Philadelphia
Intensive Aftercare
Probation Evaluation Project

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Henry Sontheimer
Principal Investigator
Juvenile Court Consultant
Pennsylvania Juvenile Court Judges' Commission

Lynne Goodstein
Research Consultant
Associate Professor
Administration of Justice
Penn State University

Michael Kovacevic
Research Assistant
Program Monitor
Center for Juvenile Justice Training & Research

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HIGHLIGHTS OF THE STUDY FINDINGS

Background

○ The Intensive Aftercare Probation Program of Philadelphia Family Court was evaluated using an experimental design. The sample consisted of 90 juveniles who were released from the Bensalem Youth Development Center between December 1988 and January 1990.

○ Intensive aftercare caseloads were limited to a maximum of 12 clients. Program standards mandated at least one face-to-face contact per month during the period of incarceration and at least three face-to-face contacts per week after release. Control group probation officers carried caseloads of approximately 90 clients and contacts were made at the probation officer’s discretion.

○ Juveniles in the study had on average 5.1 arrests, 2.7 convictions and 1.2 placements prior to their commitment to Bensalem. Subjects averaged 17 years of age at the time of their commitment to Bensalem and remained in placement for an average of 10.8 months.

○ The intensive aftercare program was successfully implemented by the court with strong support from the judiciary. The program went through three stages of development and may now be considered institutionalized in terms of norms, policies and practices.

Level of Service Delivered

○ Intensive aftercare probation officers had face-to-face contact with their clients about ten times as often as control group probation officers. Contacts with clients’ families and with other significant individuals followed the same pattern.

○ Juveniles assigned to intensive aftercare were more likely to leave residential placement with firm work and/or school plans in place than were juveniles assigned to the control group.

○ Once in the community, intensive aftercare clients were more cooperative with their probation officers and experienced fewer family- and school-related problems than control group clients.

Recidivism

○ Only 50 percent of the juveniles assigned to intensive aftercare were rearrested, compared to 64 percent of the control subjects. The seriousness of new offenses was comparable for both groups.

○ Juveniles assigned to the control group accounted for twice as many new arrests and six times as many convictions and incarcerations as juveniles assigned to intensive aftercare probation.

○ The success of the intensive aftercare program is attributed to effective risk management practiced by probation officers, who responded quickly and selectively to initial signs of “relapse.”
CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

The major purpose of the correctional branch of the juvenile justice system is to reduce the likelihood that juvenile offenders will continue to engage in criminal behavior once "treated" by the system. This is an especially pressing concern in the case of serious, high risk, juvenile offenders, who have a history of committing multiple offenses which would be considered felonies if they were adjudicated in the adult system.

Numerous types of institutional programs to reduce serious juvenile criminality have been attempted; they have focused on a plethora of concerns, including juveniles' needs for vocational training, education, control of chemical dependency, improvement in self-esteem, development of self-reliance through wilderness experiences, and the like. The effectiveness of these residential programs has been subject to scrutiny by researchers, who have, in general, found few differences among them in their abilities to reduce recidivism among juvenile releasees.

In recent years, juvenile justice practitioners and researchers have increasingly recognized the importance of the context within which the juvenile returns to the community as an important influence on his or her likelihood to return to crime. This stands to reason, as the impact of one's institutional experience on one's post-release behavior is certain to be less salient that the impact of one's immediate environmental context. Whether a juvenile releasee is enrolled in school or not, has a job or not, is relating well to family or not, is involved in illicit substances or not--these are the
factors which may be most critical in determining whether that individual will be motivated to reengage in criminal activity.

One of the most direct means by which the juvenile justice system can influence the post-release environment of juveniles released from placement is through aftercare supervision by local juvenile probation departments. Probation officers are in an excellent position to encourage juveniles to remain in school or work, to counsel them and their families, and to make referrals to other agencies for needed services. However, with caseloads of up to 100 probationers each, little of substance can be expected to occur between the regular probation officer and his or her released client.

There is greater promise in the notion of intensive probation, in which a probation officer is assigned a small number of cases and is expected to deliver specified services on a frequent basis to the releasee and his or her family. If the probation officer has adequate time both to establish a personal relationship with the releasee and to monitor his or her behavior, the juvenile's chances of remaining crime-free may increase.

Intensive probation was initially conceptualized as an alternative to institutionalization and was primarily used with adult populations in its early stages. More recently, the concept has been applied to juvenile offender populations, with promising results. Moreover, it has been extended from a modality intended as an alternative to imprisonment to one which operates in conjunction with institutional placement. Specifically, offenders assigned to intensive aftercare probation (IAP) are released from institutional placement to probation supervision which involves intensive pre-release planning, probation officer involvement with the offender's family and
significant others, and increased contacts with the offender compared to so-called "regular" probation. This modality has been found to provide significant protection to the public while providing offenders with opportunities to remain in the community.

One such program was developed by the Juvenile Probation Department of the Family Court of Philadelphia in conjunction with a 1988 proposal by the Juvenile Court Judges' Commission of Pennsylvania for the establishment of intensive aftercare programs in selected counties. Funding for this effort brought with it the opportunity for the present investigators to develop a research design which would allow for powerful tests of the effectiveness of the pilot program. Thus, simultaneously with the implementation of the intensive aftercare program, an evaluation study was undertaken. This document reviews the development, implementation and evaluation of the intensive aftercare program for serious, habitual or violent male juvenile offenders in Philadelphia who are committed to the Youth Development Center at Bensalem.

The Development of the Pilot Program

In 1987 the Juvenile Court Judges' Commission of Pennsylvania submitted a proposal for an Intensive Aftercare pilot program to be implemented in the counties of Allegheny and Philadelphia. Numerous counties in the state had encountered considerable success with aftercare programs in preceding years, and these programs were thought to be effective in maintaining recidivism rates at levels lower than would otherwise be expected. While the designs of the evaluations of these programs did not allow for conclusive tests, for example for comparisons of similarly situated offenders exposed and not exposed to
the programs, their results were compelling enough to stimulate interest in disseminating the programs to counties which did not yet have them. Personnel at the Juvenile Court Judges’ Commission who were instrumental in the development of the funding proposal anticipated substantial cost savings through such a pilot program. The anticipated savings were to come primarily from projected reductions in recidivism, thereby reducing costs to counties for reincarcerating offenders who had participated in the program. In addition, savings were expected because offenders targeted for the program while in placement were anticipated to have somewhat shortened institutional stays.

In conceptualizing this pilot program, attention was focused upon the segment of the juvenile offender population which was most serious, habitual, and violent, including youths who had been adjudicated for robbery, multiple burglaries, forcible sexual offenses, and aggravated assault. While these youths are likely to experience time in institutional placement, it was felt that “current aftercare programs are not adequately servicing this class of offender” (Anderson, 1987). Targeting this type of offender was also justified by the results of an earlier study sponsored by the Juvenile Court Judges’ Commission (Goodstein and Sontheimer, 1987), which concluded that various types of institutional placement could not be differentiated from one another with respect to their effectiveness in reducing recidivism among serious juvenile offenders. The authors of this study suggested that emphasis be placed on impacting on juvenile offenders at the point as close to their opportunity for reoffending as possible, i.e. during the aftercare period.

In 1988 the Commonwealth awarded the Juvenile Court Judges’ Commission $250,000 to implement the pilot Intensive Aftercare program
in Philadelphia and Allegheny Counties. Commission analyses of 1986 data indicated that Philadelphia and Allegheny counties had disposed of 523 and 133 juvenile offenders, respectively, who would be classified as habitually serious and violent (Anderson, 1987). The quantity of potential service recipients in each of these counties significantly superseded any other county in Pennsylvania by multiples of at least three.

The funds were to be used for the establishment of new Intensive Aftercare units in each county and for the hiring of a total of eight new probation officers (five in Philadelphia, three in Allegheny) to staff the units. Start-up work began on the program on which this evaluation is based, the Philadelphia Intensive Aftercare Unit, in the fall of 1988 and the full complement of probation officers was operational by February, 1989.

The Mission and Objectives of the Intensive Aftercare Program

Relatively little documentation exists concerning the mission, objectives and treatment philosophy of the IAP. When the Juvenile Court Judges' Commission (JCJC) contracted with Philadelphia County to administer the program, it presented the Probation Office with guidelines relating to the types of juveniles eligible for services (revised in January, 1989) and the operational responsibilities of the IAP probation officers in delivering these services (Guidelines Governing Philadelphia County Intensive Aftercare, 1988). This is the only document which defines the nature of the pilot program.

Initially, the criteria for admission to the Intensive Aftercare Program were operationalized to be consistent with the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention's conceptualization of
serious habitual and violent juvenile offenders (JCJC Quarterly Meeting minutes, 1988). These criteria required that for admission to the program, juveniles must have offense histories which match one of the following categories:

1. Three prior adjudications for any of the following offenses: aggravated assault, arson, burglary, involuntary deviate sexual intercourse, rape, or robbery.

2. One adjudication for aggravated assault, arson, burglary, involuntary deviate sexual intercourse, rape or robbery and five pending charges for any of the aforementioned offenses.

3. One prior adjudication for the sale of narcotics and a pending charge for the sale of narcotics.

Upon attempting to identify juveniles for admission to the IAP, it became clear that there would not be an adequate supply of offenders who conformed to the above mentioned criteria to fill the caseloads of the five probation officers who were to be hired to work in the program. This was not to imply that juvenile offenders in Philadelphia were less criminally active than originally assumed by the JCJC. On the contrary, it appeared that the Philadelphia County juvenile courts suffered from such extreme overloads that severe backlogs were standard. Since it apparently was common for arrests never to reach the disposition stage, many offenders who had been arrested multiple times for serious offenses may not ever have received dispositions for these arrests.

To compensate for this problem, alterations in the criteria were made, reducing the seriousness of the criminal history necessary for
program eligibility. The final criteria employed by the Philadelphia County IAP required conformity to one of the following:

1. Adjudicated delinquent for one of the following acts: aggravated assault, rape, involuntary deviate sexual intercourse, arson, or robbery; or adjudicated delinquent for burglary with one prior adjudication for any of the aforementioned offenses.

2. Adjudicated delinquent for a felony level narcotics offense.

While the revised criteria appear to allow a much less criminally experienced offender into the program, study findings to be discussed later in this report confirm that the vast majority of the offenders accepted in the IAP had extensive records of arrests for offenses which would have been considered violent felonies had they been committed by adults.

Few guidelines were provided to probation officers with respect to the philosophy or mission of the program. The program was not defined, for example, as emphasizing a social control or rehabilitative perspective. No effort was expended to articulate whether the emphasis of the program would be on enhancing family ties and prosocial relationships, facilitating educational or vocational growth, increasing probationers' perceptions of accountability through surveillance, or on some other combination of principles assumed to reduce criminality. Rather, the designers of the IAP guidelines provided probation officers with specific behavioral objectives which they were expected to meet in the course of supervising their specified number of probationers. What follows are the major elements of the program with respect to the nature of service delivery.
1. **Caseload Size.** IAP officers are restricted to a caseload size of no more than twelve offenders. Compared to the "regular" aftercare caseload size for Philadelphia County of between 70 to 120 cases per officer, this guideline obviously provides opportunities to IAP officers to practice a significantly different style of probation supervision.

2. **Institutional Supervision.** IAP officers are expected to assume supervision of probationers immediately following disposition, at entry to placement. They are expected to prepare a written plan for treatment for presentation at the facility's initial treatment planning staffing, to be completed no more than thirty days after the placement decision is made. While the juvenile is in placement, the IAP officer is required to make monthly visits to: (1) the juvenile and appropriate program staff at the placement facility; and (2) the parent(s)/guardians. During this time the IAP officer is expected to work with the juvenile and his family to initiate and implement aftercare planning. The officer is also expected to insure that the placement facility "provides a written treatment plan within forty-five days after the juvenile enters placement and written monthly or quarterly progress reports thereafter".

3. **Aftercare Planning.** The IAP officer is expected to develop a written post-release plan prior to the juvenile's release from placement.

4. **Post-Release Supervision.** The frequency of the IAP officer's contacts with the juvenile and significant others increases significantly after the juvenile is released from placement. For the first six weeks, guidelines require that
the IAP officer make at least three face-to-face contacts per week with the juvenile. Satisfactory adjustment may result in a reduction of face-to-face contacts to two per week after six weeks and one per week after twelve weeks.

In addition to contacts with the juvenile, the IAP officer must maintain contact with the juvenile's parents or guardians at least once per week throughout the course of supervision. One collateral contact, with school authorities, employer, or other significant others, must be made at least once every other week throughout the course of supervision.

IAP officers must make a minimum of thirty percent of their contacts with their juveniles on post-placement supervision during so-called "non-traditional" hours, worked "outside normal probation office hours."

Probation officers assigned to the IAP unit were given these guidelines to follow in implementing this new program. By their nature, the guidelines facilitated certain types of work which "regular" aftercare probation officers in Philadelphia County were unable, or unwilling, to perform. In addition, over time, certain norms developed among IAP officers which guided the nature of the services they delivered. Finally, the leadership of certain key actors, most notably one of the Juvenile Court judges in Philadelphia County who developed a particular interest in the Intensive Aftercare Program, and a program supervisor who was to assume the position after the program was launched, has significantly shaped the IAP's philosophy and direction. In the following chapter we describe the development of the Intensive Aftercare Program in Philadelphia, focusing upon the evolution of its philosophy, the impact of various personnel changes
on the program, and changes over time in the strategies employed by
the IAP officers.

ENDNOTES

(1) The Juvenile Court Judges' Commission compiles annual data on the
proportion of clients readjudicated as juveniles or reconvicted as
adults for all intensive probation and aftercare probation programs in
Pennsylvania. According to figures supplied by the JCJC, the
recidivism rates for intensive probation during the period 1985-1989
ranged from 7.3 to 9.7 percent. The recidivism rates for aftercare
probation during the same period ranged from 12.3 to 19.5 percent.
The figures are based on follow-up periods of approximately one year.
CHAPTER 2

CONTEXTUAL EFFECTS SURROUNDING THE IMPLEMENTATION
OF THE INTENSIVE AFTERCARE PROGRAM

Introduction

In evaluation studies involving classic experimental research designs, the ideal model demands that researchers retain complete control over the implementation of the treatment, or program, being evaluated. In the most ideal world of the evaluation researcher, there would be no persons who were supposed to receive the program but who, for one reason or another, did not; the program would be delivered exactly as it had been designed; there would be no changes in methods of program delivery over the course of the study. While these objectives may provide for the optimal research study, they are rarely if ever met in practice. Evaluation researchers are generally confronted with several obstacles in the implementation of the program to be studied, as well as in the progression of the research itself, which fall short of the classical experimental model.

What is important in presenting the findings of an evaluation research study is to acknowledge the context in which the program being evaluated was implemented. This is the objective of Chapter 2. We will review the process of implementation of the Intensive Aftercare Program over the course of its first seventeen months of existence, highlighting some of the issues which we view as central to understanding the impact of the program. We will review changes in the nature of service delivery and the type of leadership provided by the Juvenile Court and program supervisors over time. In addition, we will examine changes in the cultures of both the probationers and the
program staff over time, commenting on the process of perceptual changes among both groups concerning the philosophy and practice of the IAP. Over time, both groups appeared to view the IAP as more and more distinct from conventional probation; after 16 months it has begun to acquire a unique identity.

This chapter is important to the evaluation process for two reasons. First, a careful description of how the program was implemented will be of assistance to a number of actors. Those who funded the program are concerned about whether it was implemented as intended; those who may wish to replicate the program in another jurisdiction desire to be aware of the possible pitfalls that they may then attempt to avoid; those who became more recently involved in the program may benefit from an historical overview. Second, the findings from the quantitative portion of the study may be more comprehensible from the perspective of a thorough grounding in the implementation process. Put another way, the changes which may have occurred within the process of delivery of the program over time may influence the study’s results. Without knowledge of how the program was implemented over time, one’s conclusions concerning the impact of the program may be at least biased and at most inaccurate.

**Data Sources**

Information for this chapter was obtained from a number of individuals. The principal investigator met several times with each of the two persons who have functioned as IAP supervisors over the course of the project. The research assistant responsible for collecting the various types of quantitative data included in the study design met with most of the IAP probation officers from time to time and, more
occasionally, with the project supervisors as well. The study consultant met with all IAP probation officers and the program supervisor in May of 1990 for personal interviews. The Philadelphia Juvenile Court judge who demonstrated the greatest interest and commitment to the program, Judge Abram Frank Reynolds, has been interviewed and consulted on several occasions by the principal investigator.

**Program Overview**

The time period being discussed in this chapter spans seventeen months, from January 1989 through May 1990, the first 17 months of the program's existence. For the evaluation study, the ability to initiate the research simultaneously with the initiation of the program itself provided significant benefits in increased researcher control over case assignment to treatment groups and in establishing norms for study data completion among the newly assigned IAP probation officers. On the other hand, this timing resulted in the fact that there were probably more transitions in the program during this first year and one half than would be expected in subsequent time periods of equal duration.

The JCJC guidelines specified the number of contacts required by IAP probation officers; however they did not specifically describe how those contacts were to be scheduled. More importantly, the guidelines provided little direction with regard to the overall philosophy of the program, other than to mandate increased contacts. Thus, probation officers, the program supervisor, and to an extent, participating Juvenile Court judges were faced with the challenge of developing norms for the program and influencing the perceptions of others that the IAP was something different than probation-as-usual.
The first 17 months of the IAP program can be conceptualized as having progressed through three stages, (1) start-up; (2) transition; and (3) institutionalization. In the following sections we will discuss these stages, with an eye to highlighting what we view are the critical issues in the development and articulation of the program over time. These issues relate to three areas: (1) leadership; (2) staffing and service delivery; and (3) client perceptions of the program, and in each section we will discuss these three areas as they reflect how the IAP was being implemented and operationalized.

The Start-Up Phase

The start-up phase lasted approximately six months, from January 1989 through June 1989. In addition, planning for the establishment of the unit and for the evaluation study commenced in November 1988 and continued through December 1988.

Leadership

The start-up phase can be characterized by the leadership of two individuals, Probation Supervisor Brian Coen and Judge Abram Frank Reynolds. In the Fall of 1988 when the program was being conceptualized by the Juvenile Court Judges’ Commission, Judge Reynolds was asked by the President Judge to take authority for the impending IAP. This program was viewed as providing the Philadelphia Probation Department with the opportunity to deal with some of its most serious cases in a more responsible and accountable manner than it was in a position to with its standard probationers. With standard caseloads of over 100, aftercare probation officers in the Community Related Institutional Probation (CRIP) unit had little opportunity to meet
with their aftercare probationers after their release from placement. The prospect of maintaining caseloads of 12, and mandating at least 3 face to face meetings per week between probation officer and probationer provided those involved in setting program philosophy with a chance to design a program which would have a real impact on the lives of the probationers.

Judge Reynolds was originally given authority over the program. He is known to be a charismatic individual who embodies a combination of toughness and caring in his dealings with probationers and probation officers. From the pre-implementation period in Fall of 1988, Judge Reynolds apparently had specific notions concerning the philosophy and mission of the program. He communicated these views to the evaluation researchers and the probation officers assigned to the IAP prior to its start-up in January, 1989.

Judge Reynolds also demonstrated his authority over the IAP program by giving permission to the evaluation research team to implement a study which would involve random assignment to groups. This technique, essential to a strong evaluation design, was to require considerable cooperation from all those involved in service delivery. The court was involved in assigning juveniles to IAP or regular probation, using lists prepared by the research team which had randomly assigned eligible juveniles either to receive the treatment or not. During the start-up phase, these lists were comprised of juveniles who were already confined to the Bensalem facility and who met the revised criteria for inclusion in the program. In later stages of the study, eligible cases were identified at commitment to Bensalem and were then assigned to either experimental or control.
Judge Reynolds' philosophy concerning the IAP involved an integration of two concepts which are generally considered to be independent and to some extent mutually exclusive: (1) counseling and supportive services and (2) surveillance and accountability. On the one hand, he appeared to view the IAP as a mechanism for insuring coercive control over its charges. Before the program was even implemented he indicated to the evaluation researchers and the probation officers identified for participation in the program that he viewed the probation officers' role as one of monitoring and surveillance. He also emphasized his willingness to deal sternly with intensive aftercare probationers who, in the probation officer's view, were not fulfilling the requirements of their probations. Specifically, he emphasized the importance of revoking the probations of non-cooperative probationers and returning them to placement. This strategy was a novel one for this jurisdiction, where most aftercare probationers were not followed closely enough for probationer officers to determine whether they were or were not fulfilling the obligations of probation.

On the other hand, Judge Reynolds emphasized the importance of the development of a personal relationship between probationer and officer. Moreover, he viewed the court as a third element in a triangle of relationships—among the probationer, probation officer and the court—which theoretically would provide the probationer with a sense that others were concerned with his behavior and would attempt to assist him in his efforts for self improvement. Later characterizing these relationships as "personal, hands on, and regular," Judge Reynolds emphasized the importance of a close relationship between the juvenile and probation officer in which the officer would be involved in the life of the probationer on a regular basis. He acknowledged
that juveniles on probation, even those habitual and serious offenders who were targeted for this program, were not beyond help; they simply had not received much but were likely to respond to it if offered.

Whereas in many contexts the function of monitoring and surveillance would be incompatible with an emphasis on relationship building, in Judge Reynolds' vision these elements complemented each other. He maintained that through the development of a close relationship and frequent interactions between probation officer and probationer, the probation officer would be in a better position to maintain higher expectations for the juvenile's conduct than was normally the case. Indeed, with the requirement that the officer maintain several contacts with the juvenile per week, the probation officer would be in the position to specify his or her expectations for the juvenile and to follow up in determining whether the expectations had been met.

Judge Reynolds also specified an active role of the court in the Intensive Aftercare Project. It was his opinion that for this program to work successfully, the court had to be not only involved on a regular basis with the welfare of the probationers but also be prepared to respond appropriately at the first signs that probationers were becoming uncooperative.

He also viewed the court as operating to influence the relationship of the probationer and officer. By constructing the situation as one in which the probation officer was accountable to the court for the mandated number of weekly contacts, the probationer may be less likely to view the probation officer as personally imposing undesirable restrictions. Rather, the probationer may view that he and his officer are "in this together" and may not perceive the officer's role as embodying such an extreme coercive onus.
Staffing and Service Delivery

The program was launched with the leadership of Supervisor Brian Coen, a veteran probation administrator who had been asked to head up the unit in the Fall of 1988. After being promoted to this position Mr. Coen proceeded to recruit five seasoned probation officers into the program; all became functioning members of the program in January, 1989. The experienced officers hired to participate in the program were enthusiastic about the prospect of doing, to use the words of one of the officers, "real probation work," rather than the distant supervision they were able to accomplish in "regular" probation.

As the IAP guidelines specified that probationers be supervised initially while they were in placement, during the initial months the majority of the juveniles in the IAP caseloads remained in placement and were supervised there. In addition, there were a handful of probationers who had been included on the initial lists of eligibles who were released from placement early on and received little to no pre-release IAP supervision.

While the newly assigned IAP officers had been briefed by Judge Reynolds on his views of the mission and philosophy of the new program, the probation officers received no other formal orientation to the overarching goals and objectives of the IAP. Other than the JCJC guidelines, officers were provided with no written documentation concerning the program's mission or objectives. Hence, during the early months of the start-up period, they appeared to offer a particular brand of probation supervision which merged conventional concepts with the IAP opportunities for greater contact.
During the start-up period, the emphasis on conforming to the JCJC quotas for contacts appeared to be high. In some sense, officers' ability to meet these quotas was increased due to the large numbers of experimental cases who had not yet been released from placement. Therefore, IAP officers could cover their caseloads quite easily by making two or three visits per week to the Bensalem facility.

One of the byproducts of this situation during the start-up period, however, was that the IAP probation officers were not pressed to develop innovative strategies for supervision, nor did they need to spend much time working "irregular hours," such as nights and weekends. They apparently functioned much like conventional probation officers, often starting their working days in the central office to complete paperwork, leaving later in the day to make visits to the placement facility, and completing their work by the end of the normal working day. This schedule may have been compatible with the supervision of confined juveniles, but it showed itself to be less than optimal in providing intensive supervision to juveniles on the street.

Another byproduct of the early emphasis on supervising confined cases was the fact that probation officers did not have adequate opportunities to develop strategies to deal with non-cooperative probationers after their release. The traditional mechanism for handling probationers who did not appear for appointments, disregarded requirements for school or counseling participation, and the like was to issue a bench warrant. Bench warrants served the function of sanctioning a non-cooperative youth without requiring the probation officer to make personal contact in order to do so. The bench warrant indicated that the juvenile could be taken back into custody for violation of
conditions of probation when that juvenile was located by appropriate authorities. Realistically, however, bench warrants rarely resulted in the apprehension of juveniles, as Philadelphia police and probation officers had little time to devote to tracking youths who were not suspected of criminal offenses. Therefore, from the perspective of the juvenile, the issuing of a bench warrant meant very little.

With the new resources of time available to the probation officers of the Intensive Aftercare Program, it might be expected that they would respond to non-cooperation among probationers in different ways than would be the case in "regular" probation caseloads. Theoretically the probation officer had the time to energetically intervene with a youth who was showing signs of "relapse." Rather than simply issue a bench warrant, an IAP officer would have the flexibility to attempt to reestablish contact with the youth directly or at least to contact significant others in the youth's life.

With the relatively few cases "on the street" during the start-up period, the IAP officers were not faced with the necessity of developing creative responses to serious non-cooperation. However, during the subsequent period of the transition phase, two patterns of supervision which had been established during the start-up phase impacted upon the types of responses the IAP officer made when their cases began to manifest difficulties in the community. Their continuation of the more conventional probation methods, such as keeping regular hours, coupled with their concern for conformity to the JCJC guidelines in making their quota of contacts per week, together operated to create a situation during the transition period which led to some difficulties for the IAP which will be discussed in the next section.
Client Perceptions of the IAP

During the first few months of program operations, most IAP probationers did not appear to perceive intensive aftercare as distinguishable from regular probation, except with respect to the amount of attention they received from their probation officers. Continuing to reside at Bensalem, the experimental probationers were provided with intensive services only through more frequent visits by their officers. Indeed, during this time some resentment surfaced among the control juveniles, who noted that others in the same institution, in relatively the same situation as they, received appreciably more attention.

An objective that was difficult to meet during this first phase was the realization of Judge Reynolds' notion of accountability for all IAP probationers. Since few probationers were in positions to exhibit "relapse," the probation officers and the court could not demonstrate the "new" consequences for non-cooperation. Therefore, for this reason as well, during this phase most probationers apparently viewed the IAP as regular probation, only more of it.

The Transition Phase

Leadership

The second phase was brief in duration, lasting for the months of July and August 1989. Nevertheless, so many significant changes occurred within the IAP that this period of time must be singled out for special attention. With respect to the leadership of the program, two critical developments occurred within weeks of each other. First, for reasons apparently unrelated to the IAP, the duties of Judge
Reynolds were reassigned and he gave up exclusive authority over the IAP program. The result of this development was that other judges, who may not have had the same vision of the mission of the IAP, began to hear IAP cases.

**Staffing and Service Delivery**

The second development which impacted on the IAP concerned staffing, both of the supervisory position and of the positions of IAP probation officers themselves. During the transition phase, there were profound upheavals in staffing, first through the reassignment of Supervisor Brian Coen to another unit, and then through what ultimately resulted in a 100 percent turnover of IAP staff.

In July of 1989 Brian Coen left the IAP to take over the supervision of the Habitual Offender Aftercare Unit, a new program also targeted at serious juvenile offenders. He asked two of the original IAP probation officers to accompany him to this unit. Coupled with one original IAP officer who had departed earlier to assume a supervisory position in a different unit, this depleted the original IAP staff by 50 percent. Another probation officer took an extended medical leave in response to several serious injuries incurred in the line of duty and then in August the remaining two original officers left the program.

For much of the transition period there was a leadership vacuum, which continued until Thomas Quinn, one of the original IAP officers who had left earlier to assume the supervisory position, returned to assume leadership of the program in early September, 1989. During July and August there was no formal supervisor and, while
substitutions were made to replace the departed original staff members, the effectiveness of the IAP staff suffered.

By this time, most of the juveniles originally assigned to the IAP had been released from the Bensalem facility and were receiving services in the community. Thus the number of juveniles who required community supervision increased dramatically while the numbers of probation officers available to provide services diminished at least temporarily. Despite the depleted staff, there was an effort to continue to supervise the cases through covering others' caseloads when possible.

With the withdrawal of both Judge Reynolds and Brian Coen from the program, there was no person remaining in a leadership position who could provide inspiration and information concerning the program's unique mission or philosophy. The involvement of a number of judges, each of whom had different views on the probation process, may have further diffused the sense of the program as a unique entity. What the remaining probation officers had to fall back upon were the supervisory methods that had been used for the few start-up months and their prior knowledge of probation practice. However, the situation they were beginning to be faced with, as the larger number of cases required community supervision, was rather different from the early months of the IAP.

To obtain a perspective on the IAP program during the transition phase, it is useful to consider three factors: (1) the norms of supervision which had developed during the start-up phase, (2) the new demands for probation officer response created by increased numbers of juveniles in the community coupled with a depleted probation staff,
and (3) the absence of a force in the court which could provide grounding on the program's mission and philosophy.

The norms of supervision which had been adopted during the early months of the program involved the continuation of conventional probation practices, primarily during normal working hours. In addition, probation officers continued to be committed to the JCJC quotas defining required probation officer contacts.

The prospect of fulfilling the demands for contacts which the transition phase probation officers had set for themselves during this period was not favorable, however. In addition to the depleted staff, resulting in additional work for each officer, some of the juveniles in the community were beginning to demonstrate signs of "relapse." When probationers began showing signs of non-cooperation, the probation officers could have responded with aggressive attempts to "rescue" the juveniles in an attempt to avert criminal activity while retaining them in the IAP. This would have been an approach that Judge Reynolds would have vigorously endorsed; however, he was functionally removed from providing leadership on the issue at this time.

Instead, the probation officers fell back on their conventional values. Apparently concerned that they would not be able to meet their quotas for personal contacts, they proceeded with the filing of bench warrants when juveniles manifested signs of non-cooperation, such as missing appointments. This process was facilitated by the fact that during this time period cases would be handled by a number of Juvenile Court judges, many of whom were not knowledgeable about the alternatives to filing bench warrants. Therefore, if an uncooperative youth did not appear for a hearing with a judge, a bench
warrant would have been issued after 30 to 60 days had passed during which time attempts were made to contact the youth.) This strategy had the "benefit" for them of removing unsuccessful cases from their caseloads. Indeed, this was a major benefit for those who knew they would be leaving the IAP to take other assignments. Nevertheless, this strategy had a major adverse impact on the IAP.

There were two immediate negative outcomes of the filing of bench warrants. First, the youths who had been uncooperative and on whom bench warrants were filed were probably aware that it was unlikely that once they were dropped from the IAP caseload, they would ever be apprehended. Hence, in a sense, filing bench warrants on IAP juveniles sent the opposite message than was intended; from their perspective, these youths had essentially "beat the system."

Secondly, the dropping of youths from IAP caseloads involved a waste of resources. It should be remembered that each of the IAP youths had received extensive attention both while in placement and after release. In dropping cases who had not behaved in ways which would have required commitment and who may have been receptive to more proactive intervention, the IAP officers may have given up too soon. Consequently, the effort that had previously been devoted to the youths who received bench warrants was not capitalized upon.

The Institutionalization Phase

Leadership

Fortunately for the IAP, the transition period was relatively short-lived. By the beginning of September a new person had been
brought on board as Program Supervisor. Thomas Quinn was probably uniquely qualified for the position, having been one of the original probation officers in the program and having worked as a supervisor to "regular" probation officers in the intervening period between leaving and returning to the IAP. Moreover, Judge Reynolds again established a visible role for himself in the program, agreeing to reassume his position as the sole Juvenile Court judge to review all IAP cases and to take responsibility for working closely with IAP officers.

When Judge Reynolds and Tom Quinn began their work during the transition phase, they were both faced with a program which had been strongly launched, but which had faltered to a point where there were major problems which demanded strong leadership and clear vision. In his own way, each of these individuals succeeded in making certain changes which ultimately brought the program back on keel.

Judge Reynolds continued to develop and disseminate his vision of the importance of the tripartite relationship among the court, the probation officer and the probationer. In working both with the IAP officers and with their caseloads, he has continued to put in place a supervisory model which recognizes the complementarity of officers' roles as both "helper" and "enforcer." During the early months of his redefined relationship with the IAP, Judge Reynolds began attempting to counteract the tendency to give up on IAP youths through filing bench warrants. In meetings and hearings with probation officers he emphasized the distinct mission of the IAP as one which was concerned with proactive intervention. He urged officers to follow through with their charges, even after the youths began to demonstrate signs of "relapsing." He encouraged officers to take creative steps with uncooperative youths. He attempted to mitigate against the officers'
preoccupation with the JCJC "quota" by emphasizing the importance of continuing their relationships with their charges until all avenues had been exhausted.

With the youths themselves, Judge Reynolds apparently perceived that the IAP probationers were not sufficiently aware of the consequences of misbehavior. As he had stated during his original involvement with the program, he emphasized the importance of accountability of each probationer to his officer and to the court. He made it clear to youths whenever he had the opportunity that the consequence of failing to conform to the IAP program would be removal from the community to a residential placement. This reinforcement contingency was aversive—the outcome of returning to confinement was much "worse" than remaining under intensive probation. Judge Reynold's decision to emphasize this aspect of the program was a crucial one, because the earlier strategy of filing bench warrants for uncooperative youths resulted in very different reinforcement contingency. Youths for whom bench warrants were filed received what could be viewed as a desirable outcome for misbehavior—they were dropped from the program; they were no longer "bugged" by a persistent probation officer, and their chances of being apprehended by the officials who attempted to track down bench warrant cases were nil.

One mechanism which Judge Reynolds used to impress the importance of cooperation to the IAP probationers was a "mass sidebar" which was held soon after he returned to his high level of involvement with the IAP program. He arranged a meeting of as many probationers and officers as possible in his chambers and instructed them of the sincerity of his intentions to return all non-cooperative youths to placement. Following this warning, he did indeed return several
youths for noncompliance to the rules of probation, underscoring his credibility.

Tom Quinn also brought some new ideas to bear on the IAP officers. Overall, his message was to question some of the conventional assumptions about probation work. He recognized that even though the IAP officers had the dramatically reduced caseloads, they had assumed many of the perspectives of conventional officers. He encouraged the IAP officers to spend more time in the field, especially during unconventional hours. He stressed that the morning hours could be the most effective times for making contacts with their caseloads in the community. He recommended that rather than beginning their work day in the central office, as had been the custom, the IAP officers begin their days making visits to their charges and other relevant individuals in the community.

In addition, Mr. Quinn set to the task of rebuilding the cadre of IAP probation officers. During September new officers were hired to replace those who had left the program. Fortunately, this group of officers proved to have greater staying power than the original group; at the time of this writing there has been no officer turnover since the final replacement officers were hired in September 1989. In addition, Mr. Quinn has worked to increase the esprit de corps among the IAP probation officers. One specific mechanism which he has used to deal with this issue has been to obtain space in the central office for the program which is independent of other probation functions. In the Spring of 1990 the desks of the IAP officers were moved out of the CRIP unit and into a separate part of the Family Court building. Mr. Quinn and several of the IAP officers have commented to the investigators that this move has helped to further the sense of
identity of the IAP as separate and distinct from other probation units.

**Staffing and Service Delivery**

During the institutionalization phase, the staff of the IAP have apparently succeeded in building a program which is distinctive from "regular" probation supervision. With the help of Thomas Quinn's insistence that the IAP receive its own space, and through sharing information on one another's cases on a regular basis, a sense of camaraderie and collegiality appears to have been built up among the IAP officers. This sense of identity has certainly also been facilitated by the fact that all IAP officers have, at the time of this writing, been working in the unit for at least 12 months.

During this phase the IAP officers appear to have attempted to operationalize probation supervision in a manner which is more consistent with the spirit of the concept of intensive aftercare than might have been the case early on. They appear to be very conscious of the fact that with such a reduced caseload, they are in a position to perform casework which is proactive as well as reactive in nature. In addition, they appear to understand the potential value in the development and nurturing of correlative contacts with significant others in the lives of their probationers. The result of these emphases on new forms of casework appears to be that officers are in positions to intervene appropriately when IAP cases are beginning to show signs of having difficulties, and in some cases at least, the slide into "relapse" appears to have been averted.

A case in point is one involving a probationer who, after being relatively responsible to his officer for the early period of release,
started failing to keep appointments, moved from his official residence, and in all ways made it impossible for the IAP officer to maintain the mandated number of contacts. Instead of simply filing a bench warrant, as may have been the case in earlier phases, the officer continued to maintain contact with the youth’s family members and ultimately was able to reestablish contact with the youth. In this case the probation officer was able to bring the youth back into a constructive relationship before the youth had penetrated too far into a criminal lifestyle.

In addition to subtle changes in the overall supervisory style of the IAP officers, a procedural change in the process of filing bench warrants has also been implemented. During this phase the decision was made to require one additional meeting between the youth and his supervisor prior to scheduling a hearing with the court which would lead to the filing of a bench warrant. This decision provides an additional opportunity for IAP officers to perform "relapse prevention" on youths prior to their being lost to the program.

Client Perceptions of the IAP

Unfortunately, we have no data from the youths participating in the IAP program to gauge changes in their perceptions of the program over time. However, we suspect that due to the measures taken by Judge Reynolds, Thomas Quinn and especially by the officers themselves, the youths perceive the program differently than they did during the IAP program’s early months. There has been evidence that the officers and the court do "mean business" when it comes to non-cooperation. While large numbers of probationers have not been sent back to placement for probation violations, the fact that several have
been returned appears to have impressed upon the youths the importance of their being responsive to their officers. Complementing this emphasis on accountability is the increased emphasis on relationship development among the officers. It is probably safe to assume that the IAP youths recognize this programmatic focus.

Summary and Conclusions

After approximately one and one half years of operation, it appears that the IAP has developed its own sense of mission, its own philosophy, and its own methods for providing probation supervision which distinguish the program from "regular" probation. It endured some difficult times, great transition stresses, and a certain degree of lack of direction during its early months.

The IAP program officers have begun to develop supervision styles and methods which capitalize upon the benefit of such small caseloads. Consequently, they have become skilled in performing the complementary functions of service delivery and surveillance/monitoring. Problems with the extensive use of bench warrants, which had reduced the IAP program's efficiency and effectiveness, apparently have been solved. Assuming that no major upheavals in leadership or funding occur, it appears that the program will be poised to continue building strength and expertise in the supervision of a challenging clientele.
CHAPTER 3
THE EVALUATION STUDY:
BACKGROUND, RESEARCH DESIGN AND STUDY SAMPLE

Prior to 1988 the Juvenile Court Judges' Commission was administering aftercare and/or intensive probation programs in 39 of Pennsylvania's 67 counties.¹ These programs were being monitored by a JCJC staff member, who compiled annual statistics on the rates of readjudication of youths receiving intensive or aftercare probation services. Data for these statistics were obtained from the participating counties and yielded what appeared to be impressive findings regarding the programs. For example, for the 1986 calendar year, it was reported that youths receiving aftercare services had an overall recidivism rate of 9.6 percent based on reconviction.

These findings are useful to policy makers, who require information in order to make decisions. However, from the standpoint of social science, the techniques and assumptions used in the preparation of these statistical reports may leave some questions unanswered regarding the true effectiveness of these specialized probation programs. Ideally, evaluation studies of programs should involve the random assignment of cases to two groups, only one of which receives the "treatment," in this case intensive aftercare services, with the other serving as a "control group." This method of ensuring group equivalence through random assignment provides researchers with the opportunity to make strong comparisons between the two groups, uncontaminated by extraneous factors which are not the result of the treatment. Random assignment assures that each treatment and control group is composed of equivalent mixes of delinquents with "good" and "poor" recidivism potential.
True experimental designs are rarely used in the evaluation of correctional treatments. They demand the cooperation of many agents, and moral and ethical questions concerning the withholding of treatment to some participants must be addressed. The Intensive Aftercare Probation pilot program provides an ideal opportunity to employ an experimental design with sensitivity to these concerns. The primary concern is that of withholding treatment from the control group. In this project, the control group receives the same aftercare services as "regular" probationers released from placement and supervised by the Community Related Institutional Probation (CRIP) unit normally receive. More importantly, the caseload capacity of the IAP is only sixty juveniles, while at least twice that number met the revised program guidelines. Therefore, many eligible juveniles would not have received the experimental treatment, no matter how cases had been assigned.

Quality evaluation studies must often also obtain information which sheds light on the reasons that may account for the results found. Finally, most social interventions have multiple impacts on individuals, although one impact may be viewed as most important to policy makers, researchers, and the public. Quality evaluation studies attempt to assess and measure these multiple impacts.

The funding of a major intensive aftercare initiative in two major metropolitan areas provided the timely opportunity for the present investigators to launch a broad scale, rigorous and high quality evaluation study. The investigators were able to begin working with the Juvenile Court Judges' Commission and the county in which the study was conducted prior to the implementation of the pilot program. With the benefit of time to work on the planning of both the
pilot project and the evaluation prior to implementation of either, the investigators and the project managers were able to plan the implementation of the pilot program in a manner which would enable a strong evaluation research design without compromising service delivery. In addition, cooperation of probation officers and other actors in the juvenile justice system in Philadelphia could be assured.

While state funding for the Intensive Aftercare Program was obtained for both Philadelphia and Allegheny counties, a decision was made by the evaluation researchers to focus their attention on the Philadelphia County program. This decision was made because Philadelphia was to receive five additional probation officers while Pittsburgh was to receive only three. Given that available funding for the evaluation would allow the researchers to focus on only one county, the number of probation cases which could be studied was maximized by selecting Philadelphia County.

The decision was made also to focus attention on those juveniles placed at one residential facility, the Youth Development Center at Bensalem, Pennsylvania. This publicly run institution houses a significant proportion of the high risk, seriously violent juvenile offenders adjudicated in Philadelphia County. Clustering all program participants in one institution was expected to increase probation officers' ease of making contact with their caseloads and to facilitate understanding among the youths about the nature of the intensive aftercare program.
Research Questions

The major research question addressed in the study is: does providing intensive aftercare probation services to high risk habitual juvenile offenders released from institutional placement reduce their tendencies to become reinvolved in criminal activity? The study aims to determine whether juveniles on intensive aftercare probation experience fewer arrests, adjudications, and placements than their equivalent counterparts who have not been exposed to these services. In addition, the study aims to assess the quality of probationers’ post release adjustment by focusing on their activities after release, their interactions with others, the types of problems they experience and their level of cooperation with the probation officer and their conditions of probation. It is assumed the IAP services may facilitate more positive adjustment to community life, more productive relationships with family, school and work personnel, and others. Finally, the study aims to determine whether recidivism is reduced by increasing the number of contacts made between the probation officer and the juvenile or by lengthening the period of service delivery.

Research Design and Sample Selection

The evaluation study involves a "classic" experimental research design. A target goal of 60 experimental and 60 control cases was set. Initially, the design called for three groups of experimental and three groups of control cases (20 in each group) which would received differential lengths of pre-release intensive probation supervision. Early on, it was determined that it would not be possible to process cases so that distinct groups of experimental
cases with discrete lengths of institutional supervision could be insured. This element of the study was dropped. However, data concerning the number of probation officer contacts made during placement were retained, enabling analyses of the impact of differing numbers of in-placement contacts on recidivism.

Service delivery for the IAP was scheduled to begin in January, 1989; case selection began in November, 1988. Initially, the original criteria written by the Juvenile Court Judges’ Commission were applied to the population of residents at the Bensalem facility. When it became obvious that only a handful of Bensalem residents met the original criteria, the investigators and the person who had been appointed supervisor of the new IAP recommended that the criteria be amended. These changes were approved by the Juvenile Court Judges’ Commission in November, 1988.

Using the amended criteria, the investigators selected one hundred and six youths for inclusion in the study, 53 to be assigned to intensive aftercare services, 53 to receive regular probation services through the CRIP unit. Additional cases were to be included in the following months. An additional 52 cases were considered for inclusion in the program and study over the months of February through May, 1989. These additional cases were considered as replacements for cases from the original group which were necessarily dropped and to increase the sample size in each group to the 60-person target. Each month, researchers determined how many cases were needed by probation officers to complete their caseload quotas. Researchers identified eligible cases from the roster of residents at the Youth Development Center. Youths who had recently been admitted were screened to determine whether their charges made them eligible for
inclusion in the IAP. As they were selected, those who satisfied the revised criteria were randomly assigned to the experimental or control groups. Names of experimental cases were given to the program supervisor, who then assigned a probation officer to the case.

A number of cases were dropped from the study for two major reasons. One major cause of case attrition was absconding, either from the institution or failure to return to the institution after a furlough. Nineteen (10 original and 9 replacement) youths absconded after they had been selected to participate in the study. All cases who went AWOL from the youth development center, regardless of whether they had been assigned to the experimental and control groups, were dropped from the study.

The second major cause was early release. Twenty of the originally selected youths who had been assigned to the experimental condition were dropped from the study because they were released from the placement in November or December, 1988, one to two months before the evaluation project was set to begin and before they had been assigned a probation officer. There was no way of knowing which juveniles would be released early. Juvenile sentences are indeterminate, and therefore releases cannot be accurately predicted. Since release dates were not known, the researchers decided to include all eligible juveniles in the sample pool, even though some releases during November and December 1988 were inevitable. It was necessary to drop these early release cases assigned to the experimental group for two reasons. First, they had not received the necessary pre-release probation services while in placement. Second, since they were released between one and two months prior to the start-up date for the program, they would be unable to receive intensive aftercare services
in their community for substantial periods. To maintain comparability between experimental and control cases with respect to follow-up periods, youths released early who had been assigned to the control group were also dropped. The one exception to this was the retention of several experimental and control cases released in very late December, 1988. By this time the program supervisor was on-line and was in a position to offer services to these individuals himself and assign caseworkers in early January.

In addition, ten youths (3 original and 7 replacement) were dropped from the study because they had not been released from the youth development center by January 31, 1990. This date was set by the researchers as the deadline for release from placement, to ensure at least three months of follow-up prior to the data analysis for the study report.

Finally, four youths who had been assigned to the experimental condition were mistakenly discharged without restraint (DWOR) when they came before their judges prior to their release. These youths essentially were not given the experimental treatment and thus were dropped from the study. Five control cases who were discharged without restraint were retained for the study. This decision was made because our analyses of the treatment of control cases indicated that a significant minority of these youths received virtually no post-release supervision, nor did probation officers of control cases routinely provide researchers with post release data. Hence, functionally, the control DWOR cases were equivalent to many of the regular control cases. Five additional experimental youths were dropped from the study for idiosyncratic reasons: (1) one youth was transferred to another probation program upon his release from
placement; (2) one youth was dropped with an offense committed before his placement but after his eighteenth birthday; consequently he was sent directly from the youth development center to an adult prison; and (3) three cases were mistakenly discharged to another probation unit in Philadelphia Family Court.

It is generally argued that when there are randomization errors in experimental designs, the safest strategy is to carry cases in the groups to which they were assigned, regardless of whether they received the prescribed treatment or not. In this study we have elected to drop certain cases from the analyses because they did not receive the intervention intended for them (i.e., subjects assigned to the experimental group did not in fact receive IAP services). Moreover, their failure to receive the experimental treatment resulted in our inability to obtain complete data on these cases, specifically information concerning their post-release adjustment.

To examine whether aspects of the sample selection had inadvertently biased the groups, analyses of recidivism data were completed on groups as they had been originally constituted, before cases had been dropped or replacement cases added (considered here the "original sample"). The findings of these analyses will be presented in detail in the results sections of the report. However, it is noteworthy that the original experimental and control groups' recidivism patterns mirrored closely the experimental and control groups of the "final sample," reflecting both dropped and replacement cases. Similar analyses of other types of outcome measures were not possible to perform, as no data were available for the "dropped" cases on variables relating to post-release adjustment.
Considering all cases which were discarded from analyses, this report is based upon the results of 44 experimental cases and 46 control cases. All cases included in the study were released from the youth development center between December 1988 and January, 1990. All cases were followed until May, 1990, resulting in follow-up periods of between three and sixteen months.

Research Instruments

Four separate data collection instruments were developed for the present study. In this section we will review each instrument, its means of administration, and the specific data elements used in the following chapters of the report. We relied upon three sources for the development of many of the items used in the instruments. Peter Greenwood and Elizabeth Piper Deschenes supplied examples of instruments they are using in a similar aftercare evaluation (Greenwood and Piper Deschenes, 1988), other items were adopted from Delbert Elliot’s National Youth Survey (Elliot et al., 1983), and data for sections of the present study were obtained using instruments similar to those used in an earlier study by the investigators (Goodstein and Sontheimer, 1987). In addition, data concerning recidivism of study youths were obtained from a variety of sources and will be discussed in Chapter 5.

Youth Interview

This instrument was administered to all youths assigned to either experimental or control groups while they were still incarcerated at the Bensalem facility. The instrument was administered using an interview format, with interviews lasting approximately one hour. The
following constructs were measured: (1) pro-social goals; (2) self-efficacy; (3) moral values; (4) self-esteem; (5) depression; (6) perception of friends' antisocial behavior; (6) self-reported involvement with drugs and alcohol; (7) self-reported delinquency and (8) gang involvement (see Appendix A for copies of instruments).

There were some difficulties in obtaining interviews with all study youths, particularly with those who were assigned to the study during the early months. Some were released from the institution too early to schedule interviews. In the case of both experimental and control cases, attempts were made to schedule interviews in the community, generally at the probation office. For experimental cases, this proved possible, as all seven of the experimental cases for which institution interviews had not been conducted were interviewed after their release. For control cases, this strategy proved more difficult, as these individuals had very little contact with their supervising probation officer and little incentive to appear at the probation office for an interview. Only seven of fifteen control subjects who were scheduled for interviews in the community actually appeared.

Background Information

Institutional case files were consulted for each youth in the study to obtain information concerning his criminal, educational, social, and institutional background. Information was obtained on the arrest leading to the current placement, up to 15 additional prior arrests and up to eight prior institutional placements. In addition, data were obtained on the following "social history" variables: adjustment and achievement in school prior to placement, evidence of emotional difficulties, evidence of substance abuse, and the quality
of the youth's family life prior to placement. Data were also
obtained on the youth's adjustment to his current placement. The data
on social history and adjustment to placement are reported by means of
indexes constructed by the researchers. These indexes are briefly
described in the following sections.

Social History Variables

The indexes described in this section were developed in conjunc-
tion with prior research on populations of institutionalized delin-
quents in Pennsylvania. Although the reliability of some of the
indexes for the current population (as measured by Cronbach's Alpha)
is weak, they are reported here because the prior work demonstrated
acceptable reliability. Complete descriptions and summary statistics
on all the indexes are contained in Appendix B. For all of the
indexes described, higher scores indicate more problems, unless
otherwise noted.

School Problem Index

This score reflects information concerning subjects' conduct and
achievement in school. It is comprised of six dichotomized items
measuring: attendance problems, disciplinary action (suspensions,
etc.), aggressiveness or disruptiveness, poor achievement, involvement
in alternative education, and failing. Cases were classified into
three categories: (1) no or minor problems (no more than one problem
area listed); (2) moderate problems (2-3 problems); and (3) serious
problems (4-6 problems). The index has a mean of 8.93 and a coeffi-
cient alpha of .36.
Drug and Alcohol Problem Index

This index is based on three items measuring the juvenile's involvement with drugs or alcohol (excluding experimentation) and prior professional treatment for such involvement. The drug and alcohol use items were each coded as: (1) no use or experimentation only, (2) occasional use, and (3) regular use. The prior treatment item was coded as (1) for no prior treatment and (3) for history of prior treatment (inpatient or outpatient).

Cases were categorized into three groups on this index: (1) no or minor problems (occasional use of no more than one substance); (2) moderate problems (use of both drugs and alcohol, or use plus history of treatment); and (3) major problems (regular use of both drugs and alcohol, or regular use of at least one plus a history of treatment). This index has a mean of 5.19 and a coefficient alpha of .64.

Family Instability Index

This index comprises eight three point items measuring evidence of: neglect, ineffective parental control, punitive/abusive behavior toward juvenile, sexual abuse of juvenile, history of runaways, parental drug/alcohol dependency and parental criminality. Cases were classified into three groups: (1) none or minor instability (no more than one minor problem area); (2) moderate instability (at least one major or two minor problem areas); and (3) major instability (at least two major problem areas or major and minor problems in at least three areas). The Family Instability Index has a mean of 11.51 and a coefficient alpha of .64.
Institutional Adjustment

Subjects' institutional files were reviewed to discern whether they had experienced problems adjusting to Bensalem. An "institutional problem index" was created by summing scores on three variables reflecting juveniles' involvement in: rule infractions, AWOL's, and failure to participate in available programming. Subjects were then categorized as either: successfully adjusted (no more than one minor problem area), moderate problems (no more than one major problem area), or serious problems (combination of major and minor problems). The resultant index has a mean of 4.38 and a coefficient alpha of .31.

Pre-Release Instrument

The remaining two instruments were designed for completion by the youth's probation officer following his release from institutional placement. The Pre-Release Instrument was sent to the probation officer assigned to each study youth either shortly before or shortly after his release into the community. This instrument was designed to assess the types of services which had been delivered by the probation officer during the youth's placement, the officer's perceptions of the youth's potential for success upon release, and specific pre-release plans. The variables measured in the Pre-Release Instrument included: (1) total numbers of face-to-face and telephone contacts made by the officer to the youth and his family during placement; (2) officer's evaluation of youth's performance in placement; (3) officer's prediction of youth's success on release; (4) youth's living arrangements, school and work plans after release; and (5) activities youth is
expected to be involved in after release, including school, employment, and counseling.

Problems arose in the administration of this instrument, caused by the fact that the investigators had inadequate information concerning the youths' official discharge dates. In several instances nearly two months had elapsed from the time of a youth's release to the time the evaluator was notified of that release. As a result, a decision was made to send a list of all youths in the study and blank Pre-Release Instruments to the supervisors of the two units which were responsible for the post-release supervision of study youths, the Intensive Aftercare Unit and CRIP. These persons were requested to distribute the appropriate forms to the relevant probation officers. This was also problematic; the supervisors, with all of their other duties, did not give this task a high priority, and distribution of the Pre-Release instruments continued to be delayed. Clearly, this problem may have significant bearing on the reliability and validity of the information obtained from the Pre-Release Instrument; and the results must be interpreted in this cautionary light.

Bi-Monthly Progress Report

The final instrument developed for the present study assessed the progress of the youths in the community at the second, fourth, and six month marks after their release from the institution. This instrument was designed to obtain information about the details of the youth's life in the community: his relations with his family and friends, his involvement in pro-social activities, problem areas, evidence of drug and alcohol use, the officer's perception of the youth's emotional state, his level of cooperation with the conditions of probation, and
the quality of his relationship with his probation officer. In addition, each instrument required that the responding probation officer provide detailed information concerning the frequency and types of contacts made with the youth and others related to the youth during the two-month period being reported upon.

As with the Pre-Release Instrument, problems arose in obtaining completed Bi-Monthly Progress Reports from some probation officers in a timely fashion. There were several reasons for these problems. As above, the researchers were not always immediately informed of the discharge dates of study youths. In addition, probation officer turnover, particularly among officers in the early stages of the Intensive Aftercare Program, resulted in the misdirection of forms to the wrong officers on a number of occasions. Also, the forms requested fairly specific information which some officers, particularly those from the CRIP unit, may not have felt they possessed. It appeared that the monotony of completing successive forms requesting the same information also may have begun to take its toll over time. It appears that by the second or third round of forms for the same youth, some officers simply chose not to complete what they may have viewed as tedious and repetitive work. Finally, it was not possible to obtain three completed forms for all study youths, as the delay in discharge dates and the reincarceration of some youths resulted in follow-up periods of less than six months in some instances.

As data returned to the evaluators slowed considerably, in November 1989 a list of all missing data instruments was compiled and sent to the intensive aftercare supervisor, along with new instruments, for his dispersal among the appropriate probation officers. By this time, it was acknowledged by the research team that it was unrealistic to
expect to obtain much cooperation from the CRIP officers, due to their large caseloads, relative unfamiliarity with their probationers and the relative detail which was included in the instrument.

The tardiness in the return of data instruments has led to the possibility that some of the data received are subject to bias. Take, for example, a probation officer completing an instrument on a youth several months after the time period specified by the instrument. Several problems may occur. First, the probation officer may have a lack of knowledge of the subject, especially if he or she has recently assumed the case. As a result, she or he would fail to complete much of the instrument, as was indeed the case and the source of much missing data. The second, and more critical, problem is the bias which may be caused by the officer’s failure to remember when critical incidents occurred. Since many of the questions request an assessment of the nature of the probationer’s adjustment during a particular time period (e.g. 0-2 months, 2-4 months, etc.), a delay in the completion of the instrument may leave the respondent with a less clear memory than he or she would have had if the instrument had been completed in a timely fashion.

The investigators felt strongly that despite the problems with response rates on this instrument, the information which was available was sufficiently important that every effort should be made to salvage what was possible. Therefore, a system was devised to evaluate the available Bi-Monthly Progress Reports for each case and to summarize the entries into one data set. This data set obviously does not enable inferences concerning the timing of post-release adjustment experiences; however, it does provide the best picture of post-release adjustment of study youths.
Due to the importance of having valid and reliable data concerning probation officer contacts, additional effort to supplement the missing data in this area was made. Investigators consulted the Intensive Aftercare Program records to supplement the information provided by the probation officers concerning contacts and have generated a complete data file of the frequency and types of contacts made with IAP youths during their supervision periods.

The most significant data provided by this instrument (and supplemented by records checks by investigators) concerned the number and types of face-to-face and telephone contacts made by the probation officer to the youth and to significant others (e.g. family, school, employer). In addition, three indexes were constructed from several items each of which described aspects of the quality of the probationers’ adjustment to community life.

The Prosocial Index measures the extent and quality of respondents’ involvement in prosocial activities. It reflects such activities as the youth’s involvement in athletics, hobbies, and church and assesses the youth’s interactions with prosocial friends. With three-point items, the seven item index has a mean of 14.9 and a coefficient alpha of .79. Higher scores reflect more positive activities.

The Aftercare Index reflects the probationer’s success in meeting conditions of probation and his progress. It includes items measuring "progress youth made in achieving goals," "follow through on court or probation imposed restrictions," and "the youth’s chances of successfully completing probation." This six item index, based upon three point items, has an index mean of 12.04 and a coefficient alpha of .89. Higher scores reflect more positive behaviors.
The Problem Index reflects evidence of problems the youth has experienced in various areas of post-release adjustment. These include problems with parents, siblings, peers, police, and school. This nine item index, based upon a dichotomous (yes/no) response format, has an index mean of 13.00 and a coefficient alpha of .80. For this index, higher scores indicate more problems.

Description of the Sample

This section will describe the final sample of 90 subjects on a variety of quantitative and qualitative measures derived from Family Court files, the face-to-face interviews with subjects at Bensalem and the background information coded from each subject’s file at the institution. The researchers compared the experimental and control groups on each of the more than 200 variables constructed from these sources. With only a few exceptions, no differences were found between the two groups. Given that subjects were randomly assigned to the two groups, this similarity was interpreted as evidence that the randomization process worked as planned. To simplify the presentation of the data in this section, only the results for the full sample are presented. In the few instances where the experimental and control groups differ significantly, these differences are elaborated. Although some variation between groups is inevitable even with random assignment, care must be taken to consider how these chance differences might impact on each group’s relative risk of recidivism. Findings discussed in this section are illustrated in table 3.1. The order of presentation in the table is the same as that in the sections which follow.
Table 3.1
Profile of Sample (N=90)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographic Variables</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>(n)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Race:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>7.8</td>
<td>(7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black</td>
<td>81.1</td>
<td>(73)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>(10)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criminal History Variables</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age at First Arrest:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Under 13</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>(30)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>23.3</td>
<td>(21)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>18.9</td>
<td>(17)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15+</td>
<td>24.4</td>
<td>(22)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of Prior Arrests:</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0-1</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>(6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-4</td>
<td>45.6</td>
<td>(41)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-7</td>
<td>30.0</td>
<td>(27)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8+</td>
<td>17.8</td>
<td>(16)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of Prior Convictions:</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>(10)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>21.1</td>
<td>(19)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>22.2</td>
<td>(20)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>(18)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4+</td>
<td>25.6</td>
<td>(23)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of Prior Placements:</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>27.8</td>
<td>(25)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>38.9</td>
<td>(35)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>23.3</td>
<td>(21)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>10.0</td>
<td>(9)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Most Serious Alleged Prior Offense:</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rape/IDS,</td>
<td>7.8</td>
<td>(7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Robbery</td>
<td>61.1</td>
<td>(55)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burglary</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>(12)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agg. Assault</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>(6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drugs (felony)</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>(3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theft</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>(5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>None</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>(2)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: percents may not add to 100 due to rounding.
Table 3.1 (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Social History Variables</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>(n)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>School Problem Index:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>None or Minor Problems</td>
<td>12.2</td>
<td>(11)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderate Problems</td>
<td>56.7</td>
<td>(51)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Serious Problems</td>
<td>31.1</td>
<td>(28)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Drug &amp; Alcohol Problem Index:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>None or Minor Problems</td>
<td>40.0</td>
<td>(36)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderate Problems</td>
<td>34.4</td>
<td>(31)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Serious Problems</td>
<td>25.6</td>
<td>(23)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Family Instability Index:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>None or Minor Problems</td>
<td>25.6</td>
<td>(23)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderate Problems</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>(30)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Serious Problems</td>
<td>41.1</td>
<td>(37)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Sample Placement Related Variables               |       |       |
| **Age at Sample Placement:**                     |       |       |
| Under 16                                         | 16.7  | (15)  |
| 16                                               | 24.4  | (22)  |
| 17                                               | 40.0  | (36)  |
| 18+                                              | 18.9  | (17)  |
| **Length of Sample Placement (in Months):**      |       |       |
| Under 9                                          | 28.9  | (26)  |
| 9                                                | 24.4  | (22)  |
| 10-11                                            | 27.8  | (25)  |
| 12+                                              | 18.9  | (17)  |
| **Age at Release from Placement:**               |       |       |
| Under 17                                         | 18.9  | (17)  |
| 17                                               | 27.8  | (25)  |
| 18                                               | 38.9  | (35)  |
| 19+                                              | 14.4  | (13)  |
| **Institutional Problem Index:**                 |       |       |
| Few or No Problems                               | 61.1  | (55)  |
| Moderate Problems                                | 22.2  | (20)  |
| Serious Problems                                 | 16.6  | (15)  |

Note: percents may not add to 100 due to rounding.
Demographic Variables

The majority of sample subjects (81.1%) were Black; only 7.8 percent were White. The remaining 11.1 percent were other races, primarily Hispanic. The racial distribution was substantially the same for both the experimental and control groups.

Criminal History Variables

The measures discussed in this section refer to subjects' prior contact with the juvenile justice system; the arrest and conviction leading to the sample placement at Bensalem are not included. On average, sample subjects had 5.1 arrests, 2.7 convictions and 1.2 placements prior to their arrival at Bensalem. Only 2 subjects had no prior arrests, 10 had no prior convictions and 25 had no prior placements. The majority of subjects (56.6%) were aged 13 or younger at the time of their first officially recorded arrest. The average age at first arrest was 13.8 years. Over 90 percent of the subjects had at least one prior arrest for a felony.

Social History Variables

School Problem Index

Experimental subjects scored higher on the school problem index, indicating more problems in this area. The range of scores for the sample was from 6 to 12, with 12 indicating problems in all six areas. The average scores for the experimental and control groups were 9.2 and 8.6, respectively. This difference is statistically significant.
Drug and Alcohol Problem Index

The scores on this index ranged from 3 to 9. The experimental group averaged 5.5 on the index compared to 4.9 for the control group, however, the difference was not significant. The greater involvement of the experimental group with drugs and alcohol is consistent with self-report information volunteered by subjects during the interviews at Bensalem, in which experimental subjects reported slightly higher average levels of use.

Family Instability Index

The two groups had identical averages of 11.5 on this index. Scores in this range are indicative of moderate problems in the areas of family functioning.

Sample Placement Related Variables

The information presented in this section was gathered from subjects' institutional files at Bensalem. Information on subjects' adjustment to institutional life was well documented in the files. The other variables discussed here (age at placement and release; length of stay) were computed from readily available dates.

Committing Offense

The most serious alleged offense contained in the petition leading to the sample placement at Bensalem is listed in Table 3.2. Although it is not practical to quantitatively compare the two groups on committing offense, inspection of Table 3.2 reveals that they are fairly equivalent on this item. Control subjects were somewhat more likely to have been committed for Robbery and Theft, while
experimental subjects were more likely to have been committed for "Other" offenses. The latter category includes the crimes of Escape, Simple Assault and Probation Violation, among others.

Table 3.2
Offense Leading to Sample Placement

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Offense</th>
<th>Experimental</th>
<th>Control</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Homicide</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>2.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rape/IDS I</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6.8%</td>
<td>4.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Robbery</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>13.6%</td>
<td>21.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burglary</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9.1%</td>
<td>6.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agg. Assault</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9.1%</td>
<td>8.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drugs (felony)</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>20.5%</td>
<td>19.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theft</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11.4%</td>
<td>17.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>29.5%</td>
<td>19.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Age at Placement

The modal age of subjects at the time of their placement was 17 years (40% of the sample). About one fourth of the sample was aged 16 when committed. Relatively few subjects were under age 16 (16.7%) or had reached their 18th birthday before being placed at Bensalem (18.9%). The average age at placement was 17.1 years.
Length of Stay

Length of stay at Bensalem varied widely, ranging from 2 to 27 months. Stays shorter than 6 months were rare (6 cases), although 28.9 percent of the sample stayed less than 9 months. Stays between 9 and 11 months were the most typical (over half of the sample). The average length of incarceration was 10.8 months, however a few very long periods of incarceration skewed the distribution. For this reason, the median length of stay (9.8 months) more accurately represents the typical placement duration.

It was hypothesized that experimental subjects would have shorter stays than control subjects. Observations of other Pennsylvania counties which have implemented aftercare probation programs reveal that the counties generally experience about a ten percent average reduction in placement length. Presumably, more efficient aftercare planning (school and/or work plans in place) allows for a more timely release. In the current study, however, experimental subjects stayed about three weeks longer than control subjects, on average.6

Age at Release

The majority of subjects (53.3%) were aged 18 or older at the time of their release from Bensalem (mean age was 18.0). Any new arrests incurred by these subjects would necessarily fall under the jurisdiction of the adult (criminal) court system. Many of the other subjects who were under 18 at the time of release nonetheless turned 18 before the end of the study. It is therefore not surprising that most of the observed recidivism was based on new arrests handled by the criminal, rather than the juvenile justice system.
Institutional Adjustment

Based on this index, the majority of subjects (61.1%) made a successful adjustment to placement. About one fifth of the sample experienced moderate problems and the remainder (16.6%) encountered serious problems.
ENDNOTES

(1) Intensive probation is considered an alternative to residential placement. Intensive, as opposed to "generic" juvenile probations, is intended to be used only for youths who would otherwise be placed, in order to avoid "net-widening." The target population in most counties is youths with no prior placements who come before the court for a variety of crimes. Generally speaking, their offenses are serious enough to warrant placement, but not so serious as to preclude community-based intervention.

Aftercare probation is an enhanced level of service delivery for youths in residential placement. An aftercare probation officer is assigned at the time of placement, and is responsible for monitoring the placement, pre-release planning, and post-release probation supervision. The guidelines for post-release supervision are similar to those for intensive probation in that a minimum number of weekly contacts with clients and their families is required.

(2) Some portion of cases designated as "replacement" were necessarily dropped at later stages of the study for the same reasons causing original cases to be dropped.


(4) For the individual item dealing with drug use, any use of "hard" drugs was coded as (3), or equivalent to regular drug use.

(5) \( t = 2.29, \text{ df.} = 87, p < .05, \text{ two-tailed.} \)
Another explanation for the reductions in length of stay experienced by counties implementing aftercare probation programs is that facilities can be "held accountable" for their services by aftercare probation officers making regular institutional visits. In particular, the officers try to prevent their clients from languishing in placement beyond the point when treatment gains are likely to be made. The problem of unnecessarily long placements is more acute with private than with public facilities. The latter are habitually overcrowded, so there is natural pressure to move clients out to free up beds for juveniles on the perpetual waiting list. In addition, private facilities stand to lose money when beds are empty, and so have a motive to retain current residents during times when new referrals are not forthcoming. Public facilities like Bensalem have no profit motive because the state charges counties a percentage of actual costs. For all of these reasons, it may be more difficult to reduce typical lengths of stay at public facilities through the implementation of aftercare probation programs.
CHAPTER 4
MEASURES OF PROGRAM IMPLEMENTATION

Introduction

An important question regarding any program evaluation is whether the program was implemented as designed. One cannot simply assume that because certain services were mandated they were also delivered. Rather, program implementation must be measured. Most of this chapter is devoted to quantitative analysis of data concerning actual contacts between probation officers and their clients. Differences between the level of service delivered to the experimental and control groups are explored. Efforts are made to determine if the levels of service mandated by the IAP standards were achieved. The balance of this chapter considers the nature of the probation officer/client relationship and the social adjustment of clients.

The data analyzed in this chapter were provided by probation officers who completed questionnaires furnished by the researchers. Unfortunately, response rates were lower than expected, resulting in considerable missing data. Problems with missing data may have led to underestimates of the actual number of contacts delivered, since missing data were coded as "no contacts" for the months in question. However, the researchers did attempt to obtain the missing data directly from the Philadelphia Family Court files, when possible. More importantly, the differences in the number of contacts delivered by IAP probation officers compared to their CRIP counterparts are so great that they overshadow any problems with incomplete data.

Missing data problems are more serious for the qualitative measures of officer/client interaction and client adjustment. Response
rates were rarely higher than 60 percent for most items. While measures of contacts are based on empirical data which are also documented in Family Court files, the qualitative measures are based on subjective questions which could only be answered by the probation officer of record. This fact, and the need to have timely information (e.g. how was the client's adjustment during the first two months after release), precluded obtaining these missing data.

Contacts

The IAP standards mandate a minimum number of weekly contacts between probation officers and: their clients, clients' families, and significant others (e.g. school officials and employers, when appropriate). The mandated level of IAP contacts is higher than the frequency of contact typically delivered by conventional probation officers. This increased interaction between probation officer and juvenile is assumed to be an important part of the intensive aftercare model. Whether due to accountability (e.g., increased surveillance, curfew checks) or to rehabilitation (e.g., increased counseling sessions, job hunting), requiring the probation officer to spend more time with his or her clients is expected to help reduce recidivism.

Institutional Contacts

The IAP guidelines require that each client be seen at least once a month while incarcerated. These meetings are intended to accomplish several objectives: monitor the juvenile's progress, coordinate treatment goals with institutional staff, and demonstrate to the juvenile that the court has not forgotten about him. In addition, the IAP guidelines require that the probation officer make
one face-to-face contact per month with each client’s parents/guardians during the period of incarceration.

Generally, institutional contacts are more easily made than community contacts during the aftercare period because an officer can see several clients during one trip. This is especially true in the current study since all subjects were incarcerated at the same institution. The control group clients were all supervised out of the Philadelphia Family Court’s Aftercare (CRIP) Unit. Traditionally, CRIP probation officers have each been assigned clients from a limited number of institutions to facilitate efficient use of time and travel. Thus, even though CRIP probation officers carried many more clients than IAP probation officers, it was expected that the comparative level of institutional contacts would be closer than the level of community (aftercare) contacts. The results are consistent with this expectation.

On average, IAP probation officers made 10.1 face-to-face institutional contacts per youth compared to 5.1 contacts per youth in the control group. The level of telephone contacts between probation officer and youth was also twice as high for the experimental group compared to the control group (1.3 and 0.6 contacts, respectively). Concerning family contacts, IAP probation officers averaged 2.6 face-to-face family contacts during the youth’s period of incarceration compared to only 0.7 contacts for the control group. Telephone contacts with clients’ families were more comparable, at 1.1 for the experimental and 0.8 for the control group. Data on institutional contacts are summarized in table 4.1.
Table 4.1
Average Number of Reported Institutional Contacts by Group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Contact</th>
<th>Experimental (N=44)</th>
<th>Control (N=46)</th>
<th>Differencea</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Face-to-face with youth</td>
<td>10.1</td>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phone with youth</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>ns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Face-to-face with family</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phone with family</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>ns</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. ** = significant at p < .01; ns = not significant at p < .05.

Compliance With IAP Standards on Institutional Contacts

Several factors must be considered when interpreting the above results. Because cases were assigned to either the treatment or control group between December 1988 and April 1989, some subjects were nearing the end of their institutional stays at program assignment while others had only recently been placed. However, only the total number of institutional contacts (rather than the number per month) was recorded. Consequently, the number of institutional contacts cannot be interpreted as a monthly rate, nor can it be determined whether the minimum number of contacts was made. Several facts suggest that IAP cases were seen at least once per month on average, however. Given that the average length of stay for experimental cases was about 11 months, the figure of 10 total institutional contacts suggests that the one contact per month minimum was met. Secondly, when only the experimental cases who were released at least seven months into the IAP program are considered, the average number of
institutional contacts is 16. These subjects were more likely to have been on an IAP caseload for most or all of their period of incarceration. This analysis is described in more detail later in this chapter.

The mandated number of family visits during a juvenile’s incarceration was also one per month. Since the average number of face-to-face family contacts for the IAP group was 2.6, it appears that the minimum standards in this area were not met. If telephone contacts with family are also counted, the average goes up to 3.6. The average number of family contacts (face-to-face plus telephone) was 5.6 for the IAP clients released at least seven months after program start-up. This figure is still below the level of contacts expected under the IAP standards. (Since these subjects were on IAP caseloads for at least seven months, at least seven family contacts are expected.)

Aftercare Contacts

The period immediately after placement release is assumed to be a crucial one for parolees. The transition from a tightly structured environment to a community where drug use, crime and lack of adult supervision are common can be difficult. Increased levels of contact between probation officer and parolee during this period may have a rehabilitative effect by helping foster a commitment to non-delinquent values. Youths often need help enrolling in school or finding employment. Frequent contacts may also remind the youth that he is being held accountable for following the rules of probation (observing curfew, remaining drug-free, etc.).
Logistically, aftercare contacts are more difficult for the probation officer than institutional contacts. Clients may live in different parts of the county, and may not be home when the probation officer comes to visit. Even with the small caseloads (maximum of 12 clients) of IAP probation officers, the initial minimum of three face-to-face contacts per client per week can be a daunting requirement. For control group (CRIP) probation officers, who carry caseloads of 60 to 100 clients, even one face-to-face contact per month is a formidable goal.

The data indicate that IAP probation officers made far more aftercare contacts than did CRIP officers—about ten times as many contacts. For example, we totaled all face-to-face contacts with each client during the first six months after release. The experimental (IAP) group averaged 16.7 face-to-face contacts during this period compared to only 1.3 contacts in the control (CRIP) group. These same data may be broken out for each of the first six months after release. This information is presented in table 4.2 and figure 4.1.

In the IAP group, face-to-face contacts were highest during the first post-release month (4.8 contacts) and then declined steadily through month six, when probation officers made an average of 0.9 contacts. In the CRIP group, contacts remained fairly stable at a level of about 0.2 contacts per month. "Months after release" does not refer to calendar months but rather to each subject’s individual "timeline." For each youth, month one begins at release from incarceration and continues for the next 30 days. Data on each subject’s contacts with his probation officer were coded in 30 day increments beginning with his release date and continuing for up to 180 days.
Figure 4.1
Face-to-Face Contacts Between Probation Officers and Their Clients During the First Six Months After Release

Table 4.2
Average Number of Reported Aftercare Contacts During First Six Post-Release Months, by Group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Contact</th>
<th>Experimental (N=44)</th>
<th>Control (N=46)</th>
<th>Difference$^a$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Face-to-face contacts</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>with youth (total)</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Month 1</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Month 2</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Month 3</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Month 4</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Month 5</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Month 6</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phone contacts</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>with youth</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All contacts</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>with family</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All contacts</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>with others</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$^a$ ** = significant at $p < .01$. 

67
(nominally, six months). Since not all cases were supervised for six months, some subjects lack data for several post-release months. This accounts for some of the decline in monthly contacts seen in figure 4.1, especially during months four through six. Contacts with subjects' families and with other individuals and phone contacts with youths were coded in similar fashion, but only the aggregate six month totals are shown in table 4.2.

Telephone contacts between probation officers and their clients followed the same pattern as face-to-face sessions. IAP probation officers made about one phone contact per month on average during months one and two, after which the level declined to about 0.2 contacts during month six. In the CRIP group, contacts were stable at about 0.1 per month throughout the first six post-release months.

Table 4.2 also summarizes information on aftercare contacts with clients' families and with other significant individuals (school personnel, employers, social service providers, etc.). For families and others, face-to-face and phone contacts are combined. Once again, the IAP officers made about ten times as many contacts as the CRIP officers.

Compliance with IAP Standards on Aftercare Contacts

Previous analyses in this chapter suggested that IAP probation officers were able to make the minimum number of institutional contacts with clients, though not with their families. It is equally important to know whether the targeted number of contacts was achieved during the aftercare period. This section examines compliance with the IAP standards for aftercare contacts with clients, families and other significant individuals.
The IAP standards mandated at least one family contact per week and one contact with other significant individuals every two weeks throughout the aftercare period. The level of reported contacts with each of these groups was about one per month during the first three post-release months for IAP clients. This represents about 25 percent of the mandated minimum level of contacts with families and about 50 percent of the minimum level with others. Although the targeted IAP minimums apparently were not met, the families and significant others of most CRIP subjects received almost no contacts. Clearly, IAP probation officers delivered a measurable level of service to their clients in these areas which was significantly greater than that received by control group subjects.

Concerning face-to-face contacts with clients, it appears that the targeted level of service was not achieved in all cases. For example, all IAP clients were mandated to receive at least three face-to-face contacts per week during the first six weeks of post-release supervision. This is equivalent to at least 12 contacts during the first post-release month. According the data furnished by IAP officers, only 4.8 face-to-face contacts (on average) were made during the first month. Surprisingly, 20 out of the 44 IAP subjects reportedly received no contacts during month one, while only six subjects received at least 12 contacts.

It is more difficult to determine whether the mandated number of face-to-face contacts was made in subsequent months, because the IAP guidelines permitted officers to reduce the level of contacts to two per week after six weeks of satisfactory probation supervision, and to again reduce the level to one contact per week after 12 weeks of satisfactory adjustment. No data were collected to indicate if this
option was invoked for specific subjects. However, the current IAP supervisor indicates the option was used frequently. If it is assumed that this procedure was exercised in all cases, then the following are the minimum number of required contacts for months one through three: 12 contacts during month one; 10 contacts during month two; and 8 contacts during month three.\(^1\)

As shown in figure 4.1 and table 4.2, the reported level of IAP contacts fell short of these minimums (less than half of the required contacts made). However, several factors must be considered before concluding that the IAP program was not successfully implemented in regard to aftercare contacts. First, data were collected only on successful contacts. In many cases, probation officers attempted to make scheduled or unannounced visits to clients in their homes or at work or school, but did not succeed. Errors of measurement may also have contributed to underestimates of the actual contacts delivered. Despite repeated follow-up correspondence and phone calls, some IAP probation officers did not submit the data collection calendars used to document contacts. In such cases, missing data were interpreted as indicating zero contacts for the months in question. (The same procedure was applied to control group data, where the problems of missing data were generally worse). Lastly, a compliance audit by the Juvenile Court Judges’ Commission in mid-1989 reported substantial compliance with the standards on client contacts, when both successful and unsuccessful contacts were counted.

It is also important to note that many IAP clients actively resisted the program and failed to cooperate with their probation officers. This behavior often resulted in a technical violation of probation and/or the issuance of a bench warrant. Unfortunately, such
action on the part of the court often drove clients "underground" (i.e., the juvenile failed to appear for appointments and court hearings). After one or two months on this status, cases were dropped from the IAP program (but not from the study). A review of the cases with few or no aftercare contacts confirmed that many of them were subjects who had bench warrants issued against them.

Another factor which may account for the relatively low number of reported contacts relates to the personnel instability experienced in the IAP program over the duration of this study. Overall, the IAP unit experienced 100 percent turnover during the course of this study. The following section examines the possible impact of this phenomenon in more detail.

Contacts by Calendar Period

As discussed in Chapter 3, the operation of the IAP program during the course of this study went through three phases: (1) start-up, (2) transition and (3) institutionalization. To quantitatively analyze possible differences among these three phases, the 44 IAP cases were divided into three groups which approximately mirror the stages previously described. Cases were classified into these groups on the basis of their release date from Pensalem. For this analysis, cases released prior to June 1, 1989 are classified as start-up cases; those released during June and July 1989 are transition cases; and those released on or after August 1, 1989 are institutionalization cases. In Chapter 3, the transition phase was designated as the months of July and August 1989. Here, subjects released during June and July 1989 are considered transition cases because their first full month in the community fell within the months of the transition.
period. Subjects released during August 1989 are classified as institutionalization phase cases because their first full month in the community overlapped into September, 1989, which is part of the institutionalization period.

The transition from institutional care to community supervision is a crucial period. If a juvenile has little or no contact with his probation officer during the first days or weeks after release, the stringent norms of the IAP program will not be established. It is for this reason that the current analysis employs a one month "lag" to classify cases into one of the three program periods. While this classification is somewhat arbitrary, it is considered a reasonable operationalization of the program phases. This division also conveniently results in three groups of roughly equal size.

The data on community contacts were analyzed across the three groups; the results are shown in table 4.3. Subjects released during the transition period had the lowest rate of face-to-face contacts in each of the first three post-release months. Subjects released during the institutionalization period had the highest rate of contacts during the first month after release. Groups 1 and 3 showed equal numbers of contacts during the second month after release. For post-release months three through six, Group 1 showed the highest number of contacts. Comparisons beyond month three may be biased by the fact that subjects released late in the institutionalization phase were not observed during months four through six. For this reason only contacts during the first three post-release months are shown in table 4.3.
Table 4.3
Face-to-face Contacts Between Probation Officer and Client
by Months After Release and Program Phase for
Experimental Subjects (N=44)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Months After Release</th>
<th>Mandated Contacts</th>
<th>Average for Entire IAP Group (N=44)</th>
<th>Average by Program Phasea</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1. Start-up (N=13)</td>
<td>2. Trans. (N=15)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>4.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>5.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>5.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Subjects are classified into the three groups based on their release dates from Bensalem according to the following scheme:
Start-up: 12/1/88 to 5/31/89; Transition: 6/1/89 to 7/31/89;
Institutionalization: 8/1/89 to 1/31/90.

Rather than looking simply at the average monthly contacts shown in Table 4.3, a more complete picture is provided by a cross-tabular analysis. Table 4.4 contains a breakdown of the contacts delivered during the first three post-release months, by program phase. The most striking feature of the table is the high proportion of clients released during the transition phase who reportedly received no face-to-face contacts during one more of the first three months after release (Although not shown here, seven "transitional" subjects received no contacts during any of these months.) The interpretation of the start-up and institutionalization phases is more complex. During both periods, approximately one third of the newly released clients reportedly received no contacts during Month 1. However, an equal or greater proportion of the subjects received at least seven contacts during Month 1. In fact, all eight subjects from the institutionalization phase who appear in the "7 to 14" contact cell actually received at least 10 contacts.
Table 4.4
Face-to-face Contacts Between Probation Officer and Client
During First Three Post-Release Months by Program Phase
For Experimental Subjects (N=44)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reported Contacts Made</th>
<th>1. Start-up (N=13)</th>
<th>2. Trans. (N=15)</th>
<th>3. Inst. (N=16)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>none</td>
<td>38.5</td>
<td>66.7</td>
<td>31.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Month 1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 to 6</td>
<td>23.1</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>18.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 to 14</td>
<td>38.5</td>
<td>26.7</td>
<td>50.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>none</td>
<td>15.4</td>
<td>73.3</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Month 2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 to 6</td>
<td>38.5</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>37.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 to 13</td>
<td>46.2</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>50.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>none</td>
<td>15.4</td>
<td>73.3</td>
<td>56.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Month 3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 to 6</td>
<td>30.1</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 to 11</td>
<td>53.8</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>31.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Figures shown are column percentages. Percents may not add to 100 due to rounding.

During Month 2 of both the start-up and institutionalization phases, only two clients in each phase received no contacts, and about half received seven or more contacts. During Month 3 of the start-up phase most clients received seven or more face-to-face contacts, or close to the mandated minimum level. Although the data indicate that nine clients received no contacts during Month 3 for the institutionalization period, this may be an artifact of the data collection process. That is, if probation officers failed to submit data for subjects released late during this phase, the researchers were only able to make limited follow-up efforts to obtain the missing data.
The analysis by time periods also sheds light on the data concerning institutional contacts. Subjects in Group 3 (those released latest) were more likely to have spent most or all of their incarceration on an IAP caseload. Although the average number of institutional contacts for the entire IAP sample was 10, juveniles in Group 3 averaged 16 such contacts compared to 7 and 6 contacts for Groups 1 and 2, respectively. Since the average stay at Bensalem was only 11 months and the average number of institutional contacts for Group 3 was 16, it appears that the minimum standard of one contact per month was easily satisfied for subjects exposed to the IAP program for most or all of their incarceration. Total face-to-face contacts with clients' families during the incarceration period were also much more numerous for juveniles in Group 3 (4.4 contacts) compared to those in Groups 1 and 2 (2.3 and 0.9 contacts, respectively). These are important observations because the preferred way to implement the intensive aftercare model is to assign clients to the program at the time of institutional commitment.

Summary of Data on Program Phases

The analysis by program phases suggests that the IAP unit was able to deliver higher quality services during periods of relative personnel stability. It may be inferred from this observation that the unit will increase its chances of achieving the mandated level of services if this stability can be maintained.

Interestingly, it appears that the IAP probation officers adapted to the staff shortages during the transition period as best they could. For example, telephone contacts with youths were higher during this period than during the other two phases. This may indicate that
officers tried to maintain contact via telephone to compensate for their inability to make face-to-face contacts during the transition period. The following section notes that weekend contacts, which were regularly made throughout most of the study period, virtually ceased during the transition phase when officers were struggling to gain control of their new and/or large caseloads. These observations, along with those which follow concerning the services delivered by control group probation officers, reinforce the reality that the court will only achieve a level of services commensurate with the resources which it commits.

Weekend Contacts

The IAP standards direct that 30 percent of all aftercare contacts with juveniles be delivered during non-traditional hours, defined as weekends and evenings. Data were collected on face-to-face contacts with clients which occurred on weekends. For each of the first six post-release months, approximately 10 percent of the contacts delivered by IAP probation officers occurred on weekends. In the control group, the level of weekend contacts was essentially zero. Since data were not collected on evening contacts, the level of compliance with the IAP standards on non-traditional hours cannot be quantitatively assessed. However, the substantial and consistent delivery of contacts during weekends is a good indication that the IAP unit took this requirement seriously.

Interpretation of Control Group Contacts

It is obvious from the data in tables 4.1 and 4.2 that the level of contacts delivered by probation officers in the control group was
very low. In fact, 24 of the 46 control cases reportedly received no face-to-face contacts during the first six post-release months. Only 2 of the 46 cases received more than four face-to-face contacts during this entire six month period. The level of telephone contacts with youths and of family contacts was close to zero (less than 0.1 contact per month).

None of the above should be construed as an indictment of the aftercare services provided by the CRIP unit. To begin with, caseloads of probation officers in this unit are about ten times larger than IAP caseloads—and in fact IAP probation officers reported about ten times as many contacts. Secondly, eight control group cases who were "discharged without restraint" (DWOR), i.e., released from Bensalem without any probation supervision, were retained in the control group sample. Obviously, no contacts were expected or delivered to these subjects. In addition, problems concerning missing data were more common for control group cases, which may have caused proportionately more underreporting of actual contacts made. Perhaps the clearest interpretation of these data is that probation officers saddled with large caseloads cannot provide the intensity of aftercare service appropriate for the most serious juvenile offenders in the system.

Questionnaire Measures of Program Implementation

The data discussed in this section were collected by means of two instruments completed by probation officers in both the IAP and CRIP units. The "Pre-release and Aftercare Plan" instrument solicited information on planned activities and aftercare plan components. The "Bi-monthly Progress Report Summary" covered actual activities and solicited subjective information from the probation officers concern-
ing their clients' adjustment in the community. Response rates on both instruments were low (less than 60 percent), making interpretation of these data difficult.

In general, the differences between the experimental and control groups on these items were not significant. However, in almost every comparison the IAP subjects were rated as more cooperative, more involved in positive activities and as having fewer problems than CRIP subjects. Indexes were created by averaging items dealing with similar subjects. The two groups are compared on these indexes, and on some individual items, in the following sections.

Pre-Release Variables: Work and School

One of the traditional goals of aftercare planning is to coordinate school and/or work plans for the youth upon his return to the community. Tables 4.5 and 4.6 present the responses from two items dealing with these areas. Note that the sample sizes are less than 90 due to missing data.

Regarding school plans, fewer IAP subjects have no plans, and more are expected to attend vocational school or college. The same pattern is seen in the comparison of work plans: fewer IAP youths have no plans in place and more are expected to be discharged from Bensalem with full time employment. While the differences between groups on school plans are not significant, the differences on work plans are more pronounced.
Table 4.5
School Plans for Youth After Placement

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Experimental (N=34)</th>
<th>Control (N=27)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>None or Not</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Applicable</td>
<td>17.6%</td>
<td>37.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary School</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17.6%</td>
<td></td>
<td>14.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocational Training</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College</td>
<td>64.7%</td>
<td>48.1%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi-square = 2.9, df = 2, ns

Table 4.6
Work Plans for Youth After Placement

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Experimental (N=30)</th>
<th>Control (N=23)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>None or Not</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Applicable</td>
<td>10.0%</td>
<td>34.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Part Time Work</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46.7%</td>
<td></td>
<td>43.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Full Time Work</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43.3%</td>
<td></td>
<td>21.7%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi-square = 5.7, df = 2, p < .06

Bi-Monthly Summary Variables

Several questions asked probation officers to assess the degree to which subjects cooperated and made progress in their aftercare program. On all of these items, the average response indicated that IAP subjects were more cooperative than CRIP subjects. The summated Aftercare Index score (described in Chapter 3) for IAP clients was significantly higher than for CRIP clients, with higher scores.
indicating more cooperativeness.\(^3\) (Complete descriptions of this and all other indexes described in this section may be found in Appendix B.) The response to the question "Did the youth keep contacts with his probation officer?" is particularly interesting: 65 percent of the CRIP subjects were rated as "poor" on this item compared to only 27 percent of the IAP subjects.

Another series of nine "yes or no" questions asked probation officers whether clients were experiencing problems in specific areas. On eight of these nine items, IAP clients were described as having fewer problems on average than CRIP clients, and in three cases (problems with parents, with school, and with sexual relationships) the differences were significant. This is encouraging because positive family relationships and success in school are two goals of the intensive aftercare model. However, the low response rates to these items (under 50 percent) preclude drawing stronger conclusions. Moreover, the average scores on the Problem Index created from these items do not differ significantly between groups.

The Prosocial Index was created by averaging scores on seven items concerning how often the youth participated in various activities such as: athletics, hobbies, church, and associating with non-delinquent friends. The experimental and control groups had almost identical scores on this scale, with the control group subjects actually showing a marginally higher average. Due to excessive missing values on these items, only 37 of the 90 subjects have a valid score on this index.
Conclusions

The data reviewed in this chapter confirm that the level of services received by IAP clients was significantly greater than that received by CRIP clients. Juveniles in the experimental group were seen much more frequently by their probation officers and had more structured aftercare plans (as measured by work and school plans, for example) than did control juveniles. The data also show that experimentals were more cooperative and experienced fewer problems than controls, based on information provided by their probation officers.

Based on the large and statistically significant differences in the number of face-to-face contacts delivered, the IAP program achieved its goal of delivering a relatively intensive level of probation services both during and after release from placement. IAP clients and their families were seen on a regular basis, including weekends. Almost half of the control clients received no face-to-face contacts, by comparison.

The data on aftercare planning and community reintegration also show consistent, but not statistically significant differences between groups. Based on the individual items and the indexes constructed by the researchers, the experimentals showed better adjustment than controls on almost all measures. However, low response rates from the probation officers submitting this information and the resultant small sample sizes preclude attributing these differences to the experimental treatment (assignment to IAP).
(1) To calculate the minimum number of mandated contacts per month, each of the first three post-release months is assumed to contain exactly four weeks. Since the initial minimum of three contacts per week was to remain in effect for at least six weeks, the mandated standard for Month 1 is 12 contacts (3 per week times four weeks). The standard of three contacts per week remains in effect for the first two weeks of Month 2. During the last two weeks of Month 2, contacts could be reduced to two per week. Thus the minimum level for Month 2 is 10 contacts (3+3+2+2). For all of Month 3, the relaxed standard of two contacts per week is assumed to be in effect. Thus, the minimum for Month 3 is 8 contacts (2 per week times four weeks).

(2) The original data collection plan called for each probation officer to submit three bi-monthly progress reports for each subject under his or her supervision: one at the end of the client’s second month in the community, one after four months and the final report after six months. This plan proved unworkable for two reasons. First, many clients were not supervised for a full six months. Second, many probation officers failed to submit all three reports even for clients supervised for six months. Therefore, all available data contained in the bi-monthly reports which were submitted for a subject were summarized on one instrument by the researchers.

(3) For this and all other comparisons, a one-tailed t-test was used to test the hypothesis that the experimental group had average scores indicating more positive adjustment during the aftercare period.
CHAPTER 5
RECIDIVISM

Defining Recidivism

An important goal of the IAP program was to reduce recidivism among program participants in comparison to the control group. This section examines recidivism from several perspectives: how subsequent involvement in the criminal justice system was detected and documented, which indicators of recidivism are most valid, possible biases affecting comparisons between the experimental and control groups, and policy implications. To begin with, the procedures used to document recidivism will be reviewed.

The researchers tracked subsequent involvement in both the juvenile and criminal justice systems. The average age of subjects at release was about 18. Therefore many subjects were exposed to arrests as both juveniles and (later) as adults, while others were only exposed to one type of rearrest (juvenile if they did not turn 18 during the study and adult if they were 18 or older at release). When coding recidivism, juvenile and adult rearrests were distinguished. In the analyses presented here, however, the two types of recidivism are aggregated and this distinction is ignored. A complete breakdown of juvenile and adult recidivism is provided in Appendix C.¹

Juvenile Recidivism

Two sources were used to detect rearrests in the juvenile court system. The JCJC 1989 Statistical Card data base was searched to learn whether any study subjects had appeared in juvenile court during 1989. This data base contains information from all Pennsylvania
counties, and thus would reveal recidivism which occurred in counties other than Philadelphia. The second source was the Philadelphia Family Court computerized record system. This data base contains information on all court hearings in Family Court (new arrests, probation violations and dispositional reviews).

Each of these sources has strengths and weaknesses. The JCJC data base contains complete dispositional information on all cases. The obvious limitation of this source is that it only covers calendar 1989, while the follow-up period during which subjects were "tracked" ran until May 1990. The Philadelphia Family Court data base, on the other hand, is very current. Names of all study subjects were checked on the Family Court computer during May 1990. The drawback to this source is a frequent lack of dispositional information. Because cases typically require several months to proceed from referral to disposition in Philadelphia, arrests during early 1990 often had not been disposed of by the court. Comparing the two sources of juvenile recidivism, about half of the known recidivists were detected from the search of the JCJC data base and half from the Family Court computer.

Adult Recidivism

Two sources were also consulted to detect rearrests in the adult (criminal) court system. To check on possible rearrests throughout Pennsylvania, names of all subjects were checked against the Pennsylvania State Police (PSP) Automated Master Name Index data base. This source contains arrest information received from all police jurisdictions statewide. The limitations of this source are a lack of dispositional information in most cases, and questions regarding the currency and completeness of the data. (It is not known how often and
how faithfully jurisdictions report arrest data.) In fact, only about one third of all subjects known to have been rearrested as adults appeared in the PSP data base. The other two thirds were detected by the other source used to check adult recidivism.

The second source was the Philadelphia Municipal Court computer-
ized record system. This data base contains information on all dis-
posed and active adult arrests in Philadelphia County. While it is very current, dispositional information is obviously lacking on active cases. Adult system cases require even longer to proceed from arrest to disposition than do juvenile cases. While dispositional informa-
tion was often lacking, this source contained a detailed listing of alleged offenses and arrest dates. The main drawback to this system is the lack of information on jurisdictions outside Philadelphia County.

Recidivism has been variously defined as rearrest, reconviction, or reincarceration. From a policy standpoint, these distinctions are important. Some arrests eventually result in dismissals or acquit-
tals, which may indicate that the subject did not in fact commit a crime. However, dismissals sometimes result from administrative decisions (as part of a plea bargain involving other arrests, for example), so that lack of culpability cannot be reliably inferred. It could also be argued that reincarcerations are a more valid indicator of program "failure" because in this study the subjects are serious delinquents who were all previously incarcerated, and some "relapse" into the delinquent lifestyle (as measured by arrests) is almost inevitable. In addition, reincarcerations impose a high financial cost on the juvenile and criminal justice systems. Finally, using reconvictions may be attractive for comparisons with previous
Intensive and Aftercare programs implemented in juvenile courts in Pennsylvania, because reconviction was the measure traditionally recorded in evaluations of these programs.

In a practical sense, only rearrest data give an unbiased picture of recidivism because dispositional information is missing for a large proportion of known rearrests. The preponderance of missing dispositional data is partly a result of the relatively short follow-up periods in this study (about eleven months on average). Also, convictions and incarcerations reflect court processing decisions as well as factors which relate to actual culpability.\(^2\) For this reason, rearrests are the primary indicator of recidivism reported here.

Follow-Up Time

The level of recidivism observed in any group of released offenders is partly a function of the follow-up period during which subjects are tracked. All things being equal, those observed longer will have more "opportunity" to reoffend. In this study, the observation period is defined as the time from each subject’s release date until the end of the data collection period in May 1990. Since subjects were released between December 1988 and January 1990, this period varies from a low of about 3 months to a maximum of about 17 months. Although the observation period is an important factor in the interpretation of the study results, it is equally important to control for "street time."

Street time is the amount of time a subject was actually at large in the community. This period may be less than the overall or "calendar" observation period if the subject was reincarcerated or if he left the state and therefore could not be tracked. The following decision rules were used to calculate each subject’s follow-up period,
controlling for street time. In the absence of any evidence indicating time "off the street," the follow-up period or "time at risk" is defined as the time from release (from Bensalem) until May 4, 1990 (the end of the data collection period). For subjects who were permitted to relocate out-of-state after a period of probation supervision, the follow-up period ends on the reported date of relocation. For subjects reincarcerated, the period ends on the reported date of incarceration. In some cases, subjects were reincarcerated but then released before May 4, 1990. This generally occurred when IAP subjects were sent back to Bensalem for a technical violation of probation; such stays averaged about 90 days. For these subjects, the follow-up period is defined as the length of time from the original Bensalem release until May 4, 1990, minus the length of the subsequent incarceration.

Interpretation of Recidivism Measures

A major strength of this study is the experimental design. Given that the two groups differed only in terms of the type of probation supervision received, any differences in "outcomes" may reliably be attributed to the differences in supervision. In the parlance of experimental research, recidivism is the dependent variable or the outcome observed by the experimenter, while the type of probation supervision is the independent variable, subject to the experimenter's control. While this model is true in the abstract, it may not hold for every possible operationalization of recidivism. To examine this issue we begin by defining recidivism in the simplest terms, whereby each subject is classified as a "success" or "failure."
Using this criterion, a subject is a success if no rearrests occurred and a failure if one or more rearrests were observed. This is a relatively insensitive measure since it does not distinguish between single time and multiple offenders, nor does it differentiate between those arrested for minor versus serious offenses. However, this "binary" definition of recidivism is ideal for measuring the effect of the independent variable, which in this case is the type of probation supervision. This simple measure should capture the effect of the type of supervision (referred to as the "aftercare effect") and should be immune from "system response effects." The logic of this statement is as follows.

Since the two groups were randomly selected from a pool of incarcerated offenders, each group of subjects is assumed to be equal in terms of their risk of recidivism. (The description of the sample in Chapter 3 confirmed that the two groups were essentially equal on almost all measures.) Overall follow-up periods were also equal between groups (street time is not relevant when only a single rearrest defines recidivism). Because arrest (rather than conviction or incarceration) is the recidivism criterion, there is no reason to expect any bias in the way subjects from each group are treated by police. In other words, when the police observe or investigate an alleged crime, their decision to arrest or not arrest does not depend in any way on whether the suspect is assigned to conventional aftercare supervision (the control group) or intensive aftercare supervision (the experimental group). The criterion of "any subsequent arrest" should therefore be an unbiased indicator of the independent variable or aftercare effect.
Bias becomes a potential problem when recidivism is defined as the "number of subsequent arrests." This criterion differentiates between single and multiple offenders, and may therefore be seen as a better indicator of the "propensity to reoffend." However, the fact that some subjects reoffend only once while others do so numerous times may reflect system processing effects as well as the propensity to reoffend. For example, if offenders from the experimental group are "taken off the street" quickly in response to an initial rearrest while offenders from the control group are allowed to remain in the community, the most criminalistic experimental subjects will be incapacitated while their criminalistic counterparts in the control group will be free to reoffend again. In fact, this very pattern appears to have been operating in the current study. Before examining this pattern in detail, it is instructive to examine the results using both types of recidivism measures discussed thus far.

Original and Final Samples

The sample selection process was described earlier in Chapter 1. Sources of sample attrition and procedures for randomly replacing "lost" subjects were reviewed. Ideally, all analyses would involve only the "original" sample to minimize the possibility of compromising the experimental design. The original sample was stratified by housing units (cottages) at Bensalem to help ensure equality between the groups, for example. However, the type of sample attrition experienced does create problems of interpretation if the original sample is maintained. For example, many experimental subjects did not in fact receive IAP services because they escaped, were discharged before the program began, or because the court mistakenly discharged them to
another probation unit or without probation supervision altogether. Some control subjects also escaped or were discharged before data collection mechanisms were in place. In other words, the researchers were not able to maintain complete control over the independent variable (type of probation supervision) in the original sample. Therefore, inappropriate cases were dropped from both the experimental and control groups, and were replaced by randomly assigning cases from a replacement pool of eligible offenders at Bensalem.

As explained in Chapter 1, the final sample of 90 juveniles contains fairly complete data for all subjects. All of these subjects had planned discharges from Bensalem (rather than escapes) and were followed for a minimum of three months post-release. All of the experimental subjects were definitely assigned to an IAP probation officer. Care was taken to maintain the randomization process when replacing cases. The number of cases lost from each group was fairly even, and the number lost for each reason (escapes, early discharges, etc.) was also comparable between groups. Nonetheless, the equivalence of the experimental and control groups in the final sample cannot be assumed, because differential attrition from the original experimental and control groups (which are assumed to have been equivalent) may have compromised the randomization process.

Fortunately, our initial analyses yielded comparable results for both the original and final samples: the IAP group was involved in much less recidivism. To strengthen the confidence of our conclusions, we first present the basic recidivism data for the original sample. More detailed analysis of the original sample is difficult, however, due to missing data (e.g. lack of interviews with subjects who escaped or were discharged early) and problems of interpretation.
(e.g., whether escapees fled the county and thus rendered themselves immune from tracking). Subsequent analyses will therefore concentrate on the final sample.

Original Sample of 106 Subjects

As explained earlier, the two groups of 53 subjects each were drawn from the population of juveniles incarcerated at Bensalem during October 1988 who met the assignment criteria for the IAP program. The sample pool was stratified by housing units at Bensalem and cases were then randomly assigned to the experimental or control group. A number of juveniles in this sample were released between November 1988 and early December 1988, before the IAP program was operational, and therefore never received the experimental treatment. This fact should be considered when interpreting the recidivism results which follow.

The researchers were not able to interview many juveniles in the final sample because they were released early or escaped. Also, no data on these subjects were requested from or furnished by probation officers. However, recidivism data were available on all subjects in the original sample from the sources listed at the beginning of this chapter. The two sections which follow briefly compare the recidivism of the the two groups in the original sample.

Proportion of Subjects Rearrested

This is the simple binary recidivism criterion discussed earlier. Subjects with no observed rearrests are classified as successes and those with any known rearrests as failures. No distinction is made between juvenile and adult system rearrests--either type of arrest
defines a subject as a failure, regardless of the disposition or sentence received. The average overall follow-up periods of the experimental and control groups are equivalent at just over one year. The results are presented in table 5.1. Based on the criterion of "no subsequent arrests," 27 experimental subjects (50.9%) were successes compared to only 20 (37.7%) control subjects. However, the difference is not statistically significant.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Experimental</th>
<th>Control</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Successes</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(no rearrests)</td>
<td>(50.9%)</td>
<td>(37.7%)</td>
<td>(44.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Failures</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(1+ rearrests)</td>
<td>(49.1%)</td>
<td>(62.3%)</td>
<td>(55.7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>106</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Chi-square = 1.9, df = 1, ns)

Number of Rearrests

When the total number of rearrests committed by each group is compared, the results favor the experimental group by a much more dramatic margin. The controls were responsible for twice as many new arrests as the experimentals, a statistically significant difference. The results are presented in table 5.2. The types of offenses for which subjects were rearrested are roughly comparable across the two groups. In some ways, recidivism among the experimental subjects appears to be less serious. Offense seriousness will be examined more closely in a later section.
Table 5.2
Average Number of Rearrests Per Subject Over
Entire Observation Period in Original Sample (N=106)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Experimental (N=53)</th>
<th>Control (N=53)</th>
<th>Total (N=106)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>1.94</td>
<td>1.43</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(t = −2.82, df = 104, p < .01, two-tailed)

Final Sample of 90 Subjects

This sample was also described in earlier chapters. All subjects had planned releases from Bensalem, and all of the experimental subjects were definitely assigned to an IAP probation officer. Of course there is considerable overlap between the original and final samples.

Proportion of Subjects Rearrested

Once again, successes are defined as cases with no subsequent rearrests, while one or more rearrests classify a subject as a failure. The results for the final sample are presented in Table 5.3.

Table 5.3
Proportion of Subjects With at Least One Rearrest Over Entire Observation Period in Final Sample (N=90)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Experimental</th>
<th>Control</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Successes</td>
<td>22 (50.0%)</td>
<td>12 (26.1%)</td>
<td>34 (37.8%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Failures</td>
<td>22 (50.0%)</td>
<td>34 (73.9%)</td>
<td>56 (62.2%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Chi-square = 4.5, df = 1, p < .03)
The results favor the experimental group by a wider margin, and the difference is statistically significant. While a fifty percent failure proportion among the IAP subjects may not seem to indicate program success in the absolute sense, this figure is within the range often reported for serious delinquents. A higher proportion of control subjects is classified as failures than in the original sample (73.9% compared to 62.3%). However, the interpretation of these results for the final sample is complicated by the fact that observation times were not equivalent between the experimental and control groups. The experimental group averaged 0.83 years of follow-up compared to 0.97 years for the control group. The difference is significant. Because of the unequal follow-up times, the significant difference in favor of the experimental group apparent in table 5.3 cannot be unambiguously interpreted as evidence that the Intensive Aftercare program is "working."

One way to control for differing follow-up times is to designate a shorter observation period for which data are available on all cases. For example, all 90 cases in the final sample were tracked for at least three (3) months. This period therefore provides an unbiased comparison of the proportion of subjects rearrested. When follow-up periods longer than three months are employed, one method of controlling for unequal observation periods is to drop cases not followed for the entire period. While this is not a perfect solution, it can help clarify the results. Tables 5.4, 5.5, and 5.6 compare the experimental and control groups from the final sample on the recidivism criterion "proportion of subjects rearrested" over three different time periods.
The results in table 5.4 are based on a three month observation period. Only subjects arrested within three months of their release are counted as failures. As mentioned earlier, all 90 cases were tracked for at least three months. The experimental group again shows a higher proportion of successes, although the difference does not reach statistical significance.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Experimental</th>
<th>Control</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Successes (no rearrests)</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(79.5%)</td>
<td>(65.2%)</td>
<td>(72.2%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Failures (1+ rearrests)</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(20.5%)</td>
<td>(34.8%)</td>
<td>(27.8%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Chi-square = 1.6, df = 1, ns)

Table 5.5 presents the results of a similar analysis based on a six month observation period. Cases lacking at least six months follow-up were dropped from this analysis; the attrition was about the same for both groups. Here, the experimental group again manifests less recidivism, although the two groups are more similar after six months than they were after only three. Together, tables 5.4 and 5.5 indicate that experimental failures tended to experience their first rearrest between four and six months after release, while control failures generally experienced their first rearrest more quickly (by the third post-release month).
Table 5.5
Proportion of Subjects With at Least One Rearrest
During First Six Post-Release Months in Final Sample (N=75)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Experimental</th>
<th>Control</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Successes</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(no rearrests)</td>
<td>(58.3%)</td>
<td>(48.7%)</td>
<td>(53.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Failures</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(1+ rearrests)</td>
<td>(41.7%)</td>
<td>(51.3%)</td>
<td>(46.7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Chi-square = 0.4, df = 1, ns)

To complete the picture, table 5.6 shows the results based on a maximum of nine months after release. Case attrition is more of a problem here, since only 61 of 90 cases were followed for at least nine months. Moreover, attrition from the experimental group is greater, reflecting the shorter average observation times for that group. With that caveat, it is again apparent that the experimental group shows slightly, but not significantly better outcomes.

To summarize the results depicted in tables 5.3 through 5.6, experimental subjects manifested less recidivism than control subjects at each point surveyed. Based on a criterion of at least one juvenile or adult rearrest, the proportion of failures in the control group was from 10 to 24 percent higher than in the experimental group. The results do not reach statistical significance except in table 5.3 where the entire observation period is considered. However, that comparison is biased by the longer follow-up periods in the control group. Since the results which control for differing observation periods (tables 5.4 through 5.6) do not reach statistical significance, the superior performance of the experimental group can only be considered suggestive of an "aftercare effect" rather than conclusive proof of one.
Table 5.6
Proportion of Subjects With at Least One Rearrest
During First Nine Post-Release Months in Final Sample (N=61)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Experimental</th>
<th>Control</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Successes</td>
<td>14 (50.0%)</td>
<td>12 (36.4%)</td>
<td>26 (42.6%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Failures</td>
<td>14 (50.0%)</td>
<td>21 (63.6%)</td>
<td>35 (57.4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Chi-square = 0.4, df = 1, ns)

Seriousness of New Offenses

The types of offenses for which subjects were rearrested are shown in table 5.7. For each recidivist, the most serious alleged offense across all his rearrests is tabulated. Generally, recidivists from the experimental and control groups tended to be arrested for similar crimes, although experimentalists were more likely to be arrested for misdemeanor drug charges and controls were more likely to be arrested for Theft.

Since this is a sample of serious offenders, it may be instructive to re-define recidivism as a new arrest for a felony offense. For this analysis, offenses coded as Theft, Drugs (misdemeanor) and Other in table 5.7 are dropped from the analysis. Using this operationalization of recidivism, 25 percent of the experimental subjects were failures compared to 41 percent of the controls. This is similar to the pattern when all rearrests were considered, and once again the difference between groups is not statistically significant. \(^{10}\)
Table 5.7
Most Serious Alleged Offense for Which Recidivists Were Rearrested

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Offense</th>
<th>Experimental</th>
<th>Control</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Murder</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4.5%</td>
<td>5.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rape/IDS1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>2.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Robbery</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>27.3%</td>
<td>29.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burglary</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4.5%</td>
<td>11.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agg. Assault</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4.5%</td>
<td>2.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drugs (felony)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9.1%</td>
<td>2.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theft</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>13.6%</td>
<td>26.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drugs (misdem.)</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>31.8%</td>
<td>11.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4.5%</td>
<td>5.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Percents refer to the proportion of recidivists in each group.

Survival Analysis

In this analysis, the recidivism criterion is the "time to first rearrest," measured in months. Only the first rearrest is considered. A subject is considered to "survive" as long as he remains arrest-free. Subjects with no new arrests are considered to survive until the end of their individual observation period; for these cases (the successes), observations are said to be "censored." Survival analysis is well suited to data sets in which follow-up times vary between groups. In this study, the survival criterion is another means of
probing for a possible aftercare effect. Although such an effect could not be statistically demonstrated using the criterion "proportion of subjects rearrested," the survival criterion also takes the timing of recidivism into account.

The graph of the survival function is shown in figure 5.1. The horizontal axis shows "months after release." The vertical axis represents the "cumulative proportion surviving." Comparing the plots for the experimental and control groups, the cumulative proportion surviving is greater for the experimental group at every monthly interval. The flatness of the experimental plot beyond the eighth month is notable. None of the 12 experimental subjects who survived into the ninth month were rearrested. In the control group, 15 subjects survived at least until the ninth month; 7 of these subjects experienced their first rearrest during or beyond the ninth month. Despite the patterns just described, the survival experiences of the two groups were not significantly different based on this analysis.12

Figure 5.1
Survival Experience of Final Sample (Time to First Arrest) During the First Nine Months After Release

![Graph showing survival experiences of experimental and control groups.](image-url)
Number of Rearrests

In this section the volume or prevalence of reoffending is the recidivism criterion. For each group, the total number of recorded rearrests is divided by the number of subjects in the group to arrive at the average number of rearrests per subject. When the prevalence of offending (average number of rearrests), rather than the incidence of recidivism (proportion of subjects rearrested) is the criterion for comparing groups, follow-up periods must control for street time. The rationale for this was alluded to earlier. If an early arrest results in subsequent incarceration, the subject will be "off the street" and probably incapacitated from reoffending, regardless of whether or not he is still being "followed." To distinguish between the overall follow-up and the part of that period during which the subject is presumed to be in the community, the former is referred to as the "observation period" while the latter period (which controls for street time) is referred to as the "time at risk."

The decision rules for calculating time at risk were discussed earlier in this chapter and will not be repeated here. By definition, average time at risk is less than the average observation period. For the final sample the average time at risk is 0.77 years for the experimental group and 0.86 years for the control group, a small and statistically insignificant difference.\textsuperscript{13} Comparisons based on total time at risk should therefore be unbiased, and we begin this stage of the analysis by comparing the frequency or incidence of recidivism between groups based on all known rearrests. For each group, the total number of rearrests observed is divided by the number of subjects in the group. The results are presented in table 5.8.
Table 5.8
Average Number of Rearrests Per Subject Over Entire Observation Period in Final Sample (N=90)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Experimental (N=44)</th>
<th>Control (N=46)</th>
<th>Total (N=90)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.02</td>
<td>2.07</td>
<td>1.56</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(t = -2.64, df = 88, p < .01, two-tailed)

Looking at table 5.8, the control group accrued more than twice as many arrests as the experimental group, and the difference is statistically significant. Note that these figures are very close to those for the original sample of 106 subjects presented earlier in table 5.2. This consistent and significant difference in both the original and final samples is evidence of what we term the "system response effect." Before discussing this effect, the final sample groups will be compared on the average number of rearrests per subject based on follow-up times of three, six and nine months.

Table 5.9 contains the results based on a maximum time at risk of three months. Subjects whose time at risk is less than three months are dropped from the analysis. Sample attrition is minimal for this comparison (3 cases).

Table 5.9
Average Number of Rearrests Per Subject Over First Three Post-Release Months in Final Sample (N=87)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Experimental (N=41)</th>
<th>Control (N=46)</th>
<th>Total (N=87)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.32</td>
<td>0.52</td>
<td>0.43</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(t = -1.15, df = 85, ns)
As seen in table 5.9, the experimental group was responsible for about 40 percent fewer arrests than the control group. The difference is not statistically significant. Not surprisingly, the volume of arrests is relatively low since most subjects were not rearrested within three months after release (see table 5.4), and those who were rearrested generally did not have time to commit multiple offenses.

Table 5.10 contains the results for cases who were at risk for at least 6 months. As was the case after three months, the experimental group accounted for about 40 percent fewer arrests than the control group, and the difference is not significant.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Experimental</th>
<th>Control</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(N=32)</td>
<td>(N=37)</td>
<td>(N=69)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.56</td>
<td>0.92</td>
<td>0.75</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(t = -1.40, df = 67, ns)

Finally, the results based on cases at risk for at least nine months are presented in table 5.11. As before when all arrests were considered regardless of time at risk (see table 5.8), the control group accounted for twice as many rearrests on average. The lower volume of arrests here compared to table 5.8 is probably due to systematic sample attrition. This attrition and the small sample sizes limit the conclusions which can be drawn from this comparison. Yet, the results are consistent with the rest of the analysis and the difference between groups approaches conventional levels of significance.
Table 5.11
Average Number of Rearrests Per Subject Over
First Nine Post-Release Months in Final Sample (N=49)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Experimental (N=23)</th>
<th>Control (N=26)</th>
<th>Total (N=49)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0.65</td>
<td>1.31</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(t = -1.98, df = 47, p < .06, two-tailed)

Seriousness of Offenses

In this part of the analysis, only rearrests for felony offenses were counted. The control group again showed almost twice the volume of recidivism over the entire observation period. Experimental averaged 0.41 felony arrests compared to 0.76 felony arrests for controls.15

The System Response Effect

The difference in the volume of rearrests between the experimental and control groups is striking. As seen in the previous section, the control subjects were responsible for twice as many arrests, using the most global time frames. The differences are also notable when individual cases are considered. For example, in the original sample eight (8) control subjects had five or more arrests compared to only one (1) experimental subject. Since the two groups were more similar on the "proportion of subjects rearrested" criterion, we suspected that the larger difference in the total volume of rearrests was due in part to differential responses to initial rearrests. Specifically, it was reasonable to believe that IAP clients who were rearrested would face swift and meaningful sanctions while control group recidivists
might not. This section examines that hypothesis. All subsequent references are to the final sample of 90 subjects.

Table 5.12 illustrates that five experimental cases were returned to Bensalem as probation violators even though no new crimes had been committed; no control cases were recommitted in the absence of a new arrest. This tendency of the IAP officers to use the probation violation to remove youths from the community rather than to wait for court sentencing was also evident in their responses to their cases who were arrested as adults. IAP officers violated six IAP youths following their arrests as adults. Control officers apparently preferred to let the courts respond to arrests of youths on their caseloads, as probation violation procedures following their clients being arrested as adults were never initiated.

The consequence of these differential decisions can be seen in columns 3 and 4 of table 5.12, describing youths incarcerated following juvenile and adult arrest. Eight of the 12 control subjects arrested only as juveniles were sentenced following arrest, while only 3 of the 6 experimental arrests only as juveniles were sentenced as a result of the arrest. The same pattern holds for adult arrests. Six of the 15 control subjects arrested only as adults were incarcerated following sentencing for these offenses, while none of the 10 experimental cases were incarcerated following sentencing.

These figures suggest that IAP probation officers may have intervened earlier than control officers following signs that their charges were having difficulty remaining crime-free. By using the mechanism of the probation violation, IAP officers may have been attempting to effectively remove the youths from the community before they had the
Table 5.12  
System Responses to Probation Violations and Rearrests

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Reincarcerated</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Not reincarcerated after rearrest (J, A, J&amp;A)</th>
<th>Total rearrested (J, A, J&amp;A) *</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Probation Violation; no rearrests</td>
<td>for adult rearrest</td>
<td>on juvenile rearrest</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental (N=44)</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>11.4</td>
<td>13.6</td>
<td>6.8</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(N)</td>
<td>(5)</td>
<td>(6)</td>
<td>(3)</td>
<td>(0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control (N=46)</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>17.4</td>
<td>13.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(N)</td>
<td>(0)</td>
<td>(0)</td>
<td>(8)</td>
<td>(6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* J = Juvenile arrests only  
A = Adult arrests only  
J&A = Both juvenile and adult arrests
opportunity to engage in larger numbers, and perhaps more serious, incidents of crime.

Among those youths who were recommitted following arrest, considerable disparities exist between experimental and controls in the average time in months from first arrest to recommitment. Table 5.13 shows that among the experimental who were arrested when they were still juveniles, the average amount of time experimental youths spent on the street before recommitment was 1.5 months. This is a full four months, on average, less than the lag time experienced by comparable control subjects. The average time in months between the first arrest as a juvenile and recommitment for control youths was 5.5 months. This pattern is repeated among youths whose first arrest following release occurred after they had turned 18 years of age. For experimental youths arrested as adults, the average number of months from the first arrest to recommitment was 2.4 months; for controls it was 6.6 months, again a 4 months differential. Considering the fact that control youths received minimal levels of probation supervision in the community, these additional four months on the street may have provided added opportunities for control youths to engage in criminal behavior.

Table 5.13
Average Time from First Rearrest to Recommitment (in Months)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Experimental</th>
<th>Control</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>For Juvenile Rearrests</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>5.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For Adult Rearrests</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>6.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: The 3 experimental and 8 controls recommitted for juvenile rearrests were reincarcerated after conviction in juvenile court. The 6 experimental recommitted for an adult rearrest were returned as juvenile probation violators, while the 6 controls recommitted for an adult rearrest were reincarcerated after conviction in criminal court.
Indeed, it appears that this is what occurred among control youths. Table 5.14 presents the mean number of new arrests committed after the first arrest but before recommitment. Again, there are differences between experimentals and controls. Among experimental youths arrested as juveniles following release to intensive aftercare, the mean number of rearrests is 0; none were rearrested prior to being removed from the community. For control youths, the mean for rearrests is 0.88, implying that on average, each youth experienced one additional rearrest prior to recommitment. Some control youths accumulated substantial rearrest records during this period, including one control case with 8 rearrests prior to his reincarceration.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Experimental</th>
<th>Control</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>For Juvenile Rearrests</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For Adult Rearrests</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td>2.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The same pattern can be observed among experimentals and controls first rearrested as adults. Table 5.14 shows that on average control subjects were rearrested more frequently than experimentals, at a margin of over two to one. Specifically, experimentals averaged about one additional arrest between the first arrest and recommitment while on average control subjects were arrested twice. The larger number of adult rearrests for both experimentals and controls compared to juvenile levels is probably due to the slower case processing time of the
adult court, coupled with the fact that juvenile probation officers do not tend to be involved in adult cases.

These figures provide clues to help us explicate the recidivism results reported earlier. At the first signs that juveniles under their charge are experiencing difficulties, it appears that IAP officers respond by taking actions which will remove the youths from the community. Apparently this sometimes occurs during the "relapse phase," prior to the youth's actually committing new offenses (or at least getting caught for them), through the process of probation violation. New juvenile or adult arrests, of course, were a clear indication that some relapse had occurred, and it appears that IAP officers were proactive in getting these cases off the streets as well. Revoking the juvenile probation of a client arrested as an adult for a serious offense was seen as a legitimate means of removing the juvenile from the community quickly before any further arrests occurred. This strategy was sometimes used when clients arrested as adults were released on bail and thus were expected to remain at large for several months awaiting trial.

This quick response of IAP officers to cases which were manifesting difficulties appeared to reduce the frequency of their reoffending. Moreover, it may have ultimately resulted in the youths receiving less severe sentences when they were eventually seen before the court. As the tables illustrate, proportionately fewer IAP youths who were reviewed for either juvenile or adult arrests were sentenced to confinement. This may be the result of more immediate intervention by the IAP officers which kept the extent of reoffending, and perhaps even its severity, among IAP youths to a minimum.
In contrast, the figures present a different picture of the post-release supervision process for control youths. With large caseloads, control probation officers were not able to monitor for relapse potential the behavior of youths on their caseloads. Apparently they did not have adequate information about the post-release adjustment of their charges to know whether any were experiencing relapse problems. And even if they were aware that youths on their caseloads were experiencing difficulties, the additional resources required to process paperwork for probation violations would have probably precluded their taking this tack. Even after their charges were formally arrested for criminal behavior, control probation officers apparently waited for the cases to take their courses through the judicial system. Again, it was not customary for CRIP probation officers to take action to remove probationers from the community even after they had been arrested for new offenses. The result of the "laissez faire" responses on the part of control probation officers, understandable given the magnitude of their caseloads, was to provide youths with additional time in the community in which to get into trouble. Ultimately, this strategy may have led to more severe sentences and longer confinements for control subjects. This issue is briefly examined in the following section.

Recidivism Based on Conviction and Incarceration

As explained at the outset of this chapter, arrest-based recidivism criteria are most useful for exploring a possible "aftercare effect." Recidivism measures based on convictions or incarcerations, on the other hand, are by definition related to "system response effects." Whether a given arrest results in a conviction or
incarceration depends on many discretionary factors, and not simply on the offender's culpability. It is for this reason that we have defined recidivism only in terms of rearrests up to this point. The fact remains, however, that the two groups differed widely on new convictions and incarcerations—differences several times the magnitude of the inter-group differences on new arrests. The differences were so great that we suspected some type of system processing effects accounted for them, although not necessarily the same effects described earlier. This section explores these differences and their possible causes.

The data on convictions and incarcerations are presented in table 5.15. It is important to note that these numbers refer to subjects who were known to be convicted and/or sentenced to incarceration during the study follow-up period. Undoubtedly, many subjects for whom dispositional data were lacking were eventually convicted and/or incarcerated. This raises the possibility that artifacts of the data collection process account for the differences between groups. For example, control subjects had longer follow-up times, on average, and it is well established that convictions and incarcerations are sensitive to the length of the tracking period. However, the differences are so large that the relatively small difference in observation time could hardly account for them. In addition (although not shown in table 5.15), the differences hold even for the earliest recorded arrests, which would be least affected by short follow-ups. We also do not suspect that differences in offense seriousness accounted for the lower conviction/incarceration rates, as there was little variation on offense seriousness between the two groups.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Experimental (N=44)</th>
<th>Control (N=46)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>I. Juvenile Court</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jurisdiction:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean # of arrests</td>
<td>0.18</td>
<td>0.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean # of convictions</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>0.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean # of incarcerations</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>0.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percent of arrests leading to conviction</td>
<td>38.89</td>
<td>57.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>II. Criminal Court</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jurisdiction:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean # of arrests</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td>1.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean # of convictions</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>0.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean # of incarcerations</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percent of arrests leading to conviction</td>
<td>8.33</td>
<td>27.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>III. Total, both types of recidivism:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean # of arrests</td>
<td>1.02</td>
<td>2.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean # of convictions</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>0.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean # of incarcerations</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>0.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percent of arrests leading to conviction</td>
<td>13.73</td>
<td>40.09</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

We begin by examining part III of table 5.15, which contains information on all recidivism (combined juvenile and adult). While controls incurred about twice as many arrests as experimental, they incurred about six times as many convictions and incarcerations. Put
another way, controls were about three times as likely to be convicted for a given arrest as were experimentals. Examining juvenile and adult rearrests separately sheds additional light on this phenomenon. As seen in part I of table 5.15, there was relatively little difference in the processing of juvenile recidivists: given a new arrest, experimentals were only slightly less likely to be convicted (38.9 percent chance) than were controls (57.5 percent chance). However, the patterns for criminal court recidivism (part II) reveal greater disparity: controls were about three times more likely than experimentals to be convicted as adults, given an adult arrest.

We theorized earlier that IAP clients committed only about half as many total arrests as CRIP clients because IAP juveniles were closely monitored and were often recommitted at the first sign of relapse. However, this policy would predict relatively more convictions and incarcerations for IAP clients, rather than fewer, as were actually recorded. Some other type of process must therefore account for the differences. For example, we have already pointed out that rearrested experimentals were often recommitted as probation violators, while rearrested controls were only recommitted as a result of a new conviction. When interpreting the data in table 5.15, it is important to remember that many clients were rearrested as both juveniles and adults. Furthermore, by the time they were eventually sentenced, there might have been several charges lodged against them. Indeed, we suspect that the much higher "conviction rates" of control subjects reflect the fact that controls were frequently multiple reoffenders, while experimentals typically committed only one new offense (in part because they were often recommitted after that offense).
The tendency for controls to incur multiple rearrests might have led to higher overall conviction rates for several reasons. An examination of the juvenile and adult rearrest histories revealed that "earlier" arrests were often not resolved until "later" arrests had been recorded. This was especially true in criminal court. Subjects with multiple rearrests therefore, were often sentenced on several offenses at the same hearing. These multiple reoffenders (mostly controls) might have been reconvicted more frequently than single reoffenders (mostly experimentals) because prosecutors and judges saw them as a greater danger to the community or because the juveniles pled guilty as part of a plea bargain. Since prior record increases one's exposure to incarceration under Pennsylvania's sentencing guidelines, juveniles with multiple offenses may have pled guilty in return for a sentence of probation or a relatively short period of incarceration.

The patterns for new incarcerations as depicted in table 5.15 generally mirror the patterns for convictions and will not be discussed here. In terms of the overall benefits of the IAP program, the far lower conviction and incarceration rates of the experimental group are very impressive. These differences in favor of the experimental group represent considerable savings to the county, the state and the community. (A more detailed version of table 5.15, including tests of statistical significance, is contained in Appendix C.)
ENDNOTES

(1) Analyses of only juvenile or only adult arrests were complicated by the fact that the two groups differed on average age at release from Bensalem. Low cell counts were also a problem. The decision to aggregate the two types of recidivism is reasonable, given that arrests are the prime indicator reported. Police making an arrest in this age group are probably unaware of the subject’s legal status at the time, as most released subjects were between 17 and 19 years old.

(2) For example, arrests committed by a juvenile close to age 18 may not be prosecuted if the individual also has adult arrests pending. In the case of multiple arrests in the juvenile or criminal justice system, some arrests may be dismissed as part of a plea bargain in which the individual pleads guilty to other charges.

(3) Juvenile incarcerations were assumed to begin on the date of disposition as recorded on the JCJC Statistical Card or the Philadelphia Family Court computer. Unless a subsequent release was indicated, juvenile incarcerations were assumed to have lasted throughout the remainder or the follow-up period. Adult incarcerations were assumed to begin on the date of sentencing. Virtually all documented sentences of adult incarceration were at least one year in length. Therefore, these periods of incarceration were also assumed to have lasted for the duration of the observation period. It is possible, however, that some subjects were on the street for part of their presumed incarceration because of bail release or an early release from a county jail.
sentence to parole. Finally, the few subjects arrested as adults for Murder were assumed to have been incarcerated on the date of arrest, since bail was not a possibility.

(4) Juvenile sentences are indeterminate, and therefore releases cannot be accurately predicted. Otherwise, the original sample would not have included juveniles "known" to be close to release. Since release dates were not known, the researchers decided to include all eligible juveniles in the sample pool, even though some releases during November and early December 1988 were inevitable.

(5) Experimental mean = 12.48 years, control mean = 12.99 years, t = -.56, ns.

(6) Two observations concerning offense seriousness are of interest. Three (3) of the control subjects were arrested for Murder, while none of the experimental subjects was charged with that offense. Also, 6 of the 26 rearrested experimental subjects were charged with drug offenses only; 2 of the 33 rearrested control subjects were charged with drug offenses only. This observation is not meant to minimize the seriousness of drug law violations, but is offered in light of the current drug-related environment in Philadelphia. Activities related to drug use and sales are almost routine in many neighborhoods. Our interviews with subjects at Bensalem confirmed that three fourths of them use marijuana on a regular basis and many are involved in sales-related networks which are organized along the lines of street gangs. Given this environment and the related peer pressure, subjects whose only "relapse" into a delinquent lifestyle
involves drug-related crimes may in fact be consciously refraining from committing person or property offenses.


(8) \( t = -2.06, \ df = 88, \ p < .05, \) two-tailed.

(9) Average follow-up times were shorter for the final sample because the most common reason for dropping a subject was an early release (i.e. before the IAC program was operational). A total of 20 cases out of the original sample of 106 were dropped for this reason.

The longer average follow-up periods for the control group in the final sample could result from a combination of random and systematic factors. For example, IAC subjects stayed longer at Bensalem than control cases, on average: 11.16 months compared to 10.40 months. Although this difference is small and not statistically significant, it represents about half of the average difference in follow-up time. All other factors being equal, juveniles retained longer in the institution will have shorter observation periods.

(10) Chi-square = 2.0, \( \ df = 1, \) ns.

(11) Each subject’s observation period is coded in 30 day periods starting with his release date. For convenience, these 30 day intervals are referred to as months.

(12) The value of the Lee-Desu statistic for the survival data is 1.44, \( \ df = 1, \ p = 0.23. \)
(13) \( t = -1.16, \ df = 88, \ ns. \)

(14) Recall that a subject’s time at risk was considered to end on the date of any subsequent incarceration. Subjects with multiple rearrests were more likely to be reincarcerated. Therefore when the sample is limited to only those subjects who were at risk for at least nine months, many of the multiple recidivists will not be included. The remaining subjects will contain proportionately more subjects with no or only one rearrest, so that the volume of reoffending for this group will be lower than in the entire sample over a comparable period.

(15) \( t = -1.64, \ df = 88, \ p < .10 \)

(16) These tables reflect relatively few cases per cell and are intended to illuminate study results presented earlier, rather than to test hypotheses. Hence, no tests of significance have been run on these figures.
CHAPTER 6
SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

The Intensive Aftercare Program implemented by the Philadelphia Juvenile Probation Department has been shown to be effective in reducing the frequency, although not the incidence, of criminal behavior among a group of high-risk, serious juvenile offenders. Juveniles who were supervised by an IAP officer committed fewer offenses, on average, after release from institutional placement than a control group which was supervised under the model of "regular" aftercare probation, involving large caseloads and minimal intervention.

On the other hand, the results of the study prevent the researchers from concluding that intensive aftercare reduces the likelihood that supervised youths will engage in their first instance of criminal behavior. While consistent patterns were found showing proportionately lower rates of recidivism among experimental, in comparison to control, subjects, these patterns were not found to be statistically significant. Thus, we are unable to conclude that intensive aftercare as it was operationalized in the Philadelphia program serves to turn youths away from their propensity to crime. Rather, it appears that the program succeeds in providing IAP officers with the resources, guidelines, administrative backing, and motivation to intervene rapidly when appropriate to prevent youths who are failing to make successful adjustments to community life from multiple incidents of reoffending.
Theoretical Foundations of the System Response and Aftercare Effects

In this report, we have distinguished between two possible impacts of the intensive probation model on juvenile recidivism and have named them the aftercare effect and the system response effect. The aftercare effect is viewed as reflective of an authentic change in the predilections to crime among participating youths. It operates as a result of one of two correctional models, specific deterrence or rehabilitation. The aftercare effect could operate to cause IAP juveniles to desist from participating in criminal behavior, at least temporarily, due to the intensive surveillance and monitoring performed by the probation officer, especially during the first three months following release. In this sense, the increased salience of the presence of the probation officer in the life of the juvenile may serve as a deterrent to crime. The youth’s awareness that his probation officer is monitoring his behavior and is willing to take action to thwart illegal acts may serve to reduce their incidence.

The aftercare effect could also reflect a genuine set of behavior changes within the supervised juvenile, brought on through lifestyle changes mandated through the intensive aftercare program. Theoretically, through enforcing juveniles’ participation in school and/or work, counseling or other prosocial group activities, and fostering more positive relations between the probationer and his immediate family, the IAP program could serve to strengthen youths’ bonds with the prosocial community. This model, essentially drawing upon Hirschi’s control theory (1969), presumes that strengthening bonds with prosocial individuals and institutions will lead to changes in
offenders’ value systems and behaviors which will reduce the likelihood of reinvolvement in criminal behavior patterns.

Given the data available, it is not possible to identify which of the above models, specific deterrence or rehabilitation, would be the driving force behind an aftercare effect. What is important to stress, however, is that either of the above models would reflect an actual change in the probationer’s propensity to criminality, a desistance from crime that would be at least temporary. This model is to be distinguished from what we are calling the system response effect, in which there is presumed to be no change in offenders’ propensity to criminality.

Like the hypothesized aftercare effect, the system response effect is presumed to be effective in reducing recidivism. The mechanism through which the system response effect is presumed to operate is selective incapacitation through early intervention. When the first signs appear that juveniles are returning to criminal lifestyle patterns, the probation officer acts to remove the youth from the community through the probation violation process. This quick response serves to reduce the number of offenses a given juvenile would have the opportunity of committing. This model does not assume a reduction in the propensity of any given juvenile to commit criminal offenses if he had the opportunity to remain in the community.

Relationship of the IAP to the Aftercare and System Response Effects

The Intensive Aftercare Program was intended to create both aftercare and system response effects. The aftercare effects would theoretically encompass both rehabilitation and special deterrence.
With drastically reduced caseloads, IAP probation officers were expected to have the time to work with the juveniles, their families, and representatives of employment, counseling, treatment, and educational organizations to ensure that the youth was participating successfully in prosocial experiences. In interviews with the researchers, IAP officers stated that their reduced caseloads allowed them to serve as advocates for their youths much as parents of more economically advantaged families might when their children encounter difficulties. Officers expressed pleasure that they had the time to "shop" for appropriate agencies for each youth and to follow through with agencies providing services to their youths, finding out how the youth was performing, confirming the appropriateness of the program, making changes in the services if they were not working out. They reported success in many cases in establishing a relationship with the juvenile which enabled them to help him with difficulties. Given that these youths have histories of severe social dysfunction, including high incidence of drug and alcohol use and family disorganization, it was not reasonable to expect that IAP juveniles would not encounter serious adjustment problems upon reentry to the community. The rehabilitative value of the IAP program comes from the additional attention officers are able to give to youths when difficulties arise and the potential to avert more serious difficulties when first signs of "relapse" occur.

Both general and specific deterrence were also expected to occur as a result of the new norms established within the IAP program. One constant goal of the program was to hold IAP clients accountable. Initial responses to technical violations of probation—meeting with the IAP supervisor or sidebar conferences with the judge—did not
remove the juvenile from the community. Yet the fact that this more drastic step (removal) was invoked with the most recalcitrant clients was supposed to send a message to other IAP youths that the program "meant business" because it was willing to recommit juveniles for technical violations of intensive aftercare probation. In addition, IAP officers also were shown to step in quickly to initiate probation revocation proceedings soon after a first rearrest for a new offense, regardless of whether the probationer was arrested as a juvenile or adult. The willingness of the Family Court to commit resources to sanction arrests which fell under criminal court jurisdiction should have sent a clear message to clients that their responsibilities to the court did not end with their eighteenth birthday.

Word may have spread "on the street" about the recommitments, and certainly IAP clients still at Bensalem when youths on intensive aftercare were returned would have learned that they were sent back on revocations. It is logical that revoking relapsing juveniles or probationers who had been rearrested either as juveniles or adults would operate as a general deterrent for other IAP juveniles, who may work harder to avoid relapse because they were aware of these certain and serious consequences.

In addition, the experience of being returned to placement as a probation violator may have had some specific deterrent impact as well. Youths whose probation were revoked were generally sent to residential facilities for periods of between thirty and ninety days and then returned to the community. After they were released they may have been more reluctant to engage in criminal behavior under the assumption that if the IAP officers did it once (revoke probation), they would do it again.
The willingness of the IAP program and the Juvenile Court to remove youths from the community for probation violations, either before a new arrest was made or immediately after the first juvenile or adult rearrest was a major challenge to the standard manner of Philadelphia Juvenile Probation in handling recidivistic behavior. As discussed above, we suspect that this new approach has the potential to effect both general deterrence on those IAP youths whose probations have not yet been revoked as well as specific deterrence on youths who have personally experienced the swift and sure sanction of probation violation.

Yet it is important to note that cynicism runs deep among probationers about the seriousness of the IAP program to follow through on its promises (or threats). The laissez-faire model of regular probation, which obviously works to the advantage of misbehaving youths, may be a difficult one for them to cognitively abandon. As an illustration, Supervisor Tom Quinn recently remarked that relapsing IAP youths, who had already been warned by their officers and IAP supervisor that the next official response would be revocation, were voluntarily appearing at revocation hearings. Moreover, they expressed surprise and outrage that they were to be reincarcerated without having committed new crimes. This suggests that some IAP youths, almost 24 months after the institution of the program, do not perceive the general deterrent value of the IAP program. Of course, after serving their 30 to 90 days, the specific deterrent value for these youths may be considerably higher.
Study Findings Concerning the Aftercare Effect

Ideally, an Intensive Probation Program would create measurable, noticeable behavioral change among participating probationers. Moreover, improvements in the quality of the probationer's adjustment to the community and reductions in his propensity to return to criminal behavior are the types of impacts which would be expected and desired from such a program. The study found indications of an aftercare effect in a few measures and consistent, although statistically non-significant changes in others. Overall, from the data available to us about post-release adjustment (which was admittedly scant), it appears that the IAP program was successful in improving the quality of juveniles' interactions with their parents and with school. In addition, IAP probationers cooperated significantly better with their probation officers and with the conditions of their probations than did controls. However, the fact that experimental and control groups were not significantly different on either the Problem Index or the Prosocial Index suggests that there were still areas of the juvenile's life after release that the IAP program did not affect.

In our estimation, the more important indicator of an aftercare effect would be a reduction in the proportion of IAP youths rearrested. While consistent patterns reflecting higher rates of recidivism among control cases over time emerged, the differentials between experimental and control groups remained small, not approaching statistical significance. Moreover, it is likely that the differentials would have been even smaller if the IAP officers had not stepped in to execute probation revocation proceedings for several experimental juveniles showing signs of relapse. In this sense, the proportion of
youths rearrested is perhaps primarily indicative of the aftercare effect but reflects system response as well. As mentioned earlier, these findings do not allow us to conclude that the IAP program reduced participating youths' proclivities to commit crime after release from placement. The fact that there were no differences in the severity of the first offenses after release committed by experimental and control subjects also supports this viewpoint.

Finally, one other comparison also suggests that the IAP program was not successful in reducing crime proneness among study youths. The reader may recall that a few analyses of recidivism were performed on the "original sample," cases randomly assigned to experimental and control groups before subjects were dropped from the study and replacement cases added. The "original" experimental group contains a substantial minority of cases who we know never received the IAP treatment. Nevertheless, the proportions of experimental and control youths rearrested were virtually identical to those found in the analyses of the final sample: 49 percent experimental, 62 percent control. The fact that the original experimental group, which could be viewed as receiving a "watered down" treatment, exhibited the same rate of recidivism as the final experimental group suggests that intensive aftercare supervision did not substantially affect crime proneness.

How can these results be interpreted, given the strong theoretical arguments in favor of an aftercare effect, coupled with anecdotal evidence from IAP officers that the program "changes youths' lives?" We have two hunches.

First, the timing of the study may have been premature. We have documented the difficulties encountered in getting the IAP running
during its first nine months. Youths involved in the program during the start-up and transition periods did not receive a treatment equivalent to the treatment IAP youths are now receiving, almost 24 months following the hiring of the first IAP officers. Many of the early experimentals were close to release when the first contact was made with the IAP officer; hence they did not receive as much attention to aftercare planning as later participants. The transition period came at an inopportune time, as many of the experimentals were being released from placement. Considering the acknowledged importance of the first several weeks after release from placement in shaping the post-release adjustment period, many of these IAP youths were short-changed because of understaffing and a supervision vacuum. Finally, time was needed for the IAP officers and the court to disseminate the message that the IAP program was different, that it would help youths in ways conventional probation could not but that it also carried stiff consequences for misbehavior. As discussed in Chapter 2, this required changes in the cultures of both the IAP probation officers and the youths, and these cultural changes took time.

In retrospect, it probably would have been more cost effective to have conducted a qualitative study of the IAP program for the first year so that information concerning program implementation was available before the actual study samples were drawn. Fortunately, 16 of the experimental cases were not released to the community until September 1989 or later, providing a sub-sample which may be argued to have received a "cleaner" treatment. We plan to gather additional recidivism data on these cases and to make comparisons between this sub-sample and controls. If the above argument holds, the differences in rates of arrest between this group and controls may be greater.
Our second hunch is more cynical, or some might say more realistic. It is that the IAP treatment of three contacts per week for 12 to 24 weeks, plus some collateral contacts, is simply not powerful enough to effect significant changes in youths' crime proclivities. The failure to demonstrate significant differences on arrest rates between experimentals and controls is certainly consistent with the majority of studies of other interventions targeted at the habitual or serious delinquent (Fagan, 1990).

Study Findings Concerning the System Response Effect

The findings of the present study are significant in that they were able to demonstrate the effectiveness of an innovative probation program in significantly reducing the frequency of recidivism among arguably the most difficult group of juveniles to treat: serious, habitual, violent youths. The study results indicate that participants in the Intensive Aftercare Program committed about half the number of offenses of comparable youths receiving regular aftercare services. This effect appears to be the result of the willingness of IAP officers to take a proactive stance in dealing with juveniles who demonstrated signs of failure to conform to conditions of probation. The norms of the IAP demanded that youths manifesting signs of adjustment difficulties be threatened with, and then ultimately faced with, return to institutional placement. This policy was evident in the violations of probation of six IAP youths who had not committed new offenses as well as the probation violations which soon followed youth's first rearrests, either as juveniles or as adults.

These probation violations functioned to remove these youths from the community and prevent them from repeating their patterns of
criminality during what, for the control group, were sometimes extended periods between arrests and adjudications. Clearly, the strategy worked: no experimental youth who experienced probation revocation during the follow-up period committed more than one offense. In contrast, control youths, not subject to probation violation, committed more offenses per capita: an average of two for juvenile recidivists and three for control youths arrested as adults. This is unequivocally a benefit from a public safety perspective.

In addition, from a fiscal perspective, it can be argued that the IAP resulted in lower governmental costs for reincarceration. Experimentalists who experienced arrest were reconvicted and reincarcerated at far lower levels than control subjects. As discussed in the previous chapter, this difference is most likely due to the difference in the total number of arrests for which each offender was adjudicated at the time of the disposition hearing. With multiple arrests to be adjudicated, control subjects were more likely to be convicted than experimentalists, who had been arrested far fewer times. Control subjects were also more likely to be incarcerated, resulting in an increased financial burden on the court and county.

Considering the number of experimental and control subjects who were returned to placement, either as a result of reconviction or probation violation, the proportion was approximately the same for experimentalists (31.0 percent) and controls (30.4 percent). Yet the majority of experimentalists who were reincarcerated (11 out of 14 reconfined) did so as probation violators and not as a result of new sentences. In contrast, all control subjects who were reconfined (14) received this sanction due to new sentences, in most cases for multiple offenses.
Thus, control subjects were likely to be confined for significantly longer time periods than experimental subjects, on average. Experimental subjects' incarcerations for probation violations tended to be rather brief, from one to three months. Control subjects, on the other hand, tended to amass multiple offenses before being adjudicated and ultimately removed from the community through the formal sentencing process. As a result, controls were likely to receive more severe sentences than they would have received had they been swiftly treated by the justice system following the first recidivistic arrest.

**Implications of the Study**

One possible inference one could draw from the study's results is that the Philadelphia Juvenile Probation Department should institute a policy of revoking probations of all serious, chronic juveniles immediately following the first arrest after release. After all, if the success of the program appears to be due to the swift response of IAP officers to offenders' recidivism, perhaps the most cost-effective intervention might be to do away with the extensive service delivery component of the IAP, maintain probation officers' caseloads of 75 to 100, and direct the funds saved on the IAP program to cover increased incarceration costs incurred by higher levels of probation revocations.

We do not support this interpretation of the study's findings. We suspect that the effectiveness of the IAP program in reducing the number of offenses committed by the experimental group reflects two factors specific to the Intensive Aftercare Program: (1) the increased knowledge of each case afforded to IAP officers; and (2) the ability of the IAP officers to devote considerable attention to each
case, especially the more problematic ones. Let us briefly discuss each of these factors.

As envisioned by Judge Reynolds and others, the IAP officers were able to devote the time to get to know their charges well. The officers interviewed indicated that this knowledge gave them the ability to assess youths who were manifesting signs of misbehavior and differentiate between those who required reconfinement and those who did not. They were able, given the intimate knowledge they had of the youths and their families, to judge that some youths who were experiencing adjustment difficulties could, with adequate supervision, remain on the street. Even after experimental youths were rearrested, the officers claimed that they were able to determine that, for some youths, the rearrest was not an indication of a gross recidivistic pattern and that these youths could be maintained in the community. In other cases, IAP officers were in a position to determine that, even absent a new arrest, adequate signs of probation violation behavior were evident to justify removal of youths from the community.

The study’s findings underscore the fact that IAP officers were selective in their decisions to revoke probation. Of the 22 experimental cases arrested, only 6, or 27 percent, were subject to probation violation. Combining this figure with the five who were violated presumably before their first arrest and the three sentenced as juveniles, a total of 14 experimental cases experienced reconfinement during the follow-up period.

Assuming that the five experimental subjects who experienced "preemptive" violations would have eventually been arrested, we speculate that a total of 27 of the 44 experimental cases would have been subject to an automatic revocation policy, had one been in effect.
However, the study results indicate that only 14 of these 27 experimental cases were actually reconfined. Hence, about half of the experimentals who would have been removed from the community if a mandatory revocation policy had been in effect were able to remain in the community under the IAP supervisory strategy. The IAP officers were obviously making discretionary decisions about which youths who manifested adjustment difficulties would have to be returned to institutions and which could remain on the street. These decisions could not have been made without extensive knowledge about individual cases.

The second factor which contributed to the success of the IAP and would be inconsistent with a generalized mandatory revocation policy is ability of the IAP officers to devote considerable attention to each case. When faced with uncooperative clients, IAP officers devoted considerable time to maintaining contact with the youths. Even in cases where youths failed to appear for scheduled contacts, the IAP officers would locate the youths and would insure that they could be taken into custody if necessary for probation revocation. The process of tracking uncooperative youths who may perceive that they could elude revocation if they simply laid low is often time and energy consuming. The success of IAP officers to successfully remove some experimental youths from the community depended upon their ability to devote considerable time to tracking each case. Officers with significantly larger caseloads would find it unavoidable that some cases in which probations should be revoked would "slip through the cracks". 
The success of the IAP in reducing the number of offenses committed by their clients can be attributed to their ability to decide which youths required removal from the community and their swiftness and effectiveness in the removal process.

Many practices of the IAP officers could not be emulated by officers in conventional aftercare situations with significantly larger caseloads. However, it is clear from the results of this study that public safety could be enhanced and incarceration costs reduced with quicker responses to repeated criminal behavior among this high-risk group of juvenile offenders. We will close our discussion of these issues with a case in point, a control juvenile who was eventually reincarcerated after a total of nine arrests. He was arrested within two months of his release from Bensalem. After the filing of a bench warrant, the arrest was withdrawn. He then experienced a second arrest, resulting in a continuation of his probation. The youth then rapidly amassed a total of seven additional arrests before he was sentenced to serve time in a juvenile institution.

Had this youth been part of the IAP program, it is inconceivable that he would have been allowed to remain in the community long enough to commit the number of offenses he did. In hindsight, this youth should have been removed from the community following the first, but definitely the second, arrest. Procedures for swifter and more consistent follow-up with these offenders should be implemented for all youths at high risk of recidivism. The Intensive Aftercare Program has demonstrated itself to be effective in this regard.
REFERENCES


