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LEADERSHIP IN A JUVENILE DETENTION FACILITY:  
PORTRAIT OF AN EFFECTIVE YOUTH  
MANAGEMENT PROGRAM

by

D. John Morris Jr.

A Dissertation  
Submitted to the  
Faculty of The Graduate College  
in partial fulfillment of the  
requirements for the  
Degree of Doctor of Education  
Department of Educational Leadership

Western Michigan University  
Kalamazoo, Michigan  
June 1987

LEADERSHIP IN A JUVENILE DETENTION FACILITY:  
PORTRAIT OF AN EFFECTIVE YOUTH  
MANAGEMENT PROGRAM

D. John Morris Jr., Ed.D.

Western Michigan University, 1987

The purpose of this study is to expose administrators and teachers to an institutional system of leadership and youth management that emphasizes the positive: a system that is founded on consistency and based on solid research.

The program, known as the Intensive Learning Program (ILP), is presently used in the Calhoun County Juvenile Home in Marshall, Michigan. It was established as a result of a philosophy of developing community based treatment for juvenile offenders.

Through the use of portraiture the researcher presents a detailed description of the program and a description of the leadership style of the program's director. Also included are guidelines for developing and implementing the program in public schools. This study demonstrates how students can be successfully managed without stress and strain on the part of teachers and administrators.

Basic assumptions of the investigation are:

1. Administrators and teachers will be interested in

the findings of this study because student management issues surface daily.

2. Teachers with a good understanding of youth management are more effective in the classroom. The staff training used in conjunction with the ILP will increase staff knowledge, assure program continuity and foster work-group cohesion.

3. The strategy of presenting teachers with knowledge of youth management not only makes their interactions more effective, but also promotes morale, develops consistency in program implementation, reduces burnout and tedium, and strengthens the total educational program.

4. Effectively managed students are higher achievers because reduced time spent on student management problems will result in more student and teacher time on task.

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**Leadership in a juvenile detention facility: Portrait of an  
effective youth management program**

**Morris, Donald John, Jr., Ed.D.**

**Western Michigan University, 1987**

**U·M·I**  
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Ann Arbor, MI 48106





IN MEMORIAM

Donald J. "Bud" Morris

September 24, 1924

-

February 6, 1986

Darkness enwrapped him, yet with stead-  
fast heart  
He sought, unfaltering, the highest  
light.  
His keen-eyed spirit failed not in the  
sight  
Which sees, and seeing, loves the better  
part.

He will always be remembered for his unselfish devotion to  
his family.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The successful completion of this task would not have been possible without the support and guidance of my advisor, Dr. Lawrence Schlack, and the other members of my committee: Dr. David Cowden and Dr. Dale Brubaker.

Appreciation is expressed to Mr. David Roush and his staff for their assistance, friendship, and encouragement.

A debt of gratitude goes to Bonnie Whitehead; without her patience, friendship, and expert help I would still be sitting at her word processor. And a special thanks goes to Eddie, Mitzi, and Christi Whitehead for allowing me to take up so much of Bonnie's valuable time.

In sincere appreciation for their encouragement, support, and sacrifice, I affectionately dedicate this dissertation to my loving wife, Sally, and my wonderful sons, Brad and Greg.

Warm words of thanks go to Ross and Faye Giles who have traveled these many miles with us and have always been supportive and loving.

A debt of love and gratitude goes to my mother whose courage and persistence in life will always be an inspiration to me.

D. John Morris Jr.

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## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

#### Need for the Study

Public schools are currently under attack for the lack of student skill development and for their inability to handle tough discipline problems. In a recent newspaper article, corporate leaders charged that an alarming number of young people leave school lacking the discipline, work habits and other skills needed for job success. The article stated: "If schools tolerate excessive absenteeism, truancy, tardiness or misbehavior, we cannot expect students to meet standards of minimum performance or behavior either in school or as adults." (Cited in "Business World Eyes Schools," 1985, p. C6) According to the Greensboro News and Record (1985), a 107-page report, Investing in Our Children: Business and the Public Schools (1985), indicated that educators should use tried-and-true business tactics to address school problems. The article further stated, "Excellent schools should be freed from burdensome state regulation and supervision, while floundering schools should be declared "bankrupt" and placed in state or local receivership to be either reorganized or shut down." (p. C6) The appearance

of A Nation at Risk (Gardner, 1983) set the mood of the nation to get tough and shape up education. In an article identifying issues in middle level education, Toepfer (1986) states: "This infatuation to improve performance in these areas overlooks the need to address equally the critical affective, self-concept, and self-esteem needs of youth." (p. 2)

Reports like these are commonplace. Whenever you pick up the newspaper some group or organization is criticizing the schools. Many inside and outside the system are ready to place blame. In order to understand school ills, we must first describe school wellness--that is, what really works. Peters and Waterman (1982) in their book, In Search of Excellence, did just that. They studied forty-three successful American companies and identified their common characteristics. Their "portraits" point out "what works" in the business world. In his lectures, Peters refers to these successful companies as using a "common sense" approach to business.

In her book, The Good High School, Lightfoot (1983) used a similar approach to explore "what works" as she examined successful high schools. She states: "A prominent tradition of social science inquiry has been the uncovering of malignancies and the search for their cures." (p. 10)

The lists of inadequacies and failures are endless.

We continue to investigate the problems and search for cures when we need to focus our attention on the positive. During a recent faculty meeting this researcher asked teachers to participate in an activity requiring them to generate a list of words that described student behaviors they frequently observe in the classroom. After six or seven minutes the activity was stopped and a master list was compiled. The list contained approximately fifty different words and of the words generated, none described positive student behaviors. Some of the words were: cheating, sassing, spitting, clowning, yelling, destroying, slapping, hitting, pushing, pulling, and swearing. No teacher mentioned reading, writing, discussing, trying, or any other word that described positive behaviors.

In another activity the teachers were asked to develop logical consequences for classroom behaviors, and again the negativism poked through. They developed consequences for inappropriate behaviors, but none was listed for appropriate behaviors. The question was asked "What do you do when students remain in their seats and on task?" The responses varied, but generally reflected this line of thinking: "We don't have to worry about those kids, it's the others we have to concentrate on."

Many teachers and administrators are not adequately prepared to effectively deal with inappropriate student



behaviors. There are some who seem to have the "knack" for handling kids, but most of them can't pinpoint or explain their effectiveness. This knack can be identified and learned, but we must first move out of the "crisis management" mode we seem to have gotten ourselves into. One attempt to solve our educational problems has been to drown teachers in an endless tide of workshops. These workshops are presented by "experts" who come in and have all the answers. Teachers can become threatened and antagonistic toward the administration for subjecting them to these agonizing hours of expert advice, presented by someone that they know could never deal effectively with the kid they have. In his article "Teacher Frustration - Who's to Blame?" Brubaker (1984) states:

Teachers have been exposed to an endless number of workshops and speeches usually led by people outside the school system. There is a kind of leadership on these occasions that many teachers react to with a mixture of guilt and anger, leadership that communicates that "something is wrong with you and you had better change (believe as I do) in order to be a good teacher!"...The fact that the authority knows little, if anything, about what the teacher is presently doing and the particular setting in which teaching and learning occur adds to the ambiguity, frustration, and sense of unfairness. (p. 20)

There are a lot of good things going on in schools and we need to attend to them. Teachers and administrators need help and direction, not destructive criticism. There is a need to be exposed to the

"goodness" of schools and to change our focus to the positive.

While conducting workshops during the 1985-86 school year, this researcher questioned approximately 100 teachers concerning their preparation for the role of classroom manager. This researcher asked the question, "How well did your college course-work prepare you for what you are now facing in the classroom?" The overwhelming response was that they hadn't been prepared at all for what they now had to face. Some stated that they had been exposed to the issue of behavior management, but only briefly in one or two courses.

The problem seems obvious to many yet no one seems to have an answer. When you talk to veteran teachers they drone on about the terrible kids of today and how when they first began teaching, kids were respectful. They demand that things be as they were, "I'm the teacher and when I tell a student to shut up and sit down, by God they'd better do it."

Many administrators are no better able to handle these problems. They came up through the teaching ranks and rely on "old tricks" and their "power" to maintain a semblance of order. This research will demonstrate how students can be successfully managed without stress and strain on the part of teachers and administrators.

Evidence that the student management program used in

the detention facility studied can be successfully implemented in the schools already exists. During the past two years this researcher has conducted six workshops which taught the essential elements of the program to parents, teachers, and administrators. The feedback has been tremendously supportive for this type of program and training.

There is a need to expose administrators and teachers to a system of Leadership and Youth Management that emphasizes the positive; a system that is founded in consistency and based on solid research. This study will expose the reader to a program that has been consistently successful for the past ten years. The investigator will present the program, explain how it works, analyze its strengths and weaknesses, and then present guidelines for developing and implementing this program in public schools.

#### Definition of Terms

Some specific terms often used in detention literature and in this study are listed for clarification:

1. Cognitive-Behavior Therapy (CBT): Describes a behavior therapy which focuses on both overt and covert (thinking) behaviors. References to a cognitive-behavioral approach in the Intensive Learning Program

(ILP) indicate the synthesis of an insight-oriented therapy with operant principles.

2. ILP: An abbreviation for the Intensive Learning Program, a postdispositional treatment alternative for juvenile offenders. The ILP is characterized as a community-based, secure residential program.

3. Child-Care Worker: A direct care, line staff member who provides ongoing supervision of youth during waking-hour or program shifts. Other equivalent terms are group worker, group leader, direct care worker, child-care counselor, and child-care specialists.

4. Commitment to the ILP: Refers to a valid dispositional order by a juvenile court which places a juvenile in the ILP as a response to an adjudication of guilt on a criminal offense petition. Commitments do not normally exceed a six month period of time.

5. Juvenile Court: The Juvenile Division of the Calhoun County (Michigan) probate court.

6. Phases: A system of behavioral levels of the ILP. Program expectations and privileges are sequentially reflected through the phases.

7. Rational Behavior Training (RBT): A particular type of cognitive-behavior therapy (CBT) which blends Rational-Emotive Therapy (RET) with behavior modification. While RBT represents the ILP approach to treatment, it is not to be confused with Maultsby's Rational Behavior

Training (RBT). Although the ILP uses much of Maultsby's (1975) original synthesis of RET with behavior training, two major distinctions exist: (1) The ILP intervention places greater emphasis on the RET principles, and (2) The ILP behavioral component uses more operant principles.

8. Resident: A juvenile committed to the ILP. Synonyms include: student, inmate, youth, juvenile, and client.

9. Triage: The weekly meeting of the ILP teams for the purposes of evaluating treatment plans, developing new treatment plans, providing inservice training, clarifying program issues, and providing a forum for staff communication.

10. Encouragement: The ability to accept the student as worthwhile and to assist in the development of his/her capabilities and potentials (Dreikurs and Grey, 1968).

11. Logical Consequences: Connects the principles of encouragement and disinvolvement. Observing that, in the natural order of the universe, all behavior is followed by a consequence, the principle of logical consequences becomes a particularly cogent intervention because it negates the need for punishment.

12. Disinvolvement: Characterized as an emotionally neutral or non-judgmental response to misbehavior.

13. Detention Facility: A building used for the secure (locked) detention of adjudicated juvenile

offenders.

14. Effective Discipline: A term that goes beyond the concepts of strict control and punishment to enforce obedient behavior. In this study an expansion of the disciplinary concept allows for a comprehensive approach to: (a) generating and strengthening appropriate behaviors, (b) weakening or eliminating inappropriate behaviors, (c) safeguarding human rights within the school setting, (d) generating self-control, and e) developing pro-social attitudes and values.

15. Punishment: Suffering pain, or loss that serves as retribution." (Webster's Seventh New Collegiate Dictionary, 1967, p. 693) Further, punishment is commonly associated with aggressive acts motivated by anger or vindictiveness. In this study, the term punishment is not to be synonymously thought of with respect to consequences for inappropriate behaviors. A very clear dichotomy must be made between punishment (an undesirable term and activity) and logical consequences.

16. Leadership: A process in which an individual takes the initiative to assist a group toward goals, to maintain the group, to meet group needs, and to be innovative.

#### Professional Autobiography

This section of the chapter draws on the writings of

Maxine Greene, William Pinar and Dale Brubaker. These researchers argue that all research is subjective in the sense that the scholar brings autobiographical perspective to his or her work.

A person's perceptions are his or her reality. A person's view as to what is possible and desirable depends on the depth and breadth of his or her experiences. As educators we are challenged not to have a myopic vision of the world around us. The extent to which a person has depth and breadth of vision involves trade-offs. For example, we would ideally live in a number of different cultures but in the interest of security and limited resources we visit a few cultures and vicariously experience others through reading and non print media. Biographies are one promising vehicle for enhancing the breadth and depth of our experiences. Through the comparative method we understand others and ourselves better, and in the process we can identify the sources of behavior, strategies for reaching career objectives, and values underlying our decisions.

This researcher, a 38-year-old Assistant Principal, lives in Greensboro, North Carolina with his wife, Sally, and their sons, Brad (16) and Greg (13). He came to Greensboro from south-central Michigan where he had lived most of his life. Prior to a four-year enlistment in the Air Force he had lived in Grand Rapids, Michigan with his

parents and nine brothers and sisters. Being the second oldest of ten children was one of the major influences that helped shape his career choice. From a very early age he had to deal with a group of children on a daily basis--sometimes as teacher, nurse, or just big brother. Staying home to watch the younger children was seldom a problem. He could always find ways to entertain his siblings and found life to be full of fun and excitement.

The first two years of elementary school were pretty successful. Saint John Vianney Elementary School was run by stern-faced, paddle-wheeling Dominican Sisters. Prayers, piety, and a variety of church services came first and academics second. Trouble began in the third grade with Mrs. Treas. She was a very old, short, grandmotherly lady whom everyone knew would be canonized within a week of her death. She was very loving and well liked, but had absolutely no control over her students. She spent most of the day passing out holy cards, medals, and rosaries to students with good "saintly" behaviors and equally as good penmanship. She seemed to focus much of her attention on handwriting, and students lacking this artistic ability were left out in the cold. This had two specific effects on the "cold" students. One, they felt bad about themselves because they never got any of the "goodies" and second, this provided the impetus for competition to see who would be the class clown. If you



cannot succeed academically, and it's too early in life to succeed athletically you haven't many options in your quest for attention.

Reputations have a way of developing fast and following you forever. The next three years of elementary school were fashioned after the design that had been established in the third grade.

Fourth, fifth, and sixth grades were spent maintaining a well deserved reputation, but in the seventh grade something strange happened. This troublesome student, who had been a pain in the school's neck, was suddenly transformed into a saint. Sister Mary DeChantel loved her students, and that meant all her students. She made it perfectly clear that your past meant nothing to her. She found goodness in all her students and reinforced it. By the end of the seventh grade all her students felt good about themselves. She had that special knack for motivating students and helping them feel good about themselves.

One week of the eighth grade was all it took to undo all Sister DeChantel's efforts. The administration, in an attempt to control the older male students of the school (they were thought to be very troublesome), hired a semi-pro football player to teach the eighth grade. In an even brighter move, the principal divided the 60 or so eighth graders into two classes, one male and one female. The

school "team" was quick to fill their new, "most valuable player" in on who the "bad" boys were. This teacher, who was the size of William "Refrigerator" Perry, had the temperament of Mr. T. He made it perfectly clear that any rule infraction would result in immediate physical pain. Nobody would be sent to the principal, all discipline would be handled by him. He had a strange, crazy grin on his face when he gave out this special piece of information. The year was a long and painful one for most of the class. Elementary school was completed with indelible marks being left on this researcher by Mrs. Treas, Sister DeChantel and Mr. Campbell. High school began where elementary school left off. Complete humiliation was experienced the first week of school when this investigator was forced to sit in the hallway (in a waste basket) between class changes for an entire day, because he had been caught chewing gum during first period English class. Things progressed along these lines for about four months and resulted in a change from parochial to public school. After the change high school progressed smoothly.

During the eleventh grade another teacher had a great impact on this investigator's future. Mr. Gossling, a physiology teacher, also found goodness in his students, encouraged them and respected their worth and dignity. He was someone to look up to and someone who made the

teaching profession a career worth thinking about. Mr. Gossling took the time to talk to his students and establish personnel relationships with them. He was always patient, and had the time for you if you needed help. He too had that special knack.

On the other side of the coin was Mrs. Hazelton. She decided at the beginning of the year what type of student you were, placed you in a little slot, and left you there. She was never available for help and gave the impression that she really couldn't stand any student. She taught English and handed out grades according to her slots. This investigator had a special liking for English and decided to try to obtain his first "A." He had never received an A in any subject but was determined to do whatever was necessary to get one. He was on a mission and was inspired. Mrs. Hazelton, however, would not let him out of the "C" slot she had put him in. When he asked her for help after school one day, she stated, "Let's face it, young man, there is no reason for you to try to get better grades; you're just an average student and you can't help it." She could destroy a battleship with one look, and had sunk her share of students.

In spite of teachers like Mrs. Hazelton and Mr. Campbell, life in the school yard went on. The time spent clowning in elementary school had taken its toll. A low reading level, and a lack of basic skills made performance

in high school very difficult. "A's" and "F's" were not to be found, with the majority of grades falling in the "C"- "D" range. Graduation came with a 1.9 GPA, leaving few options available for a veteran class clown.

A four-year voluntary enlistment in the Air Force seemed a viable alternative to being drafted into the Army, and possibly ending up in Viet Nam. As luck would have it, only six months had passed before this new Airman received orders sending him to Viet Nam. After one year in Nam, it was out of the frying pan and into the fire. Within one month of returning to the U.S., a marriage ceremony would change the course of this researcher's history. Planning to marry an upper-middle-class college student caused immediate sparks. Mom and dad-in-law had a much better groom picked out for their daughter. They thought she would one day marry a college graduate and preferably a business major. It was immediately made known that although this might have been a marriage made in heaven, it was by no means a marriage honored here on earth. In spite of the fireworks, the marriage took place on April 5, 1968.

Sally, the young college student from the other side of the tracks, wasted no time in explaining to her new husband that she refused to be married to someone without a college education and that when the four-year tour of duty was up, it would be college life for the happy

couple. It turned out to be a very difficult task for her to change her husband's self-image. Years of poor grades and being put down by teachers was more powerful than her suggestion that her husband was really very smart and could handle going to college. After about a year of nagging, she convinced him to take an evening course at a nearby college. The class was Freshman English 101 with emphasis on writing. He successfully completed the course and received a "C" for his efforts, again reinforcing Mrs. Hazelton's remarks. With a little prodding he was convinced to try another class. This time it was English 102, with a final grade of "B." With new hope for his future and to see if he could really do it, he enrolled in (you guessed it) English 103, and this time struck paydirt. "That's right, Mrs. Hazelton," he received the coveted grade of "A." With a rebuilt self-image he was discharged from the Air Force and went on to Western Michigan University.

Upon entry into the University, English was selected as a major and courses were lined up to prepare for secondary teaching. During the first semester of year one, another turning point took place. In an effort to support a wife and three-month-old son while attending the University as a full time student, a position was taken in the Children's Unit of the Kalamazoo Psychiatric Hospital.

A deep devotion to these children and a love for this type of work made it bearable to work a forty-hour week and take at least twelve semester hours of coursework. By the completion of his sophomore year, it was clear that a career working with special children was unavoidable. His major was switched to Special Education for Emotionally Disturbed with a minor in English.

As time passed, this worker became more and more involved in the lives of these special children. Battles were fought with the hospital administration in an effort to provide better care for these children. The misuse of drugs and physical restraint happened too often and were obviously ineffective. Love and gentle understanding were much more effective tools for this trade. This young child-care worker found that he was consumed with the desire to change the way these children were treated. The hospital had a school program and this researcher found it very difficult to watch the way these students were treated. He made many mental notes about what did and what didn't work in the classroom. During his four years with the State Hospital, he helped bring about many changes for the better treatment of emotionally disturbed children.

Student teaching was done in the Kalamazoo Juvenile Home School. There, under the guidance of Linda Miller, he was able to put some of his ideas into practice. Linda

was a very attractive young woman who stood about four feet eleven inches tall and weighed about 100 pounds. She had a classroom of 18 students, all having been placed in the juvenile home because of several problems with the law. Mrs. Miller had very high expectations for these students, wouldn't stand for any inappropriate behavior and always maintained excellent control. This tiny woman, with the assistance of a lethargic aide, successfully ran a beautiful class. Each student had an individual lesson plan for each subject, and she taught all subjects including physical education. Students loved and respected Linda and showed tremendous success academically. The most difficult thing for the students to do was leave her and return to regular school after their time was up. When they were students in Mrs. Miller's class, they were somebody. They had worth and dignity. It was obvious that she had those same special qualities that had been shown by Mr. Gossling and Sister DeChantel. She had the knack for being an effective teacher.

With student teaching behind him, the new teacher entered the real world. A position was taken with the Berrien County Intermediate School District teaching in the, just completed, County Juvenile Center. The building was very modern with beautiful offices and classrooms. The first responsibility was to develop an educational

program. All materials had to be ordered and the curriculum designed. Another teacher was hired to act as principal. Together they developed a program, ordered supplies, and hired additional staff. A new facility and new materials were in the hands of a new teacher with enough enthusiasm to move mountains. His first assignment was a self-contained room with 20 students. All these students were awaiting a hearing or trial and were going to be locked up for one day to six months. He was faced with student disorder, reading levels from second to twelfth grade, terrible attitudes and recalcitrance much stronger and more solid than his mountain of enthusiasm. With all his special training and experiences, he was still not properly equipped to deal with these students. An immediate return to graduate school in the evenings for a master's degree in Teaching of Reading helped some. The knack he saw in others, and thought he had, seemed to be missing. After three years of trial and error, he began to feel as though he was beginning to make some progress.

The program used for rehabilitation in the Berrien County Juvenile Center was called Positive Peer Culture. It was a good attempt to maintain control and change behavior. It was much better than the drugs and seclusion rooms used in the state hospital, but it still had a lot of room for improvement. This particular program made students responsible for controlling each other. This



often resulted in physical confrontations, take downs (holding a student on the floor), and a lot of screaming and hollering. It allowed staff to be aggressive to the edge of violence. Some staff prided themselves on their ability to throw a student to the floor and hold him there at the drop of a hat. As it was being used, this program modeled aggressive behavior, caused unnecessary physical and mental injury, and was emotionally draining on staff and students.

After three years, burnout set in and it was time for a change. The director of the Calhoun County Juvenile Home, on the other side of the state, had heard good things about this burnout and offered him a job at his facility as a Reading and Language Arts teacher. The position was accepted and again it was time to move.

Within the first week of teaching, problems began. The director of the juvenile home called his new English teacher in and explained that in his facility teachers didn't have to yell at students and that even though Positive Peer Culture had its good points, it would not be used in his facility. He further explained that his staff was expected to model the behavior expected of the students and that nothing else would be tolerated. What followed was a complete re-education. An intensive program of training was conducted regularly and involved the entire staff. Teachers, child-care workers, janitors,

cooks, administrators and secretaries all participated. Consistency was the name of the game, and all staff members would be players or be promptly put out.

While working as a teacher, this investigator became involved in the Michigan Juvenile Detention Association and was appointed chairman of its educational committee. This provided an opportunity to observe the treatment and educational programs in detention facilities across the state, and there was no comparison. The Calhoun County Juvenile Home had a treatment program, including an educational component, that was second to none.

The skills and knowledge gained over the next seven years proved to be invaluable as the next step in this investigator's career was taken. This step involved a move to Greensboro, North Carolina, to accept an assistant principalship at Mendenhall Junior High School.

One of the very first things noticed, after accepting the new position, was the lack of student-management skills displayed by many of the Mendenhall teachers. Although some teachers did an excellent job of managing their students, many did not. A survey was conducted at the end of the 1984/85 school year to determine how many disciplinary referrals were sent to the office, and by which teachers. It was found that those teachers with the most referrals were also the teachers with the poorest evaluations in the areas of classroom management and

student/teacher relations. It was also found that these teachers accounted for all the major confrontations between teachers and students. The evidence was abundantly clear that staff training was needed in many areas, but especially in the area of student management. Workshops were set up on a voluntary basis, but needless to say only the already effective teachers showed up.

It became a daily challenge to work with teachers and attempt to explain that the management of students didn't have to be a minor war. Instead, students can be dealt with effectively in a calm and rational manner.

Today this researcher is attempting to put together a document that will support this claim.

#### Basic Assumptions of the Investigation

This study is worth doing because it is significant to this investigator and to others. For the past sixteen years, this investigator has gained knowledge and experiences that reflect effective youth management. During this time, it has been found that youth management is also an important issue being faced by many others in the education field.

Administrators and teachers will be interested in the findings of this study, because student management issues surface daily. Boards of education and individual schools write and re-write discipline policies. Topics such as

human rights and due process always seem to creep into the picture. Today there is a greater impact on school discipline policies by parents and guardians. If a student management program could be established that protects the worth, dignity, and rights of students and at the same time effectively manages student behavior, it would be of major interest to everyone involved in the educational process.

Teachers with a good understanding of youth management are more effective in the classroom. The strategy of presenting teachers with knowledge of youth management not only makes their interactions more effective, but also improves morale, develops consistency in program implementation, reduces burnout and tedium, and strengthens the total educational program.

Effective youth management programs presently used in detention facilities can be successfully altered to fit into the public schools. This researcher has conducted numerous workshops on student management and the techniques, theories and materials used were partially taken from those used in the detention facility being studied. Teachers who have completed the workshops have reported successful implementation of the techniques in their classrooms, and have expressed a desire for further information.

That effectively managed youth are higher achievers

is another assumption of this study. Reduced time spent on youth management problems will result in more student and teacher time on task. A study by Soar (1977) found that achievement gains by students in kindergarten through fourth grade were positively correlated with the degree of teacher structuring. Structuring was defined to include greater amounts of teacher control, focusing the students' attention, structuring and convergence.

A number of educational researchers have used student time on task, rather than student achievement, as the outcome variable in their studies of effective teaching. They have done so because a large body of research has demonstrated a close relationship between student achievement and time on task.

It is critically important, in light of these stated assumptions, to note that studies reported significant positive correlations between the degree of success that students experienced in their academic work and on-task behavior in elementary classes and in junior high classes, and significant negative correlations between degree of success and disruptive behavior (Emmer and Evertson, 1981).

Further information to support these assumptions will be presented in the review of literature section of this study.

### Map of the Remainder of Study

Chapter II will be a reveiw of selected literature beginning with an investigation of the following key indicators: Effective Leadership, Youth Management, Detention, Classroom Management. An explanation of how the researcher gathered information will come next, followed by a summary of the chapter.

Chapter III will describe the study design and methodology. This will involve a look at Lightfoot's (1983) work on portraiture as a research methodology. This chapter will also draw on previous experiences in the setting studied and review data collected by the researcher over a ten-year period (1974-1984). Limitations of the study will then be presented, followed by a chapter summary.

Chapter IV will contain a detailed description of the youth management program utilized in the facility studied.

Chapter V will contain the portrait of the facility, its staff, and the leadership style of its director.

Chapter VI will contain guidelines for implementation of this program in the public schools.

Chapter VII will contain a summary, conclusions, and recommendations for further study.

## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF SELECTED LITERATURE

This chapter will review selected literature with a focus on the following key indicators: Effective Leadership, Youth Management and Detention, and Classroom Management.

The investigator conducted an ERIC search, consulted dissertation abstracts and read widely for the years from 1950 to 1987 in journals such as Educational Leadership, Education Theory, Journal of Offender Counseling Services and Rehabilitation, Pshchotherapy, Educational Researcher, and Journal of Correctional Education.

It was found that the literature is flooded with information under each of these topics, which made it necessary to narrow the scope and direction of the literature review. References and information cited have been limited to those pertinent to the dissertation.

#### Effective Leadership

And the pilot--that is to say, the true pilot--is he a captain of sailors or a mere sailor? A captain of sailors. The circumstance that he sails in the ship is not to be taken into account; neither is he to be called a sailor; the name pilot by which he is distinguished has nothing to do with sailing, but is significant of his skill and of his authority over the sailors.

Plato, The Republic, (pp. 11, 12)

Effective administrators must assume their share of responsibility for the conditions that exist in varying degrees in their "ships." Principals, for example, are responsible to pilot their schools to new heights of effectiveness.

"The crucial and urgent need is to reorder the resources we already have in more effective ways so that the qualitative features of our schools will be changed." (Davidson, 1973, p. 53)

The literature has numerous books and articles illustrating programs and methods for becoming an effective leader. These materials cover the topic of effective leadership in every type of organization imaginable. Sports, business, and education are just a few of the many areas in which you can be trained to be an effective leader. In reference to principalships, Adler (1982) states:

The person chosen for that position should be a notably competent and dedicated teacher, with much classroom experience. It is not enough for the incumbent to be familiar with the administrative regulations, expert in bureaucratic procedures, and gifted with political acumen, important though such qualifications may be. The principal must be first and foremost what the title implies--the head teacher. (p. 64)

Effective leadership is a critical factor in the success of any organization. Knowledge about leadership, therefore, should be a primary prerequisite if an individual is to fulfill his leader role effectively. The



person being placed in a leadership position should become familiar with the three basic approaches to the study of leadership theory.

Griffiths (1964) and Lipham (1971) present these approaches to the study of administrative leadership: the psychological, situational (sociological), and the behavioral approaches.

The psychological approach is based largely on the common recognition that an individual's behavior is determined in part by his or her unique personality structure. The situational or sociological approach shifts from analysis of personality traits to a study of relationships (Hemphill, 1949). The third approach focuses on the observed behavior of the leader.

A close look at the theories of leadership will help one see leadership as a process rather than as a personal attribute or a collective noun (Boles & Davenport, 1975).

Brubaker (1982) interpreted leadership as: "The process by which a person influences the actions of others to behave in what he considers to be a desirable direction . . . an inevitable process whenever two or more people get together." (p. 3)

"A leader should be a facilitator, not an order giver. Leadership involves finding a parade and getting in front of it." (Naisbitt, 1982, p. 178)

Although there has been much emphasis placed on the

value of leadership training, no correlation has been established between such training and the effectiveness of leaders in an organization. A major problem with leadership training has been that it has attempted to shape the person to fit into one set pattern of the ideal leader, based on the assumption that the effectiveness of a leader would increase as influence over followers increased (Austin, 1977).

Leadership and other processes of the organization should insure maximum probability that in all interactions and in all relationships within the organization each member, in light of personal backgrounds, values, desires, and expectations, would view the experience as supportive and one which built and maintained a sense of personal worth and importance (Korman, 1971).

The creation and maintenance of setting is a necessary characteristic of leadership. Sarason (1972) has opened our eyes to important issues of leadership. Leadership is usually viewed as a process which one imposes on another, a nebulous concept coming from above. Sarason deals with leadership as a phenomenon which occurs on the ground level and meshes with the setting. Considering any newly acquired position of authority as simply a leadership position is inaccurate. Positions of authority are satellite settings orbiting around other central settings. The relationship one establishes with

subordinates then become additional satellites orbiting around the central authority.

The creation and maintenance of a setting is a process the understanding of which may be extremely important, if not crucial, to what is and will be happening in our society. Sarason (1972) has identified the following as essential elements to be studied if leaders are to be effective:

1. Confronting of history of the setting.
2. Identifying and building the core group.
3. Examination of the myth of unlimited resources.
4. Understanding underlying values of settings.
5. Managing the decline of settings.
6. Socialization.
7. Controlling the setting. (pp. 47-181)

A distinction can be made between two types of leaders: "... those who seek leadership primarily for reasons of power, privilege, and attention, and those for whom the new setting will reflect certain substantive ideas." (Sarason, 1972, p. 196).

The second type of leader is concerned with the organization, and tends to be far more attuned to and usually far more knowledgeable about, the existing organizational setting. Sarason (1972) states: "He creates the conditions that allow his people to fulfill the purposes of the setting in ways which enhance their own development." (p. 197)

These are new ideas and issues that have an important impact on our perception of leadership. These

issues will become even more important in later chapters of this dissertation. The leadership demonstrated in the detention facility studied will be examined in light of Sarason's ideas. A connection will be made between those leadership components identified in the detention facility and those needed for effective leadership in public schools. The facility studied uses a behavior management system founded in the theories of rational thinking. The program also holds that in order for adults to apply the concepts of rational thinking, in an effort to change youth behaviors, they must first be rational thinkers themselves. This also applies to effective leadership.

The successful leader is one who is keenly aware of those forces which are most relevant to his behavior at any given time. He accurately understands himself, the individuals and group he is dealing with, and the company and broader social environment in which he operates. And certainly he is able to assess the present readiness for growth of his subordinates . . . . The successful leader is one who is able to behave appropriately in the light of these perceptions. (Tannenbaum & Schmidt, 1973, p. 10)

In a paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the National School Boards Association (1980) Gretchko and Demont state:

Successful principals have a positive self-image; like being a principal; communicate a sense of optimism to every child and teacher; have a clearly defined sense of mission and purpose; survey their resources and utilize every penny available; and foster ownership and pride in the school by its students, staff and neighborhood. (p. 11)

Taylor (1962) stated that leadership is people, and that we don't know much about leadership because we don't know much about people. He continued:

It also becomes evident that just as we do not require a perfect definition of gravity to be able effectively to slide things down a chute - or of love to be concerned for our children; or of magnetism to build a compass that works; or of memory to recollect - we need not wait for the COMPLETE EXPLANATION OF LEADERSHIP to put to practical use that which we do know that is useful. (p. 18)

#### Detention and Youth Management

These two key indicators have been grouped, because they are practically one in the same. Detention facilities are for the management and incarceration of youth. Much of the literature pertaining to each topic is interwoven. Another reason for grouping them together is to make a specific separation between detention youth management and youth management in the classroom.

All detention facilities invariably have a formal or informal policy, procedure or strategy for discipline. Even though these discipline policies range from a system for control and obedient behavior to systematic training for the development of self-control, the quality of the instructional program is reflected by the approach to discipline (Roush & Steelman, 1981).

Program development in youth detention facilities must have clear support and endorsement by the

administration. The program then can generate a set of rules which express the social interest of the institution. Dreikurs and Grey (1968) refer to these rules as the "Social Order." By specifying consequences for social behavior, individuals must learn and accept the Social Order to function effectively within the institution.

The goals, objectives and philosophy of an institutional program, whether it is a school or a detention facility, will bear striking similarities to the sanctioned purposes of discipline.

Experience indicates that several elements of program development are helpful at this point in the development of the therapeutic Social Order. First, residents' accessibility to the discipline policy reduces anxiety by making expectations a matter of public knowledge. Second, expectations must be reasonable. To encourage youth, success must be within their capabilities and skills. Third, consistency is vital to the life of the Social Order. Staff adherence to program policies and procedures is mandatory, and a definite schedule of daily events and activities enhances the consistency of the Social Order. Fourth, and finally, the Social Order must apply to staff behavior. That is, the rules for living in the institution must govern not only resident behavior, but also staff behavior, resident-staff relations and staff-staff relations. (Roush, 1984a, p. 12)

In recent years there has been a strong emphasis on the study of human behavior in respect to self-concept. The individual's concept of himself has been demonstrated to be highly influential in much of his behavior and also to be directly related to his general personality and

state of mental health, as stated by Ashcraft and Fitts (1964).

Other researchers have found (Bennetts, Rosenbaum & McCullough, 1978), especially in the field of corrections, that therapeutic techniques are very helpful in the treatment of individuals in that they facilitate the learning necessary to enhance emotional growth such as self-concept. Consequently, those who see themselves as undesirable, worthless, or bad, tend to act accordingly. Those who have highly unrealistic concepts of self tend to approach life and others in unrealistic ways. Those who have a very deviant self-concept tend to behave in deviant ways. The opposites of these individualized perceptions will occur with an improved self-concept (Caven, 1969).

Self-image clearly plays a central role in the labeling perspective as well. According to this thesis, individuals who are labelled deviant are denied contact with wholesome influences, and limited to association with similarly labelled persons. Such rejection is likely to induce a self-fulfilling prophecy of habitual deviance.

The relationship between self-concept and delinquent behavior has recently been the subject of renewed attention in the criminological literature with respect to juvenile offenders (Lund & Salary, 1980) and especially delinquent behavior (Kaplan, 1971).

The relationship between delinquent behavior and

self-concept has been carried one step further by Murray (1976). His "school failure rationale" proposes that learning disabilities lead to poor academic achievement, labeling as a problem student, and negative self-image, which in turn leads to increased opportunities and incentives to engage in delinquent behaviors.

The criminal justice system is now in a position that the mental health profession found itself in a half century ago; both professionals and the informed public alike realize the inadequacies of current practices and are actively engaged in a search for more viable alternatives (Ayllon & Milan, 1979).

Within institutions over the years there has been two primary systematic approaches to management and rehabilitation of the youth offender. These two approaches are the "mental illness" or medical model and the behavioral model. Essentially the mental illness model reflects the belief that deviant behavior is symptomatic of some underlying personality disturbance. Successful treatment according to this model calls for diagnosis and prescription of a proven treatment choice. By eliminating the "cause" it is hypothesized that both symptoms and any symptom substitution will be precluded and a permanent "cure" ensured (Greenston, 1967).

Followers of the behavioral model on the other hand, view deviant behavior as learned. Both deviant and non-



deviant behaviors are conceptualized as "normal", that is, the same basic laws and principles are assumed to underlie all forms of human behavior (Sidman, 1960).

The type of program used in the facility studied would, in light of the models presented, be considered a behavioral approach. The Intensive Learning Program (ILP) utilizes a blending of a cognitive therapy, specifically Rational Emotive Therapy (RET) with traditionally operant techniques which constitutes a relatively new and fresh approach to treatment. While these strategies have each been criticized as cold and mechanistic, the ILP also emphasizes the importance of human interaction in the treatment process. By incorporating a holistic philosophy, the ILP is viewed as a more comprehensive model.

The medical model involves the application of principles and programs founded in psychoanalytic therapy. These programs maintain that deviant behavior may be viewed as either a product of diseases of the brain (the organic syndromes) or as a product of disease of the mind (the functional syndromes). Ayllon and Milan (1979) state:

The fact that there are indeed physical or organic dysfunctions which underlie some behavioral deviancy cannot be argued; but to use this as a basis for a metaphorical analogy in which all behavioral deviancy is so conceptualized is to commit an epistemological error. (p. 18)

Another important aspect of the medical model used in detention facilities is that it places heavy emphasis on diagnosis. Although diagnosis is useful and serves a purpose, it is also, to some degree, a hindrance. It can instill in the practitioner or decision maker a variety of self-fulfilling prophecies which retard rather than advance the goals of therapy or rehabilitation. Toch (1970) stated:

Classifying people in life is a grim business which channels destinies and determines fate. A man becomes a category, plays an assigned role, and lives up to the implications. Labelled irrational, he acts crazy. Catalogued dangerous, he becomes dangerous, or he stays behind bars. (p. 15)

Research conducted to date has failed to support contentions that diagnosis does do more than affix labels to individuals in an unreliable and often potentially deleterious manner.

Concerning the etiological function of diagnosis, Kanfer and Saslow (1969), Bandura (1969), and Costello (1970) concur that the differential diagnosis of mental illness in terms of etiological factors is, at present an impossible task (Ayllon & Milan, 1979, p. 19).

No evidence exists to support the contention that the mental illness model of human behavior has produced a technology of behavior change applicable to the problems facing the practitioner in either mental health in general or in corrections in particular (Eysenck, 1952, 1966;

Rackman, 1971).

The behavior model (Ullmann & Krasner, 1969) has the potential of succeeding where the mental illness model has failed.

Cohen, Filipczak, and Bis (1967) examined the feasibility of employing behavior modification procedures in the form of a token economy (Ayllon & Azrin, 1965) as the basis for a rehabilitative regimen for delinquent incarcerated juveniles. Cohen et al. (1967) were concerned primarily with developing and maintaining educational behavior (staying on task in the classroom). Based on the success of this program, which was operative only during "normal" school hours, the scope of the program was expanded to 24 hours per day.

In the facility studied by this researcher, the ILP was instituted as a means for behavior management and treatment, with its success being carried over into the educational component of the facility.

The number and types of programs that come under the behavioral model umbrella increases daily. Token economy, behavior modification, positive peer culture, guided group interaction, counseling economy, rational behavior therapy, and rational emotive therapy are some of the terms used to describe programs used currently for treatment and behavior management in juvenile detention facilities.

During the 14 years that this investigator worked in institutions, he was exposed to and participated in the utilization of each of the programs listed above. These experiences will be used in presenting the portrait in this study.

### Classroom Management

Students' attitudes, so easily colored by authority figures, enter into every aspect of learning. Poor self-concept is an outgrowth of those attitudes. Coincident positive self-expectancies and well-matched instructional opportunities work hand in hand and promote learning success (Hummel & Cecil, 1984).

Educational environment incorporates a myriad of different factors which influence not only the students' actions and reactions, but also the teacher's actions and reactions. The 1979 study by Algozzine and Curran positively correlates a teacher's level of tolerance for certain student behaviors and the behavior the student exhibits in return. Matching of attitudes toward types of behavior and behaviors of children may provide strategic educational implications especially in mainstreaming.

Fairness rates high on the scale of what students expect from a good teacher. In Applegate's study (1981) secondary students who perceived lack of support from teachers reacted negatively toward school life.

Adolescent sensitivity is often a factor in establishing the students' high expectations of the teacher's role in making school pleasant or unpleasant. Fairness, patience, understanding, and kindness play important parts in students' perceptions of teachers. Good classroom management techniques which encourage discipline in a classroom, promote fairness because a teacher does not make hasty decisions in trying to cope with an unruly class. Rules which have been established far in advance not only are good management techniques but are responsible for establishing expectations.

In looking at discipline problems, Wolfgang and Glickman (1986) have identified three schools of thought. They have labeled them Non-Interventionists, Interventionists, and Interactionalists. The major beliefs in each of these schools are:

1. Non-Interventionists

- a. in the inner person in each of us.
- b. an individual's emotions and feelings are a key to understanding development.
- c. outward behavior is a symptom of an inner cause.
- d. the individual is in control of his own future or destiny.
- e. an environment should be provided that is of the students' inner struggles.

- f. the teacher should be accepting and empathetic in the student's struggle with the inner self.

2. Interactionalists

- a. many factors are interrelated in one's development and all these are needed to understand the student.
- b. the students must be understood in terms of their total environment both external and internal.
- c. development of an individual occurs with pushes and pulls from within the individual and outside forces.
- d. limits or boundaries should be established.
- e. appropriate behavior is determined by our needs and wants and others' needs and wants in the setting.
- f. the teacher is to interact with the student, allowing freedom up to the prescribed limits.

3. Interventionists

- a. behavior you can observe is the only way of understanding a person's growth and adjustment.
- b. behavior is adjusted or changed through outside conditions.
- c. a system of conditioning (rewards and

punishment) should be implemented to ensure behavior that is acceptable.

- d. the teacher controls the environment.
- e. the teacher selects appropriate rewards and punishments to ensure the appropriate behavior by the students.
- f. inappropriate behavior is the result of using the wrong rewards or punishments.

The following are Management Techniques usually used in the classroom by individuals adhering to the above schools of thought.

- 1. Non-Interventionists
  - a. Values Clarification
  - b. Transactional Analysis
  - c. Active Listening Communication Skills
  - d. Visually Looking On
  - e. Non-Directive Questions
- 2. Interactionalists
  - a. Adlerian Psychology
  - b. Glasser Techniques
  - c. Logical-Natural Consequences
  - d. Modeling
  - e. Democratic Problem Solving
  - f. Directive Questions
- 3. Interventionists
  - a. Corporal Punishment

- b. Rewards and Punishments/Negative and Positive Reinforcement
- c. Behavior Modification Techniques
- d. Isolation
- e. Assertive Discipline

There is ample research to support the use of many of the techniques listed above. Important here, however, is the research that covers classroom management in the broader sense. The behavior management techniques used in the detention facility studied were developed for institutional use. The program was used in the school program only because the school program was a part of the total detention facility program. The research on classroom management strongly supports the elements of the program used in the facility studied, and therefore also strongly supports the use of this program in the public schools.

In a comprehensive program recently developed by the North Carolina Department of Public Instruction, (1982) the topic of student interaction is strongly addressed. The following five guidelines have been established as specific teacher behaviors to ensure effective classroom management:

1. The teacher has established a set of rules and procedures that govern the handling of routine administrative matters.



2. The teacher has established a set of rules and procedures that govern the student verbal participation and talk during different types of activities; whole-class instruction, small-group instruction, and so forth.

3. The teacher has established a set of rules and procedures that govern student movement in the classroom during different types of instructional and non-instructional activities.

4. The teacher frequently monitors the behavior of all students during whole-class, small-group, and seatwork activities and during transition between instructional activities.

5. The teacher stops inappropriate behavior promptly and consistently, yet maintains the dignity of the student.

Two investigations, one at the elementary level and another at the junior high level, strongly support the importance of establishing a set of rules and procedures that specify appropriate student behavior during classroom activities. The elementary study (Emmer, Evertson, & Anderson, 1980) involved 41 teachers in grades one through six. The junior high investigation (Emmer, 1981) included 38 teachers of English, mathematics, science, and social studies in grades six, seven, and eight. Both studies reported significant relationships between the teaching practice of having efficient procedures for handling

routine management matters and two important student outcomes---lower rates of disruptive behavior and high rates of on-task behavior.

A number of classroom management studies have demonstrated the importance of stopping inappropriate student behavior quickly and consistently (e.g., Kounin, 1970). In more recent studies it was found that quickly stopping inappropriate behavior distinguished the more effective teachers from the less effective teachers. In addition, this practice was usually associated with achievement gain in the basic skill areas (Emmer, 1981).

It should be noted that the teaching practices discussed in this section seem to be effective regardless of socio-economic level of the students. The research indicates that teachers of low-income students can be as effective at managing student conduct as teachers of middle and upper-class students. The cultural continuity between home and school may make the managerial work of teachers of some students easier, but, on the basis of the available research, it is clearly possible for teachers to be relatively successful with almost any group of students. This information is especially important in light of the fact that many teachers have a tendency to blame their ineffectiveness on the student or students. It has long been a common misconception that higher socio-economic status children are easier to manage. There may,

however, be a difference in overall impact of teacher management between elementary schools and junior high schools. The detailed results of the studies conducted similarly by Emmer (1981) at both levels seem to indicate that the consequences of ineffective management are more severe at the junior high level than at the elementary level. Since no studies employing the same general methodology have yet been conducted in a sample of high schools, no conclusion can be offered on the relative difficulty of managing student behavior at that level.

Effective classroom management consists of teacher behaviors that produce high levels of student involvement in classroom activities, minimal amounts of student behaviors that interfere with the teacher's or other students' work, and efficient use of instructional time. These criteria have the advantage of being directly observable (Emmer & Evertson, 1981, p. 342).

Classroom management should be viewed as one major dimension of effective teaching, rather than synonymous with it.

This researcher will show, in light of the research cited above, that the Intensive Learning Program (ILP) used to foster rational thinking in youth can benefit teachers in creating rational thinking patterns for them. Throughout the research investigated, it was clear that the behavior of the teacher is the single most potent,

controllable factor that affects the behavior of the student.

Chapter III will explain the use of "portraiture" as a qualitative research methodology and vindicate its use in this study.

## CHAPTER III

### METHODOLOGY AND STUDY DESIGN

#### Modes of Inquiry

In The Two Cultures and the Scientific Revolution, Sir Charles P. Snow (1959) distinguished between two opposing cultures that have evolved in the intellectual life of modern man. One culture is that of the literary intellectual and it is represented in the humanities. The other is that of the scientist represented by the sciences and technologies of our modern era. Each culture has its own characteristic common denominators--its own familiar symbols that distinguish it and keep it a world apart from the other. This distance is such that men of letters have no basis for conversation with men of science and technology.

Later, in a revised presentation, Snow (1964) mentioned the emergence of a "third culture" that had been developing in a number of fields. This third culture was a relatively recent vintage and could not be properly understood either in the category of the humanities or in the category of the sciences in the traditional sense. Its essence was uniquely different and although it resembled both traditional cultural streams, it suffered

from a lack of identity. The cultural or social sciences were the primary manifestations of this culture.

Traditionally, the social sciences have derived most of their cultural support from the natural/physical sciences so that most of its rationale has rested on its scientific character. The close identification with the scientific pole of the cultures has often assumed that the essence of its cultural phenomena is of the same "kind." There has been little understanding of the grounds on which this mixed culture rests. It is only now that some of its followers are becoming aware of the distinctiveness of their area of knowledge as having a special character and integrity all its own. It is only this systematic awareness of its human character that will generate new modes of theory and practice in the study of human-social phenomena. The inadequacy of the naturalistic orientation and of physical models becomes evident as man tries to find out more about himself.

Durkheim (1950) has stated the essence of nineteenth century Naturalism when he postulated that every object of science is a thing. His approach to the discovery of empirical knowledge triggered the beginning of classical statistical research studies in the analysis of social problems. In the Durkheimian tradition, empiricism had been equated with hypothesis-testing through carefully controlled experimental procedures involving quantifiable

sense data. He defines this approach as follows: "The subject matter of every sociological study should comprise a group of phenomena defined in advance by certain common external characteristics and all phenomena so defined should be included in this group." (Durkheim, 1950, p. 35) This research tradition has been variously labeled scientific, empirico-deductive, quantifiable, hard, objective, experimental-laboratory, etc. and embodies an elaborate research methodology that emphasizes sensitivity, precision, replicability, predictability, and control. In the social sciences this research tradition has been incorporated in mechanistic models and paradigms borrowed and adapted from the physical sciences. These models view man as an impersonal entity; a product that is to be processed in prespecified ways to meet desired criteria. Failure and success are determined by general probability estimates, indexes of efficiency, and statistical inference. Man is thus viewed collectively and typologically and not individually or uniquely.

The other major mode of inquiry (qualitative) has been built on a separate foundation altogether and like the cultural tradition which it represents, it provides a sharp contrast to the mainstream of traditional scientific culture and its quantitative study of human phenomena. In direct opposition to Durkheim, Florian Znaniecki (1934) stated:

If the scientist tried to study the cultural system in a manner analogous to his studies of the material or natural system as though it existed separately from human experience, the system would disappear and leave only a disjointed mass of natural things and processes without any similarity to the reality he had hoped to investigate. (p. 37)

Scientific data, he says, consist of things (natural objects) and values (cultural objects). These are intrinsically different in nature and must be viewed differently in the process of inquiry. Durkheim and Znaniecki have become "classics" representing the quantitative and qualitative cultural traditions respectively. Following these leads, social research has generated much valuable knowledge; primarily in the tradition of the positivist and behaviorist, but, to a lesser extent, also in the more interpretive types of inquiry of the phenomenologist, ethnomethodologist, and participant observer.

Traditional empiricism and interpretive inquiry derive scientific knowledge from their research experiences guided by professional rules for investigating human phenomena. However, the differences between the rules and their experiences are great and have extensive implications for the formulation of social theory.

#### Inner and Outer Perspectives

Bruyn (1966) gives an interesting account of the



quantitative and qualitative modes of inquiry. He goes beyond the obvious differences in methodologies to compare and contrast the foundations, assumptions, and purposes of both orientations. The essence of his comparative portrayal is summarized in what he calls the Inner vs. the Outer Perspective.

The Outer Perspective stems primarily from naturalistic philosophies and has been reflected in the methodological framework of the scientist. Science has traditionally taken an "outside" view of its subject, and through systematic observation and analysis of data, has discovered regularities that are translatable into quantifiable language. The physical and natural sciences observe the "behavior" of their subjects with a relative degree of control over them. The social scientist has carried this tradition into the study of man. He has modified the methods but has left the assumptions pretty much unchanged.

The Inner Perspective has derived primarily from idealistic philosophies and its contribution to the social sciences lies in the fact that it has added a human/cultural perspective. Its concern is more with the "inner" study of man as he derives and constructs meaning. Unlike the "outer" perspective, it attributes to man the element of consciousness that sets him apart as a unique human entity. It hopes to understand people from their

own frame of reference, it does not accept the traditional empirical tenet that the inner perspective is meaningful and understandable only when explained in terms of the outer perspective. Instead it contends that the inner perspective is meaningful in and of itself and can be interpreted only in terms of itself. What are the peculiar ways of knowing of the human/social sciences? How do they approach their subject matter? How do they inquire into the infinitely complex realm of human/social phenomena?

The emphasis of the social/human sciences is with knowing man in a human sense; i.e., with the realization that individual man is unique and that human nature is complex and ultimately undefinable. The qualitative-interpretive mode of inquiry has evolved under various methodological guises from this phenomenological premise. Qualitative-interpretive inquiry is not a clearly defined camp nor a specific theoretical framework; however, it rests on the assumption that the historical, social, purposeful, meaningful, and conscious nature of man defies simple quantification, reductionism, abstraction, and generalization. It wants to apprehend the phenomena of man.

### Phenomenology

Knowledge for the phenomenologist is apprehended

directly and intuitively through the immediacy of the human experience. Edmund Husserl (1962) the "father" of phenomenology, explained that this mode of seeking original knowledge involved the bracketing of preconceptions and the reduction of concepts to a point where the observer can obtain a pure apprehension of reality. Unlike the methodology of participant observation, phenomenology never developed in the United States as it did in Europe. The phenomenologist attempts to understand individuals by entering into their perceptual field in order to live, feel, and see life as these individuals live it, feel it, and see it as Florian Znaniecki indicates when he said: "There is one way of experiencing an object: it is to observe it personally . . . you cannot fully realize what they are doing until you do it yourself." (Znaniecki, 1934, p. 37)

The point of contention is the phenomenologists' claim--Schutz (1962) and Husserl (1962)--that man's thought is purposeful in nature. Because of this intentional nature of consciousness, all thought, scientific thought included, must be seen as grounded on human purpose. It is this intentional thought that provides us with knowledge about ourselves and our world. All knowledge, in this respect, is purposeful knowledge.

Since man is rooted in the social world as a participant, he cannot be studied as a physical object

devoid of consciousness and self-awareness. The knowing subject cannot be arbitrarily divided from the object of study. Since consciousness is intentional (i.e., it is always consciousness of something), the only meaningful inquiry into human phenomena must focus on the subject-experience rather than concentrating solely on subject or object.

### Method

In the traditional paradigm of research, the method acquires major significance and often becomes an end unto itself. The approach is implicitly imbedded in a narrowly defined methodological precision that relies on operational definitions, measurable realities, and careful statistical controls. The method, in this light, becomes the chief criterion for adequacy of the research; i.e., it seems that "the method is the message." An advantage of this attitude for researchers is the fact that the method can (and must) be clearly spelled out in relation to the content of the inquiry. Error rather than confusion is the negative consequence when the precision and carefully-controlled conditions of the cause-effect model are violated. This follows the tenet of traditional empiricism and positivism which believes that truth arises more readily from error than from confusion (Bacon, 1620).

The method, thus, becomes the vehicle for the

empirical verification of all theoretical foundations and, as such, reflects the ideas of the researchers as to what it is that they are trying to do (Madge, 1953). The method is the means through which knowledge is derived and validated. The experiment is the classical, though not the only method, of the scientific tradition. In some form or another, and regardless of technical sophistication, the experiment consists of a comparison between two sets of circumstances which ideally match each other in all respects but the one(s) manipulated by the researcher. This methodological model assumes a direct cause-effect relationship among variables, and tests its validity by the measurable effects of one variable upon another. In this manner rules are established and theories are formulated; there is little reason for confusion as to what the method is and as to what the results of the method are. The same clarity and simplicity, however, cannot always be attributed to the methods reflecting the inner perspective of inquiry.

Without belaboring the fine points of methodologies, it must be made clear that in the interpretive mode of inquiry the concepts of approach, method, and content are unavoidably interwoven and defy definitive description and clear-cut categorization.

Interpretive methodology aims for "knowing" as opposed to "knowing about" which is more akin to the outer

perspective. Lofland (1971) draws a distinction between "knowing about" which is knowing through generalizations and categorization, and "knowing" which involves direct, face-to-face interaction with individuals over a significant length of time. "Knowing about" serves the purpose of distancing the observer from what is being observed, while "knowing" is aimed at involving the observer with the observed in the fullest possible conditions of participation. The methods of participant-observation, criticism, and participatory hermeneutics all attempt to replace "knowing about" man with "knowing" man. These techniques of interpretive methodology are all grounded on the phenomenological assumptions of Husserl (1962), Schutz (1962), and Spiegelberg (1965), and on the work of sociology of knowledge of Berger and Luckman (1966), and Polanyi (1966). These assumptions reflect the concern that human/social phenomena must ultimately be studied as subjectively meaningful events. Phenomenology dwells on the intentional nature of consciousness and it is this sense of purpose which provides us with our knowledge about ourselves and the world.

The methodological implications of phenomenology require that the researcher of human phenomena who aims to understand individuals, enter into the individual's perceptual field in order to live, feel, and see life as closely as possible to the way the individual lives,

feels, and sees it.

Becker (1970) illuminates the methodological issue permeating research today. He opens his chapter on methodology with the statement that "methodology is too important to be left to methodologists" (p. 3). His contention here is that methodologists generally do not deal with the full range of questions they ought to. Instead, they become overly prescriptive in trying to influence other social scientists to adopt certain kinds of methods. In so doing, they exclude practitioners of other methods from receiving needed methodological advice. The proselytizing character of traditional methodology fails to make an adequate analysis of alternative modes of methodological discourse. The current mainstream of methodology concern clearly favors carefully-controlled quantitative methods of inquiry. This "science-as-machine-activity" has proven very useful with all controllable variables, but not so successful with the more elusive biases not amenable to reliable measurement and definition.

To this point this researcher has attempted to provide contrasting views between the qualitative and the quantitative modes of inquiry. This view has been panoramic in scope; nonetheless, through it this researcher has attempted to present a general rationale for the interpretive mode of inquiry as a needed paradigm

in the study of human phenomena.

### The Participant-Observer-Critic Vantage Point

The methodological features of participant-observation have derived largely from the phenomenological model described by Spiegelberg (1965) which focuses on the investigation of particular phenomena and general essences as they constitute themselves in consciousness.

What do the participant-observer-critics strive for in their inquiry? First, they must establish and maintain close physical proximity in a face-to-face interaction to the subjects for a significant period of time and in a variety of circumstances. Second, they must have some degree of intimacy with them. Third, they must be aware of the minutiae of everyday life which he experiences. Fourth, they must provide a significant amount of descriptive information, must rely on direct quotations and first-hand observations, and must be truthful in their reporting. Finally, they must always attempt to represent the world studied in terms that are meaningful and that maintain the integrity of the subjects.

The basic rationale of the participant-observer-critic is the belief that the best way to approximate knowing is to put oneself in the other person's shoes; i.e., to take the role of the other and try to see as he sees (Jacobs, 1970). There can only be degrees of approximation for



researchers can never completely divest themselves of their own consciousness and acquire the consciousness of another. The inherent paradox of this tenet is that no two people can ever share identical perceptual worlds because, through perceiving, they exclude themselves from the object world perceived. Bakan (1967) referred to this as the "mystery-mastery dualism." The participant-observer-critics thus can attempt to enter another person's vantage point, but must always bring their own into it. Their awareness of this dilemma is paramount to meaningful, disciplined inquiry from this vantage point. As they inquire, they shift between two different stances. In one, they become personally involved by taking the role of the individual in the particular culture studied so that they can experience their symbols. In this involved stance, they draw conclusions from their inquiry. However, to complete the inquiry they must shift stance so as to become distanced critics and balance their participant involvement with objective detachment. Through this leap of vantage points, they can provide an accurate accounting of the phenomena experienced. Both stances acknowledge that knowledge is ultimately subjective; neither claims the independent validity of external, objective knowledge independent of the researcher's experience as does the traditional empiricist. The difference between both stances is one of

degree rather than one of kind. Knowledge is subjective in both; however, the framework of the participant is more intimately personal while the framework of the distanced critic allows for a more careful rational reflection that is not possible in the immediacy of the involved vantage point. The vision of the critic is clearer, that of the participant is more vivid; both are real and the combination should provide a check against too much farsightedness or nearsightedness.

There is a need for participant-observers as well as observant-participants (teachers, students, administrators) who can step back from their own experiences and analyze and describe them critically and articulately from the vantage point of the informed critic. In this role they would serve as internal critics to the teaching process and their descriptive language could provide the dialog for bridging the worlds of the insider and the outsider in educational inquiry.

The purpose of this mode of inquiry is to arrive at the essence of the individual reality, and not to provide comprehensive explanatory principles that would dilute content for the sake of generalizability.

#### Portraiture as a Form of Inquiry

This is a qualitative, not a quantitative study. The methodology used is that of portraiture. This style of

study was used by Professor Sara Lawrence Lightfoot, Graduate School of Education, Harvard University, the 1984 winner of the American Educational Research Association Award for her book, The Good High School: Portraits of Character in Culture, (1983).

In determining style and form for this dissertation, the investigator became very frustrated, because of his perceptions of how a dissertation should "look" and "feel." Lightfoot's book was most helpful. In the first chapter of her book, she states:

I suggested we call our pieces "portraits" because I thought it would allow us a measure of freedom from the traditions and constraints of disciplined research methods, and because I hoped that our work would be defined by aesthetic, as well as empirical and analytic, dimensions. (p. 13)

She further stated that her past research training supported and enhanced the development of this emerging form of inquiry. The following passage from Lightfoot's book further explains the reason for choosing this style:

It is in this conscious expression of personal, intellectual and value positions that one sees some of the differences between "pure" research and portraiture. In the former, the investigator behaves in a counterintuitive manner, always the consummate skeptic. He tries not to let personal inclinations shape the inquiry. Portraiture, on the other hand, permits these same inclinations to flourish, admits the shaping hand of the artist, and is less concerned with anticipated problems of replication. (p. 14)

For the past 16 years this researcher has worked with young people. Four years were spent in a psychiatric

hospital children's unit, 10 years in juvenile detention facilities, and the past 3 years in a junior high school. This type of inquiry will allow the researcher to remain personally involved with his dissertation and at the same time give him the impetus to develop a document of personal and professional value.

#### Questions to Guide Portraiture

The following questions were used to guide portraiture as a research methodology:

1. How can I remind myself to be committed to holistic, complex, contextual descriptions of reality?
2. How can I reinforce my belief that environments and processes should be examined from the outsider's more distant perspective and the insider's immediate, subjective view?
3. How can I remember that "the truth" lies in the integration of various perspectives rather than in the choice of one as dominant and "objective"?
4. How can I listen to the deviant voice as an important version of "the truth" (and as a useful indicator of what the culture or social group defines as normal), not disregard it as outside of the control pattern?
5. How can I be critical and generous, allowing subjects to reveal their many dimensions and strengths, but also attempting to pierce through the smooth and correct veneers?
6. How can I primarily move from the inside out in doing portraits, search out unspoken (often unrecognized) institutional and interpersonal conflicts, listen for minority voices and deviant views, and seek to capture the essences, rather than the visible symbols, of school life (or that

of any educational setting)?

7. How can I remind myself that as I shape the portrait I will also be shaped by the context or setting? (Lightfoot, 1983, pp. 13-14)

The term "portraiture" used by Lightfoot is descriptive of a process or idea that has been tossed around the literature for the past six or seven years. In doing portraiture the researcher utilizes his life's experiences. The autobiographical information presented earlier helps the reader understand the development and shape of the portrait.

#### Biographical Information and Portraiture

In an attempt to vindicate this style of study, the investigator will make references to the works of several researchers.

Brubaker (1982), in his studies of curriculum planning states that, "It is both inevitable and desirable that the curriculum planner acquire a sensitivity to his past and present." (p. 7), This statement holds true in any educational investigation, and especially true in portraiture. Brubaker (1982) further asserted that these differing perceptions are formed in part, by their personal experiences or autobiographies (p. 9). An awareness of these events and influence create what he terms "maps." As people become aware of the maps in their heads, they use these maps, or perceptual bases, to form

the foundations upon which decisions are made.

Awareness of our autobiographies also enables us to engage in what Schutz (1962) referred to as "reciprocity of perspectives." (p. 316) Schutz pointed out that we encounter our environment from the vantage point of personal common perceptions, and this encountering becomes our "Here." This further supports the link between autobiography and portraiture.

In reference to the concept of reciprocity of perspectives Greene (1975) concluded that an educational application of this idea is possible when a student is:

enabled to recognize that reason and order may represent the culminating step in his constitution of the world; . . . [he] may realize what it is to generate the structures of the disciplines on his own initiative, against his own background awareness. (p. 314)

Brubaker (1982) asserted that the recognition of the importance of our biographies and the sharing of our biographical perspectives aids the development of a reciprocity of perspectives and enhances our ability to understand the perspectives of our colleagues.

We begin to see ourselves as a part of a network of relationships--relationships that we help to create, which in turn enhances our sense of efficacy and community. Out of our subjective perspectives emerge rationality and meaning, for perspectives blend and perceptions confirm each other. (p. 9)

Morris Massey, a professor at the University of Colorado, lectures on the topic of environmental impacts

on our values and behaviors. This investigator remembers him saying, "We are who we are because of where we were when." He asserts that our entire experience base is used over and over to shape our feelings and behaviors. What happened to us in childhood has a great impact on our perceptions today.

The autobiographical technique used by this researcher is a vital tool to help shape the course of this study. It identifies "where he was when."

Pinar and Grumet (1976) used the term "currere" to indicate a person's educational journey.

Educational experience is a process that takes on the world without appropriating that world, that projects the self into the world without dismembering that self, a process of synthesis and totalization in which all participants in the dialectic simultaneously maintain their identities and surpass themselves. (p. 36)

Pinar and Grumet suggested that the process of "currere" involves three steps: Regressive, progressive, and analytical (pp. 57-59). One goes back to early influences, experiences, and locations and engages in free-associative thinking, recalling events, people, and situations that were a part of one's history. In the progressive stage, the future is reflected upon. Career goals, desires, plans, intellectual interests are identified, and one attempts to define a relationship between one's private life and one's goals, and strengths. As the analytical stage is entered, the biographic present

is focused upon.

### Portraiture as Educational Criticism

Further justification for the methodology used can be found by an investigation into the works of Eisner (1979) who states, "this form of educational inquiry, a species of educational evaluation, is qualitative in character and takes its lead from the work that critics have done in literature, theater, film, music and visual arts" (p. 190). Eisner is talking about "Criticism" in reference to being a critic. The elements of this type of inquiry closely parallel those found in Lightfoot's "Portraiture."

A distinction between the respective contributions of the sciences and the arts to human understanding is made by Ernest Cassirer (1944) in An Essay on Man. Cassirer points out that a scientific perspective without an artistic one or an artistic perspective without a scientific one leads to monocular vision; both are necessary to have depth perception. Science focuses on what is general and common across particulars, whereas art focuses on the unique characteristics of the particulars themselves.

Eisner (1979) identified his form of qualitative inquiry as "educational criticism." He is quick to point out that by "criticism" he does not refer to the negative appraisal of something, but rather the illumination of



something's qualities so that an appraisal of its value can be made. Eisner (1979) states:

The critic's task in this view is not primarily the issuance of a judgement but rather the difficult task of "lifting the veils" that keep the eyes from seeing. (p. 191)

Doctoral programs socialize students to believe that the most dependable procedure one can use to obtain knowledge is through science and that respectable inquiry in education, at least empirical inquiry, is scientific in character. To use other methods, to employ metaphor, analogy, simile or other poetic devices, is to lack rigor. (p. 192)

Eisner (1979) identifies three aspects of educational criticism in explaining this type of qualitative research. One, the descriptive aspect of educational criticism is essentially an attempt to identify and characterize, portray, or render in language the relevant qualities of educational life. Another is the interpretive aspect of criticism in which ideas from the social sciences most frequently come into play. These ideas form the conceptual maps that enable the educational critic to account for the events that have occurred and to predict some of their consequences. Third, it is the evaluative aspects of educational criticism that most clearly distinguish the work of the educational critic from that of the social scientist. One must inevitably appraise the value of a set of circumstances if only because, in the process of description, selective perception has already been at work.

Eisner (1979) goes on to systematically investigate the areas of reliability, validity, generalization, and other matters of inference. He presents a very strong argument for the legitimacy of this qualitative method of inquiry. This "criticism" is precisely what takes place in the use of portraiture. We call on our experiences presented in autobiography and use them to help paint the portrait.

Our infatuation with performance objectives, criterion-referenced testing, competency-based education, and the so-called basics lends itself to standardization, operationalism, and behaviorism as the virtually exclusive concern of schooling. Such a focus is, I believe, far too narrow and not in the best interest of students, teachers, or the society within which students live. (Eisner, 1979, p. 269)

This style is implemented by Lightfoot in her portraits of effective high schools. Artistic approaches to research are less concerned with the discovery of truth than with the creation of meaning. "Truth implies singularity and monopoly. Meaning implies relativism and diversity." (Eisner, 1972, p. 9)

The issue is not qualitative as contrasted with quantitative, but how one approaches the educational world. It is to the artistic to which we must turn, not as a rejection of the scientific, but because with both we can achieve binocular vision. "Looking through one eye never did provide much depth of field." (Eisner, 1972, p. 10)

### Previous Research

This study also builds on previous experiences in the setting studied. During a seven year period of time (1977-1984) this researcher collected information and developed it in the form of research papers and studies submitted as essays while a student at Western Michigan University.

The study having the greatest importance in light of this dissertation is one presented as partial fulfillment of the requirements for a class in statistical analysis and research design. This paper reported the findings of a study that was conducted to evaluate the question: "Will completion of an Intensive Learning Program (ILP) increase the student's score on the Tennessee Self Concept Scale (TSCS)?" The study was unique from other similar studies in that the evaluation of this problem was conducted by using a population of adjudicated delinquents in a residential treatment program, instead of drug centers and other mental health facilities.

Each student, upon admittance to the ILP, was assigned an I.D. number, and given a self-concept test. The test consisted of one hundred self-descriptive statements which the students use to portray their own picture of themselves. Each student was then given an achievement test and the total grade placement score was

recorded in years and months. The student's race, home school district, and age at commitment (years and months) were also recorded. Upon completion of the ILP, the students were given the tests again to obtain posttest scores. Data were also collected from files of students who had been released from the ILP over the previous four years.

Despite the limitations of the study, there were several important implications for further research and for the continuation of the ILP. Examination of the pretest scores support the assumption that delinquent youth have low self-concepts. The mean score of the students for which test scores were analyzed was below the established norm of 345. In fact, the mean score for the group (309) was greater than one standard deviation (30) below the normative score for adolescents. Examination of the posttest scores indicated that the mean again was below the norm, but this time the mean score (334) for the group was much closer to the established norm.

Further study showed that the average increase in individual scores was 34 points (over one standard deviation). Another important finding was that after the pretest, only 11 of the 89 students tested scored above the mean, while the posttest scores indicated that 30 students were above the mean after completing the ILP.

These findings lend support to theories suggesting

that self-concept in delinquents can be increased, and further suggest that more concern should center on the kind of programs which might effectively change levels of self-concept among juvenile delinquents.

The portrait of the facility studied will illustrate how this increase in self-concept came about using the ILP. The program is very closely tied to the leadership of the facility director. His effective leadership style and program implementation are responsible for the program and ultimately the students' success. The program isn't something imposed on youth by staff. The entire building staff, the building itself, and the atmosphere created is the program. If the director were asked, "Who runs the program?", a likely response would be "Nobody, collectively we are the program." The program can be identified and named, but once you enter the facility you realize that the entire institutional environment is "the program." Sarason (1984) states, "The setting (in this case the facility studied) reflects what is in the air, and what is in the air derives from the existing social structure." (p. 25)

#### Foundation and Guidelines

In preparing to present this study, the investigator thoroughly examined the method of inquiry called portraiture. In an effort to maximize the validity of the

study, it was conducted and prepared using Lightfoot's insights. Through her work, Lightfoot (1983) learned several lessons about the challenges and opportunities that face a researcher engaged in portraiture, and these lessons were used, by this researcher, as guidelines and as a foundation for his work in this dissertation.

Lightfoot states that:

The investigator must be conscious of the affective dimensions of his work . . . Portraiture is a highly interactive research form, and the interactions proceed at many levels of human experience.

Second, the portraitist should give careful attention to the research aftermath and see it as within the boundaries of the methodological domain. The researcher's "exit," with all of its ritualized, negotiated elements, must be viewed with the same kind of judicious concern as "entry" into the field.

Third, there seem to be anticipative stages of reaction that people experience when they read the portraits. The first response reflects the "terror" of exposure and the pain of visibility, no matter whether the words are praising or critical. The second stage seems to combine the elements of denial and recognition.

Finally the social scientist engaged in portraiture should recognize the potential impact of the work on individuals and institutions. Portraits are not static documents or exclusive texts that are directed towards a small circle of academic colleagues. They directly touch the actors in the portraits. (pp. 377-378)

This study will take the the readers inside the institution and give them a bird's-eye view of life in the institution. Parallels will be drawn between this facility and the public schools.

Through this portrait the investigator will present elements of the treatment program used, and show how the director's leadership style influenced the effectiveness of the program.

In Chapter IV the investigator will present a detailed description of the youth management program utilized in the facility studied.

## CHAPTER IV

### YOUTH MANAGEMENT PROGRAM DESCRIPTION

#### Introduction

The Intensive Learning Program (ILP) at the Calhoun County Juvenile Home, Marshall, Michigan, was established as a result of a philosophy of developing community based treatment for juvenile offenders. It was created as a short-term residential treatment program, an alternative to longer more expensive placements in public and private institutions.

The Intensive Learning Program has proved immensely successful since its inception both in terms of providing lower cost treatment and, more importantly, in reducing recidivism rates among juvenile offenders in the county. These successful results can be attributed to the entire program design and the quality of the people working in the program.

This researcher worked for four years as a child-care attendant in a state psychiatric hospital children's unit. After leaving that position, he spent the next ten years working as a teacher in several different juvenile detention centers. During those ten years he worked with and served on committees for the Michigan Juvenile



Detention Association and the Michigan Judicial Institute. These experiences allowed him to become familiar with the different treatment and educational programs throughout the state. The program described here was and still is the best treatment program this researcher has seen. After spending the past three years as an assistant principal in a large junior high school it seems as though we've missed the boat. To put it another way, we have closed the barn door after the horse got away. The question raised is, "Why do we wait until youngsters are institutionalized to teach them the skills necessary to cope in the world of adolescents?" The youngsters who complete the Intensive Learning Program develop the skills and attitudes necessary to be successful. The elements of the ILP can and should be operating in the public schools. The training that the ILP staff receive should be experienced by every school teacher regardless of the level of their instruction. This researcher, having worked in the ILP as a teacher for seven years, brought the knowledge and experiences with him into the assistant principalship. Using the techniques and elements of the ILP has greatly increased his effectiveness in dealing with inappropriate behaviors of students. He has also been able to direct teachers in the use of the ILP skills to increase their effectiveness in the classroom.

This dissertation is an attempt to enlighten readers

and make them cognizant of an effective youth management program that can be successfully implemented in the public schools.

The Intensive Learning Program was one of the first programs in the country to implement successfully a comprehensive cognitive/behavioral approach to child management and treatment. The particular modality employed in the ILP is called Rational Behavior Training; a synthesis of Rational-Emotive Therapy and Behavior Modification.

Rational Behavior Training (RBT) has three goals. Primary among these is demonstrating to young adults how they are responsible for their own behavior. The inability or unwillingness to accept responsibility for behavior is one of the most common characteristics of delinquent youngsters. Through the use of a simple ABC approach, RBT demonstrates how each of us affects our behavior by our biased interpretations of external events. Young people are taught how to change illegal, self-defeating behavior by modifying their thoughts or beliefs about themselves and their environment.

A second major goal of RBT is teaching young adults that they may unconditionally value themselves as human beings. Again, delinquent youngsters typically view themselves negatively and falsely conclude that they are incapable of experiencing success in the "normal"

adolescent pursuits. RBT actively teaches them to distinguish between his/her behavior and his/her self. In this process, young people are encouraged to critically examine their behavior to determine its appropriateness while maintaining as constant their worth as a person.

Third, RBT teaches residents to take an active problem-solving approach to their interaction with the environment. Residents are encouraged to squarely face their problems, accept responsibility for solving them, keep self-worth constant, and do the hard work necessary to resolve the conflict.

#### The Process of ILP

To present a comprehensive view of the Intensive Learning Program, it is imperative that the issues of the program content and program process be addressed. Much of the information contained in this description of the ILP will focus on the content-related issues of institutional treatment. In other words, the content material specifies what is done in ILP. The second and equally important issue is the process of program delivery. Process-related issues address how the content of the ILP is implemented. In addition to its comprehensive and systematic nature, a hallmark of the ILP is its emphasis on both the content and process of institutional treatment.

Process-related issues have a direct impact on

program effectiveness. In particular, process evaluations focus on the skills and abilities of staff members in establishing therapeutic relationships with residents. Furthermore, program development is viewed as an essential component of a comprehensive approach to process issues. To understand fully the ILP, the following sections explain the three critical process issues: (1) the team management process, (2) the process of institutional treatment, and (3) the process of discipline. Elements of these three process concerns will constitute a common thread which is identifiable throughout the description of content-related issues.

#### The Team Management Process

The problems associated with program and staff development require the active involvement of administrators. There is no evidence to support the notion that program and staff development can exist without administrative endorsement. If these problems are to be resolved, administration must create an environment which will foster staff development. Furthermore, administrative involvement in program and staff development is the essential criterion for success, and this involvement can be accomplished in such a manner that subsequent problems are minimized.

One solution to the problem of generating an

environment conducive to program and staff development places primary emphasis on process issues. Numerous training programs advocate specific theories about what concepts are critical in program and staff development. Without debating these particular content issues, a process strategy permits administrators to structure the environment in such a way that child-care staff learn how to become more effective workers. The particular theory or content of training can then be determined by the administrator and staff in light of the specific needs within their program.

Focusing on process issues, organization development is an administrative alternative for increasing the effectiveness of program and staff development. Defined by French (1969) as a long-range attempt to improve internal problem-solving abilities and to cope with changes in the external environment, organization development is a process for integrating the needs, goals and objectives of an agency with the needs of its employees regarding involvement, growth, and development of their job.

#### The Process of Institutional Treatment

Institutional treatment is a complex and multifaceted process. Although there are numerous theories which explain the treatment process, it is critically important

that any institutional intervention reflect a systematic approach to behavior change. This approach must serve as a guide for structuring and timing the particular components of the intervention strategy. Furthermore, the approach need not be overly complex. For these reasons, the ILP treatment process can be identified by four general process phases: (1) the orientation phase, (2) the languaging phase, (3) the individual intervention phase, and (4) the evaluation phase. Due to the considerable overlap between phases, a rigid compartmentalization would be counterproductive. Therefore, elements of each phase may be identifiable throughout the treatment process.

1. Orientation Phase: The challenge of institutional treatment begins with the first contact between the juvenile and the child-care worker. This interaction initiates the orientation phase. Staff behaviors are directed toward achieving a dual purpose of orientation which includes: (a) bringing resident behavior under the control of program stimuli and (b) ensuring that the resident has a good understanding of the program expectations. Because the behavioral components of ILP address the first purpose, the explanation of the orientation phase emphasizes the understanding of program expectations.

Regardless of the method used by an institutional

program to control behaviors, the orientation process can be enhanced by clearly stating the behavioral expectations and consequences within the program. Rules and regulations should be formally articulated in program materials provided for each incoming resident. It is of primary importance that the orientation phase ensures that each resident understands all elements of the program. Depending on the skills of the individual resident, an examination of program materials should be given whenever those materials have been learned. In structuring the examination, emphasis is placed on the testing of basic concepts regarding the expectations of the program. For those residents with limited skills, the exam may be given orally by a staff member. When the exam is completed, staff review incorrect answers and/or retest until the criterion for successful completion has been met. Once this criterion has been reached, the resident may initiate active involvement in the program. The advantages to this process can be seen through a reduction in the amount of staff time required to orient residents to the program and an increased amount of evaluative data which is generated through the initial interactions with staff.

2. Language Phase: Beginning concurrently with the orientation phase, staff members focus on developing communication systems with the resident. The program materials represent the first encounter the resident will

have with the particular language used within the program. Care is taken to emphasize that initial progress within the program is a function of the languaging process. Additionally, this emphasis brings the cognitive element of control and treatment into a priority status.

Within the context of the ILP treatment modality, there are specific verbal sequences which are important to the intervention process. Therefore, staff begin to lay the groundwork for effective interventions at a later date by acquainting the resident with the languaging sequence basic to the ILP treatment strategy. Additionally, staff model and teach residents how to earn reinforcement through the language change acquisition process. While diagnoses and evaluations of behavior disorders can be accomplished through psychological assessments, greater accuracy is gained through an analysis of the resident's language. In particular, verbalizations which constitute self-assessments of the resident's behavior are critical variables in self concept.

An example of this process can be found within the initial problem-solving sessions. Using a variety of values clarification exercises, the team leader can elicit opinions from the resident regarding contrived situations. Then, by reframing and reflecting the belief in the language of the program, the team leader can model appropriate verbal sequences. In addition, interpretive



inquiries are introduced. In this manner, the team leader presents alternative values in a non-threatening fashion.

The first two phases of the process of institutional treatment focus on the group. Standard expectations, contingencies, and evaluations are placed on all new residents regardless of their situation. In the same way psychological testing measures deviation from the mean, the orientation and languaging phases also provide valuable information regarding the individual resident's problems. Through the data and evaluative information provided by these two phases, a more accurate intervention strategy can be planned.

3. Individual Intervention Phase: The essence of institutional treatment is clearly the individual intervention. Within the ILP, the effectiveness of the individual intervention can be maximized as the result of the first two phases of the process of institutional treatment. By applying a uniform criteria to all residents as delineated in the first two phases, a multitude of accurate evaluation data regarding the resident's level of skill development becomes available. Through the establishment of all normative responses for all ILP residents, new residents may be evaluated in relation to a particular institutional population. Based on the interpretation of data and information from various agencies, individual treatment plans can be established to

produce changes in resident's behaviors. Again, these treatment plans are tailored to the remediation of inappropriate behaviors observed and identified during the first two phases of the ILP interventions.

Individual and group counseling sessions, along with the behavioral components of ILP, work in harmony to produce behavior changes, increase problem-solving skills, and enhance self concept. Depending on the nature of problems presented by residents, support resources are utilized through community organizations and agencies. However, a wide variety of program activities are used to augment the intervention process. For example, skill development in psychomotor areas enables residents to compete in a variety of social and academic endeavors. These experiences increase the probability that social learning will occur and generate the potential for each resident to change his assessment of himself.

Through a systematic division or grouping of ILP personnel, teams are created which effectively deliver a variety of individual interventions. A crucial factor in successful individual interventions is a structural modification in staffing patterns and programming in order to allow for the maximum use of staff resources. Based on the program designs for the teams in ILP, the strengths of individual staff members are more easily matched with the goals, objectives, and client population needs for each

ILP team.

4. Evaluation Phase: No institutional intervention, regardless of approach, can be complete until systematic evaluation procedures are implemented. While evaluation of human behavior is basically subjective, a structured approach to program assessment allows the evaluation process to become more objective in nature. To move toward an objective process of evaluation, the ILP focuses on three areas of the institutional intervention: the resident, the staff, and the program environment.

Incarceration for the purpose of treatment implies that the institutional intervention will produce measurable changes in those behaviors which caused the incarceration. For juvenile offenders, these causal behaviors are delinquent acts. However, an intervention strategy for juvenile offenders must also address a multitude of personal, social and educational problems which are contributive factors to delinquent behaviors. Therefore, evaluation must analyze not only recidivism but also the myriad of problems associated with each juvenile offender. Furthermore, evaluation data must demonstrate positive change in concensually validated causal behaviors prior to releasing youth from the institution.

Elaborated throughout this description of the ILP are strategies for changing cognitions and behaviors. Each of these interventions contains basic criterion-referenced

standards of acceptability as derived from experience with juvenile offenders. Evaluation data are accumulated and analyzed at fixed intervals during the program. Information from these evaluation intervals serve as feedback to residents and staff regarding the effectiveness of the intervention strategy. When the data do not indicate positive change, modifications are made and implemented. To reduce the perceptual bias associated with subjective methods of evaluation, program data are reviewed by more than one staff member in order that a consensual validation of the results may be reached.

Evaluation measures for ILP residents focus on internal program issues. Psychological testings, behavioral data, and counseling progress serve as primary indicators of behavior change. Established criteria for program progress and release permit an ongoing assessment of each resident's status. Upon successful completion of these criteria, release is recommended. These data enhance the accountability of the institutional intervention and supply valuable feedback regarding program effectiveness.

The second major area of concern is staff job performance. Successful interventions are a direct function of the manner in which staff implement the program. In fact, the effectiveness of the ILP results from the competent child-care staff who incorporate

program principles and philosophy into the daily routine. Therefore, it is critical that staff receive accurate and regular feedback on their job performance.

Using both traditional and program-specific techniques, staff performance is evaluated formally and informally. Periodic written evaluations serve as the basis for merit salary increases. Relationship factors, such as, time-out/coupon ratios, social reinforcement, and communications skills, are evaluated informally on an ongoing basis. Commendations and disciplinary actions are used to document significant performance issues. When combined with a comprehensive staff training program, the net result is a staff that understands the personal and professional expectations associated with the ILP.

The final evaluation area is the program environment. As the constant factor within the institution, the environment plays a critical role in the treatment process. Knowing the inherently negative effects associated with institutions, the ILP attempts to generate an environment which is maximally therapeutic. The program, staff relationships with residents, and treatment orientation all contribute to the creation of a therapeutic milieu. These areas of social climate are periodically evaluated through the use of the Correctional Institutions Environment Scales (Moos, 1975). Data from the CIES detail strengths and weaknesses in the treatment

process.

### The Process of Discipline

Every program that provides an institutional intervention for juvenile offenders will inevitably have, as a major part of the program, a policy, procedure, and philosophy of discipline. In fact, even those institutions that do not have a systematic approach to behavior change will refer to the prescribed method of responding to resident behavior as a disciplinary program. To this extent, the ILP is not unique; however, the nature and implications of the ILP disciplinary philosophy has numerous unique components.

Of the various definitions of discipline presented in Webster's, (1967), the ILP approach most closely parallels the reference to discipline as "a training that develops self-control, character, or orderliness and efficiency." (p. 237) Thus, the ILP process of discipline goes beyond the concepts of strict control and punishment to enforce obedient behavior. This expansion of the disciplinary concept allows for a comprehensive approach to (a) generating and strengthening appropriate behaviors, (b) weakening or eliminating inappropriate behaviors, (c) safeguarding human rights within the institutional setting, (d) generating self-control, and (e) developing pro-social attitudes and values.

The central concern of the ILP process of discipline is the safeguarding of the juvenile's legal and human rights. Regardless of the nature of the offense which precipitated the commitment to the ILP, juvenile offenders have a constitutional right to due process which reduces the probability of abuse by the legal and institutional systems. Furthermore, juvenile offenders are troubled youth. Subsequently, the primary purpose of the institutional intervention is to provide help and support to enable these young people to acquire coping skills, self-control, and the ability to lead law-abiding and productive lives.

Within this context, the juvenile institution plays a critical role in changing an unhealthy personality development. Juvenile institutions must be charged with the responsibility of fostering personal growth in youth whose personality development has been marked by discouragement. Like the family, the ILP provides a multitude of learning experiences which affect, either positively or negatively, a resident's values toward himself and others. Therefore, the ILP is potentially a powerful source of encouragement for discouraged youth.

Since the ILP experience represents a prolonged social context, it is in the best interest of the juvenile offender that child-care staff possess those skills which generate healthy development in discouraged youth. The

primary skill needed for the effective staff member is an understanding of those misbehaviors associated with discouragement. Furthermore, the approach used to modify these misbehaviors constitutes a major portion of the system of discipline used in the ILP.

The identification and remediation of misbehaviors requires both sensitivity and understanding on the part of child-care workers. The effective child-care worker must observe and interpret the behavior, take corrective action, and evaluate the results of this corrective action within the social context. It is critically important that child-care workers monitor their initial reactions to a resident's misbehavior since this initial reaction may provide the goal of the misbehavior. The correction of misbehavior requires the successful implementation of three principles of discipline: (1) disinvolvement, (2) encouragement, and (3) logical consequences (Dreikurs & Grey, 1968).

1. Disinvolvement: Disinvolvement is characterized as an emotionally neutral or non-judgmental response to misbehavior. Well-intentioned, yet ill-trained staff members often react to a resident's misbehavior in a manner that strengthens and perpetuates it. Essentially, disinvolvement prevents the inadvertent reinforcement of inappropriate behavior. Beier (1966) expands this concept through his theory of disengaging responses. By



withholding an emotional reaction to misbehavior through an asocial response, a child-care worker forces the resident to present additional information in order to accomplish the goal of misbehavior. Continued interaction helps the child-care worker to more accurately assess the goal of the inappropriate behavior.

This technique is particularly effective in minimizing power struggles between residents and staff. Within the ILP setting, resident/staff conflict is almost always a lose-lose proposition for staff. If the resident can negate a directive, the staff member loses the respect of the resident; if the staff member resorts to power to enforce a directive, he likewise loses respect and reduces his effectiveness as a change agent. Neither of these results is viewed as contributing to the long-term personal growth of the resident, and both severely threaten the integrity of the therapeutic milieu within the institutional environment.

2. Encouragement: No other principle so accurately defines the ILP approach to discipline as encouragement. It is the cornerstone of effective interpersonal relationships. Defined as the ability to accept the youth as worthwhile and to assist in the development of his/her capabilities and potentials (Dreikurs & Grey, 1968), an encouraging child-care worker reinforces effort as well as outcome. Youth are valued and accepted as they are. The

child-care worker reinforces successive approximations of appropriate behaviors through encouragement and praise. Constantly separating the deed from the doer, the encouragement process provides a non-condemning focus on the behavior and the youth's effort to change that behavior. Encouragement is a necessary condition for a therapeutic milieu.

3. Logical Consequences: The concept of logical consequences connects the principles of encouragement and disinvolvement. Observing that, in the natural order of the universe, all behavior is followed by a consequence, the principle of logical consequences becomes a particularly cogent intervention for juvenile corrections because it negates the need for punishment. No other single issue has done more to discredit juvenile corrections programs, and juvenile offender treatment. Personnel must take a strong stand against the popular concept of punishment in order to safeguard both the therapeutic milieu and the integrity of the disciplinary process. The ILP approach offers a viable alternative which accomplishes discipline without sacrificing the healthy emotional growth and development of residents.

Dreikurs and Grey (1968) group consequences into three basic categories: (1) natural consequences, (2) logical consequences, and (3) punishment. Since natural consequences reflect the laws of nature and usually are

sufficient responses to behavior, logical consequences and punishment are of central concern for the ILP. The fundamental issue recognizes that these consequences are created by humans for the purpose of changing behavior. Therefore, neither logical consequences nor punishment are static concepts. Instead, they are subject to the discretion and intent of the individual staff members who use them. Whereas logical consequences can be viewed as a practical application of disinvolvement and encouragement within the disciplinary process. Punishment clearly contains strong elements of discouragement and is contradictory to the ILP approach to discipline. Furthermore, logical consequences focus on the behaviors and make no judgments about person. Additionally, the neutral delivery of logical consequences includes the principle of disinvolvement.

Beyond application to misbehaviors, logical consequences are constructed for the reinforcement and encouragement of appropriate behaviors. To the extent that positive behaviors are part of the disciplinary system, all ILP interventions are viewed with greater therapeutic value and consistency. To develop a therapeutic milieu within the institutional environment, it is necessary to (a) develop fully a system of logical consequences which addresses both positive and negative behaviors and (b) eliminate punishment.

The ILP intervention incorporates these principles into both the cognitive and behavioral components. Subsequently, the program becomes a viable set of rules which governs the behavior of staff and residents within the Juvenile Home. At its most effective moments, the Intensive Learning Program becomes a pervasive force which reduces we/they conflicts between staff and residents. Staff members are viewed by residents as those agents which enforce the program. As a result, the primary responsibility of staff members is that of assisting residents through the program. When this occurs, residents view staff members as helpers. The essence of discipline and child-care work culminates in the creation of an institutional program where the primary perspective by both staff and residents of staff interventions is to help the resident through the program.

#### Staff Training

The process related issues in the ILP are concerned with the development of program consistency. Staff training constitutes a vital component in the development of a consistent approach to treatment. Staff training becomes an administrative attempt to improve internal problem-solving while simultaneously integrating agency needs, goals, and objectives with those of the employee. The challenge for the ILP stems from selection and

development of employees so that they are more likely to succeed than fail (Jensen, 1981). For this reason, staff training is an integral part of the team management process which serves to increase professional skills and stabilize program continuity. Prior to final evaluation regarding permanent employment status, all probationary ILP employees are required to complete a series of training tapes and literature. This material is sequentially arranged according to subject matter so that the sequence reflects a systematic approach to skill development. Probationary staff review and are tested for understanding on issues of Juvenile Court process, the ILP counseling theory and applications, the ILP approach to behavior modification, emergency procedures, agency policy and procedures, ILP strategy for resident management, and reinforcement theory.

Permanent ILP employees receive a minimum of 25 hours of additional staff training annually. Staff training covers the following topic areas: (a) developmental needs of youth, (b) behavior management techniques, (c) the ILP approach to discipline, (d) basic group dynamics, (e) the child-care worker's role, (f) interpersonal communication, (g) physical restraint, and crisis intervention, and (h) first aid. This group of staff is also required to demonstrate successful understanding of the material via testing. Consequently, both groups of ILP staff are held

accountable for their professional development.

An additional component of staff training is emphasized through the team structure. Team leaders provide direction and supervision for team members on problem-solving, behavior management, group dynamics, counseling, etc. The team approach supplies ongoing feedback to staff regarding their job performance. In addition, team meetings are held weekly to provide an exchange of information regarding job performance among staff. Program and team issues are discussed, allowing the team leader to determine whether or not clarity and/or training on an issue is necessary. When required, team leaders may opt for group discussion, role playing, or formal training to remediate areas of skill deficits. Subsequently, the team approach provides an ongoing method for assessment and redirection of staff development.

In conclusion, staff training is a process-oriented component of the employee development strategy which is actively promoted and endorsed by the ILP. Numerous training tapes, lectures, and active participation through hypothetical situations (critical incidences) are the media by which training is transmitted to the ILP staff. This strategy not only promotes morale but develops consistency in program implementation, reduces burnout and tedium, and strengthens the total program.

### Token Economy

The basis of the ILP token economy is the Point System. The Point System establishes a framework for the evaluation of behavior in two broad categories: (1) those behavioral areas where all residents are expected to progress and (2) target areas that are individualized in the behavioral contract section of the point sheet.

1. Points: All residents may earn points for appropriate behavior in the designated categories on the point sheet. Points accumulate on an ongoing basis and qualify residents for various activities and privileges scheduled throughout the week. Points are also used in a contingent manner for residents to earn weeks in the program. The point sheet is made available to residents regularly during the day so that they can receive feedback on their behavior as assessed by staff. Considerable overlap is built into the system to maintain a press toward appropriate behavior. Since the basic unit of programming is one week, new point sheets are issued each Friday.

2. Coupons: Coupons are a medium by which appropriate behavior can be immediately and tangibly reinforced. They are more closely related to individualized behaviors targeted in the behavioral contract section of the point sheet. Coupons are redeemable in the Juvenile Home Store for such back-up reinforcers as: candy, pop, models,

toiletries, t-shirts, records, etc.

3. Contracts: Included on the point sheet is a behavior contract for each resident, assigned during weekly team meetings as a treatment objective for that resident for the week. If the resident is following his contract a majority of the shift, he would earn a plus (+) on the point sheet for that shift or school. If there were frequent violations and assigned time-outs for a contracted behavior, the resident would earn a minus (-) on his point sheet for that shift or school. Earning pluses is a contingency for movement in the phase system.

4. 19 Club: A resident who earns 19 pluses on his behavior contract in one week becomes a member of the prestigious 19 Club. His name is added to the club roster posted in the counselor's office. In addition, he earns a special coupon redeemable for a milk shake or two soft drinks and a ballpoint pen inscribed "ILP 19 Club."

#### Point System

The ILP point system was developed to upgrade previous evaluation systems at the Juvenile Home. As the ILP continues to evolve, modifications in the point sheet will continue to reflect new components of ILP while remaining within the point system philosophy outlined below. The distinctive features of the point system are that it outlines the areas being graded and supplies



visual proof of those grades that makeup the total amount of points. Secondly, the point system provides for greater consistency in grading between staff members.

The point system is the foundation of the token economies used at the Juvenile Home. When the token economy is operating efficiently, the use of coupons, contracts, and time-outs becomes more effective. In fact, all components of the Intensive Learning Program are tied to the point system. The point system and its philosophy permeate each of the behavioral management techniques used in the ILP.

While point systems or token economies are used in institutional settings for a variety of purposes, the ILP point system has three specific goals: (1) control, (2) positive environment, and (3) behavioral monitoring.

1. Control: The primary goal of the point system is to generate control of behaviors within the Juvenile Home. In order for treatment interventions to be successful, a minimally acceptable level of behavior is required. By establishing acceptable levels of behavior, the probability of seriously disruptive behaviors is reduced. The control component adds a sense of consistency and continuity to the daily routine for ILP residents. This consistency and control contribute to the creation of physical and psychological security for residents within the ILP.

The control components of the point system are based on standardized contingencies, i.e., expectations for behaviors which are required of every resident. These standardized contingencies relate to institutional behaviors. Recognizing that institutional programs are criticized because of the emphasis on controlling behaviors which are solely specific to an institutional environment, the standardized contingencies on the point sheet reflect an attempt to focus on behaviors which are relevant to other institutions. For example, the five areas of behavioral expectations have been evaluated by public school teachers and parents as relevant to the school setting and home environment. Therefore, the standardized contingencies in the ILP point system are viewed as institutionally general.

The five standardized contingencies on the point sheet were generated through evaluative research in the Intensive Treatment Unit. For a five month period of time, child-care workers evaluated residents' behavior through the use of a behavioral checklist which contained 25 of the most commonly occurring inappropriate institutional behaviors. At the end of five months period, the behavioral checklists were collected and evaluated.

Since the rules, regulations, and behavioral expectations were well defined, all inappropriate behavior

was categorized as a failure to follow instructions. Therefore, this classification was omitted from the checklist. Subsequently, the five most frequently occurring inappropriate behaviors were defined as: (1) being outside of an assigned area, (2) excessive and/or inappropriate talking, (3) inappropriate gestures, (4) a lack of cooperation towards staff and/or other residents, and (5) a failure to ignore the inappropriate behavior of others. Based on this research, these five behaviors became the targeted standardized contingencies for evaluating behavior under the point system.

2. Positive Environment: The second goal of the point system is to create a positive environment within ILP. If the ILP philosophy emphasizes the reinforcement of appropriate behavior, a positive environment can enhance this process. Additionally, the creation of success experiences for residents can be facilitated through a positive program environment. Finally, ILP staff view a positive environment as a moral and ethical commitment to the best interests of ILP residents. While incarceration, in and of itself, is punishing, the ILP is designed to change inappropriate behaviors and generate coping skills. Therefore, this process can be accomplished in the most efficient manner by recognizing basic human rights of the residents and refusing to subject them to a negative environment.

3. Monitoring: The third goal of the point system to provide a system of behavioral observation and recording which can be used for evaluation and documentation. Within the context of a treatment program, it is imperative that the program demonstrate a record of change in behavior. Through the accumulation of point sheets, staff have a representative picture of a resident's behavior during ILP commitment. These data can be used to evaluate treatment interventions.

The major problem with any evaluation system that relies upon its administration by more than one staff member is reliability. In other words, do fluctuations in points reflect changes in behavior by staff? To resolve this dilemma, there must be a high degree of inter-rater reliability among those staff members who use the point system. While the team concept and the grading criteria facilitate this process, research on inter-rater reliability through the use of two double blind experiments indicates a significantly positive correlation between staff members on ILP. For this reason, the point system has been viewed as highly reliable; that is, points reflect behavior.

#### Philosophy

The point system is structured around an earn/non-earn philosophy. This means that points are earned on the

basis of the level or degree of appropriate behavior demonstrated in each of the behavioral areas for each grading period. Residents start each grading period with zero points. The higher the number of points awarded for behavior during the grading period reflects the appropriateness of the behaviors during the period. This particular approach is opposed to the concept of response cost or fines. A response cost system takes away a prescribed number of points or tokens for specified inappropriate behaviors. Furthermore, research has demonstrated that the response cost point system is more efficient in changing behavior.

If response cost is a more effective system, why does ILP refuse to use the response cost system in place of the earn/non-earn philosophy? The answer is consistency. Of the possible operant consequences for behavior, the ILP clearly emphasizes the combination of reinforcement and extinction as consequences for strengthening appropriate behaviors and weakening inappropriate behaviors respectively. The Intensive Learning Program philosophy rejects the concept of punishment, with the exception of physical restraint. Through the concentration on reinforcing and extinguishing consequences, the ILP philosophy asserts that the creation of a therapeutic environment is more easily accomplished. Therefore, it makes absolutely no sense to emphasize reinforcement and

extinction as the consequences for behavior and then structure a point system which incorporates punishment (response cost or fines) as a consequence for inappropriate behavior. Just as there is a desire among adults to have life make sense, the same cognitive consistency needs to exist for institutionalized juvenile offenders. For these reasons, ILP chooses a consistent approach to behavior modification and the point system.

#### Time-Out

Punishment is defined in Webster's (1967) as "suffering, pain, or loss that serves as retribution" (p. 693). Further, punishment is commonly associated with aggressive acts motivated by anger or vindictiveness. This popular concept of punishment bears little resemblance to the behavior modification technique -- introducing a stimulus, contingent on a response, which reduces the likelihood that the response will occur again. The behavior modification concept of punishment focuses solely on reducing an undesired response and precludes the irrational blame orientation of the dictionary definition.

Time-out from positive reinforcement is designed to produce a reduction in undesired behaviors by the withdrawal of reinforcing stimuli. Thus, time-out does not fit the criteria for either definition of punishment: (1) time-out is not an aggressive act (it is a neutral

act), and (2) time-out does not introduce a stimulus event (it withdraws several, i.e., reinforcing stimuli). Time-out, then is a humanistic, rational, matter-of-fact technique for reducing inappropriate behavior. It intends neither aversiveness nor blame.

Several key features of time-out are:

1. The time-out period is contingent on the resident's behavior.

2. Time-out removes a variety of reinforcers, i.e., attention or social interaction, points, coupons, activities.

3. Time during which the resident continues to act inappropriately is not considered time-out, the time-out period begins when the resident starts acting appropriately.

4. Time-out involves removing the resident from the location of reinforcement, to the periphery of the group activity.

5. The duration of time-out is pre-determined. It lasts five minutes beyond the point when the resident began to act appropriately.

6. Time-out removes the opportunity to receive reinforcement. For ILP purposes, time out is defined as: "A 5-minute period of time, following an inappropriate response, during which positive reinforcement is no longer available, and the resident is acting appropriately."

(Roush & Steelman, 1982, p. 66)

Probably the most important feature of time-out is the assumption that the individual is under relatively high reinforcement conditions. The more reinforcing the environment, the greater the impact on inappropriate behavior when a resident is removed from that environment as a result of the behavior. Numerous studies indicate that time-out alone is a relatively ineffective discipline technique. When time-out is used in conjunction with reinforcement for appropriate alternative responses however, the combination is very effective in producing an increase in appropriate responding and a reduction in inappropriate responding. TIME-OUT + POSITIVE REINFORCEMENT = DECREASE IN INAPPROPRIATE BEHAVIOR AND INCREASE IN APPROPRIATE BEHAVIOR.

Whenever a resident earns a time-out for inappropriate behavior (for example, failure to follow directions), it is the staff member's responsibility to ensure that the alternative (following directions) is positively reinforced with a combination of points, coupons, and verbal praise. Ideally, there should be a ratio of approximately 5:1, positive reinforcement to time-out.

The observation that Juvenile Home programs are based on the principles of positive reinforcement facilitates the use of time-out as the primary disciplinary action.



The absence of positive reinforcement transforms time-out into a punishment situation which may result in control, but not in behavior change. The primary goal of effective discipline is to eliminate or reduce the undesirable behavior rather than to simply control it.

It is crucial that staff members are viewed by residents as reinforcing agents as opposed to punishing agents. This is probably the most important distinction between effective and ineffective staff members. Staff members who become viewed as punishing agents generally elicit one or more of the following five classical reactions to punishment: (1) AVOIDANCE of the punishing agent, (2) ESCAPE from the punishing agent, (3) Arousal of a FEAR response, (4) A generalized WITHDRAWAL characterized by a reduction in all responding: appropriate or inappropriate, and (5) COUNTER-AGGRESSION toward the punisher or displaced on others.

In the context of Rational-Emotive theory, several issues surface as important with regard to the sensible use of time-out. Commonly, "punishment" results from one individual irrationally damning or blaming another for an act that he "shouldn't" have committed. Obviously, "punishment" is an act resulting from the irrational idea that "people who act badly are worthless people," which conveys to the recipient the message that he is worthless. The threat value of this message is sufficient, for most

delinquent adolescents, to serve as an activating event for self-statements producing feelings of inferiority, depression, and/or anger. The following examples illustrate this process:

Activating Event = Staff punishes resident for misbehavior.

Belief about A = I must be a bad person for doing bad things.

Consequence of B = Depression, inferiority, or worthlessness.

or

A = Staff punishes resident for misbehavior.

B = He shouldn't treat me this way. I didn't do anything.

C = Anger, Counter-aggression.

In either case the recipient of the punishment is unlikely to correct the inappropriate behavior. The resident in the first example is likely to doubt his ability to act appropriately or to gain approval from others; and in the second example, the resident obviously is reacting defensively and may very well counter-aggress. Neither of these responses is therapeutically desirable since they do not produce a likelihood of behavior change. What then can staff members do to reduce the "punishing" characteristics of their interventions?

1. Supply negative contingencies in a neutral, matter-of-fact way.

2. Restore positive reinforcement as soon as possible.
3. Make no implication that the resident is a bad or unworthy person.
4. Focus on the behavior, not the person.
5. Never assign time-outs arbitrarily or capriciously; be consistent.
6. Make expectations clear. Allow the resident to know which behaviors will result in time-out.
7. Provide reinforcement for the appropriate alternative response.
8. Strive to improve your own rationality; ensure that you are not making irrational demands of residents and that you are not using time-out as an expression of your own irrational anger and/or vindictiveness.

### Counseling

Within the ILP, counseling is an essential component in the successful rehabilitation of delinquent youth, and each resident is involved in an active individual and group problem-solving counseling program throughout the commitment period. Group sessions are scheduled daily, and individual sessions are arranged with each resident on a minimum of a weekly basis. Although not mandatory, there is a strong press toward honestly facing problems and vigorously working toward practical solutions.

Both individual and group counseling take two forms depending upon the presenting problems. These forms are didactic and experiential (actual problem-solving). In the didactic sessions, the problem-solving tools of RBT are presented, explained, and discussed with residents. Homework and other exercises are assigned to facilitate learning. In the experiential sessions, residents present problems, and the problem-solving tools are used to generate solutions.

As stated earlier, the goals of the treatment modality are to (a) generate responsible behavior in youth, (b) develop self-worth as a constant, and (c) equip youth with problem-solving and coping skills. In addition, the first two goals directly address two predominant problems presented by delinquent youth: demanding and low self-esteem. To achieve these goals and address these problems, the ILP counseling strategy employs a variety of techniques for problem-solving.

The first task in counseling is to provide a basic understanding of the relationship between thinking and behavior (and emotions). Most youth fail to realize that their thinking (attitudes, beliefs, and ideas) precedes and controls their emotions and behaviors. Copious examples are used to demonstrate how this concept operates. The ILP counseling program employs the following ABC format to aid the youth in understanding how

thoughts produce emotions and behavior:

A = Something happens.

B = Thought or belief about A.

C = Emotional and behavioral reaction to B.

Many delinquent youth incorrectly view themselves as victims of the environment with little or no power to affect either control of their emotions and behavior or change in their environment. The counselor teaches the youth that events (A) do not and cannot cause any emotion or behavior (C); that our reactions are a result of our interpretations of those events (B). We may, in fact exercise an enormous amount of control over our lives by challenging and replacing the irrational, self-defeating ideas that we hold about ourselves and others. Once residents understand the relationship between thinking and feelings, the next step is to teach residents how certain types of thinking produce unhealthy emotions and inappropriate behaviors.

### Triage

Each Friday afternoon, the ILP team leaders conduct the weekly "Triage" with their respective teams. Originating from the medical reference to a conference for planning action, the Triage is the culminating event of the team concept of institutional treatment used in ILP. The Triage provides several major functions for ILP which

include but are not limited to the following: ongoing inservice training, regularly scheduled staff meetings, review and evaluation of ILP, a regularly scheduled evaluation of resident behavior, and a time for planning new intervention strategies for residents.

#### Educational Process and Program

When reporting unique elements of detention education programs throughout the Midwest, Duran (1979) cites only one program where mutual cooperation between teaching staff and institutional staff is listed as a primary factor in the success of the educational program. The program in reference is the educational component of the ILP. In spite of the inherent obstacles to collaboration generated by a dual administration of staff (teachers are contracted through the Calhoun Intermediate School District and the other ILP staff are employees of the Juvenile Court), the education program represents the successful resolution of critical issues in institutional education programs for juvenile offenders.

As described earlier, effective teamwork is based on a mutual respect among team members. Educators are included as a vital component of the ILP team process. This arrangement provides partnerships for all elements of the ILP program. Staff from counseling, education, group living, and recreation meet at the weekly triage to

evaluate each resident assigned to the team. The ongoing monitoring of treatment objectives includes educator's comments and recommendations. Special educational concerns are frequently referred to line staff for additional instruction and/or supervised homework in the evenings and on weekends.

The point system, as described earlier, is used throughout the school day by all teachers. The three defined goals of control, positive environment, and behavioral monitoring are therefore more thoroughly integrated and more widely applied into each student's daily activities, regardless of the time of day. The point system reinforces academic and cognitive growth as well as personal-social development in a wide variety of situations. Likewise, contingencies for observable behaviors in the program have been defined, and they are standardized, i.e., grades earned in the classroom settings are relevant to point sheet evaluations.

#### Aftercare

Following the period of institutional treatment in ILP, a major factor in determining a youth's success is his ability to continue the use of his newly learned problem-solving skills as he reintegrates the home, school, and community. The Aftercare Program, established in 1978, maximizes this reintegration while further

promoting satisfactory adjustment by reducing unnecessary environmental conflicts. By programming community re-entry under the supervision of the Aftercare Caseworker, the impact of institutional placement can be further extended.

In addition to assisting the youth in his return home, the Aftercare Caseworker plays a critical role in the transition back into the school and the total community. Educational testing and assessment recommendations are compiled and delivered to the public schools at the time of re-enrollment. Monitoring contracts are made at the school, and communication channels are established with each teacher, counselor, and other appropriate school personnel. This facilitates the Aftercare Program involvement in all progress and/or disciplinary actions in the school setting. If the youth is not re-enrolling in school, the Aftercare Caseworker assists the youth in job acquisition. Instructions on interviewing techniques, filling out applications, and job finding skills are provided to each youth. Counseling for these youth focuses on career planning, vocational education, and exploration of Armed Forces opportunities. Contact is maintained between Community Action Agency and other sources of employment for unemployed youth not attending school.

Chapter V will include a description of the Calhoun



County Juvenile Home and its location, along with a description of key staff members responsible for maintaining the youth management program presented in this chapter.

## CHAPTER V

### THE FACILITY AND STAFF

#### A Tour of the Facility

Calhoun County is located in Southcentral Michigan approximately one hour drive from the Michigan/Indiana state line. Battle Creek, the largest city in the county, represents the major industrial development of the area, with the majority of county land being used for agricultural purposes.

Marshall is a very small city which sits at the intersection of Interstate Highways 94 and 69. It is a historical community of about nine thousand residents. The main attraction is historical homes. Each year these homes are presented to the public during Marshall's Historic Homes Tour. The entire business section is located on one main street that has a beautiful fountain at its center. Marshall is a very old fashioned friendly town with meticulously kept homes and manicured lawns.

If you travel east out of town, you see a sign directing you north to the Calhoun County Juvenile Home. The Juvenile Home is located on a country road about one-half mile from the city limits. Because it is secluded behind gently rolling hills, most residents of Marshall

are unaware of its existence. When first arriving at the Home, one is struck with the thought that this is just a grubby little building stuck out in the country. To the left of the building is a fenced in area used for outside activities. The high chain-linked fence gives the place a jail-like appearance. Inside the fence is a small picnic area containing a dilapidated picnic table ten years behind on paint and care. To the right of the building is a baseball diamond with two benches and another picnic table, all of which reflect the same vintage as the table inside the fenced area. The baseball diamond backstop leans forward as if ready to drop like a giant net over the delinquent ball players. Just beyond the fenced in area to the left of the building runs Interstate Highway 94. The fence and the highway incite thoughts of escape.

When you step up to the building's front door, you are immediately intimidated. The heavy steel door separates the inhabitants from the freedom you have on the outside. Pushing the button beside the door sounds a buzzer indicating your presence, and while you wait, you look around and find that you're on candid camera. Mounted just under the overhang is a T.V. camera. A nervous feeling of uncertainty overwhelms you as you wait. When the door opens, it only opens a crack and the person inside asks if he/she may help you. After stating your intention, you are allowed inside.

You are let into a small waiting area approximately ten feet square with two very small offices on each of two sides. One wall of the waiting area is made of glass panels framed in steel, which at first glance seems insignificant, but upon closer examination you realize the glass is reinforced with fine steel wire. This wall separates the waiting area from the cafeteria. Unlike the benches and picnic tables on the outside, the inside is very clean and polished. The cafeteria tables are clean and all the chairs are in stacks along the walls, revealing a highly polished floor. On two opposite sides of the cafeteria are hallways that run the length of and make up the front of the building. These wings contain two of the Juvenile Home's sleeping quarters. Most of the rooms are for single occupancy with a few for two or three occupants.

When let inside the cafeteria, you begin to realize that by now you've been let through two doors and both have been locked behind you. To one side of the cafeteria is the kitchen, which is obviously well organized and spotlessly clean.

A quick tour of the sleeping quarters leaves you with a cold sick feeling in the pit of your stomach. You realize that this is indeed a place for criminals--a junior jail. Residents have rooms that are about six by eight feet. The beds are either a marble slab built into

the wall, or a steel bed bolted to the floor. The beds have a thin piece of sheet metal for springs and this is covered with a thin mattress. The doors to the rooms are made entirely of heavy steel except for a very small plexiglass window. Rooms come equipped with sink and toilet, both affixed to the wall and void of any detachable fixtures. The toilets are small and without seats. These rooms are indeed cells without bars. When residents are not actively involved in some phase of the program, they are locked in their rooms.

What has been described thus far is the extent of the building's original design. The area beyond the cafeteria was added during an expansion of the Juvenile Home at a later date.

As you leave the cafeteria, you pass down a hallway, the walls of which are made of steel framed reinforced glass panels. This hallway, known as the time warp, has a small dayroom on one side and a control room/office structure on the other. The dayroom has a T.V. mounted on a platform near the ceiling and the room has a few chairs and sofas. The control room/office contains several long tables for staff meals, mailboxes, equipment for visual and auditory monitoring of all building areas, and this area also contains the director's office.

The time warp hallway empties into a room about the size of the cafeteria. This all-purpose room is used for

eating, functions as a classroom, and serves as a recreational area for games and T.V. viewing. Off this large room is another small dayroom, two more sleeping wings and three offices. In one corner of the room is a door which leads downstairs. There are two flights of stairs leading to the basement, the first of which stops at a door to the gymnasium. The gym is small, but adequate for handling small groups of residents. The second flight of stairs ends at the entrance to a large room. This room contains two pool tables, two ping pong tables, jukebox and T.V. It is obviously the place for residents to come for fun. Off this room on one side is a hallway containing three classrooms and two testing rooms. Also off the recreation room is a small weightlifting room, staff lockerroom, school supply room, school office, and another hallway containing two more classrooms.

What had appeared to be a dingy little building from the outside proved to be not only very clean and polished, but deceptively spacious.

#### The Staff

Mrs. Saint George is a large powerful woman who runs her kitchen like a marine drill instructor. She would cook up a storm and serve meals with pride. When it came to working with fellow staff members she was usually agreeable and cooperative. She would go out of her way to

please the staff, but her interactions with residents were often very disruptive to the program. She didn't completely understand the concepts and treatment strategies of the program, and didn't care to. The students and staff understood Mrs. Saint George and tolerated her until she retired. This was a special problem because the residents worked in the kitchen, and her interactions with them were often contrary to the philosophy of the program. The staff however, did an outstanding job in making up for her weaknesses, by being available to handle problems when they occurred.

Kirk Blackwood is a team leader in charge of residents in the detention wing. These residents are kept separate from those in the treatment wing. The treatment wing residents have been placed in the Intensive Learning Program by the court. The residents in Kirk's wing are there for short periods of time while they await court placement. Youngsters in the detention wing could be there for less than a day or for several months.

Affectionately known as Captain Kirk, he would often answer the interoffice phone by saying "Kirk here" in his best Star Trek voice. This was especially humorous when someone would call upstairs from the school. A teacher would be calling up to the control room for assistance with a difficult student and the response on the phone would be "Kirk here". When this happened to me I would

say "Captain have Scotty beam this kid up, he's out of control." This type of interaction would be good for releasing stress and help us keep our sense of humor. Kirk is a slightly built man who always sports a beard. A very bright and knowledgeable man he always seemed to be able to intelligently join in any conversation. Kirk seemed content to curl up with the latest copy of Field and Stream magazine and maintain a low profile. I often felt that his full potential was not being utilized. Kirk handled his responsibilities and contributed to the effectiveness of the program.

John Burril is the Team Leader for the older residents in the Intensive Learning Program. Known as JB by everyone including his wife and parents, he is a man of constant humor. JB will keep you laughing all the time. His fantastic sense of humor made it easy for new staff members to get to know him, and it also helped him develop a good rapport with the residents. JB has incredible knowledge and insight into delinquents and their behaviors. Respected by staff and residents for his knowledge and loved by everyone for his sense of humor makes him a significant force in the Intensive Learning Program. Humor, being one of JB's greatest assets, was sometimes a deterrent to his effectiveness as a Team Leader. The weekly team meetings held of Fridays were sometimes a source of frustration for him. The team



members would often joke around and waste a lot of time, and it was difficult for JB to maintain control because of his own reputation as a jokester. He probably didn't get the respect he deserved and needed.

Will Muse is scary when you first meet him. He is a large man who has an intimidating outward appearance. His bearded face sits atop a barrel chested wide-shouldered frame. Although overweight, Will is suprisingly light on his feet and possesses the most incredible fade-away non-jump shot known to man. When you get to know Will you understand why people refer to him as a big lovable teddy bear. Like JB and Kirk, Will too is very knowledgeable and effective with youth. Dave Roush, the director of the Juvenile Home, has managed to obtain staff members of exceptional training and experience. Will is the Team Leader for the younger residents in the Intensive Learning Program. Given his knowledge and experiential background in corrections, he will probably be leaving the Juvenile Home in the near future to advance his career.

Rich Goodrich, the school principal is a small thoughtful man with enormous energy. Rich is always going 300 miles an hour. He is a sensitive man who would give you the shirt off his back, but a weak administrator. He is easily intimidated and was not considered as the instructional leader of the school by the teachers there. His inability to adequately handle difficult situations is

a weakness in the overall program of the Juvenile Home. Teachers who are ineffective and functioning inadequately, are allowed to stifle the overall effectiveness of the school program. Rich is a wonderful person whose kindness and love know no limit. In one sense Rich possesses leadership qualities. Bennis and Nanus (1985) state, "Leaders seem to retain many of the positive characteristics of the child: enthusiasm for people, spontaneity, imagination, and an unlimited capacity to learn new behavior," (p. 65). Rich indeed has all these qualities and in copious quantities. Rich cares very much for people, but this caring and tenderness get in his way. Peters and Austin, (1986) in their analysis of effective leaders, put it like this, "The best bosses are neither exclusively tough nor exclusively tender--they are both," (p. xviii). Rich is exclusively tender, an asset in life, but a deterrent to effective leadership.

In describing these staff members, I am basing my opinions and observations on personal contact with these people over a seven year period of time. Other staff members have come and gone, but these people remained a significant force in the Juvenile Home program throughout my years as a teacher there. Many other staff members play a very important part in the success of the Juvenile Home programs. The staff is a good mixture of talents and personalities. A very warm and friendly atmosphere exists

at the Home and is one of the reasons that there is little staff turnover, which contributes to the effectiveness of the program.

David W. Roush is director of the Juvenile Home; formerly director of the Intensive Treatment Unit, Spencer Youth Center, Tennessee Department of Correction, and child-care worker at the Juvenile Home. He is past-president of the Michigan Juvenile Detention Association; holds office in the National Juvenile Detention Association; and is a member of the American Correctional Association, the American Personnel and Guidance Association, and other professional associations. He holds a BA in religion from the College of Wooster and a MA and Ed.S. degrees in counseling psychology from Western Michigan University and is presently completing his doctoral degree in Criminal Justice from Michigan State University. He is certified in basic Juvenile Court processes by the Michigan Judicial Institute; is licensed by the State of Michigan as a certified social worker; has specialized training in Rational-Emotive Therapy, personnel management, and staff training; and has published several articles on institutional programming.

In essence, he is THE man in juvenile corrections. Dave is slightly overweight, of average height and has a boyish countenance. Staff members jokingly refer to him as Opie, as his youthful appearance reminds one of the

little boy on the Andy Griffith Show. Dave is very neat in appearance and dresses professionally conservative. The only time Dave is without a dress shirt and tie is when he dresses for his daily noontime basketball or volleyball game. For some reason when Dave gets dressed to go to the gym he looks like a refugee from skid row. His shirts are often torn and old and for some unknown reason he always wears his gym shorts on the outside of his sweat pants. These daily games are very important. They serve as a daily gathering of staff for fun and fellowship. Before, after and sometimes during the game there will be relaxed talk about the residents and the program. This is often the source of excellent interaction between staff members. Participating in the games are administrators, teachers, child-care workers, aftercare workers, court counselors, and probation officers. This daily social interaction is also an excellent way to work of frustration and stress.

Dave's youthful little boy appearance is deceptive. Dave could be described as a good blend of little Opie Taylor and Attila the Hun. He is soft spoken and almost always under complete control, but would not hesitate one second to jump on you if you stray from his rigid expectations. If you think you will do things your way, you will soon find yourself on the outside looking in. Dave's knowledge and expertise are unquestionable. His

presence in juvenile court and correction circles is highly respected. He runs a tight ship and is without a doubt seen by his subordinates as in complete control. If you are right Dave will back you to the wall, but if you are wrong he'll nail you to it. His self-confidence is sometimes to the point of cockiness or even brash arrogance.

Dave has clearly established personal and institutional goals. These goals are instilled in his subordinates and are the focus of the program. This is very good leadership. All the current literature on leadership indicates that organizational goals are of utmost importance to its success. His leadership commits people to action. Dave has an uncompromising commitment to young people. Bennis and Nanus (1985), in their book on leadership, state, "Nothing serves an organization better than leadership that knows what it wants, communicates those intentions, positions itself correctly, and empowers its work force." (p. 86) Dave's style of leadership accomplishes this task very nicely. The weaknesses in the other administrators of the Juvenile Home are compensated for by Dave's organizational control.

Through mandatory staff training, Dave has developed a systematic approach to skill development. He is committed to selection and development of employees so that they are more likely to succeed than fail. Dave sees

staff training as an integral part of the team management process which serves to increase professional skills and stabilize program continuity. All new employees, regardless of status or title, receives at least twenty-four hours of preservice training and orientation. This includes at a minimum: facility policies, organizational structure, programs and regulations, and eight hours of direct supervision prior to job assignment. In addition, each new employee receives a minimum of twenty-six hours of training during the probationary period of employment. This training is required if you are hired as a secretary, custodian, cook, teacher or administrator. It provides an unbelievably consistent environment and an atmosphere of togetherness. It gives the employees a strong team affiliation. Dave demands excellence from his staff and he gets it. He is a good role model for the staff; keeping himself up to date by attending conferences and training sessions provided by the national and state agencies and organizations dealing with juvenile corrections.

Peters and Austin (1986) described successful work places like this: "No excuses environments where radical decentralization frees people to make anything happen-- training is provided and extraordinary results are routinely expected." (p. xviii). Dave can be described in much the same way as Peters and Austin (1986) describe

successful leaders, "Tough as nails, uncompromising about their value system and at the same time they care deeply about and respect their people." (p. xviii). I can recall my first week of teaching in the Juvenile Home. I had just finished three years teaching in another juvenile detention center on the other side of the state. In that detention center, there were physical confrontations on a daily basis. I had to literally fight students. Much of my day was spent yelling and threatening students. The atmosphere was one of us (the staff) against them (the residents); who could be the toughest? I took this same attitude and behavior with me to the Calhoun County Juvenile Home. During my second period English class I was confronted by a student who refused to follow my directions. As in my previous teaching assignment, I decided to show this kid who was boss. I snatched him from his seat and proceeded to take him upstairs to his room. During the incident I became very verbal, and threatening in response to the student's verbal threats. We were both very loud and out of control. Dragging the student to his room made quite a scene and by the time I had the student locked in his room I was physically and emotionally spent. After becoming aware of the incident, Dave called me into his office. He calmly explained to me that he realized where I had come from and what I was used to, but that here is the Calhoun County Juvenile Home the

type of behavior I displayed would absolutely not be tolerated. He was understanding and considerate, but at the same time he made his point crystal clear.

Although Dave possesses many of the characteristics of an effective leader, he is sometimes hard and callous. His brash arrogance at times sets people back, even though his knowledge and experiences usually prove him out. His uncompromising nature lends consistency to the program, but causes some people to be intimidated. I have witnessed clashes between Dave and his subordinates, and if he seems to be losing ground or not getting through, he will quickly switch gears and become dictatorial. His defense is to become rigid and demanding. This doesn't happen often, partly because of his personal control, and partly because of the subordinates' fear of the results of confrontation. People who have worked with Dave for a long time recognize this and develop good working relationships with him. He will not be intimidated by any employee and those who have felt that they can confront him in anger, over any issue, have always come up a loser. As stated earlier, "Superb leaders are tough as nails and uncompromising about their values," (Peters & Austin, 1986, p. xviii) Dave is just that, but also stated earlier, "The best bosses are neither exclusively tough nor exclusively tender--they are both." (Peters & Austin, 1986, p. xviii) Dave has a tender side, but it is kept



hidden most of the time. He has established himself as the leader and expert, but needs to let the "Opie Taylor" in him surface.

The natural tendency of relationships whether in marriage or in business is entropy--the erosion or deterioration of sensitivity and attentiveness. A healthy relationship requires a conscious and constant fight against the forces of entropy. The Calhoun County Juvenile Home is a place where staff work for years. There is very little staff turnover, which is an asset to the effectiveness of the program, but should also be a matter of concern for administrators. These staff members must be kept on their toes. Working in the same place year after year can become boring and dull. The administration must make a special effort to be attentive to the needs of the workers. As stated above, they must work against the forces of entropy. Dave could spend more time being attentive to the special needs of his staff.

For seventeen years I have worked in institutions serving the needs of children. In those fourteen years I have not known an administrator as knowledgeable about youth and as knowledgeable about leadership. Dave is a very effective and very good leader. Time and self-improvement will make him a great leader.

Chapter VI will present ideas, suggestions, and specific guidelines to be considered in reference to

program implementation.

## CHAPTER VI

### PROGRAM IMPLEMENTATION GUIDELINES

People about to undergo change can be viewed in any one of seven ways: (1) as rational beings who can be convinced, (2) as untrained persons who can be taught, (3) as psychological beings who can be persuaded, (4) as economic beings who can be paid or unpaid, (5) as political beings who can be influenced, (6) as members of a bureaucratic system who can be compelled, and (7) as members of a profession who have professional obligations. The way a change agent chooses to view the persons for whom he or she has responsibility depends significantly on the state or condition in which he or she wants to leave them after he or she has dealt with them (Guba, 1968).

There will always be resistance to change. The faculty will divide into factions and could be seen as the "good guys" and the "bad guys." With a program such as the one described in Chapters IV and V, it is important for the person responsible for the change to be sensitive and knowledgeable about the change process. Teachers will be asked to change their attitudes and behaviors. They will be expected to put aside some of their personal beliefs and to break some long held habits.

Peters and Austin (1986) identified seven principles that exist in a strong people philosophy of management. In trying to implement a program such as the ILP in the public school, it would behoove the administration to study these seven principles.

1. People are people--not personnel.
2. People don't dislike work; help them to understand mutual objectives and they'll drive themselves to unbelievable excellence.
3. The best way to really train people is with an experienced mentor--on the job.
4. People have ego and developmental needs and they'll commit themselves only to the extent that they can see ways of satisfying these needs.
5. People cannot be truly motivated by anyone else--the door is locked from the inside.
6. People should work in a climate that is challenging, invigorating, and fun. The rewards should be related as directly as possible to performance.
7. When people are in an atmosphere of trust, they'll put themselves at risk, only through risk is there growth, reward, self-confidence, and leadership. (p. 241)

Bennis and Nanus (1985) state, "Managers are people who do things right and leaders are people who do the right thing." (p. 21)

#### The Change Process

The five classic steps in change process (awareness, interest, evaluation, trial, and adoption) have been incorporated, with minor alteration, in the planning for

curriculum improvement accomplished by several groups (Doll, 1978). These steps are important to consider because the implementation of this program must become a part of the school curriculum. Doll (1978) describes five steps used for the practical application of change process as follows:

1. Identifying a need for change: developing awareness, sensing problems, judging who is causing and who is affected by problems, classifying problems and specifying goals for proposed change.
2. Diagnosing the situation in which change is to take place: identifying favorable and unfavorable forces and assessing the strength of each force.
3. Considering alternative courses of action.
4. Testing the feasibility of a plan for change: running a trial phase during which further attempts are made to understand the situation, the people who are conducting testing are trained for it, and evaluation of outcomes and process is effected.
5. Adoption, diffusion, and adaptation of successful actions, sharing successes and failures with persons elsewhere, and returning to the first step to see whether there are now new needs for change. (p. 212)

If the ILP is to be implemented, teachers must be committed to the significance of self-improvement. Obviously some teachers are interested in improving themselves, while others show little or no interest in self-improvement. The principals directing these changes will have to be encouraging, helpful, and motivating during the entire process of change. The following ideas

(Doll, 1978) have been included for reflection and consideration when applying the change process:

1. People improve with greatest enthusiasm when they detect the desire of the stimulator of improvement to improve himself.
2. The direction of improvement should be determined cooperatively.
3. To achieve improvement, people must identify and examine each other's centrally held values.
4. People improve through experiencing.
5. Stimulators of improvement should divide their time between contacts with individuals and contact with groups.
6. People's resistance to the efforts of others to help them improve constitutes a major individual difference.
7. Whenever possible improvement should be induced in situations that involve problem solving.
8. Stimulators of improvement should try to create and maintain a climate of freedom for those with whom they work. This statement rests on the thesis that people improve when they feel free to improve.
9. Stimulators of improvement should help keep channels of communication open.
10. Power and influence should be used with great care.
11. Change should take place a little at a time, in manageable form. (Doll, 1978, pp. 200-201)

Program development describes a process not an event. Symbolized as a journey from the abstract to the concrete, programs begin with a general idea of intent and progress to the specifics of implementation.

Arriving at a plan for implementing this program in schools requires systematic analysis of the needs of students and teachers within the environment.

The process of formulating and reformulating a plan for program development need not rely on trial-and-error methods. Instead, numerous theoretical constructs apply directly to program development. The integration of these constructs can generate a systematic and comprehensive approach to programs. Although theories of program development will not be discussed here, it is important for them to be investigated and reviewed in light of individual situations where program implementation could take place.

The essence of program development is its ongoing efforts to articulate, implement, and validate those processes which will increase the therapeutic value of the social climate (Roush, 1984a).

All schools have a policy, procedure, or strategy for discipline. Even though these discipline policies range from an informal set of rules for control and obedient behaviors to a complex set of rules and consequences, the quality of school program is reflected by its approach to discipline. In other words, the value that the school places on the legal, ethical and human rights of students is expressed most directly through its system of discipline.

The fundamental premise is this: Educational environments conducive to learning do not evolve naturally within the school setting; rather, they are created. The central question now becomes: How does one create an effective educational environment? Several factors are critical to this process and will be explained in the following guidelines.

1. Successful program implementation is contingent upon clear support and endorsement by administration. The administration must reflect an attitude for program development which advocates the best interest of students. With this type of position firmly displayed, program implementation more easily enlists the full cooperation of the teaching staff.

2. The program development must radically transform the disciplinary philosophy such that it is solidly grounded in the principles of encouragement, emotional neutrality, and logical consequences. This requires a systematic formal policy which addresses both positive and negative behaviors, thereby creating a humanistic approach to behavior change which addresses the needs of all students. Formal articulation of the discipline policy focuses on the establishment of expectations which are clear and consistent.

3. The program ultimately generates a set of rules which express the social climate of the school. Dreikurs



and Grey (1968) refer to these rules as the Social Order. Specifying consequences for social behavior, individuals must learn and accept the Social Order to function effectively within the school. When the Social Order is created through program development that emphasizes the principles of encouragement, emotional neutrality, and logical consequences, the first signs of an effective school atmosphere appear. Relationships between teachers and students improve; students become more relaxed in the program; and teachers express a greater interest in appropriate behavior development than simple behavior control.

Experience indicates that several practical issues are helpful at this point in the development of the Social Order. First, student accessibility to the discipline policy reduces anxiety by making expectations a matter of public knowledge. Second, social expectations must be reasonable. To encourage students, success must be within their capabilities and skills. Third, consistency is vital to the life of the Social Order. Staff adherence to program policies and procedures is mandatory, and a definite schedule of daily events and activities enhances the consistency of the Social Order.

4. The Social Order must apply to staff behavior. That is, the rules for functioning in the school must govern not only student behavior, but also staff behavior;

specifically student/staff relations and staff/staff relations. The term "staff" here refers to all staff members of the school environment. If a specific program has been developed which establishes expected appropriate behavior then those behaviors must be modeled by all staff that the students have contact with. The teachers could do an outstanding job of modeling appropriate behavior in their classrooms, and have the entire process negated by a secretary, cafeteria worker or media aide.

In its simplest terms, the entire school staff must be held accountable for its behavior. Personnel management subsequently complements program management. When staff behaviors are appropriate, the Social Order provides reinforcement and encouragement. Conversely, when staff behaviors are inappropriate, logical consequences are provided. Very few program interventions build student trust more quickly than the certainty that staff will be held accountable for (a) abusive behaviors or (b) a failure to follow the Social Order. To contribute to the effectiveness of the program, everyone within the school setting must understand that no individual is above the Social Order.

An actual model that could be used for the implementation of the Intensive Learning Program in the public schools will be left for another study. This chapter has provided issues, ideas, and specific

guidelines to be considered in any program implementation,  
but of specific relevance with the ILP.

Chapter VII will present the summary and conclusions.

## CHAPTER VII

### SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The purpose of this study was to describe for administrators and teachers an institutional system of leadership and youth management that emphasizes the positive; a system that is founded in consistency and based on solid research.

The program, known as the Intensive Learning Program (ILP), is presently used in the Calhoun County Juvenile Home in Marshall, Michigan. It was established as a result of a philosophy of developing community based treatment for juvenile offenders.

The researcher included a professional autobiography that describe influences that helped shape his perspective and to enhance the reader's ability to understand the foundations upon which this study rest.

Through the use of portraiture the researcher presented detailed descriptions of the Intensive Learning Program, the facility studied, and the leadership style of the program's director. Also included are guidelines for developing and implementing the program in public schools.

This study demonstrates how students in the setting described were successfully managed without stress and

strain on the part of teachers and administrators.

The research presented suggests that teachers in the setting studied, with a good understanding of youth management were more effective in the classroom. The training used in conjunction with the ILP has been shown to increase staff knowledge, assure program continuity and foster work-group cohesion. If the principles are correct, then this training and knowledge of student management not only can make student/teacher interactions more effective but also can promote morale, develop consistency in program implementation, reduce burnout and tedium, and strengthen the total educational program.

The research also provided selective evidence that effectively managed students are higher achievers because reduced time spent on student management problems will result in more student and teacher time on task.

The youngsters who completed the Intensive Learning Program developed the skills and attitudes necessary to be successful. These skills and attitudes should be as easily developed in the public schools, which would in some cases negate the necessity of adolescent institutionalization. Why should we wait until the student has been adjudicated and placed in a secure detention facility before we teach him the skills necessary for survival in the world of adolescence?

If the outcomes described in the situation researched

are valid, the elements of ILP can and should be operating in the public schools. The training that the ILP staff received then should be experienced by every teacher and administrator regardless of his or her level of instruction or administration.

This researcher, having worked in the ILP as a teacher for seven years, brought the knowledge and experiences with him into the assistant principalship. By using the techniques and elements of the ILP, he has greatly increased his effectiveness in dealing with inappropriate behaviors of students. He has also been able to direct teachers in the use of the ILP skills to increase their effectiveness in the classroom. The teachers using the ILP techniques report fewer problems, less severe problems, better self-control and a more positive attitude.

The successful implementation of this program in the public schools will depend, to a great extent, on the leadership style of the administration. This study has described the leadership style of the ILP's director and pointed out its strengths and weaknesses in a specific environment.

With proper leadership, the components of the ILP can be incorporated into the current structure of public schools. Properly implemented, the program could become a viable set of rules which will govern the behavior of

staff, and residents within the school. At its most effective moments, the program could become a pervasive force which reduces conflict between staff and students, and between teachers and administrators. This could culminate in the creation of a program where the primary perspective by staff and students of staff/student interactions is to help the student grow and achieve.

Edmonds (1979), speaking on the issue of educating the poor, struck a cord in this researcher which had great impact on the decision to use a qualitative as opposed to a quantitative study. Edmonds was speaking of the poor, but his wisdom stretches beyond the issue of educating the poor, and casts a ray of light on the entire educational process. This researcher has chosen to end this study with a quotation from Edmonds, not only because what Edmonds had to say before his death had great impact on this investigator, but also because Edmonds has helped focus attention on what the educational system's primary responsibility should be-to see to the educability of all children. He put it like this:

How many effective schools would you have to see to be persuaded of the educability of all children? If your answer is more than one, then I submit that you have reasons of your own for preferring to believe that basic pupil performance derives from family background instead of school response to family background. Whether or not we will ever effectively teach the children of the poor is probably far more a matter of politics than of social science and that is as it should be.

We can, whenever and wherever we choose, successfully teach all children whose schooling is of interest to us. We already know more than we need to do that. Whether or not we do it must finally depend on how we feel about the fact that we haven't so far. (pp. 22-23)



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