more likely to adopt a rehabilitation orientation as compared with regular supervision officers. The implication of these findings is that although officers may demonstrate preferences either towards law enforcement or towards social work, training may serve to foster attitudes and behaviors that result in long term behavioral change.

Two plausible models may account for the manner in which an officer approaches the duality of his or her role and whether or not an officer focuses on rehabilitation or on punishment: the importation model and the work/role model (Lopez & Russell, 2008). The importation model assumes an officer 'imports' his or her personal attributes such as gender, age, and race into his or her work orientation. Conversely, the work/role model dismisses the significance of personal attributes and assumes that the work environment and type of work performed influences the officer's work orientation. In addition to the importation and work/role model, officer perceptions regarding the degree of juveniles' social supports were also investigated by the authors concerning the impact that these may have on an officer's rehabilitation orientation. Research findings suggest that an officer's rehabilitation orientation was best accounted for by the work/role model and perception of social supports. Individual attributes of officers such as education, age,

race, length of employment, or cultural competency were not associated with rehabilitation orientation. These results highlight the need for rotation of work roles in departments in order to foster BARJ principles, and also to highlight the necessity of fostering connections with probationers' families and communities.

Role orientation within specialty courts. Juveniles entering the criminal justice system frequently present with one, or often multiple, mental health diagnoses. Specialty programs have been developed for juvenile offenders with mental health needs that can inform regular supervision efforts on the best methods for behavioral change with this population. Research conducted on the differences between specialty probation programs, on those who work with probationers with mental illness, and on traditional supervision demonstrates the fact that specialty programs have meaningfully reduced caseloads, have increased extensive officer training, as well as increased, active use of community agencies and resources, have placed a focus on problem solving strategies to handle non-compliance, have involved more contact with probationers, have greater interaction with systemic providers, and employ less punitive graduated sanctions (Louden, Skeem, Camp, & Christensen, 2008; Skeem, Emke-Francis, & Louden, 2006; Slate, Feldman, Roskes, & Baerga, 2004). In summary, probationer skill building, officer training, utilization of supportive resources, interagency collaboration, reduced focus on punitive measures, and greater client interactions are important components to balance successfully the officers' dual role requirements.

A significant body of research suggests the need for probation officers to balance their roles both as social worker and as law enforcer (Dietrich, 1979; Fulton, Stichman,

Travis, & Latessa, 1997; Lopez & Russell, 2008; Louden, Skeem, Camp, & Christensen, 2008; Skeem, Emke-Francis, & Louden, 2006; Slate, Feldman, Roskes, & Baerga, 2004; Svensson, 2003). Determining those skills that are necessary to foster 'caring power' as evidenced by a balance between the roles of change agent and enforcer is necessary to foster and enhance effective probation interventions in order produce the intended result: reduction of recidivism. Pulling from psychological research and practice, the relationship between officers and probationers presents as a plausible factor in promoting behavioral change.

Working alliance. Research on the therapeutic alliance has informed the psychological community for decades (Bordin, 1979). The working alliance is commonly defined by three critical components: 1) mutual agreement and understanding regarding the goals of the change process, 2) clear definition of the tasks and responsibilities of each of the partners, and 3) the establishment of a bond or mutual trust between partners to undergo the change process (Bordin, 1979, p. 35). Meta-analysis of the impact of a working alliance on the outcome of psychotherapy evidences a moderate, though consistent, impact of positive alliance ratings on positive treatment outcomes, regardless of treatment modality (Horvath & Symonds, 1991). Client ratings of alliance were found to be most predictive of outcome, followed by therapist and observer ratings respectively.

Although no one model or measurement of therapeutic alliance is universally utilized, the Working Alliance Inventory is a frequently used and accepted instrument and is modeled on Bordin's theoretical model of the therapeutic alliance (Elvins & Green, 2008). Factorial analysis of the Working Alliance Inventory in a cognitive behavioral

therapy context suggests a two factor structure: agreement/confidence and relationship (Andrusyna, Tang, DeRubeis, & Luborsky, 2001). Goal and task elements of alliance load on the agreement/confidence factor, and bond elements load on the relationship factor. These findings suggest a focus on two elements when working to build an alliance: mutual agreement and mutual trust.

Because the therapeutic alliance is not established in a vacuum devoid of personal attributes, research has sought to determine those therapist characteristics and techniques that positively foster an effective working alliance (Ackerman & Hilsenroth, 2003). Therapists with personal styles of flexibility, honesty, trustworthiness, confidence, warmth, interest, and openness are better able to develop a positive alliance. The use of therapeutic techniques including exploration, reflection, acknowledgment of prior therapeutic successes, accurate interpretation, elicitation of affective responses, and attention to the patients' experiences were also found to impact alliance positively. Interestingly, research on those personality factors positively associated with effective leadership reflect similar characteristics such as being warm, outgoing, kind, and trustworthy (Hartman, 1999). Recognizing the role of a probation officer as an agent of change suggests that increasing the alliance of probation officer and probationer may provide favorable probation outcomes similar to those found in psychological treatment.

As a probation officer, it may be difficult to establish a relationship with a probationer who has no interest in change or in the interaction (Overton, 1962). Consistent with alliance research, Overton encourages officers to embark initially on an investigation in order to establish a goal that makes sense to the probationer, to the

officer, and to the court. Second, the officer is encouraged to be open and direct about expectations in order to develop trust and respect. The author also urges officers to include the family in order to maximize the success of the intervention.

Reviews of effective probation efforts share common elements, which include a community setting, multimodal treatment, family inclusion, and cognitive-behavioral interventions (Matthews & Hubbard, 2003). Despite these acknowledgements, little attention has been devoted to examining the role of probation officers and correctional staff in promoting positive behavioral change. Replacing the term “working alliance” with “helping alliance” reflects the non-clinical setting in which probation services are delivered but maintains the premise that probation officers can serve as change agents. Matthews and Hubbard (2003) point to the application of the helping alliance in delivering gender-responsive services and promoting resiliency among juvenile offenders. These researchers recommended probation departments take the following positions to foster positive helping alliances between probationer and officer: 1) hire people with the congruent values and skills; 2) train staff on the interpersonal skills needed to develop strong therapeutic relationships; 3) match staff and youth based on personality characteristics, interests and skills; 4) assess staffs’ capacity to develop strong therapeutic relationships, and 5) support staff in their work. The authors specifically call for research to address the following questions: How does the strength of the helping alliance impact probation outcomes, and also what factors are associated with strong helping alliances between youth and probation officers?

An inherent element of the helping alliance is the collaborative nature imbedded in the change process established through agreed upon tasks and goals. A qualitative study sought to explore how fostering client participation in the supervision process of youth probationers impacted the youths' active participation in services (Lee, 2003). Proposed principles necessary to enhance client participation were implemented and evaluated. Results suggest that clients have little knowledge of the concept of client participation, suggesting a need to promote clients' expressive participation and developmental participation. Elements that improved the development of client participation include expressing opinions, asking questions, making choices, sharing information, and working together in the helping process. Of great importance is the fact that this study attests to the ability of juveniles to participate in services collaboratively and informs probation officers on the strategies to enhance client participation effectively.

Despite the recognition of the helping alliance, research on the relationship between probationers and correctional staff has been largely neglected (Holmqvist, Hill, & Lang, 2007). An evaluation of alliance in a residential treatment facility of adolescent male offenders offers insight into the difference between alliance in therapy settings and in residential settings. The offenders' ratings of alliance were associated with the collaborative aspect of the staffs' alliance ratings, but not with the bond aspect. In fact, bond factors including warmth and close staff feelings were related to higher post treatment criminality measures, whereas the collaborative aspect was related to lower post treatment criminality measures. The results of this study dove-tail nicely with a

proposed revision of the helping alliance offered by Ross, Palaschek, and Ward (2008).

The authors critique Bordin's model highlighting the need to integrate additional variables noted in the current therapy process literature and in clinical observations.

These variables include therapist characteristics, client characteristics, therapist-client interactions, and importantly, setting and contextual factors. Clearly, there are distinctive differences between the characteristics of probation officers and therapists, probationers and clients, and therapy offices and probation departments that impact the helping alliance.

Skeem, Loudon, Polaschek, and Camp (2007) recognized the distinct difference between traditional measures of working alliance and the dual roles inherent in relationships with involuntary clients. The affective bond and collaboration in the process typical of therapeutic contexts are complicated in mandated treatment by control aspects and the dual role as a helper and supervisor. The authors developed a Dual-Role Inventory – Revised (DRI-R) which was validated among specialty mental health probation officers and their probationers with mental health disorders. The DRI-R factor structure highlights Caring-Fairness, Toughness, and Trust as important factors in a dual-role helping alliance. The DRI-R demonstrates appropriate reliability, validity, and construct validity. Of importance, the DRI-R was found to predict future rule compliance as measured by probation violations and probation revocation.

The DRI-R (Skeem et al., 2007) demonstrates promise as a measure with which to evaluate probation officers' abilities to foster relationships with probationers that reflect important aspects of 'caring power'; these include understanding of goals, clear

definitions of tasks and responsibilities, mutual trust, flexibility, honesty, openness, directness, respect, fostering participation, care, and being mindful to maintain boundaries with regard to warmth and bond (Ackerman & Hilsenroth, 2003; Bordin, 1979; Holmqvist, Hill, & Lang, 2007; Lee, 2003; Overton, 1962; Skeem et al., 2007). This study sought to address the research questions proposed by Matthews and Hubbard (2003): How does the strength of the helping alliance impact probation outcomes, and what factors are associated with strong helping alliances between youth and probation officers? The DRI-R was utilized to assess the impact of probationer and officer alliance on recidivism. The role orientation of officers either as social work, as law enforcement, or as a balance between the two, as measured by the SROSS (Fulton et al., 1997) reviewed previously, was also assessed as a potential factor impacting recidivism and the probationer and officer alliance. An additional factor of interest that has informed the psychological community as an important element of behavioral change, likely contributing to reducing recidivism effectively is the probationer's readiness for change.

Readiness for change. The transtheoretical model of change has informed research and the therapeutic process for over 20 years (Rochien, Rude, Baron, 2005). The model presumes that clients evidence different levels of readiness to identify and address problems in their lives. The prototypical model outlines four progressive stages of change that reflect different attitudes, intentions and behaviors related to change: 1) precontemplation; 2) contemplation; 3) action, and 4) maintenance. Clients evidencing precontemplation often do not recognize the existence of a current problem, the intensity of the problem, or attribute the problem to others. The contemplation stage reflects an

ambivalence to change. Individuals in this phase recognize the existence of a problem but are weighting out the pros and cons of changing the problem behavior. Clients in the action stage have identified the problem, developed a plan for change, and are actively making change. The maintenance stage includes maintaining current change, planning for setbacks, and utilizing supports. Clients further along on the change continuum consistently demonstrate greater benefits from therapeutic interventions. This model has been used to assess client readiness for behavior change in such diverse areas as substance abuse, eating disorders, smoking, health care behaviors, treatment of a myriad of psychological disorders, and delinquent behavior among adolescents.

An application of the stages of change model among college students seeking counseling services revealed significant differences between those in the precontemplative stage versus contemplation, action, or maintenance in terms of less symptom relief and lower ratings of a working alliance (Rochien, Rude, & Baron, 2005). There was no significant differentiation between contemplation, action, or maintenance. Readiness for change and working alliance has also been evaluated among adolescents and counselors (Fitzpatrick & Irannejad, 2008). As was predicted, clients further along on the change continuum had more positive alliances, particularly with respect to goal and task collaboration among those in the action stage. Again, those in the precontemplation stage had lower ratings of working alliance overall. Desire for help and treatment readiness has been identified in association with indicators of therapeutic engagement among offenders in mandated residential substance abuse treatment (Hiller, Knight,

Leukefeld, & Simpson, 2002). Collectively, these studies strongly demonstrate the role of readiness for change among those mandated for treatment.

Motivational interviewing (Miller & Rollnick, 1991) is a way of talking to people about change and the change process that is geared to move people forward in their readiness to engage in change. Although initiated for use in the field of addictions, it has more recently been introduced into the criminal justice field, including suggestions for training within probation departments (Clark, Walters, Gingerich, & Meltzer, 2006; Clark, 2005; Feldstein & Ginsburg, 2006). An application of motivational interviewing among probationers receiving either standard treatment or two hour modules of motivational interviewing revealed a greater amount of engagement and of sober time among those receiving motivational interviewing (Czuchry, Sia, & Dansereau, 2006). Because readiness for change is significantly related to working alliance and successful treatment outcomes, assessing for level of change and including trainings in motivational interviewing among probation officers would likely result in enhanced probation intervention (Fitzpatrick & Irannejad, 2008).

The Present Study

The aim of the present study was to investigate, based on theoretical constructs and the previously reviewed research, the individual and collective influences of officer role orientation, the helping alliance, and probationer readiness for change on the reduction of recidivism rates among juvenile offenders. Research suggests that, individually, the proper balance of an officer's role orientation, the ability to form a helping alliance, and the level of a probationer's willingness to make change impact

recidivism. The goal of this research was to replicate previous findings as well as evaluate the collective and/or interactive nature of these variables. Because attitudes are relatively stable constructs, it was hypothesized that the impact of officers' role orientations on recidivism would be mediated by interpersonal and probationer factors such as alliance and probationer readiness for change. In addition to the specified hypotheses and related analyses, exploratory analyses were conducted to determine any officer or probationer variables that were related to the helping alliance and readiness for change.

Chapter 3

Hypotheses and Research Questions

Statement of the Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were investigated to assess the individual and collective influence of officer role orientation, the helping alliance, and probationer readiness for change on the reduction of recidivism rates among juvenile offenders.

Helping alliance hypotheses.

- 1) Higher scores on the Dual Role Inventory - probationer version indicating a stronger helping alliance will correlate with lower recidivism rates, demonstrating an inverse relationship.
- 2) Lower scores on the Dual Role Inventory - probationer version indicating a weaker helping alliance will correlate with higher recidivism rates, demonstrating an inverse relationship.

Subjective role orientation hypothesis.

- 1) Officers with a balanced justice orientation on the Subjective Role Scale will supervise youth with lower recidivism rates, as compared with officers with social work or law enforcement orientations.

Readiness for change hypotheses.

- 1) Higher scores on the Readiness for Change Inventory will correlate with lower recidivism rates, demonstrating an inverse relationship.
- 2) Lower scores on the Readiness for Change Inventory will correlate with higher recidivism rates, demonstrating an inverse relationship.

Interaction hypotheses.

- 1) Officers with a social work or balanced justice role orientation on the Subjective Role Scale will demonstrate higher scores on the Dual Role Inventory – probationer version but officers with a law enforcement role orientation will demonstrate lower scores on the Dual Role Inventory – probationer version.
- 2) Higher scores on the Readiness for Change Inventory will correlate with higher scores on the Dual Role Inventory – probationer version.
- 3) The Dual Role Inventory scores will mediate the relationship between officer subjective role orientation on the Subjective Role Scale and recidivism.
- 4) Scores on the Readiness for Change Inventory will mediate the relationship between officer subjective role orientation on the Subjective Role Scale and recidivism.

Justification for Each Hypothesis

The following rationale was utilized for justification of the investigated research hypotheses.

Justification: helping alliance hypotheses.

- 1) Consistent with findings on the working alliance in the therapeutic context, it is hypothesized that higher ratings of helping alliance between probation officer and probationer will evidence improved intervention efforts, i.e. lower recidivism rates. Prior research supports the DRI-R's ability to predict the time frame of the probationer's first violation or new charges and the seriousness of future rule non-compliance (Skeem, Louden, Polascheck, & Camp, 2007).

2) Consistent with findings on the working alliance in the therapeutic context, it is hypothesized that lower ratings of helping alliance between probation officer and probationer will evidence less effective intervention efforts, i.e. higher recidivism rates. Prior research supports the DRI-R's ability to predict the time frame of the probationer's first violation or new charges and the seriousness of future rule non-compliance (Skeem, Louden, Polascheck, & Camp, 2007).

Justification: subjective role orientation hypothesis.

1) Meta-analyses of effective elements of correctional intervention efforts in reducing recidivism recognize the need to affect offender change rather than merely control offending behavior (Fulton, Stichman, Travis, & Latessa, 1997). Therefore, the ability to approach probationers in a 'balanced' manner is most likely to reduce offending behavior. Conversely, a strong affiliation either to a solely social work or to law enforcement style of supervision is hypothesized to result in higher rates of recidivism.

Justification: readiness for change hypotheses.

1) Research on motivation for change consistently suggests that clients who more actively engage in intervention and express desire for help evidence greater treatment gains. Thus, it is hypothesized that higher scores on the Readiness for Change Inventory will correlate with lower recidivism rates, demonstrating an inverse relationship.

2) Research on motivation for change consistently suggests that clients with less motivation to engage in intervention and with no desire for help evidence lesser treatment gains. Thus, lower scores on the Readiness for Change Inventory is expected to correlate with higher recidivism rates, demonstrating an inverse relationship.

Justification: interaction hypotheses.

- 1) Officers with a social work or balanced justice role orientation on the Subjective Role Scale will demonstrate higher scores on the Dual Role Inventory – probationer version but officers with a law enforcement role orientation will demonstrate lower scores on the Dual Role Inventory – probationer version. It is hypothesized that officers more highly oriented to social work or balance will place greater emphasis on important factors related to the working alliance such as fostering the understanding of goals, clear definitions of tasks and responsibilities, mutual trust, flexibility, honesty, openness, directness, respect, fostering participation, care, and being mindful to maintain boundaries with regard to warmth and bond (Ackerman & Hilsenroth, 2003; Bordin, 1979; Holmqvist, Hill, & Lang, 2007; Lee, 2003; Overton, 1962; Skeem et al., 2007).
- 2) Higher scores on the Readiness for Change Inventory will correlate with higher scores on the Dual Role Inventory – probationer version. Previous research in the therapeutic context suggests that a more positive working alliance is associated with greater readiness for change (Fitzpatrick & Irannejad, 2008; Hiller, Knight, Leukefeld, & Simpson, 2002; Rochien, Rude, & Baron, 2005).
- 3) The Dual Role Inventory scores will mediate the relationship between officer subjective role orientation on the Subjective Role Scale and recidivism. The helping alliance has been shown to relate to recidivism rates (Skeem et al., 2007). Because attitudes are relatively stable constructs, it is hypothesized that the impact of an officer's role orientation on recidivism is mediated by interpersonal factors including alliance.

4) Scores on the Readiness for Change Inventory will mediate the relationship between officer subjective role orientation on the Subjective Role Scale and recidivism.

Individual's readiness for change has been shown to be related to treatment outcome (Fitzpatrick & Irannejad, 2008; Rochien, Rude, Baron, 2005). Because attitudes are relatively stable constructs, it is hypothesized that the impact of the officer's role orientation on recidivism is mediated by probationer factors such as probationer readiness for change.

Chapter 4

Methodology**Overview**

The current study sought to inform probation departments regarding the individual and collective impact of probation officers' subjective role orientations, officer and probationer working alliance, and probationer readiness for change on recidivism rates of juvenile offenders. This archival study of a juvenile probation department investigated the aforementioned factors of interest.

Design and Design Justification

Archival data were utilized to assess the relationship between factors in order to facilitate identification of correlates and associated features of probation officers' subjective role orientations, officer and probationer working alliance, and probationer readiness for change on recidivism. The archival nature of the study facilitated officer and probationer anonymity and confidentiality, because a longitudinal design would have required following participants by name to report recidivism statistics. In essence, this research design enabled the investigation of a highly protected group, juvenile offenders, yet minimized the risks.

Participants

A juvenile probation department in South Central Pennsylvania provided archival data regarding officer role affiliation, probationer readiness for change, probationer and officer alliance, and recidivism from probationer charts. The department employed approximately 40 juvenile probation officers and each officer served approximately 30

juveniles on his or her caseload, providing a population of approximately 1,200 juvenile probationers. The department randomly selected 10 juveniles on each officer's caseload to complete a self-study on factors of interest, producing an approximate sample size of 400 probationers. The data were archival; therefore, the primary investigator had no contact either with probationers or with their respective probation officers.

Recruitment and Procedure

Probation officers were responsible for the collection of the identified measures for a department self-study. From February to March of 2010, the department randomly selected ten juveniles from the caseload of each juvenile probation officer, utilizing a random number table. Officers with caseloads smaller than ten, primarily specialty court officers, provided data on each of their probationers, making theirs a saturated sample. Probation officers completed the subjective role orientation scale and the officer demographic survey at one point in time. The probationer rating of alliance, probationer readiness for change, and probationer demographic survey were to be completed contemporaneously at another point in time, during a monthly meeting between the probationer and officer. All data collected for the department self-study were requested for the purpose of this study at a monthly meeting, with all juvenile probation officers in attendance.

Data collected by the department including officer role affiliation, probationer readiness for change, probationer and officer alliance, and recidivism were extracted from probationer files by probation officers. The data were submitted to a specified juvenile probation officer excluded from participation in the study. This specified

officer had a master list matching probation officers by identification number and name in order to ensure that all probation officers submitted the measures utilized in the current study for each of the 10 randomly selected probationers on their caseloads. The primary investigators did not have access to the master list at any point during the duration of the study. No master list of probationers was utilized to ensure anonymity.

In order to maximize the sample size and to achieve a representative sample, minimal exclusion criterion were utilized during data collection. Only the probation officer supervising the submission of materials and his probationers were excluded from data collection due to awareness of the research hypotheses. Probation officers and probationers remained anonymous throughout the study. Each officer submitted a packet with the required surveys. Each packet had a designated number for the officer; for instance, the number one was utilized. Surveys specific to each of their probationers were labeled with sequential digits with the officer's number first and the participant number of the probationer second, i.e. 1-1, 1-2, 1-3, etc. In this example, all of this officer's data were labeled one and their probationers' data were labeled one followed by each one's own sequential number beginning with one. Only the specified officer had a master list matching each officer's number with his or her name. This list was destroyed when all materials were submitted to the investigator.

Plan for Informed Consent Procedures

Informed consent for officers and probationers was not necessary because all data were archival; data remained anonymous, and included non-identifiable information.

Procedures for Maintaining Confidentiality

The assigned sequential ordering of probation officer to probationer measures ensured the anonymity of officer and probationer.

Measures

Subjective role orientation and strategy scale (SROSS; Fulton et al., 1997).

The SROSS evaluates dichotomies in the probation officer's role including control-assistance, director-advisor, enforcing-counseling, and coercion-negotiation. The scale aims to evaluate the officers' attitudes about the goals of supervision, officer roles, and supervision strategies. Specifically, the scale is intended to determine the degree to which officers adopt a balanced approach to supervision, i.e. the degree to which officers balance their dual-role as a supervisor/enforcer and change agent.

The SROSS consists of 11 opposing pairs of terms on polar ends of a six point Likert scale (Fulton et al., 1997). Assessing the attitudes towards supervision/enforcer and change agent in a single scale accurately reflects the difficult choices faced by officers in day-to-day tasks; thus the use of semantic differentials is a well suited method for assessing attitude (Heuse, 1971; Mueller, 1986). Semantic differentials measure participants' reactions to pairs of words and concepts with polarized meaning (Heuse, 1971). The direction of the semantic differentials is randomly altered to avoid response sets. The scale demonstrates appropriate internal validity with an overall Cronbach's alpha coefficient of .92 (Fulton et al., 1997).

Dual-role inventory – revised - probationer version (DRI-R; Skeem, Loudon, Palascheck, & Camp, 2007). The DRI-R assesses both the caring and the controlling

aspects of a relationship evident in mandated treatment. The DRI-R probationer version has 30 items. The DRI-R assesses three elements contributing to a dual-role relationship: Caring-Fairness, Trust, and Toughness. Caring-Fairness items reflect the probationer and officer bond (alliance) and the officers' clarity-voice (fairness). The Trust construct utilizes bond items (alliance) to assess the extent to which the probationer and the officer share a mutual trust. Toughness evaluates the officers' toughness and punitiveness with the probationer (disciplinary orientation and expectations of independence).

The DRI-R demonstrates appropriate internal consistency for Caring-Fairness, Trust, Toughness, and Totals with alphas of .96, .90, .87, and .95, respectively, as well as moderate interitem correlations of .59, .67, .56, and .59 (Skeem, Louden, Polascheck, & Camp, 2007). The DRI-R evidences convergent validity with the Working Alliance Inventory, within session behavior, measurements of relationship satisfaction, and assessment of treatment motivation. Additionally, the DRI-R demonstrates divergent validity with measurement of psychological distress of the probationer. Finally, the DRI-R evidences utility for predicting the time frame of probationers' first violation or new charges and the seriousness of future rule non-compliance.

University of Rhode Island change assessment (URICA; Prochaska & DiClemente). The URICA is designed to assess readiness for change (McConaughy, 1983). Probationers were also asked to self-identify the primary *problem* behaviors they considered when completing the URICA. The URICA is a 32 item questionnaire with four subscales consisting of eight items assessing precontemplation, contemplation, action, and maintenance (Fitzpatrick & Irannejad, 2008). Items are rated on a 5-point

Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagreement) to 5 (strong agreement). Research on the psychometric properties of the URICA in an adolescent sample demonstrate: 1) means and standard deviations similar in magnitude to adult out-patient samples; 2) appropriate internal consistency of subscales (Precontemplation, .77; Contemplation, .88; Action, .86; and Maintenance, .82), and 3) a simplex pattern similar to adult samples in which adjacent scales tended to be more closely correlated than non-adjacent scales (Greenstein, Franklin, & McGruffin, 1999).

Officer demographics survey. An officer demographics survey provided the officers' ages, ethnicities, levels of supervision specialty, educational history, and length of service with the specified juvenile probation department.

Probationer demographics and recidivism survey. Officers reviewed probationer files to report demographic information and recidivism data. Officers submitted a survey specific to each probationer, identifying age, ethnicity, psychological diagnoses, current charges, current level of supervision, time supervised by the current officer, and numbers of previous supervision(s). Psychological diagnoses were reported from the probationers' charts based on the most recent psychological or psychiatric evaluation. This ensured the fact that any reported diagnoses were based on the judgment of a mental health professional. Recidivism data included the numbers and types of violations handled by the court, numbers and types of violations handled by the probation department, and numbers and types of new charges. Each of the three measures of recidivism was restricted to violations or charges received during the course of supervision with their current officers.

Data Preparation

The Dual Role Inventory-probationer version consists of 30 responses, with five reverse scored items. The identified items were reverse scored to consistently reflect a greater alliance based on a higher response, from 1 to 7. The responses were totaled to generate a total score for the DRI-R. Permission to utilize the DRI-R was granted by Dr. Skeem.

The SROSS has 11 items assessing the attitudes and strategies of officers, as related to supervising probationers, with five reverse scored items. The identified responses were reverse scored to consistently reflect a greater rehabilitation focus, based on a higher response from 1 to 6. The items were totaled to generate a total score for the SROSS. This total score was further divided by 11 to generate an average score to group officers into either an enforcement group (1-2), a balanced group (3-4), or a rehabilitation group (5-6). Permission to utilize the SROSS was obtained from Dr. Travis and Dr. Latessa.

The URICA has 32 items assessing the readiness for change of each probationer. Each subscale of the URICA, precontemplation, contemplation, action, and maintenance, consists of eight items. Consistent with DiClemente and Hughes (1990), one specified item from each subscale was omitted and the resulting sum was divided by seven. Each obtained mean was then applied to the following formula to generate an overall score for the URICA, $\text{Readiness} = (\text{Contemplation} + \text{Action} + \text{Maintenance}) / \text{Precontemplation}$.

Analysis of Risk and Benefit Ratio

The probation department's approval for participation in the study came with minimal risks, despite the sensitive nature of research with juvenile offenders. Data regarding probation officers and probationers were collected by officers and were provided anonymously to the primary investigator. The data did not contain any identifying information such as a probationer's or officer's name, or date of birth. Furthermore, all data were analyzed and reported in aggregate. The data collected regarding officer role affiliation and ability to form a working alliance with probationers sought to inform the department of officer characteristics that were optimal for providing services in accordance with the BARJ principles. The probation department could utilize study measures in order to inform the supervision of officers, evaluate the work/role orientation of the department environment, and enhance the hiring practices of the department. The inclusion of probationers' reports of working alliance and readiness for change assessed the quality and characteristics of the probationer/officer relationship accurately and might inform the training needs of officers. Ideally, this research aimed to enhance the services provided to juvenile offenders and their families. Recidivism statistics serve as the most important central outcome measure to determine the impact of officer role affiliation, alliance, and readiness for change on the intended outcomes of probation supervision.

Chapter 5

Results**Descriptive Statistics**

Descriptive statistics collected regarding officers included officers' ages, ethnicities, levels of supervision specialty, educational histories, and lengths of service with the specified juvenile probation department. Additionally, data collected regarding probationer information were used to define the probationer population including ages, ethnicities, psychological diagnoses, current charges, current levels of supervision, time supervised by the current officer, numbers of previous supervisions, numbers and types of violations handled by the court, numbers and types of violations handled by the probation department, and numbers and types of new charges. Due to an oversight on the demographic forms, probationer and officer genders were not gathered and are not included in this report.

A total of 33 officers were identified to provide data from the department self-study for the purposes of this research. Because participation in the study was not a part of their job descriptions, the department was not able to mandate the officers' participation involving any consequences. As a result, a total of 23 officers' returned their data but 10 officers failed to submit any of the research materials. The missing data of these 10 officers are not included in this report and no inferences can be made regarding characteristics of these officers or their probationers. Demographic data are available for 22 officers, because one officer that otherwise submitted all materials failed to return the demographic form. One officer also failed to indicate time with the department, resulting

in an *N* of 21 for that variable. Officer scores on the SROSS were generated for all 23 officers who submitted their materials. The majority of the officers were age 26 to 35 (45.4%), were Caucasian (86.4%), were line officers (63.6%), were with the department between 1 to 10 years (85.7%) and were criminal justice majors (50%). Table 1 summarizes the officer demographic data.

A total of 314 probationers were randomly identified from the caseloads of the 33 officers. Because 10 officers did not submit their materials, their 99 total probationer materials were designated as missing data. Other missing data occurred as a result of oversight during completion or changes in the probationers' supervision status, e.g. discharge, transfer, unknown location, or placement. Missing data on the probationer demographic data result in varying totals on specific variables. The majority of the probationers were age 14 to 19 (94%) and Caucasian (63%). See Table 2 for complete probationer age and ethnicity data. Psychological disorders were evident for 54.5% of the probationers. Each occurrence of a specific psychological disorder was tallied to describe the percentage observed in the probationer sample. Many probationers had multiple, documented psychological disorders (38.1%). See Table 3 for psychological demographics. At least one felony charge was observed for 28 probationers and at least one misdemeanor was observed for 87 probationers. All probation status data are summarized in Table 4. The majority of the probationers had at least one violation handled by the probation department (51.9%); 26.5% had violations handled by the court, and 15.1% had new charges incurred during the course of their supervisions. Probation violation data are summarized in Table 5.

All of the 23 officers submitted complete role inventories, resulting in a total of 23 scores on the SROSS. If items on the URICA or DRI-R were omitted, the scale was not summed and therefore was not used in the analyses. The total number of complete scores on the URICA was 165 and 161 for the DRI-R. Descriptive statistics for each of the totaled inventories are depicted in Table 6.

Results Summarized around Hypotheses

Helping alliance hypotheses. A correlational analysis of the DRI-R and three recidivism variables, violations handled by the probation officer, violations handled by the court, and receipt of new charges, were conducted in order to test if higher scores on the DRI-R correlate with lower recidivism rates, demonstrating an inverse relationship. Higher scores on the DRI-R were significantly related to probation violations and new charges in an inverse nature, but were not significantly related to court violations. The results of this analysis are summarized in Table 7. Table 7 also conveys the correlations between the various recidivism data.

Subjective role orientation hypothesis. The planned ANOVA geared to test the hypothesis that officers with a balanced justice orientation on the SROSS would supervise youth with lower recidivism rates, as compared with officers with social work or law enforcement orientations, could not be completed. As is depicted in Table 6, there was not enough variability in the SROSS to divide the 23 officers into the planned groups meaningfully (balanced, rehabilitation, or correctional). One officer had a score of 2, demonstrating a preference for a correctional approach. Two officers had a score of 5,

demonstrating a preference for a rehabilitation approach. The remaining 20 officers had scores of 3 ($n = 6$) and 4 ($n = 14$) demonstrating a balanced approach.

Readiness for change hypotheses. A correlational analysis of the URICA and the three recidivism variables, violations handled by the probation officer, violations handled by the court, and receipt of new charges, was performed to assess if higher scores on the URICA correlate with lower recidivism rates, demonstrating an inverse relationship. Higher scores on the URICA were significantly related in a positive nature to probation violations, but not significantly related to court violations or new charges. The results are shown in Table 8.

Interaction hypotheses. The planned ANOVA aimed to assess if the strength of the helping alliance, as measured by the DRI-R, would vary as a function of the officers' grouping on the SROSS (social work, balanced, or law enforcement), could not be completed as a result of the limited variability in SROSS scores.

A correlational analysis of the URICA and DRI-R was completed to test the hypothesis that higher scores on the URICA will correlate with higher scores on the DRI-R. The results of a two-tailed Pearson Correlation was not significant ($r(156) = .07, p = .42$).

The planned logistic regression aimed to assess if helping alliance, as measured by the DRI-R, would mediate the relationship between officer role orientation, as measured by the SROSS, and recidivism could not be performed due to the limited variability in the SROSS.

The other planned logistic regression aimed to assess if readiness for change, as measured by the URICA, would mediate the relationship between officer role orientation, as measured by the SROSS, and recidivism could not be conducted, again as a result of limited variability in the SROSS

Recidivism as a Function of Probationers' Level of Supervision

The level of a probationer's supervision directly impacts the level of court involvement. Court contact increases from least to most, based on the following levels of supervision: consent decree, informal, formal, intensive formal, and aftercare. Because the level of contact with probation versus the level of contact with the court may directly impact the definitions of recidivism utilized in the current study, recidivism was examined as a function of the probationers' levels of supervision. A significant main effect was observed for violations handled by probation, based on the juveniles' levels of supervision ($F(4, 180) = 9.38, p = .00$). A Bonferroni post-hoc test revealed between group differences. Probationers on formal supervision ($M = .76, SD = .43$) demonstrated significantly more violations handled by probation than probationers on consent decree ($M = .34, SD = .48$) ($p = .00$) and probationers on informal supervision ($M = .31, SD = .47$) ($p = .00$). Probationers on intensive formal supervision ($M = .80, SD = .41$) demonstrated significantly more violations handled by probation than probationers on consent decree ($M = .34, SD = .48$) ($p = .003$) and probationers on informal supervision ($M = .31, SD = .47$) ($p = .001$).

A significant main effect was also observed for violations handled by the court, based on the juveniles' levels of supervision ($F(4, 180) = 12.83, p = .00$). A Bonferroni

post-hoc test revealed between group differences. Probationers on formal supervision ($M = .41, SD = .50$) demonstrated significantly more violations handled by the court than probationers on consent decree ($M = .09, SD = .29$) ($p = .001$) and probationers on informal supervision ($M = .06, SD = .23$) ($p = .00$). Probationers on intensive formal supervision ($M = .60, SD = .50$) demonstrated significantly more violations handled by the court than probationers on consent decree ($M = .09, SD = .29$) ($p = .00$) and probationers on informal supervision ($M = .06, SD = .23$) ($p = .00$). Probationers on aftercare supervision ($M = .48, SD = .51$) demonstrated significantly more violations handled by the court than probationers on consent decree ($M = .09, SD = .29$) ($p = .003$) and probationers on informal supervision ($M = .06, SD = .23$) ($p = .00$).

A significant main effect was also observed for new charges received, based on the juveniles' levels of supervision ($F(4, 177) = 4.94, p = .001$). A Bonferroni post-hoc test revealed between group differences. Probationers on formal supervision ($M = .26, SD = .44$) demonstrated significantly more new charges received than probationers on informal supervision ($M = .04, SD = .19$) ($p = .014$). Probationers on aftercare supervision ($M = .35, SD = .49$) demonstrated significantly more new charges than probationers on consent decree ($M = .07, SD = .26$) ($p = .028$) and probationers on informal supervision ($M = .04, SD = .19$) ($p = .006$).

Exploratory Analyses of the DRI-R

Officer factors. A series of exploratory analyses were completed to better understand variables that relate to higher ratings of a helping alliance, as measured by the DRI-R. Because completing multiple analyses on the same scale increases the risk of type

2 or beta error, an a priori Bonferroni's adjustment of alpha to 0.0035714 was utilized for the following 14 analyses of officer and probationer factors potentially impacting DRI-R scores. An ANOVA exploring the impact of the officers' ages based on a range of years, 20-25, 26-30, 31-35, 36-40, 41-45, 45-50, 51-55, 56-60, and >60, did not demonstrate a significant main effect ($F(6, 138) = 1.38, p = .23$). A significant, main effect was not established between officer ethnicity and alliance scores ($F(2, 142) = .46, p = .63$). The levels of specialty of the officer, line, aftercare, or specialty court, indicated no significant main effect of the of impact alliance scores in an ANOVA analysis ($F(2, 142) = 1.18, p = .31$). An ANOVA exploring the impact of the officers' time with the department based on a range of years, 1-2, 3-4, 5-10, 11-15, and 16-20, did not demonstrate a significant, main effect ($F(5, 133) = 2.91, p = .02$). The college major of the officer evidenced no significant main effect of the impact of alliance scores in an ANOVA analysis ($F(4, 140) = 1.30, p = .27$).

Probationer factors. The same Bonferroni's adjustment of alpha (0.0035714) was used for the remaining of the 14 exploratory analyses of the DRI-R. An ANOVA exploring the impact of the probationers' ages, based on a range of years, 10-11, 12-13, 14-15, 16-17, 18-19, and 20 or older, did not demonstrate a significant main effect related to alliance scores ($F(3, 151) = 1.94, p = .13$). A significant main effect was not established between probationer ethnicity and alliance scores ($F(4, 155) = 1.87, p = .12$). Probationer levels of supervision, consent decrees, informal, formal, intensive formal, and aftercare, and alliance scores did not demonstrate a significant main effect, based on alliance scores ($F(4, 151) = 1.06, p = .38$). No significant difference in alliance scores

was evident, based on whether or not the probationer is in placement or in home in the community ($t(154) = .89, p = .38$). Neither the relationship between the range of time of supervision under the current officer ($F(9, 146) = 1.78, p = .08$) or the increasing range of numbers of visits with the current officer ($F(6, 145) = 1.25, p = .29$) demonstrated a significant main effect related to alliance scores. The one identified variable that approached significance on the DRI-R was whether or not the visit during which the measures were completed by the probationer was to address non-compliance ($M = 161.76, SD = 28.10$) or did not involve non-compliance concerns ($M = 177.03, SD = 24.73$) ($t(156) = 2.59, p = .011$). This trend is consistent with the inverse relationship between the DRI-R and recidivism data. No significant differences were observed in alliance scores between probationers that had a diagnosable disorder and those that did not ($t(158) = .93, p = .35$). Finally, no significant differences were evidenced in alliance score between probationers that identified the presence of a presenting problem versus those that did not ($t(114) = .90, p = .37$).

Exploratory Analyses of the URICA

Officer factors. A series of exploratory analyses were completed to better understand variables that relate to higher ratings of readiness for change, as measured by the URICA. Because completing multiple analyses on the same scale increases the risk of type 2 or beta error, an a priori Bonferroni's adjustment of alpha to 0.0035714 was utilized for the following 14 analyses of officer and probationer factors potentially impacting URICA scores. An ANOVA exploring the impact of the officers' ages, based on a range of years, 20-25, 26-30, 31-35, 36-40, 41-45, 45-50, 51-55, 56-60, and >60, did

not demonstrate a significant main effect ($F(6, 141) = 3.00, p = .01$). A significant main effect was not established between officer ethnicity and readiness for change scores ($F(2, 145) = .21, p = .81$). The level of specialty of the officer, line, aftercare, or specialty court, indicated a significant main effect of the impact of readiness for change scores in an ANOVA analysis ($F(2, 145) = 7.19, p = .001$). A Bonferroni post-hoc test revealed line officers ($M = 7.14, SD = 2.24$) were significantly ($p = .001$) different from aftercare officers ($M = 9.33, SD = 2.22$), with aftercare officers demonstrating higher probationer readiness for change scores. An ANOVA exploring the impact of the officers' time with the department, based on a range of years, 1-2, 3-4, 5-10, 11-15, and 16-20, did not demonstrate a significant main effect, based on readiness for change scores ($F(5, 136) = .65, p = .66$). The college major of the officer evidenced no significant main effect of the impact of readiness for change scores in an ANOVA analysis ($F(4, 143) = 2.24, p = .07$).

Probationer factors. The same Bonferroni's adjustment of alpha (0.0035714) was used for the remainder of the 14 exploratory analyses of the URICA. An ANOVA exploring the impact of the probationers' ages, based on a range of years, 10-11, 12-13, 14-15, 16-17, 18-19, and 20 or older, did not demonstrate a significant main effect on readiness for change scores ($F(3, 156) = .43, p = .74$). A significant main effect was not established between probationer ethnicity and readiness for change scores ($F(4, 159) = 2.32, p = .06$). Probationer level of supervision, consent decree, informal, formal, intensive formal, and aftercare, did not demonstrate a significant main effect for readiness for change scores ($F(4, 155) = 2.73, p = .03$). A significant difference in readiness for change scores was evident, based on whether or not the probationer was in placement or

in home in the community ($t(157) = -5.47, p < .000$), with higher scores evidenced by those in placement. The relationship between the range of time of supervision under the current officer and readiness for change scores did not demonstrate a significant main effect ($F(9, 150) = 2.43, p = .01$). No significant main effect was evident, based on the increasing range of numbers of visits with the current officer and readiness for change scores ($F(6, 149) = .61, p = .72$). There was not a significant difference in readiness for change scores when the visit during which the measures were completed by the probationer was to address non-compliance or did not involve non-compliance concerns ($t(160) = -.42, p = .68$). Significant differences were observed in readiness for change scores between probationers that had a diagnosable disorder and those that did not ($t(162) = -3.40, p = .001$), with those with a diagnosable disorder demonstrating greater readiness for change. Finally, significant differences were evidenced in readiness for change scores between probationers that identified the presence of a presenting problem verses those that did not identify a presenting problem ($t(118) = -4.00, p = .000$), with those identifying a problem reporting greater readiness for change.

Exploratory Analyses of the SROSS

Although there was not enough variance in the officers' SROSS scores to make comparisons between the planned groups (balanced, rehabilitation, and enforcement), exploratory analyses were conducted to determine if differences in URICA or DRI-R scores could be observed between officers that lean towards enforcement (average score of 3) or those that lean towards rehabilitation (average score of 4). A significant difference was not observed between officers the lean towards enforcement and officers

that lean towards rehabilitation on the URICA ($t(136) = .74, p = .46$) or on the DRI-R ($t(134) = .57, p = .57$).

Chapter 6

Discussion**Overview of Findings**

The following is a general summary of significant findings in relation to the hypotheses. Results of the officers' role orientation scores on the SROSS demonstrated a general adoption of a balanced approach in the officer sample consistent with BARJ principles. This lack of variance in the self-reported role orientation indicated that the officers adopted an approach that balanced their roles both as helpers and enforcers. Due to the lack of variance in officers' self-reported scores, the hypothesis that officers with a balanced approach would supervise probationers with lower recidivism rates, as opposed to officers with an enforcement or rehabilitation approach could not be examined. Additionally, the hypotheses that the helping alliance and probationers' readiness for change would mediate the relationship between officers' role orientation and recidivism could not be investigated. The hypothesis testing the role of the helping alliance was partially supported. Analyses suggested that probationers with a greater alliance with their probation officers, as measured by the DRI-R, were less likely to incur violations handled by the probation department or to incur new charges. This finding was not, however, observed for violations handled by the court. Finally, examining the role of probationers' readiness for change, the data suggested, contrary to expectations, that probationers who incurred violations handled by the probation department evidenced greater readiness for change. This finding, however, was not evident for recidivism rates as defined by violations handled by the court or by receipt of new charges. The following

discussion explores the implications of these findings in relation to previous and future research.

Characteristics of the Sample

The officer demographic data provided a broad overview of the officer sample. The majority of the officers in the department were 20 to 40 years of age and predominantly Caucasian. Most of the sample consisted of line officers. The majority of the officers had been with the department from 1 to 10 years and graduated from college with a degree in criminal justice.

The probationer demographic data allowed for a comparison of the sample data with findings of previous research. Similar to Snyder and Sickmund's report (2006) of 2003 juvenile offender data that found 67% of arrests were committed by youth aged 16 to 17, 50% of the probationer sample in the current study were aged 16 to 17. Again, paralleling previous racial demographic data of Snyder and Sickmund reporting 71% of offenders were Caucasian and 27% were Black, in this study's sample, 63% of the probationers were Caucasian and 22.8% were Black.

The sample data of the presence of psychiatric or psychological diagnoses allowed for a comparison of this sample's composition with those of previous research findings. A metaanalysis of 25 psychiatric studies of 16,750 incarcerated adolescents indicated that 3% of juveniles in detention had a psychotic disorder, and that 11% of males and 29% of females had a diagnosis of major depressive disorder (Fazel, Doll, & Langstrom, 2008). No psychotic disorders were reported in the current sample, but 8.47% of the probationers had a diagnosis of major depression. Fazel et al. found that 10% of

males and 25% of females had a diagnosis of attention deficit/hyperactivity disorder. In the current sample, 24.87% presented with a diagnosis of attention deficit-hyperactivity disorder. Additional results from a metaanalysis by Fazel et al. (2008) found a 50% prevalence rate of conduct disorder among youth in juvenile detention. This probationer sample evidenced a 15.87% prevalence rate of conduct disorder. The lower rates of psychotic, depressive, and conduct disorders may be accounted for by the difference in levels of custody; the data from the Fazel et al. study were derived from an incarcerated sample, whereas the majority (83.7%) of the current sample was in the community.

Previous research on psychological comorbidity indicated the minority of juvenile offenders met criteria for only one mental health disorder (17% females, 20% males), but the majority of juveniles met criteria for more than two disorders (57% females, 46% males) (Feldstein & Ginsburg, 2006). Additional comorbidity research found that 92% of juvenile males and 97% of females met criteria for at least one psychological disorder, and 32% of males and 60% of females met criteria for three or more conditions (Drerup, Croysdale, & Hoffmann, 2008). The current study found that 54% of the sample met criteria for at least one psychiatric disorder, and 38.1% had two or more comorbid disorders. Again, the lower prevalence of disorders evidenced in the current sample may be attributed to the less restrictive custody of the majority of the sample. Despite the lower prevalence rates, the present findings continue to attest to the high rate of mental health concerns among the juvenile offender population.

Comparison of the currently obtained recidivism data with prior research was difficult for a number of reasons. First, no national statistic for juvenile recidivism exists,

because juvenile systems vary from state to state. Furthermore, there is no agreed upon operational definition for recidivism. The current study, due to design restrictions, defined recidivism stringently in three ways: violations handled by probation, violations handled by the court, and receipt of new charges. All of these approaches to evaluate recidivism were measured while the probationer was still on probation, as opposed to returning to probation supervision for new charges. The Virginia Department of Juvenile Justice's study, with 27 participating states, reported recidivism data on juveniles released from state facilities. The study defined recidivism as rearrest, rereferral to court, reconviction /readjudication, or reincarceration/reconfinement, and at a twelve month follow-up found recidivism rates varying from 12 to 55%. The current study's recidivism rates were 51.9%, based on violations handled by probation; 26.5 %, based on violations handled by the court, and 15.1%, based on receipt of new charges. The utilized operational definitions of recidivism were comprehensive; however, the observed recidivism rates were within the previously reported range from 12 to 55%. The operational definitions of recidivism utilized in the current study, the probation violations, the court violations, and the receipt of new charges, correlated significantly.

Officer Role Orientation

The current study sought to investigate how officers approached their roles and balanced the duality of their responsibilities, both as helpers and as enforcers. The plausible models that were described previously to account for officer role orientation were the importation and the work/role model (Lopez & Russell, 2008). The importation model assumes that an officer 'imports' his or her personal attributes such as gender, age,

and race into his or her work orientation. Conversely, the work/role model assumes that the work environment and type of work performed influences the officer's work orientation. Previous research findings suggested that officers' rehabilitation orientation was best accounted for by the work/role model, because individual attributes of officers such as education, age, race, length of employment, or cultural competency were not associated with rehabilitation orientation. The lack of variance in officers' scores on the SROSS in the current study supported the work/role model, because the vast majority of the officers in the current sample adopted a balanced approach to supervision. It is likely that the overall emphasis of the department fosters a balanced approach, resulting in officers adopting a combination of the helper and the enforcer role. Further, the exploratory analyses demonstrated no significant differences in probationer readiness for change scores or alliance scores as a function of officers' ages, ethnicities, time as probation officers, or college majors. The only difference observed, based on officer demographics, was on the URICA, which showed differences between line and after care officers. The tendency for line officers to fall close to the mean or demonstrate a balanced approach is consistent with previous research comparing line officers and intensive officers using the SROSS that found line officers adopted a more balanced approach (Stichman, Fulton, Latessa, & Travis, 1997).

The Helping Alliance

This study aimed to assess how the strength of the helping alliance, as measured by probationer ratings on the DRI-R, impacted probationers' recidivism behavior. Skeem, Loudon, Polascheck, and Camp (2007) found support for the ability of the DRI-R to

predict the time frame of probationers' first violations or new charges and the seriousness of future rule non-compliance. Consistent with these findings, the current study found that probationers reporting higher ratings of the helping alliance evidenced fewer violations handled by probation and a lower likelihood of receiving new charges. It is likely that probationers may perceive greater alliances with their officers when they share the goal of completing their probations without further consequences from the court and feel that the officers are assisting them towards this end. Conversely, when probationers are engaged in behavior that will result in violations and the officers are responsible to consequence the behaviors, the probationers may be more likely to feel that the officers are controlling their behaviors rather than helping them. This explanation is in line with the concept of 'caring power.' Higher ratings of the helping alliance, however, did not relate to a lower likelihood of violations handled by the court. Alliance ratings may not relate to court violations because the relational component between the officer and probationer does not have the same focus when the court is the third party responsible for handling the sanctions for violations.

Exploratory analyses were conducted to better understand those probationer factors that are related to alliance ratings. Probationer age, ethnicity, level of supervision, and placement status did not result in differences in alliance ratings. The presence or absence of a psychological diagnosis or the presence of an identified problem on the part of the probationer did not have an impact on alliance ratings. Further, the length of time with the current officer and the number of visits with the current officer did not impact the probationers' ratings of the helping alliance. This finding is particularly significant,

because it suggests that the quality of the relationship is not dependent on time or frequency of contact and/or the length of time a probationer has known and worked with his or her probation officer. The only identified probationer variable that showed a tendency to impact probationer alliance ratings was the nature of the visit with the officer. Visits during which the inventories were scheduled for completion that required the officer to address rule non-compliance evidenced lower, albeit not significant, ratings of alliance; this was not observed when the contact did not require the officer to address non-compliance. This implies the alliance perceived by the probationer is weaker when there is a necessity for enforcement due to a probation violation.

Readiness for Change

The current study sought to explore how probationers' self-reported readiness to make changes in their behaviors impacted their recidivism behavior. The hypothesis that probationers with higher readiness for change ratings would evidence lower recidivism was not supported. The findings suggested the opposite relationship because the presence of violations handled by the probation officer related to higher ratings of readiness for change. This relation was not, however, evidenced by recidivism rates as defined by violations handled by the court or by receipt of new charges. This finding implies that probationers' awareness of the cost of continuing their behaviors is increased when their probation officer addresses violations, which may help move them further along the readiness for change continuum. The absence of the same effect for violations handled by the court, or when receiving new charges, may be due to the probationers' perception that

an opportunity to make the necessary changes does not exist and their behaviors will result in increased probation restrictions or placement.

The work/role model was further supported, as officer characteristics demonstrated minimal discriminatory differences on probationers' readiness for change ratings. The officers' ages, ethnicities, time with the department, and college majors did not demonstrate significant differences on readiness for change scores. The officers' levels of supervision did, however, demonstrate significant differences on readiness for change scores between line officers and after care officers. Probationers who had higher ratings of readiness to change were supervised by aftercare officers, meaning they were likely in residential placement or transitioning to the community after spending time in residential placement. This finding suggests aftercare officers may have better training to enhance motivation for change. Alternatively, as differences on the URICA between probationers on aftercare and informal probation approached significance with the corrected alpha level, this difference may be a probationer factor rather than an officer factor. If so, it is possible that probationers supervised by an aftercare officer may have experienced punishment that was more likely to highlight the cost of previous behaviors and increase their motivation to make change.

The previous conclusion is supported by the exploration of probationer factors influencing readiness for change. Probationers in placement, who are supervised by aftercare officers, reported greater readiness for change than probationers in a community/home setting. This finding suggests increasing court involvement and intervention increases readiness for change. Change most often occurs when either the

benefit of change outweighs the effort required or the short-term reward of the problematic behavior, or the cost of continuing the behavior is great enough to serve as a deterrent. It appears that increasing the punitive nature of probation interventions through time in placement serves to increase motivation to make change. Further, this suggests punishment may be an effective way to enhance at least external motivation among juvenile probationers. The question remains whether or not this external motivation is sufficiently internalized to result in long-term change after discharge from probation.

Other exploratory analyses did not demonstrate significant differences in readiness for change scores including, probationers' ages, probationer ethnicities, the numbers of visits with their current officers, or whether or not the visits during which the surveys were completed involved addressing non-compliance. Differences in readiness for change ratings, based on the length of time under the current officers' supervision approached significance with the corrected alpha. This suggests, again that the greater the extents of court invention, the more highly probationers are motivated to make changes.

Probationers with a current psychological diagnosis were also more likely to report readiness for change, implying that the recognition of an identified problem or need increases motivation for change. Consistently, probationers' ratings of readiness for change were greater if they self-identified the "problem" they were considering when answering questions on the URICA. The fact that an identified problem, either a psychological diagnosis or a personally recognized problem, increases motivation for change is pivotal, because it offers the officer a way to increase readiness for change without punishment. This suggests that it would be useful for the officer and probationer

to identify, collaboratively, an internalized problem that can be addressed and utilized throughout the course of probation supervision in order to enhance and maintain motivation for change.

Interaction of the Helping Alliance and Readiness for Change

The current study's exploration of the relationship between the helping alliance and readiness for change did not support the hypothesis that more positive ratings of the working relationship would coincide with greater readiness for change. The findings suggest that these variables are unrelated in the context of probation, unlike the therapeutic setting in which a more positive working alliance is associated with greater readiness for change (Fitzpatrick & Irannejad, 2008; Hiller, Knight, Leukefeld, & Simpson, 2002; Rochien, Rude, & Baron, 2005).

One explanation for the lack of the predicted relationship may be the inherently coercive nature of the criminal justice system, which creates an external pressure for the need for change. In the therapeutic context, individuals most often initiate treatment voluntarily and have internalized reasons for making behavioral changes, whereas probationers do not enter probation supervision voluntarily and have the external pressure of the court forcing changes. This externalized nature of readiness for change in the probation system is consistent with the increased readiness for change when probation violations are evident. The independent nature of internalized factors such as self-identified problems or psychological diagnoses offers an additional avenue for probation interventions to capitalize on in order to facilitate long-term behavioral changes without

coercion and emphasizes the need for psychological evaluation and counseling in conjunction with probation efforts.

In the therapeutic context, the therapist's expertise is relied on by the client; however, in the probation context, the officer is an extension of the court's authority. Although greater ratings of alliance were associated with fewer probation violations and fewer receipts of new charges, this did not translate into greater readiness for change. A possible explanation for these findings is that those probationers who do not receive any type of violation have positive interactions with their probation officers and conversely, those probationers who receive violations or new charges have more negative interactions with their probation officers. In this way, the relationship may be defined by whether or not the officer is required to utilize the authorized power of the court. Consistent with this explanation, the probationers' ratings on the DRI-R tended to be lower when the officers' visits were to address probation non-compliance.

Overall, it appears that whether or not the officers address the presence of violations does impact both readiness for change and the helping alliance. Ratings of readiness for change were greater in the event that the probation officer handled any probation violations; however, at the same time, probationers whose officers addressed violations also reported lower ratings of the helping alliance. It appears probationers perceive the alliance as weaker in the event that their officers are exerting the power of their positions, but when their officers do so, it highlights the need to make change. The helping alliance and readiness for change may be unrelated in the context of probation due specifically to the dual role of the officer both as a helper and an enforcer.

Recidivism as a Function of Probationers' Level of Supervision

Because the level of contact with probation versus the level of contact with the court could directly impact the definitions of recidivism utilized in the current study, recidivism was examined as a function of the probationers' levels of supervision increasing from consent decree, informal, formal, intensive formal, to aftercare. The results suggested that violations handled by the probation officer were significantly more likely for probationers on formal supervision than for probationers on consent decree and for probationers on informal supervision. Violations handled by the officer were also more likely for probationers on intensive formal supervision than for probationers on consent decree and for probationers on informal supervision. These findings suggest probationers on more restricted supervision, i.e. formal and intensive formal, are more likely to evidence violations handled by their probation officers than are probationers on less restrictive supervision, i.e. consent decree and informal. The lack of any significant differences for probationers on aftercare supervision may be due to the greater likelihood that those probationers are in placement. Collectively, these findings suggest that probationers on formal and intensive formal supervision are at the greatest risk of being addressed by their officers for violations in their supervision.

Significant differences were also observed for violations handled by the court, based on the juveniles' levels of supervision. Probationers on formal supervision demonstrated significantly more violations that were handled by the court than probationers on consent decree and probationers on informal supervision. Probationers on intensive formal supervision demonstrated significantly more violations that were

handled by the court than probationers on consent decree and probationers on informal supervision. Probationers on aftercare supervision demonstrated significantly more violations that were handled by the court than probationers on consent decree and probationers on informal supervision. Consistent with violations handled by the officer, violations handled by the court were more likely for probationers on more restrictive levels of supervision, i.e. formal, intensive formal, and aftercare, than probationers on less restrictive supervision, i.e. consent decree and informal.

Significant differences were also observed for new charges received, based on the juveniles' levels of supervision. Probationers on formal supervision demonstrated significantly more new charges received than probationers on informal supervision. Probationers on aftercare supervision demonstrated significantly more new charges than probationers on consent decree and probationers on informal supervision. These findings are again consistent with the other utilized definitions of recidivism and demonstrate steadily, that probationers on increasingly restrictive levels of supervision are most likely to receive new charges.

No differences were observed between probationers on consent decree and on informal supervision, suggesting no differences in any of the current definitions of recidivism behavior. Likewise, no differences were observed between probationers on formal and intensive informal supervision, suggesting no significant differences in recidivism behavior. All of these findings taken together suggest that the offending behaviors and likelihood of recidivism is greater for probationers on formal, intensive formal and on aftercare supervision than for probationers on consent decree or informal

supervision. This proposes there may be qualitative differences between youth on less restrictive supervision and those with more court involvement with regard to future criminal behavior.

Application to Probation Departments

The findings of the current study can inform probation departments in a number of ways. First, this study emphasizes the need for officers to develop working relationships with their probationers in order to reduce recidivism rates, because probationers with higher ratings of alliance had fewer probation violations and fewer receipts of new charges. Creating an alliance with youth that are currently violating may serve to reduce the likelihood of future violations or the receipts of new charges, because the alliance may be a protective factor. Further research is needed to tease out the temporal causality of this relationship.

Second, this study suggests that violations handled by the officer may increase probationer readiness for change. Therefore, departments may benefit by allowing officers to consequence probationers informally for minor infractions before including the court. It is possible that such warnings highlight the potential cost of continued misbehavior and serve as deterrents for future infractions.

The great majority of the officers composing the sample adopted a balanced approach to supervision. The obtained recidivism rates, 51.9% based on violations handled by probation; 26.5 % based on violations handled by the court, and 15.1 based on receipt of new charges, are fairly low when compared with the 12 to 55% reported by the Virginia Department of Juvenile Justice, which used less stringent criteria for recidivism.

This suggests that the balance approach adopted by the current officers may result in lower recidivism rates; however, this explanation could not be drawn conclusively because of the homogeneity of officers' role orientation.

Limitations

Limits of the design. The greatest limitation of the current study is the inability to make any causal statements regarding the direct impact of role orientation, the helping alliance, or readiness for change on recidivism rates, due to the concurrent nature of the design. Additionally, the researchers did not have control over the temporal completion of the officers' surveys (officer demographics forms, SROSS, and probation demographic forms) and the probationer surveys (DRI-R and URICA). This limits knowledge of whether or not the collected recidivism data on the probation demographic forms preceded or followed probationer ratings of readiness for change and the helping alliance.

Limits of the specific findings. The specific findings of the current study have a variety of limitations. The missing data of 10 officers is a significant limitation to the current study, because the characteristics of those officers and their probationers are unknown and may have been qualitatively different than the achieved sample. The homogeneity of the role orientation ratings of the officers prohibited the analysis of the impact of role orientation on recidivism, and, of great importance, the potential mediating factors that alliance and readiness for change may have had on role orientation. Because recidivism can be operationalized in a number of different ways, this study offered three potential definitions of recidivism, i.e. probation violations, court violations, and receipt of new charges. Violations, particularly on the part of the probation department, are a

strict way to measure recidivism. Defining recidivism as receipt of new charges is probably most appropriate. Furthermore, new charges after discharge from probation would best assess the effectiveness of the total, complete, and internalized impact of court intervention. Importantly, utilizing new charges after discharge from probation as the operational definition of recidivism would assess whether or not the greater readiness for change that was observed, based on increasingly more punitive sanctions, i.e. placement, results in long term, internalized change. The concurrent nature of this design, however, prevented the use of this more ideal operation of recidivism. Finally, because the probationer data were collected by their respective officers there may have been a demand characteristic affecting probationers' ratings of readiness for change or ratings of the alliance.

The current study was able to determine that a small percentage of the variance in probation recidivism outcomes were accounted for by the helping alliance (4%) and readiness for change (3%). However, a significant amount of the variance remains to be explained. Intrapersonal factors, such as gender or personality traits, specific to the probationer and officer not identified by the present study may be impacting recidivism outcomes. The exploratory analysis attempted to explore officer and probationer factors that may influence readiness for change and the helping alliance. Other interpersonal factors between the probationer and the officer not explored in the current study may account for some of the unexplained variance. The current study did not explore any situational factors that may have had significant impact on the probationers' recidivism; these may have included school success, family involvement, or other psychosocial

supports such as their peer groups. It is likely that recidivism outcomes are determined by multiple varieties of these intrapersonal, interpersonal, and situational factors.

Suggestions for Further Study

The ideal execution of further work on this topic would be a longitudinal design incorporating data from a variety of probation departments. The longitudinal nature of the investigation would facilitate the ability to make causal inferences about each of the variables of interest and best assess the total impact of the court intervention after discharge from probation by defining recidivism as re-referral to the probation department. The inclusion of multiple probation departments would increase the likelihood of achieving enough variation in subjective role orientation scores, enabling the analyses that could not be completed in the current study. Because probationers' self-identifications of problems corresponded with lower recidivism rates, future research would benefit from assessing whether or not the probationers' readiness to make change are related to internal or external motivation.

Summary and Conclusions

Collectively, a number of meaningful conclusions can be drawn from the present study. The present probation officer sample demonstrated an overall tendency to adopt a balanced approach in their goals of supervising juvenile offenders. The perception of a positive helping alliance on the part of the probationer coincides with fewer violations handled by the probation department and fewer incidences of new charges. This finding suggests that enhancing the alliance between probation officer and probationer may serve as a deterrent for probation violations, but further research is needed to explore the

temporal causality of this relationship. In contrast to the study's hypothesis, violations handled by the probation department appeared to result in greater reports of readiness to make change. It is thought that probation officers addressing violations highlights, to the probationer, the potential cost, i.e. placement, of continued violations and increases motivation for change as a result. The absence of a relationship between alliance scores and readiness for changes scores suggests that, unlike the therapeutic context, these variables are unrelated in the context of court interventions. Although unrelated, it is evident that both greater alliance and readiness for change scores resulted in improved probation intervention. Probation departments should aim to train officers in methods that are proven to enhance alliance and readiness for change. Continued research is needed to determine, to a greater degree, the interaction of alliance and change in the context of probation intervention.

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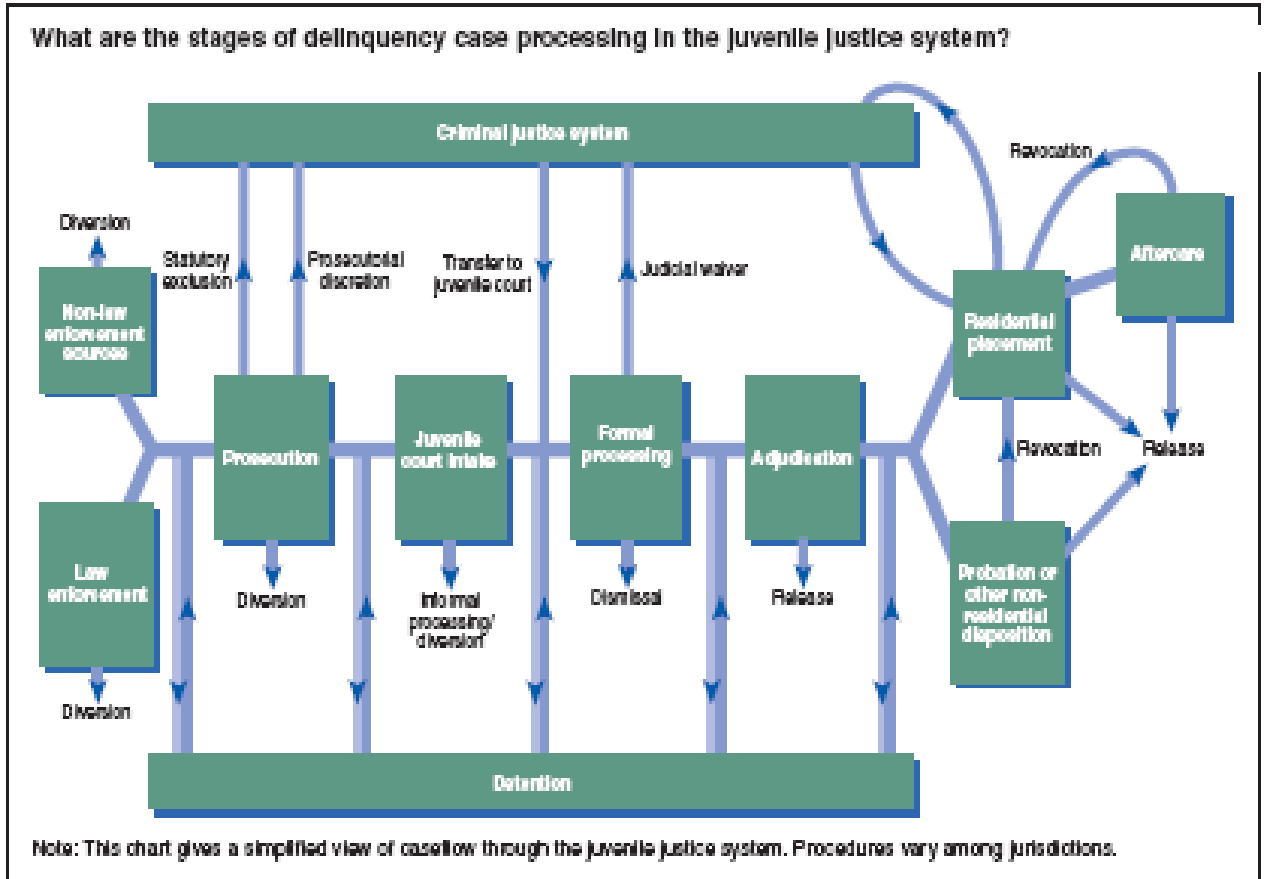
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Appendices

Flow of the Juvenile Justice System



Reproduced from the 2006 Juvenile Report.

Table 1
Officer Demographic Data

	<i>n</i>	%
<u>Age Range (years)</u>	22	100.0
20-25	3	13.6
26-30	5	22.7
31-35	5	22.7
36-40	3	13.6
41-45	2	9.1
46-50	1	4.5
51-55	1	4.5
56-60	2	9.1
<u>Ethnicity</u>	22	100.0
American Indian/Alaskan Native	1	4.5
Black/African American	2	9.1
White/Caucasian	19	86.4
<u>Level of Supervision Specialty</u>	22	100.0
Line Officer	14	63.6
Aftercare Officer	3	13.6
Specialty Court Officer	5	22.7
<u>Time with the Department (years)</u>	21	100.0
Less than 1	3	14.3
1-2	4	19.0
3-4	6	28.6
5-10	5	23.8
11-15	2	9.5
16-20	1	4.8
<u>College Major</u>	22	100.0
Criminal Justice	11	50.0
Psychology	3	13.6
Social Science (not psychology)	2	9.1
Business	1	4.5
Other	5	22.7

Table 2
Probationer Demographic Data

	<i>n</i>	%
<u>Age Range (years)</u>	184	100.0
12-13	10	5.4
14-15	47	25.5
16-17	92	50.0
18-19	34	18.5
20	1	.5
<u>Ethnicity</u>	189	100.0
American Indian/Alaskan Native	3	1.6
Asian	1	.5
Black/African American	43	22.8
Hispanic/Latino	12	6.3
White/Caucasian	119	63.0
Other	11	5.8

Table 3

Probationer Psychological Diagnoses

	<i>n</i>	%
<u>Presence of a Disorder</u>	189	
Present	103	54.5
Absent	86	45.5
Two or more	72	38.1
<u>Type of Psychological Disorder</u>	189	
Conduct	30	15.87
Attention Deficit/Hyperactivity	47	24.87
Depression	16	8.47
Anxiety	11	5.82
Bipolar	16	8.47
Posttraumatic Stress	6	3.17
Oppositional Defiant	21	11.11
Disruptive Behavior	6	3.17
Victim of Physical Abuse	7	3.70
Victim of Sexual Abuse	10	5.29
Offender of Sexual Abuse	11	5.82
Substance Abuse/Dependence	41	21.69
Parent-Child Relational Problem	36	19.05
Learning Disability	17	8.99
Aspergar's	2	1.03
Adjustment	8	4.23
Mental Retardation	1	.53
Impulse Control	2	1.06
Mood Disorder Not Otherwise Specified	6	3.17
Reactive Attachment	1	.53
Sibling Relational Problem	1	.53
Other	1	.53

Table 4
Probationer Supervision Descriptive Statistics

<u>Type of Charges</u>	<u>Felony <i>n</i></u>	<u>Misdemeanor <i>n</i></u>
<u>Number of Counts</u>	182	182
0	122	24
1	28	87
2	21	41
3	4	14
>4	7	16
<u>Crime Category</u>	<u><i>n</i></u>	
Violent	22	
Property	64	
Drug	65	
Weapon	12	
Other	94	
<u>Current Level of Supervision</u>	<u><i>n</i></u>	<u>%</u>
Consent Decree	44	23.8
Informal	54	29.2
Formal	46	24.9
Intensive Formal	20	10.8
Aftercare	21	11.4
<u>Residential Placement</u>	<u><i>n</i></u>	<u>%</u>
Yes	30	16.3
No	154	83.7
<u>Length of Current Supervision under Current Officer (Months)</u>	<u><i>n</i></u>	<u>%</u>
<1	14	7.6
1-2	33	17.8
3-4	37	20.0
5-6	42	22.7
7-8	28	15.1
9-10	4	2.2
11-12	11	5.9
13-18	6	3.2
19-24	5	2.7
>25	5	2.7

Table 5
Probationer Recidivism Data

<u>Documented Violations</u>	<u>Probation</u>		<u>Court</u>	
<u>Number of Incidents</u>	<u><i>n</i></u>	<u>%</u>	<u><i>n</i></u>	<u>%</u>
0	91	48.1	139	73.5
1	26	13.8	19	10.1
2	21	11.1	9	4.8
3	10	5.3	5	2.6
4	5	2.6	5	2.6
5	7	3.7	2	1.1
6-10	15	7.9	4	2.1
11-15	10	5.3	3	1.6
>16	4	2.0	3	1.5
<u>Frequency and Type of Violations</u>	<u>Probation</u>		<u>Court</u>	
	<u><i>n</i></u>		<u><i>n</i></u>	
None	91		139	
Curfew	31		16	
Positive Drug Screen	49		26	
School Absenteeism	39		11	
/Behavior				
Failure to Appear	14		3	
Non-compliance	15		8	
with treatment				
Non-compliance	26		10	
with home rules				
Failure to Pay Fines	8		3	
Failure to Comply	8		4	
with restitution				
Failure to fulfill with	7		1	
community service				
Other	6		4	
<u>Receipt of New Charges</u>	<u><i>n</i></u>		<u>%</u>	
No	158		84.9	
Yes	28		15.1	
<u>History of Previously Closed Supervisions</u>	<u><i>n</i></u>		<u>%</u>	
None	140		75.3	
1	37		19.9	
2	6		3.2	
3	3		1.6	

Table 6
Descriptive Statistics of the DRI-R, SROSS, and URICA

<u>Inventory</u>	<i>n</i>	range		<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
		<u>minimum</u>	<u>maximum</u>		
DRI-R	161	97	210	174.73	26.03
SROSS	23	2	5	3.69	.63
URICA	165	-.43	13	7.75	2.24

Table 7
Correlation between DRI-R and Recidivism

	<u>DRI-R</u>	<u>Probation Violations</u>	<u>Court Violations</u>	<u>New Charges</u>
DRI-R	--	-.20* ^a $r^2 = .04$	-.08 ^a $r^2 = .01$	-.17* ^b $r^2 = .03$
Probation Violations		--	.55** ^c $r^2 = .30$.35** ^d $r^2 = .12$
Court Violations			--	.46** ^d $r^2 = .21$
New Charges				--

Note.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. ^a $n = 160$. ^b $n = 157$. ^c $n = 189$. ^d $n = 186$.

Table 8
Correlation between URICA and Recidivism

	<u>URICA</u>	<u>Probation Violations</u>	<u>Court Violations</u>	<u>New Charges</u>
URICA	--	.16* ^a $r^2 = .03$.14 ^a $r^2 = .02$.01 ^b $r^2 = .00$
Probation Violations		--	.55** ^c $r^2 = .30$.35** ^d $r^2 = .12$
Court Violations			--	.46** ^d $r^2 = .21$
New Charges				--

Note.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. ^a $n = 164$. ^b $n = 161$. ^c $n = 189$. ^d $n = 186$.

Non-copyrighted Measures

Officer Demographic Survey

Date: _____

Officer Demographics

Age:

- 20-25 26-30 31-35 36-40 41-45 46-50
 51-55 56-60 61 or >

Ethnicity:

- American Indian or Alaskan Native Asian
 Black or African American Hispanic or Latino
 White or Caucasian Other: please specify _____

Level of Supervision Specialty:

- Line Officer Aftercare Officer Specialty Court Officer

Time with Department (years):

- < 1 year 1-2 years 3-4 years 5-10 years
 11-15 years 16-20 years 21-25 years 26-30 years
 31-35 years 36-40 years 41 years or >

College Major:

- | | | |
|---|--|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Criminal Justice | <input type="checkbox"/> Psychology | <input type="checkbox"/> Natural Sciences
Ex. Biology
Physics
Chemistry |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Social Sciences
Ex. Sociology
Anthropology | <input type="checkbox"/> Humanities
Ex. Philosophy
History | <input type="checkbox"/> Languages
Ex. English
Spanish |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Business
Ex. Accounting
Management | <input type="checkbox"/> Arts
Ex. Art History
Graphic Design
Fine Art | <input type="checkbox"/> Other: please specify _____ |

SROSS

Officer Attitudinal Scales

Please indicate the degree to which, from 1 to 6, your response most closely aligns with either the response on the left or the right.

Example:

1) As a probation officer, your primary obligation is to:

Rehabilitate the offender	1	2	3	4	5	6	Enforce supervisory conditions
---------------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	--------------------------------

A response of 5 here indicates the officer feels his/her primary obligation is more closely related to enforcing supervisory conditions, but includes an element of rehabilitation.

Date: _____

A) The Officer's Subjective Role Scale

1) As a probation officer, your primary obligation is to:

Rehabilitate the offender	1	2	3	4	5	6	Enforce supervisory conditions
---------------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	--------------------------------

2) Your primary concern as a probation officer is to:

Monitor offender compliance	1	2	3	4	5	6	Rehabilitate the offender
-----------------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---------------------------

3) Which best describes your role as a probation officer:

Police officer	1	2	3	4	5	6	Social worker
----------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---------------

4) Your most appropriate role with offenders is as:

Advocate	1	2	3	4	5	6	Supervisor
----------	---	---	---	---	---	---	------------

5) The most essential part of a probation officer's job is:

Counseling	1	2	3	4	5	6	Enforcing
------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	-----------

6) Your primary function as an officer is:

Enforcement	1	2	3	4	5	6	Intervention
-------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	--------------

7) Your function as a probation officer most closely approximates:

Law enforcement	1	2	3	4	5	6	Social work
-----------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	-------------

B) The Strategy Scale

1) The most important aspect of your job is:

Intervention	1	2	3	4	5	6	Surveillance
--------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	--------------

2) The most important part of your job is:

Monitoring	1	2	3	4	5	6	Counseling
------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	------------

3) The most effective way to change behavior is through:

Positive reinforcement	1	2	3	4	5	6	Punitive sanctions
------------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	--------------------

4) Case supervision should be designed to:

Regulate behavior	1	2	3	4	5	6	Change behavior
-------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	-----------------

Probationer Demographic Survey

Date: _____ **Probationer Demographics and Recidivism**

AGE of probationer:

___ 10-11 ___ 12-13 ___ 14-15 ___ 16-17 ___ 18-19

___ 20 ___ Other: please specify _____

ETHNICITY:

___ American Indian or Alaskan Native ___ Asian

___ Black or African American ___ Hispanic or Latino

___ White or Caucasian ___ Other: please specify _____

PSYCHOLOGICAL DIAGNOSES (if any) check all that apply: D/O = Disorder

___ Conduct D/O ___ Attention Deficit/Hyperactivity D/O

___ Depression ___ Anxiety

___ Bipolar D/O ___ Posttraumatic Stress D/O

___ Oppositional Defiant D/O ___ Disruptive Behavior D/O

___ Victim of Physical Abuse ___ Victim of Sexual Abuse

___ Offender of Sexual Abuse ___ Substance Diagnosis of any kind

___ Pervasive Developmental D/O ___ Parent-Child Relational Problems

___ Learning Disability ___ Mental Retardation

Other(s) please specify:

CURRENT CHARGES(s): check all that apply and indicate number of charges

___ Felony(s) (# ___) ___ Misdemeanor(s) (#___)

TYPE of CURRENT CHARGES(s): check all that apply

Violent Crime(s)

- Murder
- Rape
- Robbery
- Aggravated Assault

Property Crime(s)

- Burglary
- Larceny-Theft
- Motor Vehicle Theft
- Arson

Drug Offense(s)

DUI, Possession, Public Drunkenness, Liquor Offenses, PWI

Weapons Offense(s)

Other(s)

Simple Assault, Curfew, Loitering, Embezzlement, Forgery, Counterfeiting, Disorderly Conduct, Fraud, Gambling, Offenses against the family, Prostitution, Runaway, Stolen Property, Vandalism, Vagrancy, Etc

CURRENT LEVEL OF SUPERVISION:

Consent Decree Informal Formal Intensive Formal

Aftercare

IN PLACEMENT?

No Yes

LENGTH OF TIME (Months) under YOUR Supervision:

< 1 1-2 3-4 5-6 7-8 9-10

11-12 13-18 19-24 25 or >

TYPE and NUMBER OF *documented* VIOLATIONS handled by the probation department under YOUR Supervision: (please include number and date of incidents)

Curfew (#____) _____

Positive Drug Screen (#____) _____

School absenteeism/behavior (#____) _____

"No show" for appointments/court (#____) _____

Non-compliance with treatment (#____) _____

Non-compliance with home rules (#____) _____

___ Failure to pay fines (#___) _____

___ Failure to comply with restitution (#___) _____

___ Failure to fulfill community services hours (#___) _____

Other (please specify): _____
_____ (#___)

TYPE and NUMBER OF *documented* VIOLATIONS handled by the Court under *YOUR* Supervision: (please include number and date of incidents)

___ Curfew (#___) _____

___ Positive Drug Screen (#___) _____

___ School absenteeism/behavior (#___) _____

___ “No show” for appointments/court (#___) _____

___ Non-compliance with treatment (#___) _____

___ Non-compliance with home rules (#___) _____

___ Failure to pay fines (#___) _____

___ Failure to comply with restitution (#___) _____

___ Failure to fulfill community services hours (#___) _____

Other (please specify): _____
_____ (#___)

ANY *NEW* CHARGES under *YOUR* Supervision? And type and date please specify:

___ No _____ Yes _____

NUMBER OF PREVIOUS SUPERVISION(s) that were closed:

___ 0 ___ 1 ___ 2 ___ 3 ___ 4 or >

Were any measures read aloud to probationer?

No **or** Yes and if so why? _____

Was your visit with the probationer to address non-compliance?

No Yes

URICA

Date: _____

URICA

Please circle the number to the degree you agree/disagree with each statement.

1. As far as I'm concerned. I don't have any problem that needs changing.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecide	Agree	Strongly Agree

2. I think I might be ready for some self-improvement.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecide	Agree	Strongly Agree

3. I am doing something about the problems that have been bothering me.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecide	Agree	Strongly Agree

4. It might be worthwhile to work on my problem.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecide	Agree	Strongly Agree

5. I'm not the problem one. It doesn't make much sense for me to be here.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecide	Agree	Strongly Agree

6. It worries me that I might slip back on a problem I have already changed, so I am here to seek help.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecide	Agree	Strongly Agree

7. I am finally doing some work on my problem.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecide	Agree	Strongly Agree

8. I've been thinking that I might want to change something about myself.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecide	Agree	Strongly Agree

9. I have been successful in working on my problem, but I'm not sure I can keep up the effort on my own.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecide	Agree	Strongly Agree

10. At times my problem is difficult, but I'm working on it.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecide	Agree	Strongly Agree

11. Being here is pretty much a waste of time for me because the problem doesn't have to do with me.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecide	Agree	Strongly Agree

12. I'm hoping this place will help me better understand myself.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecide	Agree	Strongly Agree

13. I guess I have faults, but there's nothing I really need to change.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecide	Agree	Strongly Agree

14. I am really working hard to change.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecide	Agree	Strongly Agree

15. I have a problem and I really think I should work on it.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecide	Agree	Strongly Agree

16. I'm not following through with that I had already changed as well as I had hoped, and I'm here to prevent a relapse of the problem.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecide	Agree	Strongly Agree

17. Even though I'm not always successful in changing, I am at least working on my problem.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecide	Agree	Strongly Agree

18. I thought once I had resolved the problem I would be free of it, but sometimes I find myself struggling with it.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecide	Agree	Strongly Agree

19. I wish I had more ideas on how to solve my problem.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecide	Agree	Strongly Agree

20. I have started working on my problems, but I would like help.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecide	Agree	Strongly Agree

21. Maybe this place will be able to help me.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecide	Agree	Strongly Agree

22. I may need a boost right now to help me maintain the changes I've already made.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecide	Agree	Strongly Agree

23. I may be part of the problem, but I really don't think I am.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecide	Agree	Strongly Agree

24. I hope that someone here will have good advice for me.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecide	Agree	Strongly Agree

25. Anyone can talk about changing; I'm actually doing something about it.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecide	Agree	Strongly Agree

26. All this talk about *problems* is boring. Why can't people just forget about their problems?

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecide	Agree	Strongly Agree

27. I'm here to prevent myself from having a relapse of my problem.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecide	Agree	Strongly Agree

28. It is frustrating, but I feel I might be having a recurrence of a problem I thought I had resolved.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecide	Agree	Strongly Agree

29. I have worries but so does the next person. Why spend time thinking about them?

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecide	Agree	Strongly Agree

30. I am actively working on my problem.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecide	Agree	Strongly Agree

31. I would rather cope with my faults than try to change them.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecide	Agree	Strongly Agree

32. After all I had done to try and change my problem, every now and again it comes back to haunt me.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecide	Agree	Strongly Agree

Please indicate the “problem(s)” you were considering when responding

Ex. Using drugs or alcohol